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+ 7

The Last Lecture

Linguistics

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AYDI 2022/T1

LECTURE NO. 5

02.07.2022

HELLO EVERYONE!

Last time we talked about the word order variation in English.

We covered them all. They are:

(Thematization, It- clefts, Wh- clefts, Passive, There- construction and Extraposition).

Let's move now to Arabic:

2.2.2 Arabic

Arabic is more flexible in fronting and postponement but in English, it's more difficult but we can.

In Arabic, we have two major types of sentences: Verbal and Nominal; We are going to discuss each one separately.

(a) Verbal Sentence al-jumlatu l-fi'liyya-a "الجملة الفعلية"

The fixed word order in a verbal sentence is V(erb) S(ubject) O(bject). As we said Arabic allows flexibility in word order, so we can move as we want so we can start with Verb, Subject, object...etc.

For example:

- VSO: qaatalnaaka "قاتلناك" We fought you.

Another example:

- nuqaatiluka "نقاتلك" We fight you.

Also, another example:

- VOS: rahimahu llaahu "رحمه الله" May God have mercy on him!

Here, we have anaphoric.

We have in Arabic what we call "تقديم المفعول وجوباً" or "جوازاً" which is obligatory fronting and optional fronting of the adjective.

Reordering of sentence elements typically involves the fronting of the object, which is either obligatory wujuuban "وجوباً" or optional jawaazan "جوازاً".

The former is typically syntactically motivated, while the latter is most often rhetorically/pragmatically motivated.

Variation in the ordering of sentence elements is dependent on syntactic, stylistic, rhetorical and contextual factors such as focus, interest and importance. It has been discussed by both grammarians (e.g., Siibawayhi) and rhetoricians/semanticists (e.g., Al-Jurjaani). They call it 'at-taqdiim التقديم fronting' and 'at-ta'xiir التأخير postponement'. They maintain that important/emphasized elements are brought into focus by

being fronted or postponed for the purpose of 'al-ihtimaam wa l-'inaaya(t) والغاية الإهتمام Reordering of sentence elements typically involves the fronting of the object, which is either obligatory wujuuban وجوباً or optional jawaazan جوازاً. The former is typically syntactically motivated, while the latter is most often rhetorically/pragmatically motivated. The following two sections discuss obligatory and optional fronting of the object.

The following two sections discuss the obligatory and optional fronting of the object.

(i) Obligatory Fronting of the Object :taqdiimu l-maf'uuli wujuuban.

The obligatory fronting of the object entails the postponement of the agent alfaa' il "الفاعل".

This occurs in the following cases:

(1) If the object is an enclitic pronoun: (ḍammirun muttaṣil) ضمير متصل and the subject is a noun.

For example:

'allamanii muhammadun il-hisaaba محمد علي محمد الصافي "عظمتي محمد أتت" Mohammad taught me mathematics.

Here we have a noun and we have obligatory shift and we have an independent suffix which the unmarked sentence "علم محمد أتت".

The object here is "أتت" which is a noun, for this reason, we moved it to the beginning. (it's obligatory).

Another example is without a noun:

"أتت نعتي"

In this sentence, there's no noun, but here is a prominent enclitic pronoun but it's not enclitic. As you remember we talked about enclitic pronouns which are "ضمائر الرفع المتصلة". Now we are talking about (independent suffix) "ضمائر النصب المتصلة" which are related to the object. We moved the object to the beginning. Here, we are focusing but obligatory "وجوباً".

In English only optional. In Arabic, whether we want to emphasize or not we have to move the object to the beginning without taking any consideration of emphasizing.

(2) If the subject is restricted by the restrictive particle: 'illaa "إلا" 'except'. "وهي ما ندعوها المستثنى بإلا".

For an example of restrictive particle:

ما كتب الدرس إلا علي "maa kataba d-darsa 'illaa 'aliyyun"

We have two ways of translation:

The one who wrote the lesson is Ali.

Ali is the only one who wrote the lesson.

We can't return the sentence to be unmarked because it's restricted by "إلى". In this case, the subject is restricted by the restrictive particle "إلى", so the object is obligatory fronting.

(3) If the subject has a possessive suffix that is anaphoric with the object.

For example:

waqqa' al-kitaaba mu'allifuhu "وقع الكتاب مؤلفه" The book was signed by its author.

Here, the subject as a pronominal pronoun that is anaphoric with the object which is "الكتاب". It's like if I say "وقع مؤلفه الكتاب". Did you understand? This what we call "أي ضمير يعود على المفعول".

(4) If the object is an interrogative particle.

For example:

Man zaara r-rajulu "من زار الرجل؟" Whom did the man visit?

We say "زار الرجل احمد". This object is "من" which is called an interrogative particle.

Now if the object is preceded by 'ammaa "أما", for example:

'ammaa 'aliyyan fa-laa tas'al "أما علياً فلا تسأل" As for Ali, don't ask him.

When the subject is preceded by "أما", you have to move the object to the beginning.

(5) If the object is an independent pronoun (ḍamiir naṣb muttaṣil)

نصب ضمير متصل

For example:

Only Thee do we worship. إياك نعبد. 'iyyaaka na'budu

Pay attention that any pronoun is related to the object, it is an independent suffix or pronoun; it is the same, and any pronoun is related to the subject, it is an enclitic pronoun. This is what we call equivalent.

Let's move to the second type of fronting: The optional one:

(ii) Optional Fronting of the Object taqdiimu l-maf'uuli jawaazan
"تقديم المفعول جوازا"

Besides the above syntactic conditions for the obligatory fronting of the object, Arabic allows optional fronting of the object as one of a number of syntactic strategies employed for focusing on a certain element. These

strategies can be used for encoding pragmatic information and marking information structure.

As you remember that in English we have only optional; there's no obligatory.

Al-Jurjaani (Have you heard about him?), unlike grammarians, went further to say that reordering of sentence elements serves a discursal function and depends on the context of the situation. He adopted the principle "important elements first". To illustrate his point.

If I say, for example:

qatala l-khaarijiyya zaydun (VOS) "قتل الخارجي زيد" It's al-Khaarijiy that Zayd killed.

Here, he focuses on what the object al-khaarijiyya "الخارجي" and not on the one who killed him. As we know we always do this process in order to focus; just for pragmatic purposes, not for syntactic or any other reasons.

