

**MORPHOLOGICAL DERIVATIONS  
AND INFLECTIONS IN AN ALGERIAN ARABIC DIALECT**

**Djaffar Farida**

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## **Abstract**

So far, not much research has been carried out on the morphological description of the Algerian Arabic dialect, applying the principles of modern structural linguistics. Algeria, a North African country, has many dialects spoken in the various regions of its vast geographical area, including non-Arabic dialects. This paper deals with one of these dialects, namely the Arabic Algiers Urban Dialect (AAUD). As the name indicates, it is the dialect of the capital city.

This study focuses on the inflectional and derivational grammatical (morphological) formations found in the Algiers Arabic Urban dialect (AAUD), based on the systematic analysis, applying the Replacive Morpheme, Root-and-Pattern system, Item-and-Process (IP) and the Item-and-Arrangement morphological principles with suitable conditionings and illustrations. Though there are variations found within this dialect, no attempt has been made to stratify the differences due to social variables.

The present paper presents the important aspects of different parts of speech in morphology, including nouns (and pronouns), verbs and adjectives. Since we are dealing with an Arabic dialect, a brief overview of the Standard Arabic language structure is presented first (with root and pattern system) along with definitions and exemplification. This is followed by the sections on verbal derivations and inflections. The sections dealing with nouns, adjectives, and pronouns follow consecutively.

## **Abstrak**

Sehingga kini tidak banyak kajian yang dilakukan mengenai deskripsi morfologi dialek Arab Algeria yang menggunakan prinsip struktur linguistik moden. Algeria adalah sebuah negara di Afrika Utara yang mempunyai banyak dialek pertuturan di pelbagai wilayah, hal ini wujud disebabkan kawasan geografinya yang luas, termasuk juga dialek bukan Arab. Kajian ini melibatkan salah satu daripada dialek-dialek tersebut iaitu Dialek Bandar Arab Algeria (Arabic Algiers Urban Dialect or AAUD). Dialek ini digunakan di bandar-bandar utama.

Fokus kajian ini adalah terhadap wujudnya bentuk-bentuk gramatikal infleksi dan derivatif yang terdapat dalam AAUD berasaskan analisis sistematik, pemakaian morfem gantian, sistem kata dasar dan bentuk, proses dan item dan prinsip penyusunan item dan morfologi yang bersesuaian dengan keadaan dan ilustrasi. Walaupun terdapat pelbagai variasi di dalam dialek ini, tidaklah wujud unsur-unsur untuk membezakan strata perbezaan sosial dalam masyarakat.

Kajian ini memaparkan aspek-aspek penting pelbagai morfologi termasuk pembentukan kata seperti nama (kata gantinama), kata kerja dan adjektif. Oleh kerana kajian ini melibatkan dialek Arab, satu gambaran keseluruhan ringkas struktur bahasa Arab Standard disertakan bersama dengan contoh dan definisi. Diikuti pula dengan bahagian infleksi dan derivatif verbal atau lisan dan diikuti pula dengan adjektif dan kata gantinama.

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## List of Abbreviations

Term	Abbreviation
Active Participle	A.P.
Adjectival noun	Adj. N.
Adjective	Adj.
Agentive suffix	Ag. Suf.
Algerian Arabic Urban Dialect	AAUD
Definite article	Def. Art.
Demonstrative	Dem.
Feminine	fem.
Infix	Inf.
Item-and-Arrangement	IA
Item-and-Process	IP
Masculine	masc.
Noun	N
Noun Base	NB.
Numeral	Num.
Participle	P.
Particle	Part.
Passive Participle	P.P.
Person	Per.
Plural	Pl.
Possessive	Poss.
Prefix	Pref.
Preposition	Prep.

<b>Pronoun</b>	Pron.
<b>Relative</b>	Rel.
<b>Singular</b>	Sing.
<b>Suffix</b>	Suf.
<b>Suffixed Pronoun</b>	Suf. Pron.
<b>Verb</b>	V
<b>Verb Base</b>	VB.
<b>Vocative</b>	Voc.

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **1. Introduction**

### **1.1. Aim of the study**

Many studies have been conducted with reference to the morphology of Arabic dialects spoken throughout the Arab world. However, very little research has been realized on the morphology of Algerian Arabic dialects. This study aims to describe the morphology of one of these dialects, namely the Algiers Arabic Urban Dialect [AAUD], with particular reference to parts of speech such as verbs, nouns (including pronouns), and adjectives. Hence, the objectives of the study are:

- i. To describe the morphological formations and structures with reference to inflectional and derivational forms found in this dialect.
- ii. To explain the morphological processes and patterns involved in the formation of these structures.
- iii. To find out the occurrence of all such morphological forms in different grammatical structures.

### **1.2. Research Questions**

The research questions put forward are:

1. What are the inflectional and derivational forms and their structures related to noun and verb categories found in AAUD?
2. What are the processes and patterns involved in the formation of all these structures?
3. How do these inflectional and derivational forms occur in the dialect?

### 1.3. Statement of problem

While Standard Arabic is the official language of Algeria, it is not used as a home language by the Algerian people. It is rather used in the formal domains of use, official settings, scripted contexts and written materials such as books, newspapers, official speeches, lectures, news broadcasts, T.V. shows, etc. Algeria has got, beside the Tamazight Berber dialects, a continuum of spoken Arabic dialects which certainly vary socially and geographically (*The Arabian Journal for Science and Engineering, Volume 35, Number 2C*).

Except in informal settings such as blogs and email chats, these dialects are rarely written. Thus, they have no standard orthographies for their written form. These dialects, used as native speech varieties, possess constructs and structures similar to those of the mother language, in other words, Classical or Standard Arabic. However, these dialects show differences in the lexical, phonological, morphological and syntactic levels, not only from the Standard Arabic, but also from one another (Ibid).

The Algerian dialects in general have been influenced by foreign languages, such as Turkish, Spanish, Italian and French due to colonial influences (Ibid). This kind of linguistic impact is so remarkable that it can't go unnoticed when these dialects are spoken. This kind of linguistic impact makes the legibility of the dialect difficult for other Arabic dialect speakers, especially from the Middle East. Furthermore, the phonological variations in the Algiers dialect, found in the use of vowels for instance, may confuse these foreign Arab speakers. For instance, the word تَحْت 'downstairs', when occurring on its own, is basically pronounced as [teħt] in the Middle East while it is pronounced [teħta] in the Algiers dialect; or منام 'dream' [manaam] vs. [mnaam] respectively.

#### **1.4. Significance of the study**

As mentioned earlier, so far only little research has been conducted on the Algerian dialects. This study tries to fill the gap through the morphological description of the [AAUD], undertaken in a small way as a beginning in this direction. This short study may also help non-Algerian speakers to discover and understand the Algiers Arabic dialect. Furthermore, it may be a start and an incentive for future research, either on the same aspect or widening the scope to include other aspects and categories of the morphological/phrase structure of this dialect for historical/contrastive/comparative studies.

#### **1.5. Limitation of the study**

The present study deals with the Algiers Arabic Urban Dialect, focusing on the inflectional and derivational grammatical (morphological) formations. Yet, the type of sentences, phrases and words used as examples are found in the day to day use of the concerned society, in informal contexts. (Thus, no scientific/technical samples or other types are used). Furthermore, despite the variations found within this dialect, no attempt has been made to stratify the existing variations/differences due to social or other variables.

The study includes the following parts of speech: ‘verbs, nouns (including pronouns) and adjectives’ only. Hence, other parts of speech, such as adverbs and particles are not included in this study due to time constraint.

## CHAPTER TWO

*“The Semitic root is one of the great miracles of man’s language”  
(Lohmann, 1972. P. 318, quoted by  
Ryding, 2005)*

### **2. Literature Review**

#### **2.1. Study of Morphology**

It is the study of different types of morphemes found in a language and their distribution in various language structures. It identifies, analyzes and describes morphemes, including among others, root words (base forms), affixes and their place (order) of occurrence. Morphology focuses on two main issues, namely word formation (derivational morphology) and word interaction with syntax (inflectional morphology, such as gender, number, tense marking, etc.).

Morphemes are the minimum meaningful units that are used in a language. They occur in an order in the process of word formation. Most familiar word formation processes are derivational affixation, compounding, conversion, and some other minor processes such as blending, clipping or coinage. However, these rules are not applicable to all world languages. Indeed, there are some languages which have completely different word formation systems. This includes infixes and circumfixes, internal stem or root change (also referred to as ‘Replacive Morpheme’ or ‘Root Modification’ (Crowley et al. p.240), reduplication and templatic/prosodic morphology (Lieber, 2010).

##### **2.1.1. Root, stem and base**

These terms are encountered very often in the descriptive linguistic analysis. Definitions of the terms are presented below.

### **2.1.1.1 Root**

A root is a type of morpheme. It is the primary and semantically significant unit or core of a word which cannot be divided into smaller parts. (It occurs in all different manifestations of a lexeme with some possible modifications).

### **2.1.1.2. Stem**

Stem is the part of a word left out after any inflectional ending is removed from the lexeme or morphological form (in inflection or derivation). Hence, it is the part of a word which accepts inflectional (grammatical) affixes to be added to it. In other words, it can be the 'bare root' or the root attached to other affixes. The following examples demonstrate this definition:

Noun stem	Plural suffix	Form
dog	-s	dogs
eater	-s	eaters

The first example presents us with a word-form, which is no more than the 'bare root', to which the plural suffix is attached. So it is the root and the stem at the same time. However, the second example presents us with a word-form, which is a combination of the root 'eat' and the suffix '-er'. This combination is the stem to which the plural suffix is attached. Other forms can also be explained in this way:

Stem	Negation	Form
regular	ir-	irregular

Stem	Adverbial	Form
slow	-ly	slowly

Stem	Adjectival	Form
beauty	-ful	beautiful



### **2.1.1.3. Base**

A base is any form to which an affix (not only inflectional) can be attached to.

Thus, every root is a base and every stem a base as well.

## **2.2. Morphological Processes in word Formation**

### **2.2.1. Affixation**

It is a common and familiar process of creating new words or lexemes. Through this derivational process, various prefixes and suffixes are attached to different sorts of bases. English and French are among the languages which have a vast number of lexemes formed through this process. ‘Derivations, derivational, locked and unlocked’ are some examples of such a derivational process.

However, there are other types of affixes, such as infixes and circumfixes. Infixes are inserted within a root or a base while circumfixes consist simultaneously of both prefixes and suffixes. Crowley et al. present examples of infixes from the Tolai language. They are as follows:

- mat ‘die’ → m-in- at ‘death, corpse’
- tangi ‘cry’ → t-in-angi ‘cry, sound’ (Crowley et al. 1999)

Examples of circumfixes (also referred to as ‘discontinuous affixes’ or ‘simulfixes’, Crowley et al. 1999) are from the Malay language or Bahasa Indonesia:

- merah ‘red’ → ke-merah-an ‘redness’
- adil ‘just’ → ke-adil-an ‘justice’ (Crowley et al., 1999)

### **2.2.2. Compounding**

It is a process where two (or more) roots, stems, or bases are combined to produce Compounds. ‘Blackbird’ and ‘housewives’ are some examples of English compounds.

### 2.2.3. Conversion

It is also called as ‘functional shift’. The lexeme is shifted from one category to another without adding any affix. ‘To throw (v) → a throw (n); yellow (adj.) → to yellow (v).

### 2.2.4. Reduplication

It is a process where a part of the root or the root itself is repeated within the given word or lexeme. It is a relatively rare process in European languages. Katamba cites Sapir claiming that this process is not totally unknown in the English language. Some of his examples include ‘pooh-pooh, goody-goody, roly-poly and sing-song’. Some examples of reduplication in Malay language are ‘kerja-kerja ‘works (pl.), buda-buda ‘kids’ and resipe-resipe ‘recipes’. These examples denote plural formation in the Malay language.

In one of the Dravidian languages, Tamil repetition/reduplication is found in verb forms as illustrated in the following examples: [vara] ‘to come’ → [vara vara] ‘as time pass(es) on’; [colli] ‘having said’ → [colli colli] ‘repeated telling’ etc. (Karunakaran, 2000)

### 2.2.5. Root/Stem Modification

It is a different process of word formation. It is not as familiar as the processes mentioned above. It is also referred to as ‘Ablaut’, ‘Apophony’, ‘Morphological Modification or Replacement’ where the root/stem itself undergoes change. This change indicates some grammatical (inflectional) information within a word/lexeme. In English, such a change occurs in some specific words as illustrated in the following examples:

1. ‘sing’ (V) → ‘sang’ (V. past tense) → ‘song’ (noun)
2. ‘foot’ (N. sing.) → ‘feet’ (N. pl.)

3. 'find' (V) → 'found' (V. past tense)
4. 'go' (V) → 'went' (V. past tense) etc.

One specific type of the morphological 'Modification or Replacement' process is 'Transfixation'. It is typically encountered in languages of the Semitic family such as Arabic and Hebrew. The very characteristic morphology of these languages is called 'Templatic' or 'Root and Pattern' morphology. 'Patterns' or 'Templates' interlace vowels in between the root which is entirely made up of consonants (McCarthy, 1981). This is illustrated in the following examples:

Root	Patterns	Derived Forms
فعل [fʕl] كُتِبَ [ktb]	فَعَّلَ [faʕal]	كَتَبَ [katab] '(He) wrote'
	فَعَّالَ [fiʕa:l]	كِتَابَ [kita:b] 'A book'
	فُعِّلَ [fuʕil]	كُتِبَ [kutib] 'was written'

Root: [k-t-b] (a discontinuous root morph) (Spencer, 1991)

- Patterns: [f i ʕ a: l] [f u ʕ i l]
- Derived forms: [k i t a: b] (noun) [k u t i b] (perfective passive)

Thus, much of word formation and derivation is achieved through the use of such patterns. As a consequence, many of the morphemes are discontinuous, as claimed by Ryding (2005, p.45).

## 2.3. Item-and-Arrangement and Item-and-Process Models

### 2.3.1. Item-and-Arrangement (IA) Morphology

This type of morphological description views words or lexeme constituents as a sequence of morphemes concatenated and arranged next to each other. It is a "morpheme based" morphology or a "concatenative morphology" (McCarthy, 1981). The morphological information is associated with a specific phonological segment.

