CHAPTER - II

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH - ARABIC CONSTRUCTION-TYPES

A. ENGLISH CONSTRUCTION-TYPES

Constructions may be classified, according to their distributions and their constituents, into what are commonly called (in the terminology introduced by Bloomfield) Endocentric and Exocentric constructions.

The part of a form or construction (combination of free forms) which determines its function in the utterance may be termed its centre; and inflected form always contains its centre in itself. Such a form or construction is described as "Endocentric".15

1. Endocentric Construction

All languages have both endocentric and exocentric constructions. The following are the main types of English endocentric construction:16

(i) Coordinate constructions:

English language has coordinate endocentric construction of several sub-types:

(a) Additive: often but not always involves the marker 'and'. Examples are as follows:

1. men and women.
2. black and white.
3. big and small.
4. right and left.
5. pen and paper.

(b) Alternative: it involves the market 'or'. Examples are as follows:
1. boys or girls.
2. red or green.
3. John or Bill.
4. Did he come yesterday or today.
5. men or women.

(c) Appositive: both are heads and also attributes. Examples are as follows:
1. Queen Mary.
2. Professor Johnes.
3. Mister Smith.
4. Lake Michigan.
5. Miss Watkins.

(ii) Attributive constructions:
An endocentric construction involving attribute is attributive or sub-ordinate. English has a great variety of attributive constructions which are as follows:

(a) The attributes comes first, e.g.
1. big tree.
2. good boy.
3. three trees.
4. my dog.
5. city street.

(b) The head is first e.g.,
1. (The) Book on the shelf.
2. number three.
3. (The) man of whom I was speaking.
4. (I) will go there if necessary.

(c) The attribute is discontinuous and encloses the head, e.g.,
1. (The) latest volume to come out.
2. (A) better plan than yours.
3. (The) happiest man in the world.
4. Too good to be true.

(d) The head is discontinuous and encloses the attribute, e.g.,
1. can never go.
2. did not go.
3. can never forget.
4. did not see.
5. did not leave.

* parenthetical material is not part of the example, but context for clarity.
The attributive construction-type is apparently universal. Most of the sub-types found in English recur in the more familiar languages of Europe, though with differences of detail.

(iii) Genitival Construction

English has a genitival particle which marks the relationship when the possessor is a person, animal or period of time (possession), e.g. John's hat; or, we can reverse the order and attribute, and use the particle 'of', e.g. The eye of the needle, the leg of the table, the head of the dog.

2. Exocentric Construction

Any construction which is not endocentric is exocentric. In other words exocentricity is defined negatively with reference to a prior definition of endocentricity.

The variety of exocentric construction in known languages is too great for any simple classification. But by setting aside constructions of a marginal importance, and types found only in a few languages, the following three-way classification can be achieved.17
(i) Directive: ICs a director and an axis, examples are as follows:
1. in/the box.
2. on/the table.
3. if/she is good.
4. while/we were there.
5. asked me/a question.

(ii) Connective: ICs a connector and a predicate attribute, examples are as follows:
1. is/a big man.
2. is/tired.
3. became/excited.
4. lay in the corner/motionless.

(iii) Predicative: ICs a topic and a comment, examples are as follows:
1. He/is a big man.
2. she/sings beautifully.
3. I/saw him.
4. They/are boys.
5. He/is a good boy.

Directive Construction

The most widespread sub-type of directive construction found, apparently, in all languages – is the
objective type: the direction is a verb and the axis an object. Examples are as follows:

2. asked me/a question.
3. wanted/to go.

In another directive subtypes, one IC is a directive particle and the other will continue to be called an "axis". English directive constructions are of two types: prepositional and conjunctive.

Prepositional, e.g.

1. on/the table.
2. in/the box.
3. to/the garden.
4. from/the house.
5. out of/the room.

Conjunctive, e.g.

1. if/he is going.
2. while/we were there.
3. that/he is sick.
4. after/she comes.
5. before/she does.

(a) English Prepositional Constructions

The forms used as axis with English prepositions can all also occur as objects of verbs. A few English forms
function only as prepositions, e.g., against, at, from, to, with, out of. If we consider the following sentences,

1. He walked along.
2. He walked along the road.

We realize that in the former sentence, 'along' is a postposed attribute to a verb, in the latter, 'along' has the object 'the road' and the constitute is attribute to the verb. Such particles, along, behind, below, by, across, down etc., have both functions and called 'prepositional adverbs'.

English prepositional constitutes are almost always attributive to something, and usually the head precedes, e.g. 'The book/on the second shelf'. Sometimes the head follows, e.g. 'at first/he could not decide'. Predicate attribute in connective constructions count as an instance of attributive use:

He is/in the corner

"In the corner" is a predicate attribute; He is/working in the corner, the same prepositional phrase is attributive to the verb. In the first sentence 'in the corner' could be replaced by "slow", and the second by "slowly".
A very few particles function either as prepositions or as conjunctions: "Until" is a preposition in "until tomorrow" a conjunction in "until he comes".