In other words, the highlighted object, which carries primary stress, represents New information, while the subject represents Given information.

The sentence can serve as an answer to the following question:

"من قتل زيد؟" man qatala Zaydun - Who did Zayd kill? Al-khaarijiyya "الخارجي",

In this case, the focusing on the al-khaarijiyya "الخارجي".

Another example is:

qaṣiīdatan kataba l-mu'allimu "قصيدة كتب المعلم" It's a poem that the teacher wrote.

Al-Jurjaani concluded that the choice between nominal and verbal sentences depends on the context of discourse, the structure of the utterance, and the intended meaning. In the following sentence, the object appears in a sentence-initial position

It's (OVS) starting from the object and we want to focus on "قصيدة".

The fronting of the object allows the speaker/writer to assign greater prominence to it. The fronted object, which retains its accusative case ending, represents NEW information.

Now starting the verb:

kataba qaṣiīdatan 'aliyyun "كتب قصيدة علي لا قصة"

In the sentence above, the object is fronted, that it appears before the agent. The fronted, focused object represents new information and can be produced in response to a previous statement that includes another piece of information with regard to the thing that Ali wrote. In other words, the

fronting of the object achieves a contrastive effect.

In the following sentence, the object precedes the subject because the latter is heavy and long. The principle of end-weight applies here:

”نظم القصيدة شاعرٌ من شعراء اليمن“ **nazama l-qaṣiidata shaa'irun min shu'araa'i l-yamani - The poem was written by one of the poets of Yemen.**

In this sentence, the fronted object is Given information, while the heavy subject is New information ”شاعر من شعراء اليمن“. The whole phrase is a subject. But here we shifted the object ”القصيدة“ to the beginning because the subject is long and preferable to be shifted.

We notice that Arabic exploits word order to encode pragmatic information and mark information structure. Besides its use of word order, Arabic also employs the particles 'inna ”إن“ and 'ammaa ”أما“ ...fa ”ف“...as topic markers that signal "givenness" or "contrast".

”نظم علي القصيدة“

This sentence is unmarked.

According to the sentence above, here are examples to show emphasizing the object.

First one:

”إن علياً هو الذي نظم“ **-inna 'aliyyan huwa l-laadhī nazama l-qaṣiidata** ”القصيدة“ **It's Ali who wrote the poem.**

Second one:

”علي هو الذي نظم القصيدة“ **- 'aliyyun huwa l-ladhī nazama l-qaṣiidata** **Ali is the one who wrote the poem.**

Third one:

”الذي نظم القصيدة هو علي“ **alladhī nazama l-aṣiidata huwa 'aliyyun - The one who wrote the poem is Ali.**

The above variants could be used in response to the following statement produced by another speaker.

”القصيدة محمد نظم“ **Nazama muhammadun l-qaṣiidata** **Mohammad wrote the poem.**

The function of the variants is to correct the information conveyed by the other speaker.

Now let us move to the Nominal sentence:

”الاسمية الجملة“ **(b) Nominal Sentence al-jumlatu il-'ismiyya-a**

The basic word order in a nominal sentence is: Topic and Comment.

A Comment may be sentential or non-sentential.

A sentential Comment may be either nominal or verbal.

- Topic + Nominal Sentence:

al-waladu 'abuuhu mudarrisun "الولدُ أبوهُ مدرِّسٌ" **As for the boy, his father is a teacher.**

"الولد" is the topic and "أبوه مدرِّسٌ" is the comment. In the above sentence, the Comment is itself a sentence that consists of a Topic and a Comment. We notice that the Topic of the sentential Comment contains a pronominal enclitic that is anaphoric with the first Topic.

- Topic + Verbal Sentence:

al-kittabu 'allafathu zaynabu "الكتابُ ألفتهُ زينبٌ" **As for the book, it was written by Zaynab.**

The topic is a verbal sentence, "هائه" "ألفته" is anaphoric.

Word order reversal in nominal sentences involves fronting of the Comment, which may be either obligatory (syntactically motivated) or optional (rhetorically and pragmatically motivated).

The following two sections discuss these two types of comment fronting.

(i) Obligatory Fronting of the Comment:

taqdiimu l-khabari wujuuban "تقديم الخبر وجوباً"

The Comment is obligatorily fronted in the following instances:

For example:

- 'indii kitaabun "عندي كتابٌ" (adverbial Comment + Topic) **I have a book.**

The topic "كتابٌ" is indefinite and the comment is an adverbial or a prepositional phrase so the comment must be fronted.

(1) If the Comment is an adverbial or a prepositional phrase and the Topic is indefinite.

Next example:

- fi d-daari rajulun "في الحديقة رجلٌ" (Prepositional Phrase Comment + Topic) **There is a man in the house.**

This is a prepositional phrase comment. You have to move the comment to the beginning.

(2) If the Comment is an interrogative particle.

For example:

- maa haadhaa? "ما هذا؟" - **What is this?**

Here, this comment "هذا" is an interrogative particle.

(3) If the Topic has a possessive pronominal suffix that is anaphoric with the Comment.

When the topic has the same case for the object.

For example:

- fi d-daari ṣaahibuhaa "في الدار صاحبها" - The owner of the house is in the house.

We should note here that fronting must be used to avoid cataphora because if the Topic ṣaahibuhaa "صاحبها" occupied in the initial position, it would be difficult to identify the referent of the enclitic -haa "ها".

If we say "صاحبها في الدار", we will not understand anything. In this case, if you didn't shift, you will not convey the meaning.

(4) If the Comment is restricted by the restrictive particles 'illaa لا:

For example:

" ما ذكي إلا علي - ma dhakiyyun 'illaa 'aliyyun

The one who is clever is Ali. /Ali is the clever one. /Ali is the only one who is clever.

The topic is after the restrictive particle. So we front the comment to the beginning.

Of course, fronting and postponement are for pragmatic purposes. But when it comes to obligatory, it is related to Syntax. We will repeat them quickly.

- 1- If the object is an independent pronoun/ suffix.
- 2- If the object is an interrogative particle.
- 3- If the subject has a possessive suffix that is anaphoric with the object.
- 4- If the subject is restricted by the restrictive particle.