Morphemes are assigned as meaning elements rather than form elements (Hockett, 1958). For instance, there is a morpheme plural (meaning) with different allomorphs ‘-s’ (as with ‘dogs’), ‘-en’ (as with ‘oxen’) and ‘-ren’ (as with ‘children’).

The structure is basically (pref. +) base form (+ suf.).

- Boys → boy + s  
NB + Num. Suf.
- Worker → work + er  
VB + Ag. Suf.
- Unfortunately → un + fortunate +ly  
Neg. Pref. + Adj. +Adv. Suf.

### 2.3.2. Item-and-Process (IP) Morphology

It is ‘lexeme based’ “nonconcatenative morphology” (McCarthy, 1981). Therefore, words are not analyzed as sequences of morpheme sets. The word form or stem is altered according to the required rules and is therefore analyzed accordingly. Contrary to the IA, the morphological information is associated with a discontinuous set of segments, as far as ‘root-and-pattern’ morphology is concerned. (Refer to ‘Root/Stem modification for illustrations). Morphological operations such as reduplication, Infixation and “suprafixation” (Ibid) (transfixation) are subject to the IP morphological analysis.

### 2.4. Root and Pattern Morphology (Templatic)

It is an adequate descriptive morphological type for Semitic languages, such as Arabic and Hebrew (F. Katamba, J. Stonham, 2006, p.163; R. Lieber, 2010, p. 82). However, Crowley et al. (p. 242) classify Semitic morphological processes under the Replative Morpheme (Root Modification) process, and more specifically in languages

that come under the ‘Transfixation’ process. They claim that “transfixes have only been encountered (so far) in members of the Semitic language Family, such as Arabic.”

## **2.4.1. The Arabic Language Structure**

### **2.4.1.1. *The Root and Pattern System***

The Arabic language, being a member of the family of Semitic languages, is distinguished by the trilateral root system. “Arabic morphology exhibits rigorous and elegant logic”. (Ryding, 2005. p. 45) Indeed, it has a developed ‘root and pattern’ system. Undoubtedly, to learn and comprehend this language, it is of prime importance to understand the word-pattern system (Ibid). The formation of nouns and verbs along with their derivatives are based on the root concept. In other words, different word forms and stems are realized by substituting the root characters.

#### **2.4.1.1.1. The Root**

The root in the Arabic language is, according to Ryding (Ibid), a discontinuous bound morpheme which has two to five consonants (three most of the time) and carries lexical meaning. It is subject to vowel introduction according to a given pattern to form a stem. The root consonants must occur in the same sequence in different manifestations. It may be trilateral, quadrilateral (tetraliteral) or atypical (with less than three or more than four constituent elements).

For instance, the trilateral (made up of 3) consonant set of the root [ʃ-r-b] implies ‘something to do with drinking’. Prefixes, infixes or suffixes are added according to the given patterns to generate various forms of different categories that are connected with the verb ‘drink’. Thus we would have, for instance:

- The root ش ر ب [ʃrb] ‘to drink’
- The pattern # مَفْعُول # [mafʕu:l]

- The stem #مَشْرُوب# [maʃru:b] ‘a drink, beverage’(addition of prefix [ma-] and infix [-u:-])

The root is classified into two categories, namely strong root and weak root. Since infinitive mood does not exist in Arabic as it does in some other languages, Arabic grammar often uses the verb conjugated in the perfective form (past), in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person masc., to refer to the verb root. This root embodies a basic kernel of meaning which is modified or expanded by the pattern.

#### 2.4.1.1.2. Pattern

A pattern can be defined as “a general mould composed of an ordered sequence of characters” (El-Sadany and Hashish [1989], cited by F. Z. Belkredim and A. El Sebai). There are in fact 37 patterns (also called scales) which exist to represent trilateral and tetraliteral verbs in the Arabic language. فَعَلَ [faʕala], فَاعِلَ [fa:ʕil], مَفْعُولَ [mafʕu:l], مَفْعَلَ [mafʕal] and مَفَاعِلَ [mafa:ʕil] are some of the various patterns found in the Arabic language.

The morphology of the Arabic dialect, in general, does share with Standard Arabic the root-and-pattern system, along with the morphological rules. As far as [AAUD] is concerned, this root-and -pattern system is fundamental, as it is for other Arabic dialects.

#### 2.4.1.2. *Types of roots in the AAUD based on the Standard Arabic language*

Similar to the Standard Arabic, there are three types of roots, namely trilateral (with three constituent elements), quadrilateral or tetraliteral (with four constituent elements), and atypical (with less than three or more than four constituent elements). Examples are presented respectively:

- كَتَبَ [ktb] ‘to write’

➤ تَرَجَّمَ [trdʒm] ‘to translate’

➤ جَا [dʒa:] ‘to come’

#### 2.4.1.2.1. Strong Roots

The Arabic roots are further classified into strong and weak root categories (as mentioned above). The strong roots are those which are entirely composed of consonants (e.g. [ktb] ‘to write’, and [trdʒm] ‘to translate’). They do not contain weak letters, which are ا- [a], و- [u] or ي [i].

#### 2.4.1.2.2. Sound Strong Triliteral Roots

When the three element consonants are different, the root is called ‘sound root’ (e.g. ش ر ب [ʃrb] ‘to drink’)

#### 2.4.1.2.3. Doubled strong triliteral roots

They are called so when the second and third consonants are found to be identical (e.g. [ʕedd] ‘to bite/ he bit’)

#### 2.4.1.2.4. Weak triliteral roots

The weak roots are those which have one of the weak letters mentioned above (ا- [a], و- [u] or ي [i]).

E.g. جَا [dʒa] ‘to come/ he came’, صَلَّى [sʕalla] ‘to pray’

#### 2.4.1.2.5. Middle weak root

The vowel of the weak root occurs in the second element position.

E.g. كَانَ [ka:n] ‘to be’.

#### 2.4.1.2.6. Final weak root

The vowel of the final type occurs in the third element position.

E.g. كُلَّ [kla] ‘to eat’

#### 2.4.1.2.7. Reduplicated strong quadriliteral root

The first two consonants of the type are reduplicated.

E.g. كَرَكَرَ [karkar] ‘to drag’; شَمَشَمَ [ʃamʃam] ‘to sniff’

#### 2.4.1.3. Types of Patterns

##### 2.4.1.3.1. Simple pattern

It consists either of none, one, or two vowels put to root consonants.

E.g. كَاتَبَ [ka:teb] ‘writer/ A. P.’

##### 2.4.1.3.2. Pattern-complex

This type of pattern is formed with an affix. For instance, [makla] ‘food’, from the root كَلَّ [kl] ‘to eat’, where the infix [-a-] before the two consonants of the root occurs along with the prefix ‘m-’ and the suffix [-a].

##### 2.4.1.4. Stems and affixes in AAUD

When a root is combined with a pattern and a prefix or suffix is added, the resultant form becomes a stem for further expansion. E.g. وَكَّلَ [wekkel] ‘to authorize, to empower’, its pattern-complex shows an [e] inserted both before and after the doubled middle consonant. This form would be the stem for the prefix [t-] in the form تَوَكَّلَ [twekkel] ‘leave’; or ‘rely on God’.

The principal affixes are:

- Personal prefixes and suffixes of the (past) imperfect tense of the verb.

E.g. the [t-] of [ta:kul] ‘you eat’, the [n-] of [na:kul] ‘we eat’.

- Personal suffixes of the perfect tense of the verb.

E.g. [-u:] of [ka:nu:] ‘they were’ and [-et] of [ka:net] ‘she was’.



- The prefix [m-(e)] occurring before noun, adjective, and verbal derivations.

E.g. [metkebbar] ‘arrogant’, [msa:fer] ‘traveller’.

- The feminine suffix [-a].

E.g. [sʕyi:ra] ‘small’ sing. fem.

- The plural ending [-(a :) t].

E.g. [kta:ba:t] masc. pl. ‘books’, [sʕya:ra:t] fem. pl. ‘the young ones’.

- The plural suffix [-i:n].

E.g. [kesla:ni:n] ‘lazy’ (pl.)

- The suffixed pronoun endings.

E.g. the [- (e)k] of [djalek] ‘yours/your’ (sing.), [-kum] of [djalkum] ‘yours/your’ (pl.)

## 2.5. Linguistic Distribution (Occurrence of forms)

All the linguistic forms cited above occur in the dialect in different contexts (environments) referred to as ‘distribution’ (Katamba et al. 2006). Distribution often underlies ‘Complementary Distribution’ where two or more forms, that have same grammatical function, do not occur in the same environment yet do not contrast. The indefinite articles ‘a’ and ‘an’ in the English language, for example occur in two different and exclusive environments. The linguistic environment of ‘a’ is before a word that begins with a consonant sound while the linguistic environment of ‘an’ is before a word that starts with a vowel sound. Moreover, the pronoun forms ‘I, me, my, mine’ etc. for 1<sup>st</sup> per. sing. are distributed (occur) differently in English.

## 2.6. Morphological Studies with Reference to Arabic Dialects

Many descriptive morphological studies have been carried out on different languages of the world. Arabic language and its dialects are also subject to various research studies, applying descriptive linguistics methodology. However, little research has been conducted on the Algerian Arabic dialects. Much focus is laid rather on dialects of the Arab East. Nevertheless, some researchers attempted to study some of the North African dialects, such as Moroccan and Libyan dialects, shedding some light on these ‘unfamiliar’ dialects to the world.

R. S. Harrell (1962), in his book *A Short Reference Grammar of Moroccan Arabic*, presents the morphology of the Moroccan dialect using the ‘Templatic’ or ‘Root and Pattern’ morphology as the basis for his description. M. W. Cowell’s (1964), *A Reference Grammar of Syrian Arabic*, and J. Owens’ (1984) *A Short Reference Grammar of Eastern Libyan Arabic*, also provide us with similar morphological descriptions of the concerned dialects. Both Item-and-Arrangement (IA) and Item-and-Process (IP) models are used in these descriptions. Therefore, both affixation and pattern principles are referred to.

The above studies are detailed and accurate, especially Cowell’s. Their works are analytically incisive and accurate.

John McCarthy’s works (1979 and 1981) on ‘Semitic Morphology’ (along with phonology) dismiss the view that Arabic word structure has the same form as that of English, for example. He points out the important role of vowel insertion in between the root consonants in the morphological processes. McCarthy presents a ‘Templatic Prosodic’ theory about ‘internally-structured’ lexical units which proves to be appropriate for an empirical and systematic description of the Semitic morphological system. The theory basically presents the ‘Root Tier’ as the first step and followed by

the identification of ‘added’ vowels (pattern) which he terms as the ‘Skeletal tier’, and finishes with the ‘Giving’ which is the new lexical form. McCarthy’s theory is not used in the present study. However, it endorses the model used in it. Both McCarthy’s theory and the model of the present study point out the importance and role of vowel insertion (pattern principle) in between the root consonants of the linguistic forms in the Arabic language.

McCarthy’s work is referred to by many descriptive authors, such as Katamba and Lieber. They agree that this Templatic principle is an adequate tool for a morphological description (Katamba, 2006; Lieber 2010).

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3. Research Methodology

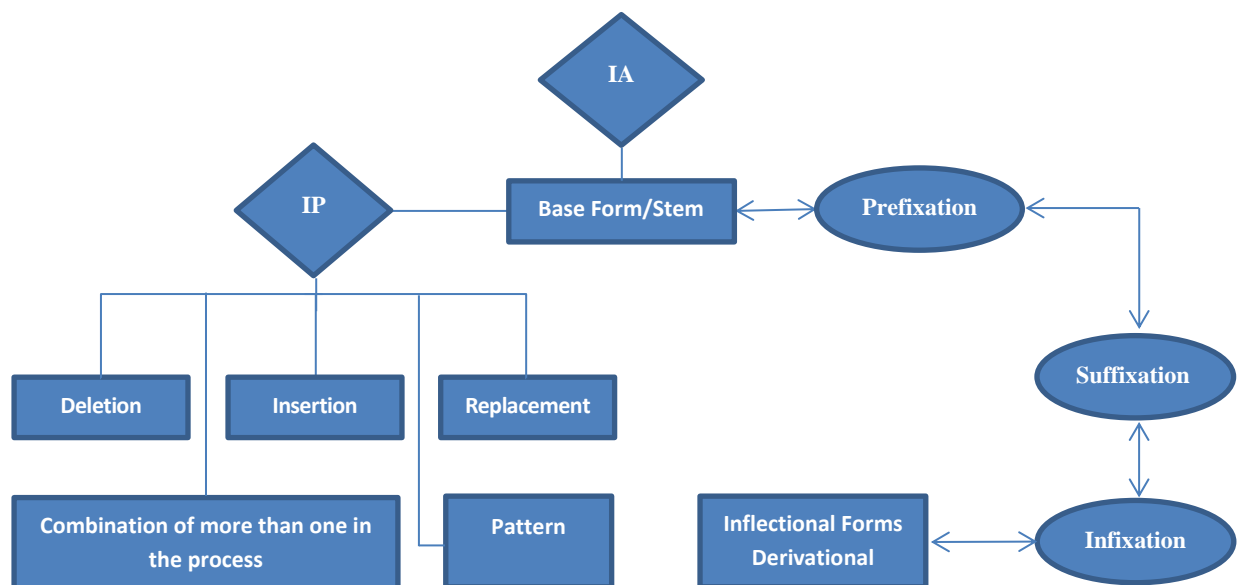
#### 3.1. Methods used

The present study is descriptive in nature. A qualitative method is used for the description task. The descriptive model set by T. Crowley et. al. in *'The Design of Language. An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics'* (p.242) is applied in this study. This model is used by Richard S. Harrell in his book *'A short Reference Grammar of Moroccan Arabic'*.

Morphological replacement (replacive morphemes) principle is applied to deal with the morphological description of the Algiers Arabic Urban Dialect [AAUD]. This comes under the 'Item-and-Process (IP) model' as opposed to the 'Item-and-Arrangement' (IA) model (Hockett, 1958). Both models are used and referred to in the present study. 'Root and Pattern' morphology is also used in the morphological description wherever found necessary.

##### 3.1.1. Research Design

The following diagram summarises the research design of the present study.



### 3.2. Field Study and Data collection

Being a native speaker of the dialect, the researcher used her intuitive knowledge of the dialect for data collection. Furthermore, Harrell's (1962) and Cowell's (1964) books were also source materials and guides for data collection and categorisation.

#### 3.2.1. Sampling and Selection of Informants

Burgess (1982. p. 130) cites Mead (1952) who claims that in describing the grammatical structure of a language, the use of a very small sample of informants is sufficient. Hence, the researcher chose to work with a small sample consisting of 12 informants for the data elicitation in order to get relevant and genuine data. The informants were chosen (random sampling) giving importance to the following factors only:

- Locally based: born, raised and presently living in the area of the target dialect (geographical area: location).
- Target dialect spoken in informal domains of use.
- Stability: the informants have not lived away from hometown for a long period of time (to elicit more authentic and natural language use).

#### Sample size

Informants	Age Group	Male	Female
12	25-40	5	7
	41-59		
	61-79		

### **3.2.2. Dialect Area**

The characteristics of the target dialect area are:

- i. Urban Area
- ii. Capital city (Algiers)
- iii. Area: 809 km<sup>2</sup>. (Wikipedia)
- iv. Industrial area
- v. Population of 2.74 million (2012 profile. <http://www.theodora.com>)

### **3.2.3. Data for the Study**

Parts of the data have been collected for a period of 3 months (June, July and September, 2012, during recent stay in Algeria) while other parts were collected through Skype Network. The morphological forms provided in the data include sentences, phrases, and word group samples. All these forms are used in the day-to-day language use of the informants.

### **3.2.4. Method and Tools**

Informal and direct structured interviews are the main data collection method. Transcription and observation are the methods used for data recording and elicitation.

### **3.2.5. Data Grouping**

K. Karunakaran's works (2000, 2001) are the main source for data classification. Data is primarily classified into verb, noun, adjective and pronoun categories. As for the classification of the 'Verb' data, sections about different verb patterns, various tense inflection types and participles are provided. As for the 'Noun' data grouping, sections about gender, number, definiteness, case forms and derivative forms are provided as well. Meanwhile, Adjectives are grouped according to Simple, Demonstrative, Derived, Numeral adjectives as well as Comparison of adjectives. Finally, data about pronouns is classified into Personal, Demonstrative and Interrogative pronouns sections.

### 3.3. Procedure of analysis

The processed data was analysed using the model presented in T. Crowley et al. (1999. P. 242), also referred to as the ‘Item-and-Process’ (IP) model. The root or base form is presented, to which ‘transfixes’ are added to reflect and derive different forms. These transfixes are identified, as in the following examples:

Root	Forms derived
شرب [ʃrb] ‘to drink’	شَرِبَ [ʃreb] ‘he drank’ →past: insertion of [e] يَشْرِبُ [jeʃreb] ‘he drinks’ →present: addition of initial [je-] + insertion of [e] (prefix + infix) تَشْرِبُ [teʃreb] ‘she drinks’ →present: addition of initial [te-] + insertion of [e] (prefix + infix) مَشْرَبُ [meʃreb] ‘a jug’ →singular tool: addition of initial [me-] + insertion of [e] (prefix + infix) مَشَارِبُ [mʃa:reb] ‘jugs’ →plural tool: addition of initial [m-] with the [e] deleted and insertion of [a: ... e] (prefix + infix. discontinuous)

Nevertheless, IA (Item-and-Arrangement) is also referred to in the analysis.

The data is presented in Arabic in a non-standard orthography. This is followed by the phonetic transcription using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) style, which is in turn followed by the English translation. Moreover, we note that we simultaneously rewrite the units of the Arabic sentences and phrases next to their English equivalents, as if they are read from left to right, to facilitate the reading and comprehension tasks for non-Arab readers. In addition, a list of abbreviations used in the study is attached in the appendices section. Furthermore, we note that the use of bold and italics elements throughout the study is to facilitate the identification of transfixes.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## 4. Data Analysis

### 4.1. Verb Morphology and Derivation

#### 4.1.1. Verb Derivation

The verb in the Arabic language is a word that indicates the happening of an action, associated with time. It has either an active or a passive voice; a past, a present or an imperative tense; a feminine or masculine gender; and a number, singular, dual, or plural. We note that the dual form is dropped in the Algerian dialect, as well as in many other Arabic dialects.

Verb derivation in Algiers dialect basically follows the same root-pattern system as that of Standard Arabic. Thus, it has verb stems which have the basic root consonants as base, combined with a small number of patterns. Compared to Standard Arabic, this derivational system however has notably shrunk (Harrell, 1962).

##### 4.1.1.1. Measure patterns of the triliteral verb

In his book “A Short Reference Grammar of Moroccan Arabic”, R. Harrell has adopted a model of ‘measures’ to refer to the ten verb patterns of Standard Arabic. Out of these ten patterns, a description of the ones used in Moroccan Arabic is presented. The same model is used in this description.

##### 4.1.1.1.1. Measure 1 pattern

This measure is a type of triliteral verb stem most frequently used. The pattern differs according to the various root types. It includes the following patterns:

##### 4.1.1.1.1.1. Sound strong triliteral verbs

The pattern for sound strong triliteral verbs is [fʕel]. خَرَجَ [xredʒ] ‘to go out; literally ‘He went out’. E.g.



- دَخَلَ [dxel] → ‘to enter’
- كَبُرَ [kber] → ‘to grow’
- رَسَمَ [rsem] → ‘to draw’
- كَتَبَ [kteb] → ‘to write’
- بَرَدَ [bred] → ‘to feel cold’ (mediopassive of ‘to chill’)
- نَعَسَ [nʕes] → ‘to feel sleepy’ (medio-passive)

#### 4.1.1.1.1.2. Doubled verbs

The pattern [feʕʕ] is usually used for such verbs as listed below:

- سَبَّ [sebb] ‘to curse’
- شَمَّ [ʃemm] ‘to smell’
- رَدَّ [redd] ‘to reply, to answer’
- عَضَّ [ʕedd] ‘to bite’ (It should be [ʕedʕdʕ], but ض [dʕ] is pronounced as [d] in this dialect. Refer to Appendix 2)
- حَكَّ [ħekk] ‘to rubb’

#### 4.1.1.1.1.3. Middle weak root verbs (Hollow verbs)

The pattern used is [fa:l]. This is illustrated in the following examples:

- بَاتَ [ba:t] ‘to spend the night’
- مَاتَ [ma:t] ‘to die’
- شَافَ [ʃa:f] ‘to see’
- دَارَ [da:r] ‘to do’
- قَالَ [qa:l] ‘to say’

#### 4.1.1.1.1.4. Final weak root verbs (Defective verbs)

The pattern used is [fʕa], as shown below through a set of examples:

- شَرَّ [ʃra] ‘to buy’
- بَنَّ [bna] ‘to build’

- كُلَّ [kla] ‘to eat’
- رَمَ [rma] ‘to throw’
- مَشَى [mʃa] ‘to walk’
- عَيَّى [ʕja] ‘to get tired’ (medio-passive of ‘to tire’)

#### 4.1.1.1.2. Measure 2 pattern

##### 4.1.1.1.2.1. Strong sound and strong doubled roots

All the verbs in this measure have a medial doubled consonant. The pattern [feʕʕel] is used for both strong sound and strong doubled root. It is causative in nature. This is illustrated in the following examples:

- شَطَّحَ [ʃetʔʔaḥ] ‘to make someone dance’ (vs. شَطَّحَ [ʃʔaḥ] ‘to dance’)
- خَرَّجَ [xerredʒ] ‘to put something, someone out’ (vs. خَرَجَ [xredʒ] ‘to go out’)
- شَرَّبَ [ʃerreb] ‘to help someone to drink’ (vs. شَرَبَ [ʃreb] ‘to drink’)
- سَلَّلَكَ [sellek] ‘to save/rescue someone’ (vs. سَلَّكَ [slek] ‘to be safe’)

We notice the insertion of the [-e-] after the first consonant while the second consonant is doubled.

##### 4.1.1.1.2.2. Middle weak roots

The measure is similar to that of strong sound and strong doubled roots. The difference in this category is that the medial doubled consonant in the verbs is either [jj] or [ww] depending on the root. They are causative verbs as well. Some examples are presented below:

- عَيَّرَ [ʕejjar] ‘to check the criterion’
- بَيَّضَ [bejjadd] ‘to whiten’
- دَوَّرَ [dewwar] ‘to make it round, to reverse it’
- كَوَّرَ [kewwar] ‘to make in a ball shape’

- نَوَّرَ [newwar] ‘to enlighten’

We note that the vowel before the doubled consonant is always [e] whereas it is always [a] after it.

#### 4.1.1.1.2.3. Final weak roots

Measure 2 pattern for this verb category is [feʕʕa]:

- وَلَّى [wella] ‘to come back, to appoint’
- زَكَّى [zekka] ‘to say positive statements about someone, to give charity’
- وَصَّى [wesʕʕa] ‘to advise, to command’
- وَفَّى [weffa] ‘to honor or fulfil a promise’
- مَشَّى [meffa] ‘to make walk’(causative verb)

#### 4.1.1.1.3. Measure 3 pattern

[fa:ʕel] is the concerned pattern. This type has only few verbs which co-occur with it in the AAUD:

- جَاوَبَ [dʒa:web] ‘to answer’
- دَافَعَ [da:feʕ] ‘to defend’
- رَاجَعَ [ra:dʒeʕ] ‘to revise, to review’
- تَاجَرَ [ta:dʒer] ‘to trade’
- بَارَكَ [ba:rek] ‘to congratulate’

#### 4.1.1.1.4. Measures 4

There is no counterpart of this measure in [AAUD].

#### 4.1.1.1.5. Measures 5 (2a), 6 (3a), and 7 (1a):

These measures are so-called because the stems referred to in measures 1, 2, and 3, are used with prefixes [t(e)-], [tt-] or [tn-] to derive the stems involved in 1a, 2a, and 3a measures. The examples below illustrate this morphological phenomenon:

<u>1</u>	<u>1a</u>
رَسَمَ [rsam] ‘to draw’	تَرَسَمَ [ttersam] ‘to be drawn’
عَضَّ [ʕedd] ‘to bite’	تَنَضَّ [tnersam] ‘to be drawn’
شَافَ [ʃa:f] ‘to see’	تَعَضَّ [ttʕedd] ‘to be bitten’
بَنَ [bna] ‘to build’	تَنَعَضَّ [tenʕedd] ‘to be bitten’
	تَشَافَ [tʃa:f] ‘to be seen’
	تَشَافَ [tenʃa:f] ‘to be seen’
	تَبَنَ [ttebna] ‘to be built’
<u>2</u>	<u>2a</u>
عَمَّرَ [ʕammar] ‘to fill up’	تَعَمَّرَ [tʕammar] ‘to be filled up’
عَلَّقَ [ʕallaq] ‘to hang s.thing/s.one’	تُعَلَّقَ [tʕalleq] ‘to be hanged’
نَوَّرَ [newwar] ‘to enlighten’	تُنَوَّرَ [tnewwar] ‘to be enlightened’
عَشَّ [ʕeʃʃa] ‘to host dinner’	تُعَشَّ [tʕeʃʃa] ‘to have dinner’
جَمَدَ [dʒemmed] ‘to freeze something’	تُجَمَدَ [tdʒemmed] ‘to be frozen’
<u>3</u>	<u>3a</u>
ضَرَبَ [dreb] ‘to hit’	ضَارَبَ [dda:reb] ‘to fight with, to quarrel’
رَاجَعَ [ra:dʒeʕ] ‘to review’	تَرَاَجَعَ [tra:dʒeʕ:] ‘to retreat’
سَأَلَ [ʃa:war] ‘to ask for advice’	تَسَأَلَ [tʃa:wer] ‘to advise and be advised’
بَاسَ [ba:s] ‘to kiss’	تُبَاوَسَ [tba:wes] ‘to kiss and be kissed’
وَالَ [wa:la] ‘to follow’	تَوَالَ [twa:la] ‘to be friends again’ (used with plural persons)

We note that in measure 1a, an [e] is added between the prefix [tt-] or the prefix[tn-] and the cluster which follows, when the roots are of ‘sound’ or ‘final weak’ types.

In the case of example 1 of the 3 and 3a sections, the first consonant of the root is [d]. Therefore, the prefix [t-] is assimilated to produce the double consonant [dd]. The

consonant itself would be doubled, whenever the first consonant of the root is one of the following consonants: [t, tʰ, d, dʰ, d̥ʒ]. There are instances however, when the prefix [ten-]/ [tne-] is used, as in:

- ضَرَّ [darr] ‘to hurt’; تَنْضَرُّ [tendarr] ‘to be hurt’.
- ضَرَبَ [drab] ‘to hit’; تَنْضَرِبُ [tnedrab] ‘to be hit’.
- جَبَدَ [d̥ʒbed] ‘to pull’; تَنْجَبِدُ [tnedʒbed] ‘to be pulled’.

It is to be noted here that the verbs in 1a and 2a are the medio-passive<sup>1</sup> forms of the transitive verbs of sections 1 and 2, whereas verbs of the section 3a are of reciprocal nature.

#### 4.1.1.1.6. Measure 8

The insertion of the infix [-t-] after the first consonant of the root is the main characteristic feature of this measure.

- هَزَّ [hezz] ‘to shake’ → هَتَزَّ [htezz] ‘to be shaken’
- حَفَظَ [hfed] ‘to memorize’ → حَتَفَظَ [htafed] ‘to keep, to retain’
- حَسَبَ [hseb] ‘to calculate’ → حَتَسَبَ [htaseb] ‘to consider one’s self’

In the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> examples, we notice the insertion of an [a] after the infix [-t-] due to phonological conditioning.

#### 4.1.1.1.7. Measure 9

The pattern established for this type is [fʃa:l]. The verbs derived have the meaning of ‘to become’. Therefore, these verbs are ‘inchoatives’ (Cowell, 1964). Examples are as follows:

- كَحَلَ [kʰel] ‘black’ → كَحَا [kʰa:l] ‘to become black’
- بَيَضَ [bjed] ‘white’ → بَيَاضَ [bja:d] ‘to become white’
- صَفَرَ [sʰfer] ‘yellow, pale’ → صَفَارَ [sʰfa:r] ‘to become pale’

<sup>1</sup> A passive form which does not imply an external causative agent.

- صَغِيرٌ [sʕyi:r] ‘small’ → صَغَارَ [sʕya:r] ‘to become small’
- زَيْنٌ [zi:n] ‘beautiful’ → زَيَّانٌ [zja:n] ‘to become beautiful, handsome’

#### 4.1.1.1.8. Measure 10

The prefix [ste-] is attached to the stem of measure 1 verbs that begin with a cluster of two consonants, whereas the prefix [st-] is attached when the stem begins with a consonant followed by a vowel. E.g.:

Prefix [ste-]:

- كَبُرَ [kber] كَبْرٌ [kbr] ‘to grow big’  
سَتَكْبَرُ [stekber] ‘to be arrogant, snooty’
- فَحَلَ [fhel] فَحْلٌ [fhl] ‘virile, potent’  
سَتَفْهَلُ [stefhel] ‘exacerbate’
- كَثُرَ [ktr] كَثْرٌ [ktr] ‘to grow in number, multiply’  
سَتَكْثُرُ [stektar] ‘to begrudge’
- ثَمَرَ [θmer] ثَمَرٌ [θmr] ‘fruitage’  
سَتَثْمَرُ [steθmar] ‘to invest’

Prefix [st-]:

- غَلَّ [yell] غَلَلَ [yll] ‘to yield’  
سَتَغَلُّ [styell] ‘to exploit, to take advantage, to take benefit from’
- خَفَّفَ [xeffaf] خَفَفَ [x f f] ‘to lessen, to alleviate’  
سَتَخَفُّفُ [stxeff] ‘to despise, to belittle’

We note that the derived verbs presented in this measure are ‘eductive’ verbs which carry the meaning of ‘doing the action for the sake of one’s self’ (Ibid).

#### 4.1.1.2. Quadriliteral (tetraliteral) verbs

Only a base and a derived form are found in this category of verbs. The pattern for strong root verbs is [feʕlel]. Some examples are presented below:

- تَرْجَمَ [terdʒem] ‘to translate’
- شَمَّشَمَ [ʃemʃem] ‘to sniff’
- بَهَّدَلَ [bahdel] ‘to indulge in cooing s.one’
- مَنَشَرَ [menʃer] ‘to slander, to slag’

#### 4.1.1.2.1. *Quadriliteral derived verbs*

To derive a verb from the quadriliteral form, the prefix [t-] is attached to the base form, through which a medio-passive form is realized.

- كَرَكَرَ [kerker] ‘to drag’  
→ تَكَرَكَرَ [tkerker] ‘to be dragged’
- بَهَّدَلَ [bahdel] ‘to indulge in cooing someone’  
→ تُبَهَّدَلُ [tbahdel] ‘to be a victim of cooing, to be embarrassed’
- مَنَشَرَ [menʃar] ‘to slander’  
→ تَمَنَشَرُ [tmenʃar] ‘to be slandered’

### 4.1.2. Tense Inflection

According to Webster's Third New International Dictionary (vol. 2, p. 1160, quoted by Muhammad E. 2006), inflection "is the variation or change of form that words undergo to mark distinctions, such as case, gender, number, tense, person, mood, voice, comparison."

In the Arabic language, the verb root or base form, which is the 3rd singular masculine person in the perfect tense, undergoes variant insertion of prefixes and/or suffixes along with changes to the [haraka:t] (vowels) of the consonants. These changes specify different grammatical functions: tense, gender, number, verb mood, active or passive voice etc...

This is the case with Algerian dialects and more specifically with the AAUD. It has a verb form, consisting of a verb stem to which an inflectional affix (prefix or suffix) is attached, with possible changes in the stem. As mentioned earlier, a verb in the Arabic language (similar to English) is a word that indicates the happening of an action, associated with time. This associated time is either the perfect (past), which designates past completive actions, events or states; or the imperfect (non-past) tense, which designates non-past incomplete actions, states or dispositions.

Perfect (past, completive)	Imperfect (non-past, incomplete)
شَرِبَ [ʃreb] 'He drank'	يَشْرَبُ [jeʃreb] 'He drinks, will drink, would drink'

Note: The 3rd singular masculine person in the perfect tense is the equivalent infinitive form of the English verb. Thus, [ʃreb] may mean 'to drink' as well as 'he drank', which is the actual translation of its meaning.



Arabic language has got its verb inflected for these perfect and imperfect tenses, as well as for the imperative mood. The perfect verb has a set of suffixes attached to it with the different perfect tense formations, while the imperfect has got a set of prefixes and suffixes.

The personal pronouns which define the three persons and the two numbers are as follows:

Singular	Plural
<b><u>1<sup>st</sup> person</u></b> أَنَا [ana] 'I'  <b><u>2<sup>nd</sup> person</u></b> أَنْتَ [nta] 'you' (masc.) أَنْتِ [nti] 'you' (fem.)  <b><u>3<sup>rd</sup> person</u></b> هُوَ [huwa] 'he' هِيَ [hija] 'she'	<b><u>1<sup>st</sup> person</u></b> أَنْحَا [hna] 'we'  <b><u>2<sup>nd</sup> person</u></b> أَنْتُمْ [ntuma] 'you' (pl.) أَنْتُمْ [ntuma] 'you' (pl.)  <b><u>3<sup>rd</sup> person</u></b> هُمْ [huma] 'they' هُمْ [huma] 'they'

These pronouns are not always mentioned before the verbs though, but are always defined and referred to by affixes attached to the verb stem (inherent).

#### 4.1.2.1. Perfect Tense

The following examples illustrate the inflectional suffixes (in bold) of the perfect tense in use with the verb شَرِبَ [ʃreb] ‘to drink’:

Singular	Plural
<b><u>1<sup>st</sup> person</u></b> أَنَا [ana] ‘I’. شَرِبْتُ [ʃrebt] ‘I drank’  <b><u>2<sup>nd</sup> person</u></b> نَتَ [nta] ‘you’ (masc.) شَرِبْتَ [ʃrebt] نَتِ [nti] ‘you (Fem.)’ شَرِبْتِ [ʃrebt <sup>ti</sup> ]  <b><u>3<sup>rd</sup> person</u></b> هُوَ [huwa] ‘he’. شَرِبَ [ʃreb] (the stem is alone) هِيَ [hija] ‘she’. شَرِبَتْ [ʃrebet]	<b><u>1<sup>st</sup> person</u></b> حَنَّا [hna] ‘we’. شَرِبْنَا [ʃrebn <sup>a</sup> ]  <b><u>2<sup>nd</sup> person</u></b> نَتُّمَ [ntuma] ‘you’ (pl.) شَرِبْتُمْ [ʃrebt <sup>tu</sup> ] نَتُّمَ [ntuma] ‘you’ (pl.) شَرِبْتُمْ [ʃrebt <sup>tu</sup> ]  <b><u>3<sup>rd</sup> person</u></b> هُمَ [huma] ‘they’. شَرِبُوا [ʃerbu] هُمَ [huma] ‘they’. شَرِبُوا [ʃerbu]

We notice that the stem does not undergo change except with ‘she’ [ʃrebet] and ‘they’ [ʃerbu] where [e] is inserted in the inflected verb after the initial consonant.

Thus the suffixes are as follows:

Person	Singular	Plural
1 <sup>st</sup> person	‘I’ [-t]	‘we’ [-na]
2 <sup>nd</sup> person masc.	‘you’ [-t]	‘you’ [-tu]
2 <sup>nd</sup> person fem.	‘you’ [-ti]	‘you’ [-tu]
3 <sup>rd</sup> person masc.	‘he’ [-] stem alone	‘they’ [-u]
3 <sup>rd</sup> person fem.	‘she’ [-et]	‘they’ [-u]

Note1: 3<sup>rd</sup> person fem. may have the suffix [-t] instead of [-et] when the verb stem ends with [a].

E.g.

- نَسَ [nsa] ‘to forget/he forgot’  
نَسَتْ [nsat] ‘she forgot’
- مَشَ [mʃa] ‘to walk/he walked’  
مَشَتْ [mʃat] ‘she walked’

Note 2: 3<sup>rd</sup> person pl. may have the suffix [-w] instead of [-u] when the verb stem ends with a vowel (it is always an [a]). In other words, it is a measure1 final weak root verb.

- نَسَ [nsa] ‘to forget/ he forgot’  
نَسَوْ [nsaw] ‘they forgot’
- مَشَ [mʃa] ‘to walk/ he walked’  
مَشَوْ [mʃaw] ‘they walked’
- جَا [dʒa:] ‘to come/ he came’  
جَاوْ [dʒa:w] ‘they came’
- بَنَ [bna] ‘to build/ he built’  
بَنَوْ [bnaw] ‘they built’

As for the rest of the persons, i.e. a part of ‘she’ and ‘they’, [a] is replaced by [i]:

Singular	Plural
مَشِيتُ [mʃiʔt] ‘I walked’	مَشِينْ [mʃina] ‘we walked’
مَشِيتُ [mʃiʔt] masc. ‘you walked’	مَشِيتُ [mʃitu] masc. ‘you walked’
مَشِيتِ [mʃiti] fem. ‘you walked’	مَشِيتُ [mʃitu] fem. ‘you walked’

#### 4.1.2.1.1. *Verb stem classes*

Thus, we notice from the above examples that the variant changes that a stem is subject to, depend on the nature of the stem. There are many classes indeed which may be correlated with particular verb measures. Four major verb stem classes may be distinguished as far as changes caused by the entailment of the inflectional suffixes are concerned.

#### 4.1.2.1.1.1. Class 1: verb stems ending with [-eC]

This class includes sound stems which show no changes with the first and second persons. Measures 1, 1a, and 10 show an inversion of [e], as illustrated by the previous stem example [ʃreb] ‘to drink’ (measure1) where the stem does not undergo change except with ‘she’ [ʃerbet] and ‘they’ [ʃerbu]. Other encountered stems show an elision of the [e] of the ending [-eC]. Here are some examples of the [e] inversion and elision highlighted by italics element:

##### Measure 1a:

➤ تَنْفَتْحُ

[tnefteh]

(it) has been opened

‘It has been opened’

‘to have been opened’

هِيَ تَنْفَتْحَتْ

هِيَ

تَنْفَتْحَتْ

[hija

tenfethet] ([**-et**] is the inflectional suffix)

It (sing. fem.)

has been opened

‘It has been opened’

➤ تَنْقَتُلُ

[tneqtel] ‘to have been killed’

هُمْ تَنْقَتُلُوا

هُمْ

تَنْقَتُلُوا

[huma

tneqetlu] ([**u**] is the inflectional suffix)

They

have been killed

‘They have been killed’

We notice that [e] is inverted and shifted from its original position.

### Measure 2 strong doubled roots:

- عَمَّرَ [ʕammer] ‘to fill up, to live for a long time’

هِيَ عَمَّرَتْ

هِيَ عَمَّرَتْ

[hija ʕammret] ([-et] is the inflectional suffix)

‘She lived for a long time.’

- هُمْ عَمَّرُوا

هُمْ عَمَّرُوا

[huma ʕammru] ([u] is the inflectional suffix)

‘They lived for a long time.’

We notice that [e] is elided in the inflected verbs.

#### **4.1.2.1.1.2. Class 2: Verb stems ending with [-aC]**

It includes verb stems of middle weak roots of measures 1,1a, and verbs of measure 9. Contrary to the previous class of stems, the inflected stems of this class remain unchanged when attached to the ‘she’ suffix [-et] and ‘they’ suffix [-u]. However, changes occur with the rest of the persons. Here are some paradigms:

Measure1: Middle weak verb stem بَاتَ [ba:t] ‘to spend the night’:

Singular	Plural
بَتَّ [bett] ‘I spent the night’	بَتُّوا [betna] ‘we spent the night’
بَتَّ [bett] masc. ‘you spent the night’	بَتُّوا [bettu] ‘you (pl.) spent the night’
بَتَّ [betti] fem. ‘you spent the night’	بَتُّوا [bettu] ‘you (pl.) spent the night’
بَاتَ [ba:t] ‘he spent the night’	بَاتُوا [ba:tu] ‘they spent the night’
بَاتَتْ [ba:tet] ‘she spent the night’	بَاتُوا [ba:tu] ‘they spent the night’

We notice clearly that all the inflected stems are subject to change except for ‘she’ and ‘they’ (‘he’ has the form of the root). The medial weak vowel [a:] is replaced

with [e] and the final consonant is doubled. This is a regular phenomenon in this type of verbs. However, there are some irregular forms also. With the verbs كَانُ [ka:n] ‘to be’ and قَالَ [qa:l] ‘to say’, the vowel [a:] is substituted with [u] with all the persons except with ‘she’ and ‘they’.

E.g. with verb كَانُ [ka:n] ‘to be’:

Singular	Plural
كُنْتُ [kunt] ‘I was’	كُنَّا [kunna] ‘we were’
كُنْتَ [kunt] masc. ‘you were’	كُنْتُمْ [kuntu] ‘you were’
كُنْتِ [kunti] fem. ‘you were’	كُنْتُمْ [kuntu] ‘you were’
كَانَ [ka:n] ‘he was’	كَانُوا [ka:nu] ‘they were’
كَانَتْ [ka:net] ‘she was’	كَانُوا [ka:nu] ‘they were’

Measure 9: Verb stem شَيَّانُ [ʃja:n] ‘to become thin’

Singular	Plural
شَيَّيْتُ [ʃjent] ‘I became thin’	شَيَّيْنَا [ʃjenna] ‘we became thin’
شَيَّيْتَ [ʃjent] masc. ‘you became thin’	شَيَّيْتُمْ [ʃjentu] ‘you became thin’
شَيَّيْتِ [ʃjenti] fem. ‘you became thin’	شَيَّيْتُمْ [ʃjentu] ‘you became thin’
شَيَّانَ [ʃja:n] ‘he became thin’	شَيَّانُوا [ʃja:nu] ‘they became thin’
شَيَّانَتْ [ʃja:net] ‘she became thin’	شَيَّانُوا [ʃja:nu] ‘they became thin’

Again, all the stems are subject to change except for those with the persons ‘she’ and ‘they’. They had their [a:] replaced by [e].

#### 4.1.2.1.1.3. Class 3: Verb stems ending with a doubled consonant

It includes verbs from measure 1, 1a and 10 (only those with the prefix [st-]).

This category is characterized by the insertion of [i] between the stem and the inflectional prefix of both first and second persons.

The following are the examples:

Measure 10 verb with [st-] prefix سَتَعَلَّ [styell] ‘to exploit, to take advantage of.., to take benefit from’:

Singular	Plural
سَتَعَلَّتْ [styell <i>i</i> t] ‘I took advantage of..’	سَتَعَلَّنْ [styell <i>i</i> na] ‘We took advantage of ...’
سَتَعَلَّتْ [styell <i>i</i> t] masc. ‘You ...’	سَتَعَلَّتْ [styell <i>i</i> tu] ‘You ...’
سَتَعَلَّتْ [styell <i>i</i> ti] fem. ‘You...’	سَتَعَلَّتْ [styell <i>i</i> tu] ‘You ...’
سَتَعَلَّ [styell] ‘He ...’	سَتَعَلُّ [styellu] ‘they ...’
سَتَعَلَّتْ [styellet] ‘She ...’	سَتَعَلُّ [styellu] ‘they ...’

The same occurs with a doubled verb of measure 1:

عَضَّ [ʕedd] ‘to bite’

Singular	Plural
عَضَّتْ [ʕedd <i>i</i> t] ‘I bit’	عَضَّنْ [ʕedd <i>i</i> na] ‘We bit’
عَضَّتْ [ʕedd <i>i</i> t] masc. ‘You bit’	عَضَّتْ [ʕedd <i>i</i> tu] ‘You bit’
عَضَّتْ [ʕedd <i>i</i> ti] fem. ‘You bit’	عَضَّتْ [ʕedd <i>i</i> tu] ‘You bit’
عَضَّ [ʕedd] ‘He bit’	عَضُّ [ʕeddu] ‘They bit’
عَضَّتْ [ʕeddet] ‘She bit’	عَضُّ [ʕeddu] ‘They bit’

#### 4.1.2.1.1.4. Class 4: Verb stems ending with [-a]

This has been illustrated with the example مَشَّ [mʃa] ‘to walk/ he walked’. A process similar to the previous one takes place. [i] substitutes the final [-a] in the inflected stems, with the exception, as mentioned before, of stems denoting ‘she’ and ‘they’. Hence, we present another illustrative paradigm of this class:

Final weak root verb (defective verb) شَرَّ [ʃra] ‘to buy’:

Singular	Plural
شَرْتُ [ʃrit] ‘I bought’	شَرْنَا [ʃrina] ‘We bought’
شَرْتَ [ʃrit] masc. ‘You bought’	شَرْتُمْ [ʃritu] ‘You bought’
شَرْتِ [ʃriti] fem. ‘You bought’	شَرْتُمْ [ʃritu] ‘You bought’
شَرَّ [ʃra] ‘He bought’	شَرُّوا [ʃraw] ‘They bought’
شَرَّتْ [ʃrat] ‘She bought’	شَرُّوا [ʃraw] ‘They bought’

#### 4.1.2.2. Imperfect Tense

##### 4.1.2.2.1. Inflectional Affixes

This table presents the affixes of the imperfect tense with different persons:

Person	Singular	Plural
1 <sup>st</sup> person	[n(e)-]	[n(e)- + -u/-w]
2 <sup>nd</sup> person	[t (e)-] masc. [t (e)- +i/ +j] fem.	[t (e)- + -u/-w]
3 <sup>rd</sup> person	[j (e)-] masc. [t (e)-] fem.	[j (e)- + -u/-w]

As mentioned before, the imperfect tense designates non-past incomplete actions, states, or dispositions. However, there are particles which are used to designate whether it is a present or future action:



- Particle of actuality [ra:h] or [ra:w]

➤ رَاوْ يَشْرَبْ / رَاهْ يَشْرَبْ

يَشْرَبْ رَاوْ / يَشْرَبْ رَاهْ

[ra:h jeʃrab] / [ra:w jeʃrab]

(he)is drink / (he)is drink

‘He drinks/ is drinking.’

- Particle of anticipation رَحْ [rah] (Perfect V.)

➤ رَحْ يَشْرَبْ

يَشْرَبْ رَحْ

[rah jeʃrab]

(he)go+past drink+present

(he)went drink

‘He will drink.’

- رَوُ رِيحْ [raw rajeh] (particle [raw+ A. P])

➤ رَوُ رِيحْ يَشْرَبْ

يَشْرَبْ رِيحْ رَوُ

[raw rajeh jeʃrab]

(he) is having gone drink

‘He is going to drink’

However, all the examples given in the following sub-sections are the equivalents of the present tense in English.

#### 4.1.2.2.1.1. First Person

When it is singular, the stem takes the prefix [n-] when it begins with a consonant followed by a vowel, as in نَبَيِّنْ [nbejjən] ‘I demonstrate’. Whereas, [ne-] is prefixed to the stem when the latter has two (or more) consonants, as in نَشْرَبْ [neʃrab] or in نَسْتَعْلَنْ [nestyel]

#### 4.1.2.2.1.2. Second Person

Similarly, with the second person masculine and feminine, the stem takes the prefix [t-] when it begins with a consonant followed by a vowel, as in تَخْلُطُ [txelletʕ] (masc.) تَخْلُطِ [txeltʕi] (fem.) ‘you mix up/are mixing up’. However, it takes [te-] when the stem has two or more consonants, as in تَسْتَحْفُ [testxeff] masc. تَسْتَحْفِ [testxeffi] ‘you despise, you belittle’. Specifically for the 2<sup>nd</sup> person feminine, the suffix [-i] is added to the inflected stem when it ends with a consonant as in [teʃreb] ‘you (masc sing.) > [teʃerbi], whereas the suffix [-j] is added to the inflected stem when it ends with [-a]. Thus, we would have تَقْرَ [teqra] (masc. sing.) ‘You study/read’ > [teqraj] (fem. sing.) ‘You study/read’. However, when the verb stem ends with [-i], masculine and feminine forms are not distinguished, as illustrated in the following examples:

- تَكْوُ [tekwi] sing.masc. ‘you cauterize, you burn’  
تَكْوِ [tekwi] sing.fem.
- تَطُو [tetʕwi] sing. masc. ‘you fold’  
تَطْوِ [tetʕwi] sing.fem.
- تَنْوُ [tenwi] sing.masc. ‘you intend, you plan’  
تَنْوِ [tenwi] sing.fem.

#### 4.1.2.2.1.3. Third Person

Second person feminine singular ‘you’ has the same and identical prefix with third person feminine singular ‘she’ but do not share the suffixes. Thus they are subject to the same changes. The third person masculine singular ‘he’ takes the same prefix as the third person plural [je-] or [ja-].

E.g.

- يَرْفُدُ [jerfed] ‘he carries, he takes’  
يَرْفُدُ [jerefdu] ‘they carry, they take’

➤ يَحْكِي [jehki] ‘he narrates, he tells a story.

يَحْكُو [jehkiw] ‘they narrate, ...’

➤ يَخُذ [jaxud] ‘he gets, he takes’

يَخُذُو [jaxdu] ‘they get, they take’

#### 4.1.2.2.2. Verb Stem Classes

There are four basic verb stem classes.

##### 4.1.2.2.2.1. Class1

##### 4.1.2.2.2.1.1. Verb stems that end with [-eC]:

The same aspect of inversion and elision is found with the occurrence of the suffixes in the verb stems. The changes occur with ‘you’ (sing. fem.) when the suffix [-i] is added, with ‘we’, ‘you’ (plural), and ‘they’ when the suffix [-u] is attached. Here are illustrations of the inversion with the stem رَفَدَ [rfed] (We note that letters in **bold** represent the imperfect tense affixes, while the *italics* represent the inverted [e]. The underlined pronouns are those of the stems which are subject to change):

Singular	Plural
نَرَفَدُ [nerfed] ‘I take/ hold’	نَرَفَدُو [nrefdu] ‘ <u>We</u> take/hold’
تَرَفَدُ [terfed] masc. ‘You take/ hold’	تَرَفَدُو [trefdu] ‘ <u>You</u> take/hold’
تَرَفَدِي [terefdi] <u>fem.</u> ‘ <u>You</u> take/hold’	تَرَفَدُو [trefdu] ‘ <u>You</u> take/hold’
يَرَفَدُ [jerfed] ‘He takes/holds’	يَرَفَدُو [jrefdu] ‘ <u>They</u> take/hold’
تَرَفَدُ [terfed] ‘she takes/hold’	يَرَفَدُو [jrefdu] ‘ <u>They</u> take/hold’

What follows are illustrations of the elision phenomenon with the stem جَاوَبَ [dʒa:web] ‘to answer/to reply’ (the underlined syllable is the place of elision):

Singular	Plural
نَجَاوَبُ [ndʒa:web] ‘I reply’	نَجَاوَبُ [ndʒa:w <u>bu</u> ] ‘We reply’
جَاوَبُ [dʒa:web]masc. ‘You reply’	جَاوَبُ [dʒa:w <u>bu</u> ] ‘You reply’
جَاوَبُ [dʒa:w <u>bi</u> ]fem. ‘You reply’	جَاوَبُ [dʒa:w <u>bu</u> ] ‘You reply’
يَجَاوَبُ [jdʒa:web] ‘He replies’	يَجَاوَبُ [jdʒa:w <u>bu</u> ] ‘They reply’
جَاوَبُ [dʒa:web] ‘She replies’	يَجَاوَبُ [jdʒa:w <u>bu</u> ] ‘They reply’

Note: We notice that the imperfect inflectional prefix [t-] for ‘you’ (sing. masc., sing. fem. and plural) ‘she’, and ‘they’ is elided because it occurs next to the phoneme [dʒ].

#### 4.1.2.2.1.2. Class 2

Middle weak root verbs, of measure 1, may change their [a:] into [i:] or into [u:]; or keep it with no apparent change in the stem. (The letters in **bold** are the affixes)

Verb stem	[a:] > [i:]	[a:] > [u:]
جَابُ [dʒa:b] ‘to bring’	نَجِيْبُ [ndʒi:b] ‘I bring’	
طَارُ [tʰa:r] ‘to fly’	يَطِيْرُ [jtʰi:ru] ‘they fly’	
دَارُ [da:r] ‘to do’	نَدِيْرُ [ndi:ru] ‘we do’	
كَانَ [ka:n] ‘to be’		يَكُوْنُ [jku:n] ‘He is’
مَاتَ [ma:t] ‘to die’		تَمُوْتُ [tmu:t] sing. masc. ‘you die’
رَاحَ [ra:h] ‘to go’		تُرُوْحُ [tru:hi] sing. fem. ‘you go’

Verb stem	[a:] > [a:]
سَالَ [sa:l] ‘to owe’	يُسَالُ [jsa:lu] ‘they owe’
خَافَ [xa:f] ‘to get scared’	نَخَافُ [nxa:f] ‘I get scared’
بَانَ [ba:n] ‘to appear’	تُبَانُ [tba:ni] fem. ‘you appear’

We notice that no apparent changes occur to the stems.

#### 4.1.2.2.1.3. Class 3

Final weak verbs which end with [-a], of measures 1 and 2, have their final [-a] changed into [-i] in the imperfect. A paradigm is presented below with measure 1 verb stem رَمَ [rma] ‘to throw’ (the letter in *italics* is the [-i] which replaces the [-a] whereas the letters in **bold** are the affixes):

Singular	Plural
رَمْتُ [nermi] ‘I throw’	نَرْمُو [nermiw] ‘We throw’
تَرْمُ [termi] <u>masc.</u> ‘You throw’	تَرْمُو [termiw] ‘You throw’
تَرْمُ [termi] <u>fem.</u> ‘You throw’	تَرْمُو [termiw] ‘You throw’
يَرْمُ [jermi] ‘He throws’	يَرْمُو [jermiw] ‘They throw’
تَرْمُ [termi] ‘She throws’	يَرْمُو [jermiw] ‘They throw’

We notice that the habitual distinction between the second singular masculine and the second singular feminine persons is not realized in this type of verb stem.

#### 4.1.2.2.1.4. Class 4

This class includes the verb stems which do not show any alteration to their stems after the addition of the inflectional affixes.

Verbs of measure 1 that end with a doubled consonant do not undergo change at all with the affixes attached to them. The following illustrations are with the verb stem شَمَّ [ʃemm] ‘to smell’ (The letters in **bold** are the affixes):

Singular	Plural
شَمَّمْتُ [nʃemm] ‘I smell’	نَشَمَّمُ [nʃemmu] ‘We smell’
شَمَّمْتُ [tʃemm] <u>masc.</u> ‘You smell’	نَشَمَّمُ [tʃemmu] ‘You smell’

تَنْسَمُ [tʃemmi] fem. ‘You smell’	يَنْسَمُ [tʃemmu] ‘You smell’
يَنْسَمُ [jʃemm] ‘He smells’	يَنْسَمُ [jʃemmu] ‘They smell’
تَنْسَمُ [tʃemm] ‘She smells’	يَنْسَمُ [jʃemmu] ‘They smell’

We notice that no apparent change occurs to the stems.

Moreover, final weak verbs which end with [-a], of measures 1a, 2a, and 3a, do not undergo any apparent change due to the inflectional prefixes with all the persons.

Here are some illustrations with the verb stem تَرَمَ [tterra] ‘to be thrown’ (The letters in **bold** are the affixes):

Singular
نَتَرَمُ [netterra] ‘I throw myself/ am thrown’
تَتَرَمُ [tetterra] masc. ‘You throw yourself/ are thrown’
تَتَرَمِي [tettermaj] fem. ‘You throw yourself/ are thrown’
يَتَرَمُ [jetterra] ‘He throws himself/is thrown’
تَتَرَمُ [tetterra] ‘She throws herself/is thrown’

Plural
نَتَرَمُوا [nettermaw] ‘We throw ourselves/ would be thrown’
تَتَرَمُوا [tettermaw] ‘You throw yourselves/ would be thrown’
تَتَرَمُوا [tettermaw] ‘You throw yourselves/ would be thrown’
يَتَرَمُوا [jettermaw] ‘They throw themselves/ would be thrown’
يَتَرَمُوا [jettermaw] ‘They throw themselves/ would be thrown’

We notice that no apparent change occurs to the stems. Furthermore, we notice that with the second singular feminine person the imperfect inflectional suffix [-j] is added rather than [-i].

Furthermore, verb stems of measure 9 as well as middle weak verbs of measure 1a and 8 do not undergo any change in the imperfect. Some examples are presented respectively:

Verb stem	Singular	Plural
بَيَّضَ [bja:d] ‘to become white’	نَبَّيَّضَ [nebja:d] ‘I become white’	نَبَّيَّضُوا [nebja:du] ‘We become white’
تَنَشَّأَ [tenʃa:f] ‘to be seen’	تَتَنَشَّأُ [tetenʃa:f] ‘She is seen’	يَتَنَشَّأُونَ [jetenʃa:fu] ‘they are seen’
حَظَرَ [hta:r] ‘to be puzzled’	تَحْظَرُ [tehta:ri] fem. ‘You are puzzled’	تَحْظَرُونَ [tehta:ru] ‘You are puzzled’

Note: In AAUD, ض [d<sup>h</sup>] sound is pronounced as د [d].

#### 4.1.2.3. Imperative

Only the second persons are inflected for this grammatical form. Basically, the inflected stems with the second person are the same as those of the imperfect but without the prefixes. However, some changes can occur. Here are some examples (the letters in **bold** are the affixes):

##### 4.1.2.3.1. Verb stem with [-eC] ending

- Verb stem شَرَبَ [ʃreb] ‘to drink’:

Second person	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	تَشْرَبُ [teʃreb] ‘You drink’	شَرِبْ [(ə)ʃreb] ‘Drink!’
You singular feminine	تَشْرَبِي [teʃerbi]	شَرِبِي [ʃerbi]
You Plural	تَشْرَبُوا [teʃerbu]	شَرِبُوا [ʃerbu]

What we notice here is that with the second singular masculine, a [ə] can be inserted. This depends on speakers or on the tone of the order.

➤ Verb stem تَبَكَّمَ [tbekkem] ‘to get tongue-tied’

Second person	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	تَتَبَكَّمُ [tetbekkem]	[(ə)tbekkem] ‘Shut up!’
You singular Feminine	تَتَبَكَّمِي [tetbekmi]	[(ə)tbekmi]
You Plural	تَتَبَكَّمُوا [tetbekmu]	[(ə)tbekmu]

Again, a [ə] may be inserted.

#### 4.1.2.3.2. Middle weak verbs of measure 1

➤ Verb stem دَارُ [da:r] ‘to do’

Second person	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	دَرُ [ddir] ‘You do’	دِرْ [dir] ‘Do!’
You singular Feminine	دِرِ [ddiri]	دِرِي [diri]
You Plural	دَرُوا [ddiru]	دِرُوا [diru]

Note: The inflectional imperfect suffix [-t] is elided because of its occurrence next to a [d]. This explains the doubled [d].

➤ Verb stem شَافَ [ʃa:f] ‘to look’

Second person	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	تَشْفُ [tʃuf] ‘you look’	شَفْ [ʃuf] ‘Look!’
You singular Feminine	تَشْفِي [tʃufi]	شَفِي [ʃufi]
You Plural	تَشْفُوا [tʃufu]	شَفُوا [ʃufu]



Note: The inflectional imperfect suffix [-t] is elided because of its occurrence next to a [ʃ]. Thus the [ʃ] becomes [tʃ].

#### 4.1.2.3.3. Doubled verb stems (measure 1)

➤ Verb stem عَضُّ [ʕedd] ‘to bite’

Second person	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	[tʕedd] ‘You bite’	[ʕedd] ‘Bite!’
You singular Feminine	[tʕeddi]	[ʕeddi]
You Plural	[tʕeddu]	[ʕeddu]

➤ رَدُّ [redd] ‘to reply, to answer’

Second person	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	تَرَدُّ [tredd] ‘You answer/give back’	رَدِّ [redd] ‘Answer!’
You singular Feminine	تَرَدِّ [treddi]	رَدِّ [reddi]
You Plural	تَرَدُّ [treddu]	رَدِّ [reddu]

#### 4.1.2.3.4. Verb stem ending in [-a]

➤ مَشَّ [mʃa] ‘to walk/ to go away’

Second person	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	تَمَشِّ [temʃi] ‘you walk/go away’	مَشِّ [(ə)mʃi] ‘Walk/Go away!’
You singular Feminine	تَمَشِّ [temʃi]	مَشِّ [(ə)mʃi]
You Plural	تَمَشُّ [temʃu]	مَشُّ [(ə)mʃu]

➤ بَلَّ [bla] ‘to be/get worn-out’

Second person	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	تَبَلَّ [tebla] ‘You are getting ...’	بَلَّ [(ð)bla] ‘Perish!’
You singular Feminine	تَبَلِّي [teblaj]	بَلِّي [(ð)blaj]
You Plural	تَبَلُّوا [teblaw]	بَلُّوا [(ð)blaw]

We notice that the imperfect and the imperative forms are identical. However, a [ð] can be inserted.

#### 4.1.2.3.5. *Uncommon imperatives*

These imperatives have no perfect or imperfect forms which correspond to them.

Second Persons	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	_(None)	أَرَّ [ara] ‘Give! Hand over!’
You singular Feminine	_(None)	أَرِّي [araj]
You Plural	_(None)	أَرُّوا [araw]

Second Persons	Imperfect form	Imperative form
You singular masculine	_(None)	هَاتْ [ha:t] ‘Give! Hand over!’
You singular Feminine	_(None)	هَاتِي [ha:ti]
You Plural	_(None)	هَاتُوا [ha:tu]

#### 4.1.3. Participles

In English, a participle is a verb form which tells us what is done to the modified noun. Thus, it functions as an adjective.

E.g. ‘The old fig tree was chopped down.’

In Arabic, there are two types of participles, active and passive. They have different distinct patterns. Not every verb can have an active and a passive participle at

the same time. While only transitive verbs of measure 1 can have both of them, intransitive verbs belonging to the same measure have an active participle only. While other transitive verbs of other measures have only one participle which functions simultaneously as active as well as passive, intransitive verbs of the other measures have also only one participle but the function of which is only active. (Harrell, 1962)

#### 4.1.3.1. Active participle of transitive verbs (Measure 1)

[fa:ʕel] is the general pattern with the transitive sound verbs. However, the other types of root verbs of measure 1 show some irregularities in their active participles (A.P.). This is exemplified in the following examples:

Root verb	Active Participle [fa:ʕel] pattern
رَسَمَ [rsem] ‘to draw’	رَاسَمَ [ra:sem] ‘having drawn’
شَرَبَ [ʃreb] ‘to drink’	شَارَبَ [ʃa:reb] ‘having drank’
قَتَلَ [qtel] ‘to kill’	قَاتَلَ [qa:tel] ‘having killed’

Root verb	Active Participle (with modification in the pattern)
عَضَّ [ʕedd] ‘to bite’	عَاَضَّ [ʕa:dd] ‘having bitten’
شَافَ [[ʃa:f] ‘to see’	شَايَفَ [ʃa:jef] ‘having seen’
شَرَّ [ʃra] ‘to buy’	شَارَى [ʃa:ri] ‘having bought’

- In the first set of examples, we notice that the pattern [fa:ʕel] is used without any apparent change.
- In the second set however, the first example illustrates a measure 1 doubled verb the [e] of which is replaced by an [a:] in the A.P. form.

- The second example of the second set, representing a middle weak verb (or a hollow verb), shows the insertion of [j] to represent the 2<sup>nd</sup> consonant of the pattern.
- The third and last example represents a final weak verb (or a defective verb) whose A.P. pattern is having [i] as its ending instead of the actual [-el].

To make the function of the active participle in AAUD clearer, this adjective depicts an action which is not over, but is still going on (continuous) at the time of the utterance. For instance, خَارَجُ [xa:redʒ] ‘having gone out’ is an active participle which informs us that someone is walking or going away. Therefore ‘having gone out’ does not mean here that the action is over; rather, it means that it is taking place or will take place.

#### 4.1.3.2. Passive participle of transitive verbs (Measure 1)

[mefʕu:l] is the general pattern. For instance, the passive participles (p.p.) of the first set of examples mentioned above are:

- رَسَمَ [rsem] ‘to draw’ is → مَرَسُومٌ [marsu:m] ‘having been drawn’;
- شَرَبَ [ʃreb] ‘to drink’ is → مَشْرُوبٌ [maʃru:b] ‘having been drunk’;
- قَتَلَ [qtel] ‘to kill’ is → مَقْتُولٌ [maqtu:l] ‘having been killed’.

As for the second set of examples, the following passive participles are derived:

- عَضَّ [ʕedd] ‘to bite’ > مَعْضُوضٌ [meʕdu:d] ‘having been bitten’
- شَافَ [ʃa:f] ‘to see’ can’t have a passive participle.
- دَارَ [da:r] ‘to do’ (a hollow verb which can have a p.p.) > مَدْيُورٌ [medju:r] ‘having been done’
- قَلَّى [qla] ‘to fry’ → مَقْلٍ [meqli] ‘having been fried’

The examples are discussed accordingly:

- We notice that the doubled verbs form a normal P.P.
- This verb can't have a P.P. Thus, not all hollow verbs have passive participles.
- P.P. of a hollow verb has a [j] inserted in as the 3<sup>rd</sup> consonant of the pattern.
- In the case of defective verbs, an [i] replaces the final omitted [-u:l] of the pattern [mefʕu:l].

#### 4.1.3.3. Active participle of intransitive verbs (measure 1)

The pattern is the same as that of the transitive verbs of measure 1. A set of examples follows:

Measure 1 intransitive verbs	Active participle [fa:ʕel] pattern
دَخَلَ [dxel] 'to enter'	دَاخَلَ [da:xel] 'having entered'
خَرَجَ [xredʒ] 'to go out'	خَارَجَ [xa:redʒ] 'having gone out'
مَاتَ [ma:t] 'to die'	مَاتَ [ma:jet] 'having died'
بُرِيَ [bra] 'to be cured/healed'	بَارِيَ [ba:ri] 'having cured'

As for the middle weak verbs (hollow verbs) and the final weak verbs (defective verbs), the alterations are the same with those of the transitive verbs.

#### 4.1.3.4. Other measure verbs with only one participle

This participle is derived by attaching the prefix [m(e)-] to the verb stems. The following examples illustrate this derivational process:

##### 4.1.3.4.1. Transitive verbs

Verb stem	Participle
زَيَّنَ [zejjen] 'to decorate'	مَزَيَّنَ [mzejjen] 'having /(been) decorated'
عَلَّ [ʕella] 'to make higher'	مَعَلَّ [mʕalli] 'having /(been) made higher'
سَلَّكَ 'to rescue'	مَسَلَّكَ [msellek] 'having /(been) rescued'

#### 4.1.3.4.2. Intransitive verbs

Verb stem	Participle
جَاوَبَ [dʒa:web] ‘to reply’	مُجَاوِبٌ [mdʒa:web] ‘answering’
حَتَّارٌ [hta:r] ‘to be puzzled over’	مُحْتَارٌ [mehta:r] ‘puzzled’
سَتَفَحَّلَ [stefhel] ‘to exacerbate’	مَسْتَفَحِّلٌ [mestefhel] ‘exacerbating’

The participle of the transitive verbs functions simultaneously as active and passive, whereas that of intransitive verbs functions only as active.

Apart from عَلَّ [ʕella] ‘to make higher’, all the examples shown above (transitive and intransitive) don’t undergo any apparent change. The verb عَلَّ [ʕella] is an exception because it ends with an [a] which is replaced by an [i] in the derived participle.

#### 4.1.3.5. Some irregular participles

There are indeed few verbs which have irregular participles forms. Some are listed below:

Verb stem	Irregular participle
بَّ [bba] ‘to carry someone on one’s back’	بَائٍ [bba:j] ‘being carried on someone’s back’
دَّ [dda] ‘to take’	مَبِّي [mebbi] ‘having carrying ...’ دَائٍ [dda:j] ‘having taken’ مَدِّ [meddi] ‘having (been) taken.’

#### 4.1.3.6. Gender and Number

Masculine (active participles)	Feminine
شَارٍ [ʃa:ri] ‘having sold’	شَارِيَّ [ʃa:rja] ‘having sold’
مُعْطٍ [myetʔi] ‘having (been) covered’	مُعْطِيَّ [myetʔja] ‘having (been) covered’

In the above examples, we notice the addition of [j] along with the elision of [i] of the base form. The participles ending with an [i] (apart from measure 1 passive participles) have their [i] elided and replaced by [j] when being in the feminine form.

The others undergo some changes with the introduction of the plural suffixes. The phenomena of inversion and elision are obviously present as well as the insertion of [j]. This is illustrated in some examples:

Base form	Masc. plural	Fem. plural
a- رَاسَمٌ [ra:sem] ‘having drawn’	رَاسَمِينَ [ra:smi:n]	رَاسَمَاتٌ [ra:sma:t]
b- شَافٍ [ʃa:jef] ‘having seen’	شَافِينَ [ʃa:jfi:n]	شَافَاتٌ [ʃa:jfa:t]
c- شَارٍ [ʃa:ri] ‘having sold’	شَارِينَ [ʃa:rji:n]	شَارِيَّاتٌ [ʃa:rja:t]
d- مَعْلٍ [mʕalli] ‘having (been) made higher’	مَعْلِينَ [mʕalji:n]	مَعْلِيَّاتٌ [mʕalja:t]

The examples above show active participles inflected with the plural suffixes [-i:n] and [-a:t]. While ‘a’ and ‘b’ illustrate the elision of [e], ‘c’ and ‘d’ witness the addition of [j] to replace the deleted [i]. The two examples present us with a two consonant base ending with an [i]. Thus, a third consonant is needed. Therefore the [j] is added in the plural form.

## 4.2. Noun Morphology and Derivation

Nouns are lexical forms which denote persons, places, animals, things and abstract concepts. In [AAUD], nouns are basically derived from verb base forms. They are inflected for number (singular vs. plural; the dual form only with some nouns), gender, and definiteness. The possible structures are:

- Pref. + NB
- NB + suf.
- Pref. + NB + suf.
- (or) NB + inf. (internal change)

### 4.2.1. Gender formation

#### 4.2.1.1. Masculine Singular/Feminine Singular

As far as gender is concerned, nouns have usually fixed gender and are inherently feminine or masculine. With the exception of living beings (human and non-human), where it is possible to have feminine vs. masculine forms, the suffix [a] is added to the singular form (both human and non-human) to denote the feminine gender:

E.g.

- كَلْب [kalb] Sing. Masc. 'a male dog'  
→ كَلْبَا [kalba] Sing. Fem. 'a female dog'
- قَط [qetʔtʔ] Sing. Masc. 'a male cat'  
→ قَطَّا [qetʔtʔa] Sing. Fem. 'a female cat'
- حَمَار [hma:r] Sing. Masc. 'a male donkey'  
→ حَمَارَا [hma:ra] Sing. Fem. 'a female donkey'
- سَلْطَان [seltʔa:n] Sing. Masc. 'a king'  
→ سَلْطَانَا [seltʔa:na] Sing. Fem. 'a queen'



- ضَيْف [di:f] Sing. Masc. ‘a guest’  
→ ضَيْفَة [di:fa] Sing. Fem. ‘a female guest’
- خَدَّام [xedda:m] Sing. Masc. ‘a worker’  
→ خَدَّامَة [xedda:ma] Sing. Fem. ‘a female worker, a maid’
- مُؤْمِن [mu:man] Sing. Masc. ‘a man believer’  
→ مُؤْمِنَة [mu:mna] Sing. Fem. ‘a woman believer’
- طَبِيب [tʰbi:b] Sing. Masc. ‘a male medical doctor’  
→ طَبِيبَة [tʰbi:ba] Sing. Fem. ‘a female medical doctor’

We notice that no apparent change occurs as a consequence to the presence of the suffix [-a]. Thus, we have the following structure: Pref. + NB.

However, this process is not generalized within the human and non-human fundamental male/female relationship. Many nouns have completely separate terms for male and female:

- |                                  |                           |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| ➤ وَلَد [wled] ‘a boy’           | → بَنَتْ [bent] ‘a girl’  |
| ➤ رَجُل [ra:dʒel] ‘a man’        | → مَرَأَة [mra] ‘a woman’ |
| ➤ سَرْدُوك [serdu:k] ‘a rooster’ | → جَاة [dʒa:dʒa] ‘a hen’  |
| ➤ فَرْد [ferd] ‘a bull, an ox’   | → بَقَرَة [begra] ‘a cow’ |

## 4.2.2. Plural formation

### 4.2.2.1. The dual marker [-i:n]

To denote duality, the suffix [-i:n] is usually added only to the numerals مِئَتَيْن [miti:n] ‘two hundred’, and أَلْفَيْن [elfi:n] ‘two thousand’, as well as to nouns of measure, as it is the case with:

- 1. سَاع [sa:ʕa] ‘an hour’ → سَاعَتَيْن [saʕi:n] ‘two hours’
- 2. يَوْم [jum] ‘a day’ → يَوْمَيْن [jumi:n] ‘two days’
- 3. شَهْر [ʃhar] ‘a month’ → شَهْرَيْن [ʃahri:n] ‘two months’

- 4. عَامٌ [ʕa:m] ‘a year’ / عَامَيْنِ [ʕa:mi:n] ‘two years’

We notice that the first and third examples undergo some change while the others do not. In example ‘1’, [t] is added before the dual suffix [-i:n]; and the last vowel is dropped. It is specifically [t] which is inserted and not another consonant because the actual original form of the noun base in Standard Arabic is [sa:ʕatun] ‘an hour/a watch/a clock’. Since in this dialect the case ending is dropped, we are left just with [sa:ʕa]. In example ‘3’ however, [a] is inverted.

Yet, we find some exceptions where dual nouns can occur. For example:

- عِنْدُ قَرْنَيْنِ

عِنْدُ

قَرْنَيْنِ

[ʕendu qerni:n] (We note that the dual noun is pronounced with a [q])

It has two horns

‘It has two horns’

We note that the noun base is [qern]:

قَرْنٌ [qern] + [-i:n] = [qerni:n] ‘two horns’

There is a variant form which is presented below:

- عِنْدُ لَقْرُونِ

عِنْدُ

لَقْرُونِ

[ʕendu legrun] (We note that the plural noun is pronounced with a [g])

[gru:n]

Prep. + Pron. Def. Art. + N.

(it) has the horns

‘It has got horns’

Similarly, the noun خَدٌّ [xedd] ‘a cheek’ can have a dual as well as a plural form.

➤ خَدُّ [xedd] ‘a cheek’

خَدَّيْنِ [xeddi:n] ‘two cheeks’ (no changes occur with the dual suffix [-in])

خُدُودُ [xdu:d] ‘cheeks’ (the noun base is altered in the plural form: the medial

[-u:-] is added along with the deletion of [e])

#### 4.2.2.2. The plural form

The ‘sound plural’ and the ‘broken plural’ are the main two types of plural forms which exist in AAUD.

##### 4.2.2.2.1. Sound plural

Sound plurals have regular forms realized through the process of suffixation.

There are four types of sound plural suffixes in AAUD, namely: [-a:t], [-i:n], [-jja] and [-a] which are added to the singular noun base forms. Therefore, the structure is:

NB +Pl. Suf.

Some examples are presented below:

Singular	Plural
كِتَابٌ [kta:b] ‘a book’	كُتَابَاتٌ [kta:ba:t] ‘books’
سَبِيْطَارٌ [sbi:t'a:r] ‘a hospital’	سَبِيْطَارَاتٌ [sbi:t'a:ra:t] ‘hospitals’
سَيَّارٌ [seyya:ra] ‘a car’	سَيَّارَاتٌ [seyya:ra:t] ‘cars’
خَدَّامٌ [xedda:m]. ‘a worker’	خَدَّامِيْنَ [xedda:mi:n] ‘workers’
	خَدَّامٌ [xedda:ma] ‘workers’
خَدَّامٌ [xadda:ma] ‘a female worker, a maid’	خَدَّامَاتٌ [xedda:ma:t] ‘female workers, maids’
فَلَّاحٌ [fella:h] ‘a farmer’	فَلَّاحِيْنَ [fella:hi:n] ‘farmers’
فَلَّاحٌ [fella:ha] ‘a female farmer’	فَلَّاحَاتٌ [fella:ha:t] ‘female farmers’
مُؤْمِنٌ [mu:man] ‘a believer’	مُؤْمِنِيْنَ [mu:mni:n] ‘believers’

مُؤْمِنَ [mu:mna] ‘a woman believer’	مُؤْمِنَاتُ [mu:mna:t] ‘female believers’
بَرَّانٍ [berra:ni:] ‘an outsider’	بَرَّانِيَّيْنُ [berra:nijj:i:n] ‘outsiders’
	بَرَّانِيَّ [berra:nijja] ‘outsiders’
بَرَّانِيَّ [berra:nijja] ‘a female outsider’	بَرَّانِيَّاتُ [berra:nijja:t] ‘female outsiders’
طَّلَبُ [tʰella:b] ‘a beggar’	طَّلَبُ [tʰella:ba] ‘beggars’
	طَّلَبِيَّيْنُ [tʰella:bi:n] ‘beggars’
طَّلَبُ [tʰella:ba] ‘female beggar’	طَّلَبَاتُ [tʰella:ba:t] ‘female beggars’
سَرَّاقُ [serra:q] ‘a burglar, thief’	سَرَّاقُ [serra:qa] ‘burglars, thieves’
	سَرَّاقِيَّيْنُ [serra:qi:n] ‘burglars, thieves’
سَرَّاقُ [serra:qa] ‘a female burglar, thief’	سَرَّاقَاتُ [serra:qa:t] ‘female thieves’
خَفَّافُ [xfa:fdʒi] ‘a man who sells donuts’	خَفَّافِيَّيْنُ [xfa:fdʒijja] ‘donuts sellers’
بُولِسِي [pulisi] ‘a policeman’	بُولِسِيَّيْنُ [pulisiijja] ‘policemen’
جَدْرَمِي [dʒadarmi] ‘a gendarme’	جَدْرَمِيَّيْنُ [dʒadarmiijja] ‘gendarmes’
بَزْنَاسِي [bezna:si] ‘a businessman’	بَزْنَاسِيَّيْنُ [bezna:sijja] ‘businessmen’

Nouns which have the base form [feʕʕa:l], as in the case of [xedda:m], [tʰella:b], and [serra:q] can have two plural markers [-i:n] or [-a].

The noun denoting a female thief [serra:qa] and the noun denoting a group of burglars (males/ females or both) [serra:qa] seem to be the same. However, they are differentiated in the utterance by the use of verb agreement i.e. through the verb agreement we understand whether the burglar is a woman or an unidentified group of thieves.

When the singular noun base ends with the vowel [i], the plural form is attached to the suffix [-jja].

The last four examples present professional activities with the use of the suffix

[-jja]. The last three are borrowed words from French (policier & gendarme) and English (business).

#### 4.2.2.2.1.1. Feminine vs. Masculine Sound Plural Forms

Feminine Sound Plural Form	Masculine Sound Plural Form
خَدَّامَات [xedda:ma:t] ‘female workers, maids’	خَدَّامِين [xedda:mi:n]. ‘workers’
فَلَّاحَات [fella:ha:t] ‘female farmers’	فَلَّاحِين [fella:hi:n] ‘farmers’
مُؤْمِنَات [mu:mna:t] ‘female believers’	مُؤْمِنِينَ [mu:mni:n] ‘believers’
مِیْدَات [mi:da:t] ‘coffee tables’	- None
سِیَّارَات [seyya:ra:t] ‘cars’	-None
رَسَّامَات [rassa:ma:t] ‘female painters’	رَسَّامِیْنَ [rassa:mi:n] ‘painters’
فَنَّانَات [fanna:na:t] ‘female artists’	فَنَّانِیْنَ [fanna:ni:n] ‘artists’

Thus, the feminine sound plural nouns are attached to the suffix [-a:t] whereas the masculine sound plural nouns to the suffix [-i:n]. We note that both number and gender are indicated by the same suffix. Feminine singular nouns which have the suffix [-a] would have their plural with the suffix [-a:t]:

- رَسَّام [rassa:m] ‘a painter’  
رَسَّام [rassa:ma] ‘a female painter’  
رَسَّامَات [rassa:ma:t] ‘female painters’
- فَلَاح [fella:h] ‘a farmer’  
فَلَاح [fella:ha] ‘a female farmer’  
فَلَاحَات [fella:ha:t] ‘female farmers’
- جَدَّ [dʒed] ‘a grandfather’  
جَدَّة [dʒedda] ‘a grandmother’  
جَدَّات [dʒedda:t] ‘grandmothers’

The singular masculine nouns كُتَّاب [kta:b] ‘a book’ and سَبِّیْطَار [sbi:tʔa:r] ‘a hospital’, the plural of which are كُتَّابَات [kta:ba:t] ‘books’ and سَبِّیْطَارَات [sbitʔa:ra:t]

‘hospitals’, are exceptions though. They have the plural suffix [-a:t] but do not denote feminine plural nouns.

Many loan words from other languages, especially French, take the suffix (plural marker) [-a:t] even though they do not denote feminine nouns. Therefore, they have a sound plural form:

➤ طَاكْس [tʰaksi] ‘taxi’

طَاكْسِيَّات [tʰaksijjɑ:t] ‘taxis’ (We note that [j] is inserted because the noun base ends with [i]. Therefore, it is to avoid that the last vowel of the noun base occurs next to the vowel of the plural suffix)

➤ طَنْبِيل [tʰonobil] ‘a car’ (from French: automobile)

طَنْبِيلَات [tʰonobila:t] ‘cars’

➤ مَنُوبر [monopri] ‘a supermarket’ (from French: monoprix)

مَنُوبرِيَّات [monoprijja:t] ‘supermarkets’

➤ كِيلُو [ki:lu:] ‘a kilo’

كِيلُوات [ki:luwa:t] ‘kilos’

➤ مَنُتُو [mantu] ‘coat, from French ‘manteau’

مَنُتُوات [mantuwa:t] ‘coats’

#### **4.2.2.2.2. Broken Plural**

The plural has a broken form when the singular noun base is subject to some internal changes. In other words, the radicals or the root letters undergo internal change(s) and consequently are presented in a totally different structure. Phonemes are either eliminated from the noun base, added or a combination of the two may also be common. AAUD has a variety of such broken plural forms.

#### 4.2.2.2.2.1. [ffa:lel] Pattern (CCaCeC)

This pattern is commonly used. The following list shows how this plural is realized with a variety of four and three consonant singular base forms. Internal change with consonant addition and vowel change is obvious. The structure is the pattern itself. However, it may be presented as follows:

Structure: NB + internal change (replacement and deletion)

E.g. Noun base→ [mefʕal]

Broken plural→ [ffa:lel]

Singular	Broken plural with [ffa:lel] pattern
1. مَلْيُونُ [melju:n] ‘million’	مَلَايِنُ [mla:jen] ‘millions’
2. مَطْرَحُ [metʕrah] ‘a mat’	مَطَارِحُ [mtʕareh] ‘mats’
3. مَحْبَسُ [mehbes] ‘a flowerpot’	مَحَابِسُ [mhabes] ‘flowerpots’
4. مَنَشَارُ [menʃa:r] ‘a saw’	مَنَاشِرُ [mna:ʃer] ‘saws’
5. مِفْتَاحُ [mefta:h] ‘a key’	مِفْتَاحُ [mfa:teh] ‘keys’
6. مَعْرَفُ [myarfa] ‘a spoon’	مَعَارِفُ [mya:ref] ‘spoons’
7. مَحْرَمُ [mharna] ‘a scarf’	مَحَارِمُ [mha:rem] ‘scarves’
8. سَرَوَالُ [serwa:l] ‘a pair of trousers’	سَرَاوِلُ [sra:wel] ‘pairs of trousers, pants’
9. فَكْرُونُ [fekru:n] ‘a tortoise’	
10. قَنْفُودُ [qenfu:d] ‘a hedgehog’	فَكَارِنُ [fka:ren] ‘tortoises’
11. سَلْسَلُ [selsla] ‘a chain’	قَنَافِدُ [qna:fed] ‘hedgehogs’
12. كَسْرُونُ [kesru:na] ‘a saucepan’ (from French)	سَلَسَلُ [sla:sel] ‘chains’
	كُسَارِنُ [ksa:ren] ‘saucepans’
13. كَرْتَابُ [kartʕa:b] ‘a schoolbag’ (from French)	كَرَاطِبُ [kra:tʕeb] ‘schoolbags’

14. سَبَّاط [sebbatˤ] ‘a pair of shoes’	سَبَّاط [sbatˤ] ‘pairs of shoes’
15. سَلُّوم [sellu:m] ‘ladder’	سَلَالِم [sla:lem] ‘ladders’
16. كَلَم [kelma] ‘a word’	كَلَائِم [kla:jem] ‘words’
17. عَجُوز [ʕdʒu:za] ‘old lady’	عَجَائِز [ʕdʒa:jez] ‘old ladies’
18. بَلَّاس [pla:sa] ‘a place’ (from French)	بَلَّائِس [pla:jes] ‘places’
19. بَلَّيْغ [bli:ʕa] ‘a pair of slippers’	بَلَّايِغ [bla:jeʕ] ‘pairs of slippers’
20. طَبْل [tʰa:bla] ‘a table’ (from French)	طَوَائِل [tʰwa:bel] ‘tables’
21. كَارْط [ka:rtʰa] ‘a card’ (from French)	كُورَات [kwa:retˤ] ‘cards’

We note that the plural forms of singular noun bases with three consonants have a [w] or [j] consonant added to them to represent the fourth consonant of the pattern [fʕa:lel]. This is illustrated in the last six examples of the above list (No 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21)

Additionally, there are singular base nouns which have less than three consonants and have the plural pattern [fʕalel] (CcaCeC) but are not numerous. We notice the simultaneous insertion of both [w] and [j] phonemes.

E.g.

Singular nouns (less than 3 consonants)	Broken plural with [fʕa:lel] pattern
رِيح [ri:ħa] ‘perfume, odor’	رَوَائِح [rwa:jeħ] ‘perfumes, odors’
جِه [dʒiħa] ‘direction, way, side’	جَوَائِه [dʒwa:jeħ] ‘directions, ways, sides’
سَاع [sa:ʕa] ‘an hour’	سَوَائِع [swa:jeʕ] ‘hours’
حَاج [ħa:dʒa] ‘matter, thing’	حَوَائِج [ħwa:jedʒ] ‘things, clothes’. (‘clothes’ only in pl.)



#### 4.2.2.2.2. [fʁa:l] Pattern (CCa:C)

Similar to the previous type, this kind of form may have different singular patterns as base forms:

Singular with [fʁɛl]/ [fʁɔl] patterns	Plural with [fʁa:l] pattern
1. فَرْد [ferd] 'a bull, an ox'	فَرَاد [fra:d] 'bulls, oxen'
2. كَلْب [kelb] 'a dog'	كَلَاب [kla:b] 'dogs'
3. بَرْج [berdʒ] 'a tower'	بَرَاج [bra:dʒ] 'towers'
4. طَرْف [tʁɛf] 'a piece'	طَرَاَف [tʁa:f] 'pieces'
5. بَنَتْ [bent] 'a daughter, a girl'	بَنَات [bna:t] 'daughters, girls'
6. مُخ [moxx] 'a brain, a very intelligent person'	مَخَاخ [mxa:x] 'brains, very intelligent persons'
7. مُر [morr] 'hard times, misery'	مَرَار [mra:r] 'miseries'

We note that in the last two examples of the above list (6 and 7), the final consonant in the singular base form is doubled. Yet, these nouns are considered to have less than three consonants. Consequently, the doubled consonant reappears twice in the plural form.

Another set of different singular noun bases is presented below:

Singular with [fʁɛl]/ [fʁɔl] patterns	Plural with [fʁa:l] pattern
بَعْل [byɛl] 'a mule'	بُعَال [bya:l] 'mules'
جَمَل [dʒmel] 'a camel'	جُمَال [dʒma:l] 'camels'
عَمَل [ʁmel] 'a deed'	عُمَال [ʁma:l] 'deeds'
شُعْل [ʃɔl] 'work, housework'	شُعَال [ʃya:l] 'works'

When singulars with less than three consonants are involved, the plural pattern [fʁa:l] is inserted with [w] or [j] to fill its second consonant. That is because the singulars have one of the three weak letters [a:] / [a:], [i:] / [i:], or [u:] / [u:]. Whenever the singular has a medial [i:] or [u:], usually the plural would have respectively [j] or [w] inserted to it. But it is not predictable with a medial [a:] to have [w] or [j].

E.g.

Singulars with less than three consonants	Plural with [fʁa:l] pattern
خَال [xa:l] 'maternal uncle'	خَوَال [xwa:l] 'maternal uncles'
نَاب [na:b] 'a fang'	نِيَاب [nja:b] 'fangs'
بِير [bi:r] 'a well'	بِيَار [bja:r] 'wells'
مَال [ma:l] 'money'	مَوَال [mwa:l] 'moneys'
مُوج [mudʒa] 'a wave'	مَوَاج [mwa:dʒ] 'waves'
صُور [sʁu:r] 'a wall'	صَوَار [sʁwa:r] 'walls'
هُون [hu:] 'dramatic sensation, worry'	هُوَال [hwa:l] 'worries'
عُود [ʁu:d] 'a horse'	عَوَاد [ʁwa:d] 'horses'

#### 4.2.2.2.3. [fʁa:li] Pattern (CCa:Ci)

This kind of plural is generally derived from the singular form which has the pattern [feʁla]. This type of singular pattern is the one for the plural pattern [fʁa:li], as presented above.

Singular	Plural with [fʁa:li] pattern
مَرَق [merqa] 'gravy'	مَرَاق [mra:qi] 'gravies'
دَعَو [deʁwa] 'prayer'	دَعَاو [dʁq:wi] 'prayers'
رَشَو [reʁwa] 'bribe'	رَشَاو [rʁa:wi] 'bribes'
رَغَو [reywa] 'foam'	رَغَاو [rya:wi] 'foams'
نَقْطَ [neqtʁa] 'a dot, a point'	نَقَاط [nqa:tʁi] 'dots, points'

However, this plural pattern may have another singular base form pattern, [ʔila] (which is also used as a diminutive form of some nouns in this dialect). Some examples are given below:

- بُحْرَ [bhira] Sing. ‘a field’  
بُحَارِ [bħa:ri] Pl. ‘fields’
- بِنِقَ [bniqa] Sing. ‘a special towel put on the head after showering’  
بِنَاقِ [bna:qi] Pl. ‘head towels’

It may also have a singular base form with less than three consonants as in the following example:

- ضُو [dʕu] Sing. ‘light’  
ضَوَاوِ [dʕwa:wi] Pl. ‘lights’

In the above example, we notice that since the singular form has [u] in the second position, it takes [w] as the second consonant in the plural form. Similarly, another [w] is inserted to fill up the 3<sup>rd</sup> consonant of the pattern.

This also happens when the singular base form has [a], as illustrated in this following example:

- دَالِي [dalya] Sing. ‘a raisin field’  
دَوَالِ [dwa:li] Pl. ‘raisin fields’

If the singular base has [i] instead, then [j] is implied to be used as the second consonant within the plural form:

- لِيلِ [lila] ‘a night’  
لُيَالِ [lja:li] ‘nights’

#### 4.2.2.2.4. [fʁu:l] Pattern (CCu:C)

This plural pattern has its singular base form with the pattern [feʃl]:

Singular with [feʃl] pattern	Plural with [fʁu:l] pattern
عَرَقُ [ʃerq] ‘root, vein’	عُرُوقُ [ʃru:q] ‘roots, veins’
قَرْنُ [qern] ‘a century’	قُرُونُ [qru:n] ‘centuries’
خَطُّ [xetʰtʰ] ‘a line’	خُطُوطُ [xtʰu: tʰ] ‘lines’
جَدُّ [dʒedd] ‘a grandfather’	جُدُودُ [dʒdu:d] ‘grandfathers’
خَدُّ [xedd] ‘a cheek’	خُدُودُ [xdu:d] ‘cheeks’

Singular base forms which have as second letter an [i:] are most likely to have plurals with [j] as the second consonant:

Singular	Plural
بَيْتُ [bi:t] ‘a room’	بُيُوتُ [bju:t] ‘rooms’
جَيْبُ [dʒi:b] ‘a pocket’	جُبُوبُ [dʒju:b] ‘pockets’
خَيْطُ [xi:tʰ] ‘thread’	خُيُوطُ [xju:tʰ] ‘threads’

#### 4.2.2.2.5. [fʁu:la] Pattern (CCuCa)

Singular with [fʃel] pattern	Plural
حَنْشُ [hneʃ] ‘a snake’	حَنُوشُ [hnuʃa] ‘snakes’
بُعْلُ [byeʃ] ‘a mule’	بُعُولُ [byula] ‘mules’
قَطُّ [qetʰtʰ] ‘a cat’	قُطُوطُ [qtʰutʰa] ‘cats’
جِلْدُ [dʒeld] ‘a skin’	جُلُودُ [dʒluda] ‘skins’

Singular base forms, with less than three consonants and [i] after the initial consonant, tend also to have [j] as the second consonant in the plural form:

Singular with [fi:l] pattern	Plural
سَيْف [si:f] ‘a sword’	سُيُوف [sjufa] ‘swords’
ذَيْب [di:b] ‘a wolf’	ذُيُوب [djuba] ‘wolves’

#### 4.2.2.2.2.5. [fʁa:la] Pattern (CCaCa)

Singular with [feʃli], [foʃli], and [fuʃli] patterns	Plural with [fʁa:la] pattern
طَبْس [tʰebsʰi] ‘a plate’	طَبَاس [tʰba:sʰa] ‘plates’
شَنْو [ʃʃenwi] ‘the Chinese man’	شَنَّو [ʃʃna:wa] ‘Chinese men’
كُرْس [korsi] ‘a chair, a stool’	كُرَاس [kra:sa] ‘chairs, stools’
تُنْس [ttunsi] ‘the Tunisian’	تَوَاس [ttwa:nsa] ‘Tunisians’

Again we find that the singular base form of the last example of the above list has an [u], a weak letter, after the initial consonant. Consequently, the plural form is having [w] after the initial consonant.

#### 4.2.2.2.2.6. [fila:n] Pattern (CiCa:C)

This pattern is also found to be common in AAUD. It has [fa:l] as the singular base form pattern:

Singular	Plural
جَار [dʒa:r] ‘a neighbor’	جَرَان [dʒira:n] ‘neighbors’
بَاب [ba:b] ‘a door’	بِبَان [biba:n] ‘doors’
كَاس [ka:s] ‘a cup, a glass’	كِسَان [kisa:n] ‘cups, glasses’
فَار [fa:r] ‘a mouse’	فِرَان [fira:n] ‘mice’
غَار [ɣa:r] ‘a cave’	غِرَان [ɣira:n] ‘caves’
رَاس [ra:sʰ] ‘a head’	رِسَان [risʰa:n] ‘heads’

We notice in all the above examples the deletion of [-a:-] and the addition of [-i-] after the first consonant along with the addition of final [-a:n].

#### 4.2.2.2.2.7. [feɫa:n] Pattern (CeCCa:C)

Singular base form patterns vary. They include [fʕa:l], [fʕu:l] and [feɫl]

Singular	Plural
بَلَدٌ [bla:d] 'a country'	بِلْدَانٌ [belda:n] 'countries'
خُرُوفٌ [xru:f] 'a lamb'	خَرْفَانٌ [xerfa:n] 'lambs'

#### 4.2.2.2.2.8. [fɛl] Pattern (CCeC)

Singular	Plural
سَلٌّ [sella] 'a basket'	سَلَلٌ [slɛl] 'baskets'
قُلٌّ [qulla] 'a jug, a jar'	قُلَلٌ [qlɛl] 'jugs, jars'
قَمَلٌ [qamla] 'a louse'	قَمَلٌ [qmɛl] 'lice'

The deletion or elision of the first vowel of the base form along with the final [-a] is observed. The addition of [-e-] after the two consonants cluster is noticed.

#### 4.2.2.2.2.9. [feɫa] Pattern (CeCCa)

Very few nouns have this pattern.

E.g.:

- طَبِيبٌ [tʕib] Sing. 'a medical doctor'
- طَبَّ [tʕabba] Pl. 'medical doctors'
- مَرِيضٌ [mrid] Sing. 'a patient'
- مَرَضٌ [marda] Pl. 'patients'

#### 4.2.2.2.2.10. [fɛi:l] Pattern (CCi:C)

This kind of pattern is also not commonly used:

- مَعَزْ [meʕza] Sing. ‘a goat’  
مَعِيزْ [mʕi:z] Pl ‘goats’
- حَمَارْ [hma:r] Sing. ‘a donkey’  
حَمِيرْ [hmi:r] Pl. ‘donkeys’

We notice the deletion of all the vowels of the base form and the addition of the infix [-i:-].

As a matter of fact, there are many other types of broken plural in this dialect, many of which include a small number of nouns. The most frequent and common are those presented above.

#### 4.2.2.3. Diminutive nouns

The [AAUD] has a linguistic phenomenon through the process of which diminutive forms of some nouns can be derived. These diminutives can also have a plural form by suffixing [-a:t] to the noun base (NB + suf. [-a:t]). Thus, they have sound plural. This is illustrated in the following examples:

Noun. Fem. Sing.	Diminutive form. Fem. Sing.	Fem. Plural
بَيْتْ [bi:t] ‘a room’	بَيْتْ [bi:ta] ‘a small room’	بَيْتَاتْ [bi:ta:t] ‘small rooms’
	بُوتْ [bwi:ta] =	بُوتَاتْ [bwi:ta:t] =
بَنْتْ [bent] ‘a girl’	بْنِيَتْ [bni:ta] ‘a little girl’	بْنِيَاتْ [bni:ta:t] ‘little girls’
	بْنُوَتْ [bniwta] =	بْنُوَاتْ [bniwta:t] =
رُبَّ [roppa] ‘a dress’. (French: robe)	رُوبَيْ [rwi:ppa] ‘a small dress’	رُوبِيَاتْ [rwippa:t] ‘small dresses’
دَارْ [da:r] ‘a house’	دُوَيْرْ [dwi:ra] ‘a small house’	
	دُوُورْ [dwiwra] =	دُوُورَاتْ [dwi:ra:t] ‘small houses’
		دُوُورَاتْ [dwiwra:t] =

It is noticed that in the case of a singular diminutive form, besides the addition of the suffix (final) [-a], internal change also occurs with the addition of a [w] and a change in the vowels. But the pattern remains the same, [fʕi:la] or [fʕiwlɑ]. The last example is featuring a noun with [a:] as a weak letter in the singular form. Thus, the diminutive and the plural forms has a [w] after the initial consonant.

We can have a masculine noun having a feminine diminutive noun as in the following example:

➤ حَانُوتْ [ha:nu:t] Masc. Sing. ‘a shop, a grocery’

خَوِينَتْ [hwi:nta] Fem. Sing. ‘a small shop’

Noun. Masc. Sing.	Diminutive form. Masc. Sing.	Plural
رَجُلٌ [ra:dʒel] ‘a man’	رَوِجَلٌ [rwi:dʒel] ