

الأسماء المشتقة في الإنجليزية والعربية : دراسة تقابلية

تقارن هذه الورقة البحثية بين الأسماء المشتقة في الإنجليزية والعربية. فهي تقدم طريقة كومري وتومبسون لعام ١٩٨٥ الخاصة بالأسماء المشتقة. وتعرض الأقسام المختلفة المذكورة في مقالتهما وتطبق ذلك على اللغة الإنجليزية. كما تعرض هذه الورقة مشتقات الأسماء في اللغة العربية و المذكورة في كتب النحو العربي.

و قد تبين أن اشتقاق الأسماء من الأفعال في الإنجليزية يعتمد بقدر كبير على إضافة الزوائد للأفعال لتحويلها إلى أسماء. أما في العربية فتقوم على التعديل في مصدر الفعل بإضافة الزوائد إليه حتى يتطابق مع الأشكال القياسية لمشتقات الأسماء المختلفة و قد تبين أيضاً أن عدد المشتقات في اللغتين و مسمياتها شبه متقارب. بل وأن الأسماء المشتقة في اللغتين تنقسم إلى مجموعتين: واحدة تشبه الأسماء تماماً و ليس بها رائحة الفعل و أخرى تشبه الأسماء فقط في الشكل والإعراب و لكنها تؤثر فيما يجاورها من أسماء تأثير فعلها في العربية. أما في الإنجليزية، فهي تمثل حلاً وسطاً بين الأسماء و الأفعال.

وهذه الدراسة أثبتت أن اللغات تتشابه وتختلف بنفس القدر الذي يتشابهه و يختلف به البشر المتحدثون بها.



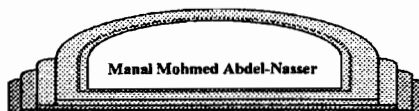
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Appendix 2

List of Abbreviations

sg	Singular	-	morpheme boundary
du	Dual	//	Phonemic transcription
pl	Plural	interrog	interrogative
pf	Perfect	nom	nominative
impf	Imperfect	acc	accusative
imper	Imperative	gen	Genitive
indic	Indicative	vi	verb intransitive
AP	Active Participle	vt	verb transitive
PP	Passive Participle	f	Feminine
AE	Assimilate Epithet	m	masculine
EN	Elicative Noun	dimin	diminutive
NT	Noun of time	1	First person
NPL	Noun of place	2	Second person
NInstr	Noun of Instrument	3	Third person

Appendix 1

A. The consonants of Standard Arabic

Place		Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Dento-Alveolar		Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Manner	Voicing				Non-Emphati	Emphati					
Stop	Voiceless Voiced	b			t d	T D		k q			ʔ
Fricative	Voiceless Voiced		f	θ ð	s z	S Z	ʃ ʒ	x ɣ		ħ ʕ	h
Affricate	Voiced						j				
Flap	Voiced				r						
Lateral	Voiced				l						
Nasal	Voiced	m			n						
Glide	Voiced	w					y				

B. The vowels of Standard Arabic

	Short			Long		
	Front	Central	Back	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u	ii		uu
Mid						
Low		a			aa	

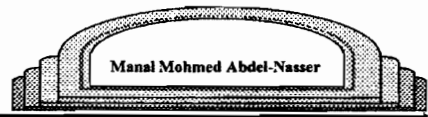
Note: The two tables are adapted from Gadalla (2000).



derivatives by Arab grammarians. Finally, after scrutinizing the derived nominals in English and Standard Arabic, the one most remarkable concluding statement is that nominal derivatives in Standard Arabic are richer in their meaning and forms than their counterparts in English.

4. Conclusion

The present study adopts the term 'nominalization' as it is meant by Comrie and Thompson (1985). It presents the categories discussed by them in their article and applies them to the English language. Then a similar list of derivatives mentioned by Hassan (2005) is also presented and discussed in relation to Standard Arabic. It is found that the two languages have the same strategy of forming nouns, each in its own way. Moreover, the resultant nouns, in the two languages are of two types. One group of nouns behave purely as nouns and the other retain the form of nouns only but function as their source verbs. All in all, human languages have many things in common exactly like the people who speak them.



imperfect verb form in the same way one does with the PP. Second, the locative noun refers to the location where the verb happens. The NPL refers to the abstract meaning of the verbal noun and the place of the action. Third, both the locative noun and the NPL behave like other nouns.

Similarly, the instrumental noun in English is contrasted with the NInstr in Standard Arabic. They agree in meaning and in their syntactic behaviour but differ in their formation. They both mean the instrument or tool by which the verb is done. Again, they both behave like other nouns in the language. Yet they differ in the way they are formed. While the former is formed by the nominalizing suffix *-er*, the latter has got three fixed forms: [mif9al], [mif9aal] and [mif9alah].

The rest of the English and Standard Arabic derived nouns mentioned in this paper, as far as I know, cannot be contrasted in the same way as the other types. Yet it is worth mentioning that the EN in Standard Arabic can be contrasted with the comparative and superlative adjective forms in English except that these forms are inflected adjectives. Again, the manner noun in English is close in meaning to /ʔism-u l-hayʔah/ ‘noun of kind or manner’ in Standard Arabic except that the latter is not classified as one of the nominal

Moreover, the objective noun in English is contrasted with the PP in Standard Arabic. They differ in three things. First, the objective noun is marked by the suffix *-ee* at the verb end. The PP, however, has a fixed form [maf9uul] for the perfect declinable triliteral verb in addition to the other form that is produced from the modification of the imperfect form of verbs other than the triliteral. The modification goes through the same steps of forming the AP except for adding /a/ before the last consonant instead of /i/. For example, the PP of the verb /ʔaxraj-a/ 'to direct' is /muxraj/ which corresponds to the pattern [muf9al]. Second, both the objective noun and the PP refer to the patient of the action, but the PP has an additional meaning which is the abstract meaning of the verbal noun of the verb in question. Third, while the objective noun behaves like any noun in the English language, the PP retains the characteristics of a noun and functions as its source verb (its passive imperfect verb) under certain conditions similar to those of the AP.

In the same way, the locative noun in English is contrasted with the NPL in Standard Arabic. First, the former is formed by suffixation, mostly the nominalizing suffix *-(e)ry*, the latter has three forms shared with the NT. Two of them are fixed, [maf9al] and [maf9il] to which Arab grammarians allow the addition of /-ah/ to make it feminine. And the third is produced by modifying the

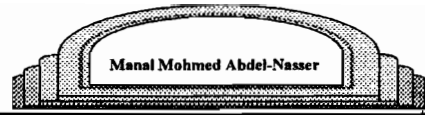
the AP is formed by modifying the verbal noun of the perfect declinable triliteral verb to correspond to the form [faa9il]. From verb forms other than the triliteral, it is the imperfect form of the verb that is modified by changing its initial consonant into /m/ which is followed by /u/ and by adding the vowel /i/ before the last consonant. For example, the AP of the verb /ʔaxraj-a/ 'to direct' is /muxrij/ which corresponds to the pattern [muf9il]. That is to say, the process of noun formation in English involves suffixation alone, but in Standard Arabic both prefixation and infixation are involved. Second, the agentive noun in English refers to the one who does the action whereas the AP in Standard Arabic implies two meanings, i.e. the abstract meaning of the verbal noun together with the meaning of the one who does the action. Third, the agentive noun behaves like other nouns in the English language whereas the AP has the characteristics of a noun and functions as its source verb under certain conditions. Fourth, the agentive noun has under its umbrella some nouns like *New Yorker* and *Londoner* which are similar to the agentive noun in form but have the meaning of *being related to* something or some place. Similarly the AP is related to the intensive forms. Though they differ in form, they share the two meanings of the AP mentioned above and the intensive forms have one additional meaning which shows the intensity of the action.



group of nouns which denote an activity or state represent a compromise as they retain some characteristics of both verbs and nouns.

As for Standard Arabic, Hassan (2005) defines seven types of nominal derivatives which are the active participle, the passive participle, the assimilate epithet and the relative noun, on the one hand, and the nouns of time, place and instrument, on the other hand. Each one of these seven types has its specific meanings and regular forms. But only the last three types behave like nouns while the first four retain the form and declension of nouns and function like their source verbs under certain conditions. Both the AP and the PP denote a temporary meaning. On the contrary, the AE denotes a permanent one. Again, both the NT and the NPL share the same forms together, [*maf9al*] and [*maf9il*], and one additional form with the PP, i.e. the one which is produced when modifying the imperfect verb by changing the initial consonant into /m/ which is followed by /u/ and then adding /a/ before the last consonant. In such a case, it is the job of the context to tell which one is intended.

The agentive noun in English is contrasted with the AP in Standard Arabic. They differ in many ways. First, the agentive noun is formed by adding the nominalizing suffix *-er* to the verb whereas



Comrie and Thompson (1985) classify derived nouns into two main types. The first type is a derived noun which is a name of an activity or state. It is formed from lexical verbs and adjectives by means of affixation in addition to another productive strategy which is reversing the order of the transitive verb and its object then adding *-ing*. The second type is a derived noun which is a name of an argument. Comrie and Thompson (1985) divide this second type into six sub-divisions, one of them is not common in English. The derived nouns which are names of arguments, in English, are the agentive noun, the instrumental noun, the manner noun, the locative noun, and the objective noun. Both the agentive noun and the instrumental noun are formed by the suffix *-er* but its meaning is completely different in each case. Manner nouns are identical to English gerunds which indicate both the occurrence and manner of the action. The nominalizing suffix for this type of nominals is *-ing*. The locative nouns are formed by the addition of the suffix *-ry* to the source verb and it refers to the place where the action happens. Finally, the objective noun is formed by adding *-ee* to the verb and refers to the one person or thing that is verbed as suggested by Comrie and Thompson (1985). However, the two types of nouns suggested by Comrie and Thompson (1985) are not the same in status. The group of nouns which denote arguments behave like nouns and have nothing to do with their source verbs, whereas the

prepositional phrase headed by */min/*. In the second type, however, the EN agrees in gender and number with its neighbouring noun and the */min/* phrase is not used. Again, in the third type, the */min/* phrase continues to disappear and Arab grammarians necessitate a sort of part to whole relation between [*?af9al*] and the genitive (Hassan 2005: 3/401-426). As for function, this nominal derivative behaves syntactically as its source verb and affects the governed noun in three ways: nominative, accusative and genitive (Ibid: 427).

3. Contrastive Analysis

Lexical nominalization in its broad sense, turning a lexeme into a noun, as described by Comrie and Thompson (1985) is common to both English and Standard Arabic. While the former depends, for nominalization, mainly on derivational affixes which are class-changing, the latter depends mainly on modifying the form of the verb. In other words, Arabic nominalization depends mainly on modifying the form of the verb or the verbal noun in question to correspond to fixed forms specified for each derived nominal. For example, for the AP, the form is [*faa9il*]; for the PP, it is [*maf9uul*]; for the EN, it is [*?af9al*]; for the NT and NPL, the forms are [*maf9al*] or [*maf9il*]; for the NInstr, they are [*mif9al*], [*mif9aal*], and [*mif9alah*] and for the AE, some of the specified forms are [*fa9il*], [*fa9laan*] and [*?af9al*].

formed from the verbal noun of any verb that is perfect, trilateral, declinable, gradable, active, complete, affirmative and its AE does not correspond to the form [ʔaf9al]. Yet if one needs to express preference from a verb which is not trilateral or which lacks one of the above-mentioned conditions, then one has to seek the help of another verb which agrees to all these conditions and puts it in [ʔaf9al] form, then use the verbal noun of the verb in question as a noun of specification after this form (Hassan 2005: 3/396-398):

- (26) ʔahmad-u ʔakbar-u ta9aawun-an min 9ali
Ahmad-nom more-nom co-operation-acc from Ali
Ahmad is more co-operative than Ali.

Arab grammarians divide the EN into three types:

- 1- The EN without /ʔal-/ 'the' or without the genitive like /ʔaSbar/ 'more patient'.
- 2- The EN with /ʔal-/ 'the' : e.g. /ʔal-ʔa9laa/ 'the highest'
- 3- The EN with the genitive : whether the genitive is definite /ʔašja9-u l-junuud/ 'the most courageous soldier', or indefinite /ʔašja9-u rajul-in/ 'the most courageous man'.

As for the first type, it necessitates two conditions. First, it should always be both masculine and singular even if it is used to refer to feminine, dual or plural nouns. Second, it should be followed by a

2.5 The Noun of Instrument

The noun of instrument (NInstr) is another nominal derivative which is formed from the verbal noun of the declinable trilateral, transitive or intransitive. It denotes the tool by which the verb is done. This derived noun has three famous forms: [mif9al], e.g. /mibrad/ 'file'; [mif9aal], e.g. /miftaah/'key'; and [mif9alah], e.g. /mibraah/ 'sharpener'. However, Hassan (2005: 3/337) cites that the Arabic Language Academy authorized other forms like: [fa99aalah], e.g. /gassaalah/ 'washing-machine'; [faa9ilah], e.g. /saaqiyah/ 'water-wheel' and [faa9uul], e.g. /haasuub/ 'computer'. Moreover, there are other NInstrs which are non-derived like /qalam/ 'pen' and /sikkiin/ 'knife'. Again, like the NT and the NPL, this nominal does not retain the syntactic properties of its verb and its declension depends on its position in the sentence.

2.6 The Elative Noun

The elative noun (EN) is a derived noun that corresponds to the form [?af9al]. It denotes that two persons or things share some common quality but one of them is more superior than the other in this respect. Also, it makes no difference whether the common quality is desirable or undesirable. What is important is that it should be permanent as it is the case with the AE. Al-Hamalawi (1991), Ibn Aqiil (2003) and Hassan (2005) agree that the EN is

noun of the perfect trilateral should be modified to correspond in form to [maf9al] or [maf9il]. Hassan (2005:3/319) indicates that the second form, [maf9il], is only used if the vowel /i/ accompanies the second radical of the imperfect trilateral. From verbs other than the trilateral, the NT and the NPL are formed in the same way the PP is formed from the same verbs. Again, the context tells which is which.

(25) a) qad 9alim-a kull-u ʔunaas-in mašrab-a-hum (Quran II: 60)
particle know.pf-3msg every-nom people-gen place of water-acc-their

Each group knew its own place for water. (Ali 1938: 32)

b) wa-ttaxið-uu min maqaam-i ʔibraahiim-a muSallaa (Quran II:125)
and-take.imper-3mpl from standing place-gen Abraham-gen place of prayer.acc

And take ye the Station of Abraham as a place of prayer

(Ali 1938: 52)

c) ʔinna maw9id-a-humu S-Subh-u (Quran 11: 81)

verily appointment-acc-their the-morning-nom

Morning is their time appointed (Ali 1938: 536)

Hassan (2005: 3/322) also approves the addition of the termination /-ah/ at the end of the NPL to make it feminine like, for example, /mazra9ah/ 'farm', /maktabah/ 'library', and /madrasah/ 'school'. He also states that the NT and the NPL do not retain the same syntactic properties of their source verbs. Finally, the declension of these nominals is determined by their position in the sentence.

Finally, if the perfect trilateral has got /a/ after the second radical, [faʔal], which is the least common form, is produced (Hassan 2005: 3/285-88).

Although the AE is classified as one of the nominal derivatives, it behaves like its intransitive verb and governs the noun next to it as its subject . And because it is assimilated to the participles, it exceeds the limits of its intransitive verb and governs the noun next to it as its object or rather its quasi-object (Ibid: 294).

(24) a) raʔay-tu l-jawaad-a l-ʔabyaD-a lawn-u-hu
see.pf-1sg.indic the-horse-acc the-white-acc colour-nom-it
I saw the white-coloured horse.

b) daxal-tu l-masjid-a l-fasiih-a s-saaḥat-i
enter.pf-1sg-indic the- mosque-acc the-wide-acc the-courtyard-gen
I entered the mosque with the wide courtyard.

2.4 The Nouns of Time and Place

Each one of these nominal derivatives conveys two meanings at a time. The noun of time (NT) denotes the abstract meaning and its time. Also, the noun of place (NPL) denotes the abstract meaning and its place. Arab grammarians usually group them together because they share the same forms and the context distinguishes between them. In order to form any of these nominals, the verbal

a) To denote **joy** or **sadness**

- masculine : [fa9il], e.g. /fariḥ/ ‘happy (msg)’
- feminine : [fa9ilah], e.g. /fariḥah/ ‘happy (fsg)’

b) to denote **fullness** or **emptiness**

- masculine:[fa9laan], e.g./šab9aan/‘full-stomacked (msg)’
- feminine: [fa9laa], e.g. /šab9aa/ ‘full-stomacked (fsg)’

c) to denote something **inborn** or **innate**

- masculine : [ʔaf9al], e.g. /ʔa9raj/ ‘lame (msg)’
- feminine : [fa9laaʔ], e.g. /9arjaaʔ/ ‘lame (fsg)’

Again, if the perfect trilateral has got /u/ after the second radical, the form [fa9ul] is produced. It is less common than the previous one. Yet it has many sub-divisions as follows:

- | | | | |
|-------------|---|----------|------------|
| 1- [fa9iil] | → | /kariim/ | ‘generous’ |
| 2- [fa9l] | → | /Daxm/ | ‘huge’ |
| 3- [fa9al] | → | /ḥasan/ | ‘good’ |
| 4- [fa9aal] | → | /jabaan/ | ‘coward’ |
| 5- [fu9aal] | → | /šujaa9/ | ‘brave’ |
| 6- [fu9l] | → | /Sulb/ | ‘hard’ |
| 7- [fi9l] | → | /milḥ/ | ‘salty’ |
| 8- [fa9il] | → | /najis/ | ‘impure’ |

this nominal. The first is called the original type, /ʔal-ʔaSiil/, the second is ‘formed like /ʔal-ʔaSiil/’ and refers to an adjective which is made like the participles. In such a case, the adjective has the form of the AP or the PP but denotes a permanent meaning which is against the rule in their case:

(23) a) **like the AP**

Taahir-u	l-qalb
pure-nom	the-heart
Pure-hearted	

b) **like the PP**

mawfuur-u	ð-ðakaaʔ
plentiful-nom	the-intelligence
Intelligent enough	

The third type is a non-derived noun used to refer to a certain quality like /firʔawn-u l-ʔadaab/ ‘the pharaoh of torture’ which indicates cruelty (Hassan 2005: 3/463). Yet this last type is less common.

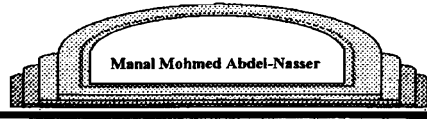
As for the first type, /ʔal-ʔaSiil/, it has got many regular forms. If the perfect trilateral has got /i/ after the second radical, the form [faʔil] is produced. It is the most common form. It is subdivided into three subdivisions:

2.3 The Assimilate Epithet

The assimilate epithets (AEs) are derived nouns that are made like or assimilated to the participles. Wright (1964: 1/133-134) states that they "come from neuter verbs, and express, partly, a quality inherent and permanent in a person or thing, which is their most usual signification, and, partly, a certain degree of intensity". Obviously, in his statement, Wright (1964) stresses two points, the first is related to the derivation of this type of nominals and the second to the meaning which is unique to this derivative. The AE is one of the nominal derivatives which is formed from the verbal noun of the declinable, intransitive trilateral verb to signify an inherent and permanent quality in a person or thing.

- (22) a) 9afiif-u n-nafs
 chaste-nom the-self
 Chaste
- b) ?aswad-u l-9aynayn
 black-nom the-eye.du
 Black-eyed

In these examples, each AE, according to Hassan (2005: 3/283), should indicate four meanings which are the quality itself, the person or thing meant by this quality and its being both inherent and permanent. Hassan (2005) also differentiates between three types of



2.2 The Passive Participle:

The passive participle (PP) is another nominal derivative which denotes a temporary abstract meaning as well as the patient of the action related to this meaning, like /*ma9muul*/ 'done' and /*maSnuu9*/ 'manufactured'. Also, it has to do with the present time only. Hassan (2005: 3/271) states that it is formed from the verbal noun of the perfect declinable triliteral verb to correspond to the form [*maf9uul*]. From other verbs which are not triliteral, the process is similar to that of the formation of the AP except for adding the vowel /a/ instead of /i/ before the last consonant (Al-Hamalawi 1991: 89):

- (21) ?akram-a yukrim-u mukram-un
 ?istaxraj-a yastaxrij-u mustaxraj-un

Like the AP, the PP has various forms : masculine and feminine, e.g. /*maqtuul*, *maqtuulah*/ 'killed'; indefinite and definite, /*maqtuul*, ?*al-maqtuul*/; singular /*maqtuul*/, dual /*maqtuulaan*/, and plural /*maqtuuluun*/. Also, its declension is determined by its position in the sentence and with the same inflectional endings of nouns. It is worth noting that the PP does the same job of its passive imperfect verb under the same conditions and requirements of the AP mentioned above.

Close in meaning to the AP are the intensive forms. An intensive form also has two meanings, like the AP, one is the abstract meaning and the other is the meaning of the one who does the action. Yet the intensive form has an additional meaning which denotes the intensity of doing the action, i.e. high or low, strong or weak (Hassan 2005: 3/257-58):

- (20) Sana9a : perfect trilateral verb
?aS-Sina9ah : the verbal noun
Saani9 : AP
Sannaa9 : intensive form

The most common regular intensive forms are [*fa99aal*, *mif9aal*, *fa9uul*, *fa9iil*, and *fa9il*] (e.g. */zarraa9/* 'farmer', */mizraa9/* 'farmer', */Sabuur/* 'patient', */naSiir/* 'helper', and */haðir/* 'cautious'). Ibn Aqil (2003: 104-105) states that the last two forms are the less common. Moreover, an intensive form is not formed from the verbal noun of a non-gradable verb like, for example, */halaka/* 'to die' and */faniya/* 'to perish'. Accordingly, **/hallaak/* and **/fannaay/* are unacceptable. Finally, Arab grammarians inform us that the intensive form, [*fa99aal*], has got an additional meaning. It has the meaning of belongingness, affiliation or membership mainly when it is used to refer to some professions like, for example, */9aTTaar/* 'druggist', */Tabbaax/* 'cook' and */xabbaaz/* 'baker' (Hassan 2005: 3/269).

The AP also needs the same conditions in order to govern its object in the accusative case, in addition to retaining the meaning of the present and the future not the past, on the one hand, and that of continuity and renewal, on the other. All these conditions approximate it to its verb and keep it away from nominal characteristics. That is why it may be replaced by the imperfect form from which it is formed without spoiling the meaning of the sentence (Hassan: 3/246-250):

(19) a) **With the AP:**

?ahmad-u	qaari?-un	kitaab-a-hu
Ahmad-nom	reading	book-acc-his

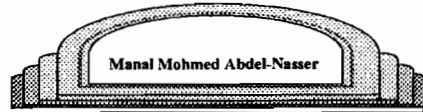
Ahmad is reading his book.

b) **With the impf:**

?ahmad-u	ya-qra?-u	kitaab-a-hu
Ahmad-nom	impf.3msg-read-indic	book-acc-his

Ahmad is reading his book.

However, the AP is similar to nouns in two things, form and declension. Like all other nouns in the language, it has various forms: masculine and feminine, */jaalis, jaalisah/* 'sitting'; definite and indefinite, */al-jaalis, jaalis/*; singular */jaalis/*, dual */jaalisaan/*, plural */jaalisuun/*. As for declension, it is determined according to the position of the AP in the sentence with the same inflectional endings of the noun.



accompanied with the definite conjunctive */?al-/. If it is not, it governs its subject in the nominative case only if the subject is a latent or a prominent pronoun. However, the AP cannot govern the apparent subject unless it satisfies certain requirements (Ibid: 3/249-250):*

(a) It should be preceded by interrogation, either apparent or latent, negation or vocation:

(16) ?a-kaatib-un muhammad-un id-dars-a
interrog-writer-nom Muhammad-nom the-lesson-acc
Has Muhammad written the lesson?

(b) It should not be diminutive:

(17) * yu-qbil-u ruwaykib-un jawaad-an musri9-un
3msg.impf-come-indic rider.dimin-nom horse-acc hurrying-nom
A little rider of the horse is coming hurrying.

c) It should not be separated from its object by any foreign element:

(18) a) yu-qbil-u raakib-un jawaad-an musri9-un
3msg.impf-come-indic rider-nom horse-acc hurrying-nom
A rider of the horse is coming hurrying.

b) * yu-qbil-u raakib-un musri9-un jawaad-an
3msg.impf-come-indic rider-nom hurrying-nom horse-acc
A hurrying rider of the horse is coming.



/Itaajir/ 'trader', */šaakir/* 'thankful', */naaZim/* 'poet', */xaadim/* 'servant', */zaari9/* 'farmer', */jaalis/* 'sitting'. . . etc. Also, in the process of forming the AP, as Hassan (2005) suggests, it makes no difference whether the perfect trilateral verb is transitive or intransitive or whether the vowel which accompanies the second radical, /9/, is /a/, /i/ or /u/:

- (14) *kataba* (vt) *kaatib* (AP)
 xasira (vt) *xaasir* (AP)
 ħasuna (vi) *ħaasin* (AP)

Moreover, Arab grammarians, for example Hassan (2005: 3/241), put a condition that the perfect triliteral verb should be declinable and the meaning of the verbal noun of the same verb should be temporary, not permanent. As for the formation of the AP from a verb other than the triliteral, the rule is to modify its imperfect form by changing its initial consonant into /m/ which is followed by /u/ and by adding the vowel /i/ before the last consonant, if it is not there:

- (15) *naaqaš-a* *yunaaqiš-u* *munaaqiš-un*
 zaaħam-a *yuzaaħim-u* *muzaaħim-un*

As for the function of the AP, Hassan (2005) indicates that it retains the same syntactic properties of its verb and behaves like it regarding transitivity and intransitivity but on the condition that it is

Hassan (2005: 3/182) cites seven types of nouns derived from the verb in Arabic:

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1- The active participle | /ʔism-u l-faa9il/ |
| 2- The passive participle | /ʔism-u l-maf9uul/ |
| 3- The assimilate epithet | /ʔaS-Sifat-u l-muṣabbahah/ |
| 4-The noun of time | /ʔism-u z-zamaan/ |
| 5-The noun of place | /ʔism-u l-makaan/ |
| 6-The noun of instrument | /ʔism-u l-ʔaalah/ |
| 7-The elative noun | /ʔaf9al-u t-tafDiil/ |

The next part discusses these nominal derivatives one by one.

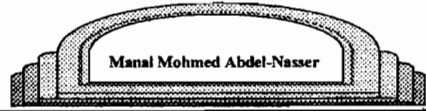
2.1 The Active Participle

The Active Participle (AP) is a nominal derivative which denotes two meanings, i.e. its abstract meaning together with the meaning of the one who did the action. For example, the noun /*Saani9*/ 'manufacturer' refers to /*ʔaS-Sinaa9ah*/ 'manufacturing', on the one hand, and to the person who does it, on the other. The AP is formed from the perfect declinable triliteral verb. But some grammarians form it from the verbal noun of the perfect declinable triliteral verb (Hassan 2005, Al-Hamalawi 1991). Whether it is formed from the ground-form of the triliteral verb or its verbal noun, anyone of the two has to undergo modification in order to correspond to the form of the AP which is [*faa9il*] like, for example,



noun. Third, one, in some cases, finds a verb without its verbal noun such as */ni9ma, bi?sa, 9asaa* and *laysa/*. To this school of grammarians, this third point is decisive as it is impossible to have a branch and no root (Ibn Al-Anbary 1953: 236). Al-BaSriyyuun, however, have their opposing ideas. They believe that the verbal noun is the source of the verb because the former is simple and denotes the action alone, while the latter denotes both action and time (past, present or future). And since one is the source of two in mathematics, then the verbal noun is the source of the verb. They also think that as the verbal noun has one form and the verb has many forms, then the verbal noun is the source of the verb. This time, the verbal noun is compared to *gold* as being used in manufacturing jewels in their different forms (Ibn Al-Anbary 1953: 237). Moreover, their decisive proof is that the word */maSdar/* itself means the origin or the source of something. This, according to this school, ends the whole dispute and proves that the verbal noun is the source of its verb (Ibid).

After this detailed introduction to the meaning of derivation in Arabic, its nature and types, followed by the disputes among Arab grammarians on the source element of derivation, it is time, now, to focus on lexical nominalization in Standard Arabic. Abbas



derived word and its source element, share the same root consonants in the same order (Al-Hamalawi 1991: 77). (See Appendix (1) for the phonemic symbols used to transcribe Arabic data.)

There was much dispute among Arab grammarians concerning the verb and the /maSdar/ 'verbal noun': which one of the two is the source of the other. Al-kuufiyyuun, on the one hand, believe that the verb is the source of the verbal noun. Al-BaSriyyuun, on the other hand, believe that the verbal noun is the source of the verb (Ibid: 78). Each school of grammarians has its own justifications. Al-Kuufiyyuun abide to the thoughts of the first morphologists that the verb is the source of the verbal noun (Ibid). This, in their opinion, is due to many reasons. First, the verb acts as a /9aamil/ 'governor' of the verbal noun which is /ma9muul/ 'governed', as illustrated in the following example:

- (13) banay-tu bayt-an
 build.pf-1sg house-acc
 I built a house.

In this case, the rank of the governor is higher than that of the governed element, the thing which confirms Al-kuufiyyuun's idea. Second, the use of the verbal noun in strengthening the verb, the thing which, again, puts the verb in a higher rank than the verbal



finally, in (12d), Huda is the subject of a verb in the passive form, *was granted*, and the *grantee*. In this final position, Huda is also called the non-agentive subject or the patient. Obviously, the nouns *consultee*, *sendee*, *objectee* and *grantee* are examples of English objective nouns.

1.7 Reason Nouns

For this type of nominalization, Comrie and Thompson (1985: 356) present examples from Sundanese. This language creates from the verb a noun meaning "the reason for 'verbing'". In English this type is not common among nominal derivatives.

2.0 Lexical Nominalization in Standard Arabic

Derivation in Arabic makes use of prefixes, suffixes and infixes. By the help of these affixes, a new lexeme of one word class is derived from another lexeme of another word class with a relative similarity between the derived word and its source element in both meaning and form. The process of derivation in Arabic, as well as in other Semitic languages, "takes the form of various modifications of a three-consonant (= triliteral) root" (Comrie and Thompson 1985: 350). Derivation, in Arabic, is divided into three types, the most important of which is what is called /ʔal-ʔištīqaaq ʔaS-Sagīir/ 'the small derivation' in which the two words, the



nurse → nursery

refine → refinery

1.6 Objective Nouns

As for this type of nominalization, Comrie and Thompson (1985: 355) state that some languages, by the help of affixation form nouns that name "the result, or the typical or 'cognate', object of an action". They also add that other languages form nouns from verbs with a passive meaning which is the "thing/person that is 'verbed'" (Ibid: 356). As for English, the suffix *-ee*, according to Quirk et al (1985: 1550), has the meaning "'one who is object of the verb', as in *appointee, payee*". Bauer (1983), however, presents four different meanings for the suffix *-ee*. Generally speaking, the suffix is presented as "the one which is used to form patient nouns" (243). The following examples illustrate its different meanings:

- (12) a) I consulted *Huda*.
b) I sent *Huda* a present.
c) I objected against *Huda*.
d) *Huda* was granted a pension.

In (12a), *Huda* is the direct object of the transitive verb '*consulted*' and at the same time the *consultee*. In (12b), *Huda* is the indirect object of the ditransitive verb *sent* and, also, the *sendee*. In (12c), *Huda* is the object of the preposition *against* and the *objectee*. And

of a verb phrase whereas the gerund may function as a subject, object or complement of any sentence. Moreover, the gerund has got the meaning "way of 'verbing'" (Comrie and Thompson 1985: 354). Accordingly, English gerunds are known as manner nouns as they indicate the "fact/ occurrence interpretation and a manner interpretation" (Ibid).

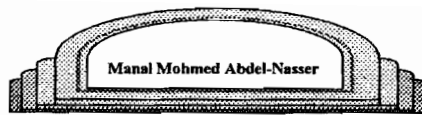
- (10) a) Her singing is really impressive.
b) Her dancing is really expressive.

In these examples, *singing* and *dancing* are manner nouns which refer to the fact or occurrence of her singing/dancing or to the way she sings/dances.

1.5 Locative Nouns

Another type of the nominal derivatives introduced by Comrie and Thompson (1985: 355) is the one which means "a place where 'verb' happens". They are derived from verbs to refer to the location where a certain verb takes place. Simply, they are place nouns. English has many examples of this type of nominalization as illustrated below:

- (11) bake → bakery
cook → cookery
fish → fishery



1.3 Instrumental Nouns

The nominalizing suffix *-er* is also attached to action verbs to produce non-human nouns which are names of instruments meaning "an instrument for 'verbing' " (Comrie and Thompson 1985: 353).

- (9) compute → computer
cook → cooker
cool → cooler
cut → cutter
dry → drier
erase → eraser
heat → heater
hold → holder
wash → washer

These non-human instrumental nouns are also sub-divided into agentive nouns and non-agentive nouns according to whether or not there is an outside agent that interferes in performing the action (Heyvaert 2007). In (9), this is more applicable to *cutter* and *eraser* than anything else.

1.4 Manner Nouns

In English, the gerund is formed from the verb by attaching the derivational suffix *-ing* to the verb. In this, it is identical, in form, with the present participle. Yet the present participle occurs as a part

Moreover, Stageberg (1981: 97) mentions a different role played by the same derivational suffix *-er*:

It may also be attached to non-verbal stems, e.g., *probationer, New Yorker, teen-ager, freighter*. The *-er* on such words could be said to convey a more general meaning of "that which is related to"; and this meaning is inclusive of the previous one

It is worth mentioning that "with neo-classical bases, the suffix is often spelled *-or* (*accelerator, incubator; supervisor, survivor; actor*); so too in cases where there is no free base (*author, doctor, etc*)" (Quirk et al 1985: 1550). Finally, Comrie and Thompson (1985) state that the use of the agentive *-er* to form agentive nouns is restricted in two ways. The first is the case of some stative verbs with which the use of this device is not effective and they cite the verb 'fall' as an example. The second is that one cannot use an adjective as a base to form an agentive noun because if one does, the result will be a form of the same adjective but in the comparative degree and by so doing the *-er* turns to be the inflectional *-er*. Other suffixes, however, are used to form agentive nouns like the use of the suffix *-ist* which is added to both verbs (*typist*) and adjectives (*socialist*). Another suffix is *-ant* in *participant* (Quirk et al 1985: 1550, 1552).

1.2 Agentive Nouns

The nominalizing suffix *-er* is highly productive in English. It creates nouns meaning "one which 'verbs'" (Comrie and Thompson 1985: 351), i.e. one that does the action, and they are labelled agentive nouns although they are formed from both agentive and non-agentive verbs as Comrie and Thompson (1985) point it out. This is illustrated in (8a) and (8b), respectively:

(8) a) announce → announcer

drive → driver

fight → fighter

kill → killer

play → player

ride → rider

speak → speaker

teach → teacher

travel → traveller

write → writer

b) believe → believer

listen → listener

own → owner

suffer → sufferer

think → thinker

(7) a) John is **reading** a book.

b) John is interested in **reading**.

In (7a) 'reading' is the head of the verb phrase 'is reading' and it is in the present participle form and the **-ing** which is added to the verb 'read' is one of the inflectional suffixes. In (7b) 'reading' is obviously a verbal noun which, on different occasions, "permits the addition of an inflectional suffix to close it off, the noun plural {-spl}" (Stageberg 1981:97). One last point presented by Comrie and Thompson (1985: 351) in relation to the action/state nouns is that some languages use different derivational devices to create action/state nouns of different semantic types. They, accordingly, distinguish between "a nominalization designating a process and one designating a non-process". In English, the method of nominalization is quite the same but the results are not so. For example, the nouns 'growth' and 'death' are both formed from two action verbs 'to grow' and 'to die' by adding the suffix *-th* to both of them, but the former denotes a process noun as it is, in a sense, gradable, i.e. it passes through many stages and it is not completed in one shot. On the contrary, the latter denotes a non-process noun as it is non-gradable, i.e. it is a matter of all or nothing.

supreme	→	supremacy
true	→	truth

In addition to the use of suffixes, Comrie and Thompson (1985: 350) present another way to generate an action/state noun. They cite that "in some vo [*sic*] languages, an action/state noun can be formed from a verb phrase consisting of a transitive verb and its object by reversing the order of the verb and the object. In English this strategy is very productive with *-ing*". This process is illustrated by the following examples:

- (6) borrow money → money-borrowing
catch a fish → fish-catching
fly a kite → kite-flying
make a mistake → mistake-making
sail a boat → boat-sailing
shoot a duck → duck-shooting
smoke a cigarette → cigarette-smoking
tell a lie → lie-telling
tell a story → story-telling
write a letter → letter-writing

Interestingly, one should not confuse the verbal inflectional suffix, *-ing*, with the nominal derivational suffix, *-ing*. The following example illustrates the difference between the two:

(5) a) An action verb to an action noun

break	→	breakage
compose	→	composition
die	→	death
discover	→	discovery
fail	→	failure
grow	→	growth
pollute	→	pollutant
withdraw	→	withdrawal

b) A stative verb to a state noun

astonish	→	astonishment
imagine	→	imagination
observe	→	observation
perceive	→	perception
realize	→	realization

c) An adjective to a state noun

active	→	activity
brave	→	bravery
careful	→	carefulness
happy	→	happiness
real	→	realism
sick	→	sickness

with the two negators. Comrie and Thompson (1985: 367) cite that the "verbal gerund may occur with either, though *not* is preferred if adjuncts are present". The following examples perfectly illustrate this idea:

- (4) a) * Mary's not attendance of the lectures disappointed her professors.
b) Mary's non-attendance of the lectures disappointed her professors.
c) Mary's not walking
d) Mary's non-walking
e) * Mary's non-walking on the track
f) Mary's not walking on the track

All in all, the previous discussion of the characteristics of derived nouns naming an activity or state proves that they represent a compromise between the characteristics of nouns, on the one hand, and the characteristics of verbs, on the other.

1.1 Action/State Nouns

The action/state nouns are formed by a number of nominalizing suffixes (some of them are *-age*, *-tion*, *-th*, *-y*, *-ure*, *-art*, *-al*, *-ment*, *-ation*, *-ity*, *-ry*, *-ness*, *-ism*, and *-acy*) that change action verbs into action nouns and stative verbs or adjectives into state nouns:



other morphologically, syntactically, and semantically? It is well-known that derived nominals usually bear extra morphological markings and have quite different distributions from their source verbs: unlike their source verbs, derived nominals cannot be inflected for tense/mood and cannot pattern with auxiliaries,

However, action /state derived nouns retain some verbal traces of voice and negation. As for voice, the following examples prove the passive-like feature of the derived nouns:

(3) a) **Active:**

Tom's proposal (to fulfil the plan)

b) **Passive:**

The proposal *by Tom* (to fulfil the plan)

The fact that the derived nouns allow a passive-agent is an instance of their "verbal, not nominal, syntax" (Comrie and Thompson 1985: 365). As for negation, it is marked, in English, by *not* with verbs and *non-* with nouns (Ibid). It is noticed that only the nominal negator *non-* is used with derived nouns in the negative to prove that they are "rather close to the noun end of the nominal-verbal scale" (Ibid: 367). However, the verbal gerund may occur

The second characteristic is the use of the definite article. Those nouns appear after the definite article like all the nouns in the language (e.g. *the proposal; the criticism; the destruction; the establishment . . .* etc). The third characteristic is that those nouns function as subjects, objects or objects of prepositions (Ibid: 393), i.e. the roles which are usually played by nouns:

(2) a) **Subject:**

Her proposal attracted the attention of everybody.

b) **Object:**

Everybody liked *her proposal*.

c) **Object of a preposition:**

Nobody objected to *her proposal*.

As for verbal categories as tense and aspect, they are not quite obvious in the case of the derived nouns. Yet the absence of these categories is not a big deal because although they disappear with non-finite verb forms, these forms continue to be "considered part of the verbal paradigm" (Comrie and Thompson 1985: 361). Commenting on the relation between the derived nouns and their source verbs or adjectives, Chang and Lee (2002: 350) cite:

Linguists have been continually interested in what relations nominals and their source elements hold. How do they behave alike or differently from each



is not the concern of the present study as it mainly concentrates on de-verbal and de-adjectival nouns. What should also be noted is that affixation, sometimes, affects spelling like, for example, *submit* → *submission* and *able* → *ability* (Ibid).

A derived noun which is a name of an activity or state is quite different from that which designates a name of an argument. While the former retains certain properties of the source verb or adjective it is related to, the latter syntactically behaves like all other nouns in the English language (Comrie and Thompson 1985). Action/state derived nouns occupy an intermediate position between nouns and verbs. They share some characteristics of the two categories. The first characteristic is the fact that a verb is modified by an adverb and a noun by an adjective. Interestingly, the action/state derived noun accepts both ways of modification, the thing which confirms its intermediate position between verbs and nouns:

(1) a) The girl's *careful preparation* of the table.

b) The girl's *preparation* of the table, *carefully*, surprised everyone.

Note that the adverb is only acceptable if separated by pauses as indicated by Comrie and Thompson (1985). By so doing, there is no way to confuse it as being a modifier to the verb *surprised*.

the idea that many Semitic languages like modern Arabic use infixes. Moreover, in one of his articles, Comrie (1991: 4) explains that Arabic uses affixation as a process of word-formation.

1.0 Lexical Nominalization in English

In English, forming nouns from other word classes is the job of derivational affixes which are class-changing affixes. The process of forming nouns from other word-classes is called nominalization as hinted above. According to Comrie and Thompson (1985), it aims at generating two categories of nouns. The first is the name of an activity or state and is called action/state nouns and the second is the name of an argument and is classified into six subdivisions. These are the agentive, instrumental, manner, locative, objective and reason nouns. Nouns may also be formed from noun bases using suffixation but the result is sometimes a noun of a different type or a different semantic denotation from the base. For example, the base *king* when suffixed by *-dom* creates a concrete and count noun, *kingdom*, whereas it creates a non-count and abstract noun when suffixed by *-ship* in *kingship*. Again, the suffix *-ry* when added to *slave* results in the noun, *slavery* which denotes a *condition* but when added to *nurse* results in the noun, *nursery* which denotes a *location* (Quirk et al 1985: 1548). Yet this type of noun suffixes



Lobeck (2000: 84) as "nouns formed through derivational [*sic*] affixation". She also adds that "the term *nominalization* is thus itself a nominalization, as *-ion* is added to *nominalize*" (Ibid). In short, 'lexical nominalization' means forming nouns from other lexical items. It is 'nominalization' because the product of this process is a noun and it is 'lexical' because it is a word-formation process.

The language system of word-formation through affixation is inherited from the Old English period, and it proves the resourcefulness of the language at that time (Baugh and Cable 1993). Some scholars view linguistic structure as being symbolic in nature, that is "as being meaningful over and above the meanings of the various units it consists of" (Heyvaert 2007:1). Drawing on this idea, one believes that word structure or rather forming new lexemes through affixation is also symbolic as it symbolizes great flexibility and a remarkable capacity of forming many lexical items from one single root by the help of different affixes. This advantage is not restricted to English alone but it is common to many languages which "are said to permit their roots to undergo modification, differing solely in whether the technique of modification consists simply of affixation of elements to an invariant root, or whether the root itself can be internally modified" (Collinge 1990: 316). Again, Brown and Miller (1980: 177) are of

it is necessary that there should be differences among languages". Consequently, human languages are studied in relation to one another in an attempt to classify them into types according to their properties. Crystal (1987: 84) adds that "in Chomsky's view, therefore, the aim of linguistics is to go beyond the study of individual languages, to determine what the universal properties of language are, and to establish a 'universal grammar' that would account for the range of linguistic variation that is humanly possible".

The present study focuses on lexical nominalization in English and Standard Arabic, adopting the approach of Comrie and Thompson (1985) to lexical nominalization. The term 'nominalization', according to Bernard Comrie and Sandra Thompson (1985: 349), means "turning something into a noun". The term 'lexical' has to do with the vocabulary of a language. It indicates that there is another type of nominalization, which is 'syntactic nominalization'. It refers to "the DERIVATION of a noun phrase from an underlying CLAUSE" (Crystal 1997: 260), but it does not concern us in this study. Chang and Lee (2002: 351) state that "nominalization can be classified into two major types: lexical nominalization and syntactic nominalization (Chomsky 1970)". A more specific definition of 'nominalization' is presented by Anne



Abstract:

This paper presents a contrastive study of lexical nominalization in English and Standard Arabic. It aims at analyzing the similarities and differences between the two languages in such nominalizations. It adopts the term 'nominalization' as it is meant by Comrie and Thompson (1985). It presents the categories discussed in their article and applies them to the English language. Then a similar list of derivatives mentioned by Arab grammarians is also presented and discussed in relation to Standard Arabic. It is found that the two languages have the same strategy of forming nouns, each in its own way. Moreover, the resultant nouns, in the two languages, are of two types. One group of nouns behave purely like nouns and the other retain the form of nouns only but function as their source verbs.

0. Introduction:

To compare and contrast languages is the core of two main areas of linguistic studies which are language universals and language typology. Drawing on Comrie (1989: 33), it is noted that "language universals research is concerned with finding those properties that are common to all human languages, whereas in order to typologize languages, i.e. to assign them to different types,

**Lexical Nominalization in English and
Standard Arabic: A Contrastive Study**

prepared by 

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