Let us move to the optional fronting of the comment:

(ii) Optional Fronting of the Comment taqdiimu l-khabari jawaazan "تقديم الخبر جوازاً":

Optional which means for pragmatic purposes. We focus on the comment.

For example:

"في البيت بنتٌ -

The Comment, which is a place adverbial, is fronted to signal contrast. If someone says that the girl is in the house, and the speaker decides to correct him/her, he/she produces the above sentence to assert that the girl is in the garden, not in the house.

- The comment is an adverbial phrase and the topic is definite because if it is indefinite, it will be obligatory.

You correct me saying: "لا، في الحديقة"، so you said that in order to

correct me focusing on the word “الحديقة”:

fi l-ḥadiiqati l-bintu “في الحديقة البنت” - **In the garden is the girl.**

Topic and Comment are in the nominative case (حالة الرفع).

(iii) The grammatical functions of the Topic and Comment change (annaskh النسخ) when the following defective verbs and particles are added to the nominal sentence.

We have particles that change the grammatical function, for example, was and its sisters “كان وأخواتها”.

(1) **kaana** “كان” was and its sisters:

’aşbaḥa “أصبح”, ’aḍḥa “أضحى”, ’amsaa “أمسى”, baata “بات”, ṣaara “صار”, zalla “ظل”, laysa “ليس”, maa bariḥa “ما برح”, maa fati’a “ما فتى”, maa nfakka “ما انفك”, maa bari’a “ما برىء”, maa zaala “ما زال”, maa daama “ما دام” When these defective verbs appear in a nominal sentence, they change the Topic into ’ism (noun) in the nominative and the Comment into khabar (predicate) in the accusative.

For example:

- **’aliyyun ghaa’ibun** - **Ali is absent.** “علي غائب”.

This is Topic and Comment, but After adding kaana to make the sentence in the past:

- **kaana ’aliyyun ghaa’iban** - **Ali was absent.** “كان علي غائباً”.

Here, we have a change which the Comment become Khabar in the accusative case “حالة النصب”, but the Topic still in the nominative case “حالة الرفع”.

The cases of the words:

- **Nominative case** “حالة الرفع”.

- **Accusative case** “حالة النصب”.

- **Genitive case** “حالة الجر”.

- The second type of grammatical function is propinquity “أفعال المقاربة”.

(2) **Verbs of propinquity** “المقاربة” **al-muqaaraba-a:**

’awshaka “أوشك”. For example:

- “أوشك الدرس أن ينتهي”.

Here, the comment becomes a verbal sentence and the sentence is marked.

When we want to return the sentence to become unmarked without “أوشك”, it becomes:

- “انتهى الدرس”.

Here, we are talking about a verbal sentence, not a nominal sentence.

To change the sentence to become nominal we must say:

- "الدرس انتهى" -

"الدرس" is the Topic and "انتهى" is the Comment which is "verbal sentence".

When we add "أوشك", the tense of the sentence is changed to become in the present.

Now let us talk about verbs of the beginning "أفعال الم شروع":
shara'a "شروع".

- "شروع الولد يكتب الدرس" shara'a 1-'awlaadu yaktubuuna d-darsa - The boys started to write the lesson.

We notice that the predicate of these verbs is a verbal sentence.

Now we have ar-rajaa "الرجاء" expectation:

'asaa "عسى". For example:

- "عسى الأزيمة أن تتكشف".

The unmarked sentence is "الأزيمة انكشفت". The Comment is a "verbal sentence".

When we add Propinquity, beginning, or expectation, the tense of the sentence is changed to become in the present, in which the change is only in the comment.

*We talked about the grammatical function in which the change is on the Comment, now let us talk about the Topic.

(3) 'inna "إن" and its sisters:

'anna "أن", laakinna "لكن", ka'anna "كأن", layta "ليت", la'alla "لعل".

For example:

- "العلم مفيد". Science is beneficial.

If we add "إن":

- "إن العلم مفيد" 'inna l-'ilma mufiidun - Science is beneficial.

The topic becomes an accusative case and the Comment is a nominative case.

In English, is the same but the difference is only in Arabic.

(4) Verbs of a-zann "الظن" doubt i.e. zanna "ظن", and al-yaqiin "اليقين" 'certainty' i.e. 'alima "علم":

For example:

The unmarked sentence is "زيد حاضر". When we add "ظن":

- "ظننت زيدا حاضراً" zanantu zaydan haadiran - I thought Zayd was present.

In both doubt and certainty, the Topic and Comment become in the

accusative case.

We notice that the verb in the above sentence is followed by object zaydan “زيداً” and object complement haadiran “حاضراً”.

As you remember, someone asked me about what is the difference between “SVOO” and “SVOC”?

In our example “ظننتُ زيداً حاضراً” which one of them this example belongs to?

It's a Complement. When there's a relation between those two words, it's “VOC”, otherwise, it's “VOO”.

For example:

- “أعطيت الولد هديةً”.

Is there any relation between “الولد” and “هدية”?

There's no relation so it's “SVOO”.

Another example:

- “زيدٌ حاضراً”.

In this example, there's a relation between “زيدٌ” and “حاضراً”, so it's “SVC”.

CONTRAST

In terms of word order, in English, when you want to move, it's always optional but in Arabic, it's obligatory except in some cases.

Arabic is more flexible than English in terms of word order. Because we can change the word order.

The following differences hold between English and Arabic word order:

First, English word order is relatively more fixed than Arabic word order.

Second, Unlike English, Arabic employs both obligatory and optional word order reversals.

Third, in Arabic pragmatic information is encoded mainly by word order, while in English it is encoded mainly by various syntactic constructions, such as Thematisation, Clefting, Passives, There-constructions, and Extraposition.

Pay attention that in the exam you will face questions that are related to transliteration.

Do you know what's the meaning of " **transliteration**"?

Student: To write Arabic words using English letters.

Instructor: exactly. So pay attention to that please.
Ok let's try to transliterate this sentence "ظننت زيدا حاضرا". Give me your answers.

Student: *zanantu zayd haadiran*

Instructor: No pay attention to the word "Zaydan".

Student: *zanantu zaydon haaderan*

Instructor: No it's not right

Student: *zanantu zaydan haadiran*

Instructor: Yes, this is correct. Is it difficult?

Student: Yes

Instructor: No it's not. Let's try another sentence: "قتل الخارجي زيد"

Student: *qatala al-khaarijya zaydon*

Instructor: No "l-khaarijiyya" is written with double "y".

Student: *qatala l-khaarijiyya zaydun*

Instructor: Yes, correct. This is all for today. Is everything clear?

Student: Yes

Instructor: Ok, we still have two more lectures.

Next lecture we will start with Phonetics; It's so interesting.

Thank You

LECTURE NO. 6

23.07.2022

HELLO EVERYONE!

Last time we talked about the word order variation in Arabic.

We said that in terms of word order, in English, when you want to move, it's always optional but in Arabic, it's obligatory except in some cases.

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Second, Unlike English, Arabic employs both obligatory and optional word order reversals.

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I want to ask you: What is the difference between Phonology and Phonetics?

Student: Phonetics is related to the way we pronounce a sound.

Instructor: Ok, in fact **Phonetics** is related to articulatory, acoustics (which refers to the pitch, stress, and length of the sound), and auditory (which refers to the hearing organs, and it studies everything related to the sounds).

Phonology is a science which studies the sound system in a particular language.

This is the criterion for describing **English consonants**:

1. Voicing.

- Voiceless: [p] [t] [k] [f] [θ] [s] [ʃ] [tʃ]..

- Voiced: [b] [d] [g] [v] [ð] [z] [ʒ] [dʒ]...

2. Place or articulation. (The place from the sound is pronounced)

3. Manner or articulation. (The way in the sound is pronounced)

Place of articulation is related to the horizontal dimension. Manner of articulation is related to the vertical dimension and how you produce the sound.

The place of articulation dimension specifies where in the vocal tract the constriction is. The voicing parameter specifies whether the vocal folds are vibrating. The manner of articulation dimension is essentially everything else, for example, the sound [p], how it is produced.

INTRODUCTION

Phonology is the study of the sound system of a particular language. Phonetics, in contrast, is the study of the articulatory, auditory and acoustic properties of speech sounds.

Phonology subsumes the study of the segmental phonemes of a language (consonants and vowels) and the suprasegmental—features—that are superimposed on the segmental phonemes. These features are length, stress, and rhythm.

This lecture deals with the phonological systems of both English and Arabic. It is organized as follows:

*Section 2 presents a description of the English and Arabic consonants.

*Section 3 presents a description of the vowels and diphthongs of the two languages.

2.2 CONSONANTS

Consonants are usually described in terms of the manner of articulation, place of articulation and voicing. Throughout the description of the English and Arabic.

Consonants emphasis will be placed on those phonetic and phonological features that are specific to each of the two languages

2.2.1 English Consonants

English has twenty-four consonants. Table 1.

Table 1: English Consonants

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p -			t -		k -	
	b +			d +		g +	
Affricate					tʃ -		
					dʒ +		
Fricative		f -	θ -	s -	ʃ -		h -
		v +	ð +	z +	ʒ +		
Nasals	m +			n +		ŋ	
Liquids				l, r +			
Glides	w +				j +		

DESCRIPTION OF CONSONANTS

Consonant	Voicing	Place of Articulation	Manner of Articulation	
1	ϕ	Voiceless	Bilabial	Plosive
2	β	Voiced	Bilabial	Plosive
3	θ	Voiceless	Alveolar	Plosive
4	ð	Voiced	Alveolar	Plosive
5	κ	Voiceless	Velar	Plosive
6	γ	Voiced	Velar	Plosive
7	ʃ	Voiceless	Labiodental	Fricative
8	ʒ	Voiced	Labiodental	Fricative
9	θ	Voiceless	Dental	Fricative
10	ð	Voiced	Dental	Fricative
11	ʃ	Voiceless	Alveolar	Fricative
12	ʒ	Voiced	Alveolar	Fricative

13	ʃ	Voiceless	Palatal	Fricative
14	ʒ	Voiced	Palatal	Fricative
15	ɥ	Voiceless	Glottal	Fricative
16	tʃ	Voiceless	Palatal	Affricate
17	dʒ	Voiced	Palatal	Affricate
18	ʍ	Voiced	Bilabial	Nasal
19	ŋ	Voiced	Alveolar	Nasal
20	ŋ	Voiced	Velar	Nasal
21	ɫ	Voiced	Alveolar	Lateral/liquid
22	ɹ	Voiced	Alveolar	Liquid
23	w	Voiced	Bilabial	Glide
24	ɹ	Voiced	Palatal	Glide

- Narrow transcription: /pen/
- Broad transcription: [p^hen]

(a) Aspiration

English voiceless stops /p, t, k/ are aspirated when they occur word-initially in stressed syllables. Aspiration refers to the puff of air/breath that occurs between the release of the stop and the production of the following vowel, e.g., **pen** /pen/, **ten** /ten/ and **kin** /kin/.

Aspiration is neutralized when the sibilant /s/ precedes the voiceless stop in syllable initial position, e.g., **step** /step/. However, in syllable-final position these voiceless stops are unreleased and unaspirated.

Note:

If /p/ occurs initially, i.e. [p^hen], we have something called Aspiration, a push of air. Here we have **Aspiration** i.e. the sound is aspirated.

Now let us talk about [t^h]. It is a plosive consonant. When it comes to [k^h], [p^h], and [t^h], all of them are voiceless. [t^hen] has Aspiration. [k^hin] has Aspiration.

The second case i.e. /step/ If it occurs finally, the Aspiration is neutralized. When we say i.e. /map/ it is unaspirated.

(b) Syllabic consonants

A syllabic consonant is one that forms a syllable by itself, i.e., without a vowel. English has three syllabic consonants /l/, /n/ and /m/ that occur finally in a word. For example:

- little /litl/ sudden /sʌdn/ bottom /bɒtm/

The syllabic lateral and nasal consonants in the above words are pronounced

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with lateral and nasal plosive respectively.

The former means that the stop sound is released by lowering the side of the tongue, whereas the latter means that the stop is released by lowering the soft palate so that the air escapes through the nose.

Let me explain with an example: "**Sudden**" /sʌd(ə)n/ How many syllables do we have in the word (sudden)?

Students: We have two syllables (sud/den).

Instructor:

Yes, each word in English has a strong syllable and a weak syllable.

/sʌd(ə)n/. This is the right transcription but in this case, /sʌdn/ is completely right because /n/ is syllabic.

A syllabic consonant is a consonant that forms a syllable on itself, like the (m, n, and l) in the English words.

Another example: the word (little).

I transcribe the word like this ['lɪt(ə)l], but when I want to transcribe the phonological feature, it is /lɪl/ without /ə/. We do not have to put /ə/ because /l/ is syllabic by itself.

Another example is the word bottom "*I love you from the bottom of my heart*". Its transcription is like this /bɒt(ə)m/, but for phonological features, we write it down like this /bɒtm/.

(c) r-deletion

The consonant /r/ is not pronounced in British English when it occurs word finally or in a sequence of two final consonants as in the following examples: far /fɑː/, card /kɑːd/

But, word-final /r/ is pronounced when the next word begins with a vowel as in the phrase '*more and more*'. This /r/ is referred to as "linking" /r/.

In American English; however, the consonant /r/ is pronounced in the above contexts.

Moreover, speakers of American English distinguish between the pronunciation of "heart" and "hot" by producing /r/ in the former word but not in the latter. Speakers of British English, in contrast, distinguish between the two words by vowel quality.

The consonant /r/ is not pronounced in British English when it occurs finally. The second case, when it comes in a sequence of two consonants as in the following examples: supermarket /'su:pəmə:kɪt/ and the word card /kɑːd/.

In the American accent, we pronounce the sound /r/, but in the British accent, we do not.

- comfortable /'kʌmf(ə)təb(ə)l/ is a good word.

Look here /r/ is not pronounced because it occurs between two consonants. When /r/ comes in a sequence of two consonants, in British English, it is deleted. In an American accent, the /T/ becomes flapped.

(d) /t/, /d/

In American English /t/ and /d/ change into a flap /D/ when they occur after a stressed vowel as in "latter" and "ladder".

What about the word (hot) in the British accent? /hɒt/ it has a short vowel not included in the American accent at all.

The word (heart) is /'hɑ:rt/ in American and /'hɑ:t/ in British. This is how they can differentiate between them.

In American English, the sounds /t/ and /d/ change to become flapped /t/ when they occur after a stressed vowel as in "latter" and "ladder".

Flapped 't' is pronounced /d/.

(e) /l/

English /l/ has two allophones: clear and dark. The former occurs before vowels, as in leaf, while the latter, which is velarized, occurs at the end of a word or before a consonant as in **feel** and **field**.

Clear /l/ is produced with the front of the tongue raised, while dark /l/ is produced with the back of the tongue raised. Devoiced /l/ is the third allophone. It occurs when preceded by /p/ or /k/ in a stressed syllable as in **play**, **climb**.

Dark [ɫ] and light /l/:

If I say /leaf/ [li:f] and /feel/ [fi:ɫ]

Which one is light and which one is dark?

The leaf is light and the feel is dark.

The term that is used here is allophones. When we have different phonemes for the same phoneme. i.e. [p^h] and [p]. So they are allophones for the same phoneme.

Now if I say i.e. dark [ɫ] and clear [l]. They are allophones for the same phoneme. In addition, Devoiced /l/ is the third allophone. It occurs when it's preceded by a plosive voiceless consonant /p/ or /k/ in a stressed syllable as in **play**, **climb**. Here, we have three allophones for the same phoneme.

Thank You

...

LECTURE NO. 7

THE LAST LECTURE

06.08.2022

HELLO EVERYONE!

Today, I will talk about the features of Arabic consonants.

We said that in English, we have:

1. Place of articulation.
2. Manner of articulation
3. Voicing.

In Arabic, we have some differences.

• L: labial,	• LD: labiodental,
• I: interdental,	• D: Dental,
• A: Alveolar,	• P: Palatal,
• V: Velar,	• U: Uvular,
• Ph: Pharyngeal,	• G: Glottal

You can notice that we don't have 'bilabial' in Arabic; instead, we have only 'labial.' In Arabic, we have uvular and pharyngeal sounds while in English, we don't have these sounds.

In Arabic, we have what is called "*Emphatic*" (التفخيم/الإطباق). We have Emphatic consonants and Non-emphatic consonants.

What are the letters of (التفخيم) (ظ), (ض), (ص), and (ذ).

What are the letters of Non-emphatic? (ت), (د), (س), and (ذ).

Examples:

- تَاب/t/ (repented) is Non-emphatic, while طَاب/tʕ/ (recovered) is Emphatic.

- دَل/d/ (indicated) is Non-emphatic, while ضَل/dʕ/ (strayed) is Emphatic.

- سِيف/s/ (sword) is Non-emphatic, while صِيف/sʕ/ (summer) is Emphatic.

- ذَل/ð/ (despised) is Non-emphatic, while ظَل/ðʕ/ (remained) is Emphatic.

In Arabic, we also have *Emphatic* and *Non-emphatic (L)*, but we have cases in (لفظ الجلالة).

Examples: "لا إله إلا الله" the (l) here is emphatic because it is in the accusative case.

"ورحمة الله عليكم وبركاته" the (l) here is emphatic because it is in the nominative case.

“بسم الله” the (l) here is non-emphatic because it is in the genitive case.

Now, let us move to another idea “*Gemination*” (التشديد).

Do we have Gemination in English?

In Arabic, we have (الشدة). While in English, we double the consonant, but not all the time. For example, the word (letter). That is why Arab learners of English get confused at this point because there is no equivalent.

Of course, consonants in English can be single as in (kind), or double as in (common).

For Arabic, I will give you two words, with gemination as in (كَتَّبَ) (i.e. he writes) and without it as in (كَتَبَ) (i.e. he made someone write). If I want to write (كَتَّبَ) in transliteration, we write it as kattaba. Another example, (مَدَّ) (stretched) madda, here the gemination occurred at the end of the word.

So, gemination can occur in the middle or finally.

Now, I will give you a word with double consonants but does not have gemination. (أَب), it is abb. Although there is a double (b), but there is no gemination.

Let us talk about *Hamza* (الهمزة).

We have it in Arabic, it is Glottal stop, and its transcript is /ʔ/; but in English, we do not. In English, we only have the sound of (الهمزة). For example, (سَأَلَ) is sa'ala.

(الهمزة) can occur initially, Medial, or finally.

In Arabic, there are many cases for Hamza: hamzat al-qat' (همزة القطع), hamzat al-wasl (همزة الوصل), and initial, medial, and final Hamza, etc.

Examples, the words (سَمَاء) is samaa', (سؤال) is su'aal, (ترأس) is tara'asa.

Now, I will talk about some consonants, such as /خ/, /غ/, /ح/, /ع/ and /ه/.

Let us start with /خ/ and /غ/, which are **fricative velar**. Examples: (خَد) (cheek) is xadd, (غَد) (tomorrow) is gad, (خَالِي) is xalii, (غَالِي) is galii.

Voiceless /ح/ and Voiced /ع/, which are **fricative pharyngeal**. Examples: (حَدَد) is haddada, (عَدَد) is 'addada.

/ه/ is **fricative glottal**. It can occur initially, medially, and finally. Examples (هَدَد) is haddada, (قهوة) is kahwa, (سفيه) is safiih, (سيوف) is suyuuf, and (مياه) is miyaah.

We talk in the previous lecture about the difference between the /r/ in *British English and in American*. We said that in British English (UK, Australia, Caribbean, etc.), the letter R is only pronounced when followed by a vowel, and not pronounced if it occurs at the end of the word or followed by a consonant. In American English (the USA and Canada), people pronounce this letter always. Examples: the word (car) is /kɑ:r/ in American and /kɑ:/ in British, the word (hard) is /hɑrd/ in American and /həd/ in British. However, we I say (more and more), I cannot delete the /r/ in the British accent because it followed with another word. But if it was just one word (more), we can delete the /r/.

In English, if it occurs medially or finally, it is not pronounced while it is pronounced if it occurs initially.

Now in Arabic, it is pronounced in all cases. Examples: (رئص) is ra's, (رقص) is raqs, (برد) is bard, (مهر) is mahr.

In Arabic also, the /r/ in geminated as in (قَرَر) qarrara, it is Trilled R.

The Differences between English and Arabic:

What are the contrasts between English and Arabic features?

1- In English, we have /p/. While we do not have it in Arabic, there is only /b/.

2- There are cases we pronounced the /b/ in Arabic like /p/, such as in (حَبْس - كَبْتُ - أَبْغَى) because we have voiceless consonants at the end.

3- In English, we have /v/. While we do not have it in Arabic, there is only /f/.

4- There are cases we pronounced the /f/ in Arabic like /v/, such as in (حَفْظ) because it comes before /ظ/.

5- For /r/, in English we have Flapped R and Trilled R, while in Arabic we only have Trilled R. For example, the R in (right) is pronounced and flapped.

6- We have emphatic in both English and Arabic, but we only have gemination in Arabic.

Handout 3:

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Phonology is the study of the sound system of a particular language. Phonetics, in contrast, is the study of the articulatory, auditory and acoustic properties of speechsounds. Phonology subsumes the study of the segmental phonemes of a language (consonants and vowels) and the suprasegmental

features that are superimposed on the segmental phonemes. These features are length, stress, and rhythm. This lecture deals with the phonological systems of both English and Arabic. It is organized as follows: Section 2 presents a description of the English and Arabic consonants. Section 3 presents a description of the vowels and diphthongs of the two languages.

2.2 CONSONANTS

Consonants are usually described in terms of the manner of articulation, place of articulation, and voicing. Throughout the description of the English and Arabic consonants emphasis will be placed on those phonetic and phonological features that are specific to each of the two languages.

2.2.1 English Consonants

English has twenty-four consonants. Table 1 presents these consonants defined in terms of place and manner of articulation.

Table 1: English Consonants

	B	LD	I	A	AP	V	G
Stops	P			t		K	
	b			d		g	
Aff					tʃ		
					dʒ		
Fric		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
		v	ð	z	ʒ		
Nasals	M		n			ŋ	
Liquids			L, r				
Glides	w			y			

AP: alveopalatal, V: velar, G: glottal, Aff: Affricate, Fric.: fricative

The following are some of the features that are specific to the pronunciation of English consonants.

(a) Aspiration

English voiceless stops /p, t, k/ are aspirated when they occur word-initially in stressed syllables. Aspiration refers to the puff of air/breath that occurs between the release of the stop and the production of the following vowel, e.g., **pen** /pen/, **ten** /ten/ and **kin** /kin/. Aspiration is neutralized when the sibilant /s/ precedes the voiceless stop in syllable initial position, e.g., **step** /step/. However, in syllable-final position these voiceless stops are unreleased and unaspirated.

(b) Syllabic consonants

A syllabic consonant is one that forms a syllable by itself, i.e., without a vowel. English has three syllabic consonants /l/, /n/ and /m/ that occur finally in a word. For example:

little /litl/ sudden /sʌdn/ bottom /bɒtm/

The syllabic lateral and nasal consonants in the above words are pronounced with lateral and nasal plosive respectively. The former means that the stop sound

is released by lowering the side of the tongue, whereas the latter means that the stop is released by lowering the soft palate so that the air escapes through the nose.

(c) **r-deletion**

The consonant /r/ is not pronounced in British English when it occurs word finally or in a sequence of two final consonants as in the following examples:

far /fa:/, card /ka:d/

But, word-final /r/ is pronounced when the next word begins with a vowel as in the phrase more and more. This /r/ is referred to as "linking" /r/.

In American English however, the /r/ is pronounced in the above contexts. Moreover, speakers of American English distinguish between the pronunciation of heart and hot by producing an /r/ in the former word but not the latter. Speakers of British English, in contrast, distinguish between the two words by vowel quality.

(d) **/t/, /d/**

In American English /t/ and /d/ change into a flap /D/ when they occur after a stressed vowel as in latter and ladder.

(e) **/l/**

English /l/ has two allophones: clear and dark. The former occurs before vowels, as in leaf, while the latter, which is velarized, occurs at the end of a word or before a consonant as in feel and field. Clear /l/ is produced with the back of the tongue raised, while dark /l/ is produced with the front of the tongue raised. Devoiced /l/ is the third allophone. It occurs when preceded by /p/ or /k/ in a stressed syllable as in play, climb.

2.22 Arabic Consonants

Arabic has twenty-eight consonants. Table 2 presents these consonants in terms of place and manner of articulation.

Table 2: Arabic Consonants

	L	LD	I	D	A	P	V	U	Ph	C
Stop	b			t, t̤ d, d̤			k	q		ʔ
Affr						j				
Fric		f	θ ð	s, ʃ		ʂ	x ç		ħ	h
Liquids										
Trill										
Lateral					r					
Nasal	m				l					
Glides	w				n					
						y				

Key: L: labial, LD: labiodental, I: Interdental, D: Dental, A: Alveolar, P: Palatal, V: Velar, U: Uvular, Ph: Pharyngeal, G: Glottal

Among the features specific to the pronunciation of Arabic consonants are: **emphatic vs. non-emphatic sounds, gemination, glottal stop, back consonants, and /r/.**

(a) **Emphatic vs. non-emphatic consonants**

Arabic has four pairs of consonants that are distinguished by 'itbaaq إطباق 'emphatic' or tafxiim تفخيم 'emphasis'. They are: /t, ṭ /, /d, ḍ /, /s, ṣ /, /ḏ, ḏ /.

/t/ as in taaba تاب 'he repented' /ṭ/ as in ṭaaba طاب 'he recovered'

/d/ as in dalla دَلَّ 'he directed' /ḍ/ as in ḍalla ضَلَّ 'he went astray'

/s/ as in sayf سيف 'sword' /ṣ/ as in ṣayf صيف 'summer'

/ḏ/ as in ḏalla ذَلَّ 'he became despised' /ḏ̣/ as in ḏalla ظَلَّ 'he remained'

(Emphasis is marked by a dot underneath the consonant.)

The production of emphatic consonants is characterized by contraction of the muscles of the pharynx, raising of the back part of the tongue towards the palate and protrusion of the lips. Besides these four pairs, emphatic /l/ may occur in a very restricted context. Emphatic /l/ occurs only in the divine name 'allaah الله.

The following pair of words shows the emphatic vs non-emphatic /l/:

* wallaahu واللَّهُ 'and God',

* wallaahu ولأهُ 'he appointed him governor'

In connected speech, the pronunciation of emphatic /l/ is conditioned by the type of vowel that precedes it. For example, emphatic /l/ occurs when preceded by /u/ and /a/, whereas non-emphatic /l/ occurs after /i/. The following examples illustrate these conditions.

* laa 'ilaaha 'ilīa لا إله إلا الله -laah 'There is no deity but God'.

* rahmatu llaahi 'alayh رحمة الله عليه 'May God bless him.'

* bismi llaah بسم الله 'In the name of God.'

(b) **Gemination**

Consonants occur single or doubled (geminated). A sequence of two identical consonants is described as gemination tašdiid تشديد 'strengthening'. The geminate consonants are long. This consonantal length is phonemic in Arabic as shown in the following minimal pair.

* kataba كَتَبَ 'he wrote',

* kattaba كَتَّبَ 'he made (someone) write'

It should be noted that geminate consonants may occur medially and finally.

For example:

* madda مَدَّ 'he stretched'.

* sadd سَدَّ a dam'

(c) The Glottal Stop 'al-hamza الهمزة

The Arabic phonemic glottal stop occurs in initial, medial and final positions in a word. For example:

* 'abb أَبَّ 'father',

* sa'ala سَأَلَ he asked

* samaa' سَمَاءُ 'sky' su'aal سُؤَالَ 'question' mi'a مِئَة 'a hundred'

It also occurs as a geminate, as in

* tara "asa تَرَأَسَ 'he headed'

We should note that although the hamza الهمزة is a fully functioning phoneme, it is not an orthographically independent letter.

(d) Back Consonants

Arabic has six back consonants, four fricatives and two stops They are:

* Velars: /x, g/

* Pharyngeals: /h, ʕ/

* Glottals: /h, ʔ/

Since the glottal stop has been described earlier, we will only describe here the other five guttural consonants.

(i) Velar fricatives /x/ and /g/

Velar consonants are articulated with the back of the tongue almost touching the soft palate (velum). The following minimal pairs represent the voiceless and voiced velar fricative.

xadd خَدَّ 'cheek' gad غَدَّ 'tomorrow'

xaalii خَالِي 'my uncle' gaalii غَالِي 'expensive'

(ii) Pharyngeal Fricatives /h/ and /ʕ/

Pharyngeal articulation occurs in the pharynx. In the production of these pharyngeal sounds, the muscles in the pharynx are tensed up. For the voiceless /h/ this produces a very strong fricative that is quite distinct from both /h/ and /x/. Voiced /ʕ/ is not accompanied by much friction. The following minimal pairs represent the voiceless and voiced pharyngeal.

haddada حَدَّدَ 'he specified' ʕaddada عَدَّدَ 'he enumerated'

baahā بَاحَ 'he revealed' baà a بَاعَ 'he sold'

(iii) Glottal Fricative /h/

Glottal articulation occurs in the larynx. The voiceless glottal fricative /h/ is always pronounced, whether it occurs in initial, medial or final position, e.g.

- * word-initial: huwa هو 'he', hunaa هنا 'here'
- * word-medial: qahwa قهوة 'coffee', qahr قهر 'oppression'
- * word-final: miyaah مياه 'water', safiih سخيف 'silly'

(e) /r/

The Arabic /r/ sound is produced by tapping the tip of the tongue against the alveoli. It is always pronounced, i.e., initially, medially and finally.

- * word-initial: ra's رأس 'head', ramaa رمى 'he threw'
- * word-medial: bard برد 'cold', 'ard أرض 'earth'
- * word-final: naar نار 'fire', mahr مهر 'dowry'

This consonant is trilled when it is geminated; e.g., qarrara قرر 'he decided'

CONTRAST

Having described the inventory of consonants in English and Arabic, we will now highlight the contrasts that hold between the two inventories.

First, the following English consonants have no counterparts in Arabic: /p, v, g, ʒ, dʒ/. Although /p/ does not occur in Classical Arabic, /b/ is devoiced before a voiceless consonant, as in:

- * ḥabs ḥaps حبس 'prison'
- * kabt kapt كبت 'suppression'
- * 'abkaa 'apkaa أبكى 'made someone cry'

Similarly, /v/ does not occur in CA, but it occurs in the word hifḍ حفظ 'learning by heart' (instead of hifḍ حفظ).

Second, the following Arabic consonants have no counterparts in English:

/t̤, d̤, ṣ, x, g, q, h/.

Third, the English flap /r/ is only pronounced word-initially, e.g., ride. In British English, it is silent in medial and final positions. e.g., farm /fa:m/ and far /fa:/. In contrast, the Arabic trill /r/ is pronounced in all contexts.

Fourth, gemination is phonemic in Arabic but not in English.

2.3 VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

Consonants are described in terms of manner and place of articulation, whereas vowels are described in terms of the position of the tongue and the shape of the lips. Three parameters are important for the description of vowels: vertical tongue position (high, mid and low), horizontal tongue position (front, central and back) and lip shape (spread, neutral and rounded). A diphthong is a sequence of vowel plus glide within the same syllable. In other words, its production involves a transition from a vowel to a glide. In the next sections, we

will describe the English and Arabic vowels and diphthongs.

2.3.1 English Vowels and Diphthongs

[Not required]

2.3.2 Arabic Vowels and Diphthongs

(a) Phonemes

Arabic has a triangular vowel system that consists of three pairs of short and long vowel phonemes as shown in Table 4. (Vowel length is indicated by writing the vowel twice.)

Table 4: Arabic Vowels

	Front	Central	Back
High	ii i		uu u
low		aa a	

Vocalic length in Arabic is phonemic, that is, pairs of words may be semantically distinguished by vocalic length. The following minimal pairs show the contrast between short and long vowels.

/i/ vs. /ii/: sin سن 'tooth' and siin سين 'the letters'

/a/ vs. /aa/: kataba كتب 'he wrote' and kaataba كاتب 'he corresponded with'

/u/ vs. /uu/: 'ud عُد 'come back' and 'uud عود 'lute'

NOTE: A distinguishing feature of Arabic vowels is madd مَد 'length', which is similar to consonantal length, i.e., gemination. The long vowels are referred to as huruufu 1-madd حروف المد 'the letters of prolongation'. They are 'al-'alif الألف 'the /aa/', 'al-waaw الواو 'the /uu/', and 'al-yaa' الياء 'the /ii/'. They are twice the length of the short counterparts.

Arabic also has two diphthongs. They are:

/aw/ أو as in yawm يوم 'day' and 'aw أو 'or'

/ay/ أي as in dayn دين 'debt' and 'ayy أي 'which'

The Arabic vowels never occur initially. If they do, they are preceded by the glottal stop 'hamza همزة'.

Examples: 'anaa أنا 'I', 'amal أمل 'hope', 'insaan إنسان 'a human being'

CONTRAST

The preceding presentation of English and Arabic vowel systems reveals the following differences. First, the English vowel system is more elaborate than the Arabic vowel system. That is, English has more variation in phonemic vowel quality than Arabic does. Therefore, it is predicted that Arab learners of English

will experience some difficulty in producing some of the English vowels, especially the mid vowels, which are non-existent in Arabic.

Second, the following English vowels have no counterparts in Arabic /e, o, a, ɔ:, ʌ, ɜ:, ə/. Arab learners of English, therefore, are expected to make erroneous substitutions. They will tend to under differentiate the vowel quality in minimal pairs, thus producing them as identical pairs. For example, they will tend to produce sit and set as /sit/, and coat and caught as /kɔ:t/.

Third, unlike Arabic vowels, English ones are lengthened before voiced consonants and nasalised before nasal consonants.

Fourth, vocalic length is phonemic in Arabic but not in English. Moreover, Arabic long vowels may occur in unstressed syllables, a phonological phenomenon that is non-existent in English. However, in English words with long vowels, primary stress always falls on the long vowel, e.g., father, sooner, freedom and teacher. Therefore, it is predicted that English learners of Arabic will have difficulty in producing long vowels in unstressed syllables, as in kaatabnaa كاتبتنا 'we corresponded with' where /kaa-/ must be maintained as long to keep it distinct from katabnaa كتبتنا 'we wrote.'

Fifth, the English schwa /ə/ in connected speech commonly replaces an unstressed vowel. For example, the vowels in function words are usually unstressed and are reduced to a schwa, such as of əv/ in 'the name of the game' and to /tə/ in 'to study'. Arabic vowels are never shirred over in this way but even when unstressed they maintain their characteristic quality. It is, therefore, predicted that Arab learners of English will tend to produce the original vowel in these function words rather than the schwa.

Sixth, English orthography sometimes does not reflect the correct pronunciation of the vowels. For example, the double -oo- in the words foot and fool is pronounced differently, that is, it is pronounced open and short in the first but close and long in the second. This non-correspondence or disparity between spelling and pronunciation does not occur in Arabic except in the assimilated /l/ sound of the article, as in aṣ-ṣams الشمس 'the sun'. Therefore, it is predicted that Arab learners of English will tend to produce a long vowel whenever they come across a word that has a sequence of two identical vowels, i.e., /ee/ and /oo/.

Seventh, when English speakers produce a long vowel, they relax the muscle tension at the end of the sound, producing an off-glide. For example, they diphthongize the long vowel in words like too [tu:], see [si:] and you [yu:]. By contrast, Arabic speakers produce long vowels, e.g., diwaan ديوان 'divan'. On the basis of this contrast we can predict that Arab learners of English will have difficulty in diphthongizing English long vowels when they occur in word-final positions, whereas English learners of Arabic will have difficulty in producing

pure Arabic vowels.

طلبت أستاذة المادة ثلاثة ملفات خارجية وهي موجودة بالكامل داخل المحاضرات:

الملف الأول: المحاضرة ٢+١

الملف الثاني: المحاضرة ٥+٤+٣

• الملف الثالث: المحاضرة ٧+٦ (المحذوف منه فقرة (Vowels and Diphthongs in English)

Thank You

Wish you all the best

احذر المحاضرات المسروقة!

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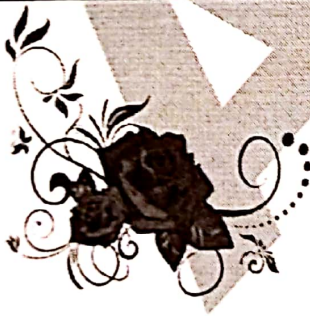


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