(b) English Conjunctive Constructions:

The axis in a conjunctive construction is a clause, usually, though not always, a composite form built by a predictive construction. Since clauses and objects are different kinds of forms, prepositional and conjunctive constructions can be distinguished even when the directive particle is one that can be used in either: after, before, since, until, for, e.g.

Until he comes (conjunctive).
Until tomorrow (prepositional), because "he comes" is a clause, and "tomorrow" is not.

There are also some forms which occur as conjunctions but not as proposition. Though, although, as if, unless, whereas, if, when, whenever, while, wherever, however etc.

 Conjunctive constitutes occur as attributes, though not often as predicate attributes; as objects of verbs or prepositions; and as topics in predictive constructions.
Examples are as follows:

**As Predicate attribute -**

1. The fact/that she is sick.
2. The time/when John saw her.
3. bigger/than he is.
4. I will go if/I want to.

**As object of a verb**

1. (I) thought/that she was coming.
2. (I) don’t know/if she’s coming.
3. (I) don’t know/where she’s going.
4. (I) don’t know/why he’s coming.

**As object of a preposition**

(I waited) until/after she got here.

**As topic**

- That she is coming/is interesting.
- It is interesting/that she plans to come.

(c) **Objective constructions**

English verbs fall into various classes depending on what kind of object, if any, they can take. The following list of examples illustrates different variety of objective constructions.

1. The object is a single word or a phrase built by endocentric constructions:
1. (I) bought/robes.
2. (I) bought/a razor.
3. (I) asked/how to go.
4. (They) saw/everything there is to see.

2. The object is a verb or a phrase built by endocentric construction or both around a verb:
   1. (I) want/to sleep.
   2. (I) want/to go with him.
   3. (I) wanted/to see him during my visit.
   4. (she) stopped/singing.
   5. (she) stopped/singing the song.

3. The object is a clause.
   1. (I) can’t make/the boy understand.
   2. (I) put/the razor a way.
   3. (I) thought/that she was going.
   4. (we) elect him president.
   5. (I) got/it done.

4. The verb takes an object (a single stroke separates the two in the examples), and then the combination in turn function as a verb with another object (double vertical stroke).
   1. (I) gave/him // five dollars.
   2. (We) showed/her // how to go.
3. (I) told/him // that she does it often.
4. (we) told/her // that he makes mistakes.
5. (I) taught/him // how to write.

The role an objective constitute can play in a larger form depends not on the choice of verb or object, but on the shape of the verb. In all the examples above, the constitute is a predicate with a preceding subject (the commonest variety of topic - comment construction in English).

(ii) Connective Construction

Most English connectors are verbs but many verbs are never connectors. The commonest English connector is "be" e.g.

1. John is good.
2. John is young.
3. He is a man.
4. She is short.

In these examples the connector seems to do nothing but connect. We may therefore class it as an impure marker (like English prepositions). "As", which is not a verb, is an equally abstract connector as in "we regard him as friend".
Predicate attributes without connector appear in English in special circumstances e.g.

"I consider him one of my friends" is parallel to "I consider him to be one of my friends" but with a zero, where the latter has "to be".

In English, where connectors are usually involved, the marginal cases without them can perhaps best be described as having a zero connector.

Connective constitutes have the same range and variety of function in English as do adjective constitutes.

(iii) Predicative Constructions

The third major subtype of exocentric construction is the predicative type. The most general characterization of predicative construction is suggested by the terms "topics" and "comments", for their ICs, the speaker announces a topic and then says something about it. e.g.,

John/ran a way,
'Topic' 'comment'

In English and the familiar languages of Europe, topics are usually also subjects, and comments are predicates.
Predicative construction can be sub-divided into the following:

A. By structure, into:
   (i) Simple sentences.
   (ii) Complex sentences.
   (iii) Compound sentences.
   (iv) Compound-complex sentences.

B. By function, into:
   (i) Declarative sentences (statements).
   (ii) Imperative sentences (commands).
   (iii) Interrogative sentences (questions).
   (iv) Exclamatory sentences (exclamations).
   (v) Conditional sentences.
   (vi) Optative sentences.

Examples are as follows:
   (i) Simple sentences:
       1. I run away.
       2. He goes to school.
       3. I drink coffee.
       4. She is singing.
       5. We killed the lion.
(ii) Complex sentences:
1. I saw his photo when I was in Delhi.
2. All that glitters is not gold.
3. You said that I have read the book.
4. What you said was incorrect.
5. They rested when evening came.

(iii) Compound sentences:
1. The moon was bright and we could see our way.
2. She got here early and we left.
3. Man is guided by reason and beasts by instinct.
4. The horse raided and the rider was thrown.
5. They were fond of music and indulged in much signing.

(iv) Compound-complex sentences:
1. I saw him in Bombay when he was leaving for home with his friends.

B. By function:

(i) Declarative sentences (negative, affirmative)
Examples:
1. John went to school.
2. I speak French.
3. They failed in their efforts.
4. They did not do hard work.
5. The enemies did not capture the fort.

(ii) Imperative sentences (commands, order, threat, request, advice).

Examples:
1. Have mercy upon me. (request)
2. Leave this place at once. (command)
3. Sit down. (order)
4. Please stand in the queue. (request)
5. Do it or you shall be punished. (threat)
6. Take this medicine twice a week. (advice)

(iii) Interrogative sentences (questions).

Examples:
1. Did you go with him?
2. Are you going to school?
3. Where do you live?
4. How did you fail in the exam.?
5. Why did you punish him?

(iv) Exclamatory sentences (exclamations).

Examples:
1. What a lovely girl!
2. Alas, he is no more!
3. How cold the night is!
4. Hurrah: we have won!
5. How clean the house is!

(v) Conditional sentences.
Examples:
1. If you work hard, you will pass.
2. Unless you run fast, you can’t catch the train.
3. I can help you, if you attend the classes regularly.
4. If you drive fast, you will make accident.
5. If you come, I will take you.

(vi) Optative sentences.
Examples:
1. May God bless you with long life!
2. May you be prosperous!
3. May you live long!
4. God save the queen!
5. May you have a happy life!
B. ARABIC CONSTRUCTION-TYPES

1. Endocentric Construction

Arabic language has both endocentric and exocentric constructions. The following are the main types of Arabic endocentric construction.

1.1 Coordinate constructions:

Arabic language has coordinate construction of the following subtypes:

(a) Additive: often involves the marker /wa/ 'and'. Examples are as follows:
   1. /waladun wa bintun/ 'A boy and girl'.
   2. /?aswadun wa ?ahmarun/ 'A black and red'.
   3. /?aynun wa u?unun/ 'An eye and an ear'.
   4. /qalamun wa waraqatun/ 'A pen and paper'.
   5. /ba:bun wa ?ubba:kun/ 'A door and window'.
   6. /yami:nan wa yasa:ran/ 'Right and left'.

(b) Alternative: It involves the marker /?aw/ or /?am/ 'or'. Examples are as follows:
   1. /kalban ?am (?aw) ?ayran/ 'A dog or a bird'.
   2. /saxi:ran ?am (?aw) kabi:ran/ 'Small or large'.
   3. /rajulan ?am (?aw) ?imra?atan/ 'A man or woman'.
   4. /?ahaba ?aba:han ?am (?aw) masa:?an/
      'He went in the morning or evening'.

5. /Sa:ba:ni ?am (?aw) Ėaju:za:ni/
   'Two young men or two old men'.
6. /waladan ?aw (?am) bintan/ 'A boy or a girl'.
7. /?i?na:ni ?am (?aw) Əala:əa/ 'Two or three'.
8. /?insa:nan ?am (?aw) hayawa:nun/ 'A man or an animal'.

(c) Appositive: both ICs are heads and also attributes
   e.g.
   1. /al-maliku-ul-hasan/ 'The King Hasan'.
   2. /al-malikatu ilizabiθ/ 'The queen Elizabeth'.
   3. /al?ami:ratu zaynab/ 'The princess Zaynab'.
   4. /al-qa:?idu uš-šuja:Eu/ 'The brave leader'.
   5. /alÈabdu ul-?aswadu/ 'The black slave'.

(ii) Attributive Constructions:

   Unlike in most of the languages, the attribute, in
   Arabic, is placed always after the head. The adjective
   must be in full agreement with the noun it qualifies in
   number, gender and case. If the noun is indefinite, the
   objective must be indefinite and vice-versa. Examples are
   as follows:
   1. /waladun qasi:run/ 'A short boy'.
   2. /kita:bun qadi:mun/ 'An old book'.
   3. /ta:jirun ?ami:num/ 'An honest merchant'.

4. /annahru ul-qasi:run/ 'The small river'.
5. /kita:ba:ni jadi:da:ni/ 'Two new books'.
7. /rajula:ni ?aswada:ni/ 'Two black men'.
8. /θawbun mumazaqun/ 'A torn garment'.
10. /marazun Xati:run/ 'A fatal disease'.

(iii) Genitive Constructions

If the head or attribute used as a noun is governed by a genitive it is thereby defined and can’t take the definite article, only the last noun can have the definite article. e.g.,

/mifta:hu ba:bi-l-bayti/
The key of the door of the house.

A word can’t be separated from the following genitive, the Arabs considering a phrase such as /kita:bu-l-waladi/ 'the boy’s book', to be grammatically one word. Thus any adjective qualifying ‘book’ must follow the genitive and receive the definite article. e.g.,

1. /kita:bu-l-waladi-l-kabi:ru/
   'the boy’s big book'.

   when two or more nouns are governed by the same
The genitive then the genitive must follow the first noun e.g.,

2. /qalamu-t-tilmi:jī wa kita:buhu/
'The pen of the pupil and his book'.

If two words governed by the same genitive have a close logical connection both may precede the genitive as in the following phrase:

3. /ismu wa Einwa:nu ur-rajuli/
'The man's name and address'.

Masculine sound plurals and masculine and feminine duals lose their final /n/ when governed by a genitive e.g.,

4. /falla:hu: Miṣra/ 'The peasants (nom.) of Egypt'.
5. /falla:hi: Miṣra/ 'The peasants (Acc.& gen.) of Egypt'.
6. /mudarrisu:-l-madrasati/ 'The teachers (nom.) of the school'.
7. /najja:ri:-l-madinati/ 'The carpenters (Acc.& gen.) of the city'.
8. /Eyana:-l-binti/ 'The girl's two eyes'.

2. Exocentric Construction: it can be classified as follows:
(i) Directive Construction

(a) Objective type

The most widespread subtype of directive construction—found, apparently, in all languages—is the objective type. The direction is a verb and the axis an object. Examples are as follows:

1. /zarabtu kalban/ 'I beat/a dog'.
2. /ra?aytu rajulan/ 'I saw/a man'.
4. /Yaktubu -d-darsa/ 'He writes/the lesson'.
5. /Šaribtu -l-ma:?a/ 'I drank/the water'.

In other directive subtypes, one IC is a directive particle and the other continues to be called an 'axis'. Arabic directive particles are of two types: Prepositional and Conjunctive.

(b) Prepositional Constructions

In Arabic prepositions govern the genitive. Examples are as follows:

1. /šala:sundu:qin/ 'On/a box'.
2. /mina-l-bayti/ 'From/the house'.
3. /šala: aŠ-Šajarati/ 'On the tree'.
4. /fi:-S-su:qi/ 'In the market'.
5. /hatta:as-Šaba:hi/ 'Till/the morning'.

The two prepositions /bi/ 'in, with', /and /li/ 'to, for', are written connected to the words they govern, e.g.

6. /bi-l-qahirati/ 'In/Cairo'.
7. /bi-S-sikinati/ 'With/knife'.
8. /li-?Ahmadi/ 'To, for/ Ahmed'.
9. /li-l-waladi/ 'For, to/the boy'.
10. /li-l-layyli/ 'For/the night'.

There is another type of preposition which is really a noun of place or time in the accusative, e.g.,

11. /inda-l-maliki/ 'With/the king'.
12. /tahta at-tawilati/ 'Under/the table'.
13. /fasqa-as-satih/ 'Above/the roof'.
14. /bada-l-?intifaili/ 'After/the function'.
15. /qabla-l-magribi/ 'Before/the evening'.

(c) Conjunctive Construction

In Arabic sentences are continually linked by the use of the following conjunctive particles:

/wa/, /fa/, /?umma/, /hatta/ /lakin/, /la:/, /bal/, /?am/ and /?aw/.

Examples are as follows:
1. /lijahaba zaydun wa ālamrun/
   'Zaid and Amr went'.

   'The minister stood-up, So I stood up'.

3. /ja:?a ar-rajulu: ōumma raḥala/
   'The man came then left'.

4. /ma:ta an-na:su hatta-l-mulu:ku/
   'The people died even the kings'.

5. /laysa zaydun ka:tiban lakin ōa:ūirun/  
   'Zaid is not a writer but a poet'.

6. /zaydun ka:tibun la: ōa:ūirun/
   'Zaid is a writer not a poet'.

7. /qa:ma zaydun bal ōumarun/
   'Zaid didn't stand-up, It was Omer who stood-up'.

   'My brother is in the house or at school?'

9. /?axini: ma:?an ?aw zaytan/
   'Give me water or oil'.

Conjunction in Arabic is of two types:

1. /ōatf ul-baya:n/  
   علَفُ الْبَيْانُ

2. /ōatf un-nasq/  
   عَلَفُ النَّقْلُ
Examples are as follows:

11. /jaː qaː saːhibuka ?Ahmadun/
   'Your friend Ahmed came'.

12. /Jahaba ?axi:ka zaydun/
   'Your brother Zaid went'.

13. /Labisat θawban hari:ran/
   'She wore a silk garment'.

/Catf un-nasq/, ^  
involves the conjunctive particle /wa/ 'and' between the two heads. Examples are as follows:

14. /jaː?ani Muḥammadun wa hasanun/
   'Muḥammad and Hasan came to me'.

15. /Jahabat al-?ami:ratu wa xa:dimatuha: /
   'The queen and her servant went'.

16. /jaː qaː ar-Vajulu wa hima:ruhu/
   'The man and his donkey came'.

If the two nouns or heads joined together by a conjunction, as in the above mentioned examples, the first is called 'bearing on the conjunct'; and the last is called 'the conjunct'.

If a word be conjoined to a pronoun in the genitive case, the genitive particle or preposition must be repeated, e.g.,
(ii) Predicative Construction

The second major subtype of exocentric construction is the predicative type. The most general characterization of predicative construction is suggested by the terms /musnad/ 'M', predicate, and /musnad-?ilayhi/ 'MI', subject. The subject is either a noun (substantive or expressed pronoun), or a pronoun implied in the verb; the predicate is a noun (substantive or adjective), a verb (or preposition with its genitive: an adverb). Examples are as follows:

1. /zaydun Ėa:limun/ 'Zaid is a learned'
   (Subj.)   (Pre.)

2. /?anta , Šari:fun/ 'Thou are noble'.
   (Subj.)   (Pre.)

3. /Alla:hu hwa al-haq/ 'God is the truth'.
   (Subj.)   (Pre.)

4. /ma:ta ?Ahmadun/ 'Ahmed is dead'.
   (Pre.)   (Subj.)

5. /Jahaba/ 'he went'.

The pronoun /a/ /huwa/ 3rd pers. sg. masc. is a subject implied in the verb.
Predicative construction can be subdivided as follows:

1. According to structure, the sentence in Arabic is divided into two kinds which are as follows:
   (a) Nominal Sentence
   (b) Verbal Sentence

Every sentence commencing with a subject is called by the Arab grammarians, المُتَنَمَّ، 'a nominal sentence', whether the following predicate be a noun or a preposition, and the word it governs (attaching and attached), or a verb, is a matter of indifferences. Examples are as follows:

1. /zaydun ša:cirun/ 'Zaid is a poet'
2. /su6a:dun fi-l-haqli/ 'Suad is in the field'.
3. /waladun sajji:run/ 'A little boy'.
4. /rajulun wasi:mun/ 'A handsome man'.

A sentence of which the predicate is a verb preceding the subject is called a 'verbal sentence', consisting of a verb which includes both the subject and the predicate. Examples are as follows:
5. /na:ma Hasanun/ 'Hasan slept'.
6. /ja:?at Hindun/ 'Hind came'.
7. /jala sa ar-rija:lu/ 'The men sat down'.
8. /ma:ta ?Ahmadun/ 'Ahmed died'.
9. /jahaba Zaydun/ 'Zaid went'.
10. /qatala al-waladu ul-kalba/ 'The boy killed the dog'.

The subject of a nominal sentence is called /al-n mubtada/, and its predicate /al-xabar/. Whereas, the subject of the verbal sentence is called /al-fa:til/ ('the doer or the agent) and its predicate /al-fi6l/ (the action or a verb).

A sentence of which the predicate is a proposition with a genitive indicating a place is called (a local sentence). Any sentence commencing with a preposition and its genitive as predicate may be called prepositional phrase, examples are as follows:
11. /fi-l-masjidi ?Ahmadun/ 'In the mosque is Ahmed (not any one else)/.
12. /?Ahmadun fi-l-masjidi/ 'Ahmed is in the mosque (not elsewhere)'.
13. /zaydun na:?imun/ 'Zaid is sleeping'.
14. /zaydun ma:ta/ 'Zaid is dead'.

Here the last two sentences are nominal sentences. A sentence of this kind, consisting of subject and a complete
verbal sentence. The agent of which is contained in the verb itself may be called 'compound'. e.g.,

/ʔanta qulta/  'You have said'.

In such sentence the pronoun which is contained in the verb takes the place of the noun which stands before the compound verbal sentence and constitutes its subject.

Arabic sentences, according to function, are classified as follows:¹⁹

1. Negative and Prohibited Sentences

Examples are as follows:

1. /la: takun saxi:fan/  'Don't be silly'.
2. /la:tašrab al-qahwa/  'Don't drink the coffee'.
3. /ja:?a Hasanun la: za:hikan wa-la: ba:kiyan/  'Hasan came neither laughing nor weeping'.
4. /Ian taktuba ad-darsa/  'You will never write the lesson'
5. /Ian ʔaŷhaba ʔa:niyatan/  'I will never go again'.
6. /lam ʔaktub lahu: risa:latan/  'I didn't write him a letter'.
7. /lam ʔaŷhab maʕahu/  'I did not go with him'.

2. Interrogative Sentences

This type of sentences is formed by the placement of the interrogative pronouns before nouns, verbs and personal pronouns. When a sentence begins with an interrogative pronoun the question marks /?a/ or /hal/ can't be used, e.g.,

1. /hal yahabta ?ila-l-madrasati?/
   'Did you go to school?'.

2. /?ataSrabu ma:?an ?am hali:ban?/
   'Would you like to drink water or milk?'

3. /man ?anta?/  'Who are you?'

4. /mata: ji?ta?/  'When did you come?'

5. /ma:^a qulta?/  'What did you say?'

6. /?ayyu rajulin / 'Which man?'

7. /?ayna taskun?/  'Where do you live?'

8. /kam turi:d?/  'How many (how much) do you want?'

3. Relative Sentences

Relative sentences are formed by means of the relative pronouns. The relative pronoun is called 'relative noun' and the following 'relation'. Relative sentences are treated in Arabic as quite independent and as coordinate with the main sentence. Examples are as follows:
1. /ar-rajulu ulla^yi: zarabahu/
   'The man who beat him'

2. /al-bintu ullahi ra?ayy tuha:/
   'The girl whom you saw'.

3. /alwaladu ulla^yi: a^tayytuhu kita:ban/
   'The boy to whom you gave a book'.

4. /ar-rajulu ulla^yi: qatalu:hu/
   'The man whom they killed'.

5. /ar-rajulu ulla^yi: ja:?a ma^ji: /
   'The man who came with me'.

6. /ar-rajulu ulla^yi: katabnâ: lahu xiTQ:ban/
   'The man to whom we wrote a letter'.

4. Copulative Sentences

   Examples are as follows;

1. /hazartu ?ani:wa ya^qu:bun/
   'I and Jacob were present'

2. /qataltu:wa qataltu:ha: /
   'I killed him and her. I killed both of them'.

3. /?ahaba huwa wa ?asha:ba:hu/
   'He and his companions went'

   'My father and mother (parents) came'.
5. /Sa:fartu layylan wa naha:ran/
   'I travelled day and night'.

6. /i$jhab ?anta wa ?axi:ka/
   'You and your brother go'.

7. /?i$taraytu la$hman wa samakan/
   'I bought meat and fish'.

8. /ra?aytuka wa zaydan/
   'I saw thee and Zaid'.

5. Adversative Sentences

   The principal adversative in Arabic are /la:/, /lakin/, /lakinna/ and /bal/. /la:/ is opposed to a preceding affirmative proposition or command, e.g.

1. /?Ahmadun ?a:limun la: ja:hilun/
   'Ahmad is a learned not an ignorant'.

2. /ja:?:ani zaydun la: ?amrun/
   'Zaid came to me not Amr'.

3. /xu$ ?Ahmad an la: Mu$hammadan/
   'Take Ahmed not Mohammad'.

/lakin/ and /lakinna/ are said to be used to rectify or amend the previous statement. /lakin/ or /lakinna/ is more particularly opposed to a preceding negative proposition or a prohibition. Examples are as follows:
4. /ja:?ani: zaydun lakinna ʕamran lam yaji:?a/
   'Zaid came to me, but Amr did not'.
5. /la: tazrib zaydan lakin ʕamran/
   'Dont beat Zaid but Amr'.

/bal/ is opposed either to a preceding affirmative or
negative proposition, a command or prohibition. Examples
are as follows:

6. /qa:ma zaydun bal ?Ahmadun/
   'Zaid stood-up, not so, it was Ahmed'.
7. /ma: Yahaba yaʕqu:bun bal Hasanun/
   'Jacob did not go, but Hasan'.
8. /la: tazrib ʕamran bal zaydan/
   'Don't beat Amr, but Zaid'.

6. Restrictive Sentences

The particle /ʔinnama:/, compounded of /ʔin/ 'if' and
/ma:/ 'not', is one of the most important in the language
as a particle of limitation or restriction. It stands at
the beginning, not always, of a proposition, and the word
or portion of the proposition which is affected by it, and
is always placed, for emphasis' sake. Examples are as
follows:

1. /ʔinnama: nahnu mustahzi?u:na/
   'We are only mocking (at them)'.


2. /?innama: as-sadaqa:tu li-i-fuqara?:i/  
'The obligatory alms are only for poor'.

'Thou gives birth in thy life to only one or two'.

7. Exceptional Sentences

The most important of the exceptional particles is /?illa:/ compounded of /?in/ if, and /la:/ 'not'. Some of the rules for the construction of the exception are as follows: (a) when the thing excepted /almustaQna:/ is placed after the general term, and proposition containing that term is affirmative, the exception is put in the accusative, e.g.,

'The boys came except Ahmed'.

2. /marrartu bi-l-qawmi ?illa: zaydan/  
'I passed by the people, except Zaid'.

(b) When the thing excepted is placed after the general term, and the proposition containing that term is negative, or interrogative implying a negative, the exception is put in the same case with the general term, e.g.,
   'No one came to me except Suad'.
   'there is no deity other than God'.
5. /ma: marrartu bi-?ahdin ?illa: zaydin/
   'I passed by nobody except Zaid'.
   'And who forgives the sins Save God'.

   Sometimes the place of /al-musta0na: minhu/ 'that from
which the exception is made' is occupied by a preposition
or its complement /al-ja:r wa-l-majru:r/, or the alike,
which does not, however, affect the construction of the
exception. e.g.,
   'There is no one in the house, but Amr'.
   'No one came to me, but Zaid'.

8. Conditional or Hypothetical Sentences

   Conditional sentences consist of two parts: a
protasis or sentence containing the condition, and a
podosis or the main sentence (answer). The protasis is
introduced by the conjunctions /?in, ?i^ya:/, if the
condition is regarded as possible or likely; by /law/, if it is purely hypothetical or impossible.

In both parts of the conditional sentences the perfect or the jussive may be used in the sense of the English present or future.

There are, thus, four possible cases:

1. /?in Ỹahaba Ỹahabtu maʕahu/
   'If he goes, I shall go with him'.

2. /?in yafhab Ỹahabtu maʕahu/
   'If he goes I shall go with him'.

3. /?in yaʕhaba zaydun ʔaʕhabu maʕahu/
   'If Zaid goes, I shall go with him'.

4. /?in yaʕhab zaidun ʔaʕhab maʕahu/
   'If Zaid goes I shall go with him'.

If the protasis begins with /?in/, then the podasis must be introduced by /fa/, if it is a nominal sentence. e.g.,

5. /?in ?ara:da ʔa:lika fa-1-ʔamru lahu/
   'If he wishes that, then the matter is his' (i.e. to do as he likes).

If it is a verbal sentence expressing wish, command, or prohibition (the verb being in the imperative or jussive). e.g.,
6. /śin rajaʕta ʕan qawlika ʔamartu bi qatlika/
   'If you go back on your word, I shall kill you'.
   'If all mankind were my slaves, I would set you free'.
8. /law kuntu malikan la zawwajtuka ʔbni:ti: /
   'If I were a king I would get you married with my daughter'.

8. Optative Sentences
   The optative is expressed by the perfect of the verb although, in modern Arabic the imperfect is more commonly used. e.g.,
1. /rahimahu ul-ʔa:hu/  
   'May God have mercy on him!'.
2. /ba:ra:ka-Alla:hu fi:ka!/  
   'May God bless you!'.
3. /salla Alla:hu ʕaliyhi wa sallam!/  
   'May God bless him (prophet Muhammed) and give him peace!'.
4. /raziya Alla:h ʕanhu!/  
   'May God be pleased with him!'.
5. /layta aš-ʕaba:bu yaʕu:du yawman!/  
   'Would that youth were to return one day!'
C. COMPARISON AND CONTRAST

The comparison and contrast of English and Arabic, reveal the fact that both the languages have almost the same types and subtypes of endocentric construction. They differ in the use of markers or connectors and the arrangement of the lexical items, in the utterances.

Arabic employs the additive marker /wa/, and the alternative markers /?aw, ?am/ corresponding to English 'and' and , or', e.g. /waladun wa bintun/ 'boy and girl'; /kabi:run ?aw saçi:ran/ 'big or small'; /?a:jilan ?aw ?a:jilan/ 'sooner or later'.

The attributes in Arabic follow the heads. Whereas English attributes precede the heads, e.g.,

An honest man (attribute+head)
/rajulun sa:diqun/ (head+attribute)

The attribute in Arabic should be in full agreement with the noun it modifies in number, gender and case, e.g.,

/waladun saçi:run/ 'A small boy'
/walada:ni saçi:ra:ni/ 'Two small boys'
/?awla:dun siçi:a:run/ 'Small boys'
/bintun jamia:latun/ 'A beautiful girl'
In Arabic if the noun is indefinite, i.e. The presence of the nunation /n/ at the end, the adjective must be indefinite and vice-versa, e.g.,

/rajulun wasi:mun/ 'A smart man'
/ar-rajulu ul wasi:mu/ 'The smart man'

The order and attribute of the English possessive particle (s) can be reversed and the particle (of) can be used. e.g.,

The needle's eye = 'The eye of the needle'
The table's leg = 'The leg of the table'

Arabic differs from English in the employment of the genitive. It imploys different rules. These rules are as follows:

(a) If the head or attribute used as a noun is governed by a genitive, it is thereby definite and can't take the definite article, only the last noun can have the definite article e.g.

/mifta:hu-ba:bi-l-bayti/ 'The key of the door of the house'
(b) A word can't be separated from the following genitive, The Arabs considering a phrase such as /kita:bu-l-waladi/ 'The boy's book', to be grammatically one word. Thus any adjective qualifying the 'book' must follow the genitive and receive the definite article, viz. /kita:bu-l-waladi-l-kabi:ru/ 'The boy's big book'

(c) When two or more nouns are governed by the same genitive then the genitive must follow the first noun. e.g., /qalamu-t-tilmi:jì wa kita:buhu/ 'The pen of the pupil and his book'

(d) If two words governed by the same genitive have a close logical connection, both may precede the genitive as in the following phrase, /ismu wa Einwa:nu ur-rajuli/ 'The man's name and address'

(e) Masculine sound plurals and masculine and feminine duals lose their final /-n/ when governed by a genitive e.g. /mußalimu:-l-madrasati/ 'The teacher's (nom.) of the school' /layna:-l-binti/ 'The girl's two eyes'.
Arabic exocentric construction differ from that of English in the predicative type. Arabic sentence structures may be divided into:

(1) The nominal sentence (usually also referred to as the equational sentence or Ø copula or /al-jumlatu-l-ismiyah).

(2) The verbal sentence (al-jumlatu-l-fi‘liyyah).

The nominal sentence consists of two parts: a topic or subject (mubtada?) and a comment or predicate (xabar). The topic is usually a noun or pronoun; and the comment is a nominal, pronominal, and adverbial or prepositional phrase.

When the comment of an equational sentence is an adverb or apropositional phrase and there is an indefinite subject, the normal word order is comment+topic. e.g. '(there is) a book on the table' = /إلا: 'وَإِلَى الْكِتَابَ (The table, definite gen.) /كَيْبَ (a book, indefinite nom.)

With non-present time reference, one finds verbal sentences. The verb 'to be', /كا:نا/ in the perfect /يَاكَوْنُ (in the imperfect, occurs in the past and future,
governs, like any other verb, the accusative case. The Arab grammarians also put the verb /kaysa/ 'not to be' in the same verbal category (called 'the sisters of Ka:na') along with /ma:za:la/ 'continue to be', /ma:έada/ 'no longer to be', /ka:da/ 'be on the verge of'. The following verbs all mean 'to become': /sa:ra/, /?asbaha/, /ba:ta/, /?amsa:/ and /?zha:/, and the verbs meaning 'remain' such as /baqiya/ also belong to this verbal category.

To illustrate, consider that /ka:na ta:jran/ 'he was a merchant' has /ta:jiran/ in the indefinite accusative singular, the plural of which is /ka:nu tujja:ran/, ('tujja:r' is the broken plural of ta:jir'), /ka:na ta:jirun/ 'there was a merchant'.

The negative of the equational sentence is made by the irregular verb /laysa/ 'not to be', which governs the predicate in the accusative (as any other verb does), e.g. /maktuβatu·l·ja:mεati bina:?un jadi:dun/ /laysat maktuβatu·l·ja:mεati bina:?un jadi:dan/

The second person of the jussive mood preceded by the particle /la:/ 'do not' gives the idea of prohibition in Arabic. e.g., /la: ta?hab/ 'don't go.
English sentence structure may be divided into: simple, complex, compound and compound-complex; consisting of two parts: i.e. subject (topic) and predicate (comment).

English predicative construction, according to function, can be divided into: declarative, imperative, interrogative, exclamatory, conditional and optative.

While Arabic sentences can be divided into: negative and prohibited (by means of negative particles), interrogative (by means of interrogative pronouns), relative (by mean, of relative pronouns), copulative (by means of /wa/ 'and'), adversative (by means of /la:/, /lakin/, /lakinna/ and /bal/, restrictive (by means of /?innama: /, exceptive (by using the particle /?illa:/ 'except'), conditional (by using the particles /?in, /?a:/ 'if', or hypothetical (by using /law/ if the condition is purely hypothetical or impossible), and optative sentences.

English affirmative sentences are made negative by the use of 'not', whereas, Arabic uses the particle /lam/ 'did not' for the perfect and /lan/ 'will never' for the future.

Arabic languages uses a non-verbal construction for some verbs in English, the most notable of which is 'have'. Arabic uses the preposition /li:/ 'to, for', or /?indi:/
'with' for 'have', e.g. /li:hisanun/ or /ita:nkuna:n/ 'I have a horse', /ita:nkunka:n/ 'I have a dog'.

English is more analytical than is Arabic. In English one needs three words to say 'I met him'. In Arabic one word renders the whole sentence /qa:baltuhu/. English again needs three words, to say 'he has gone', Arabic /3'ahaba/.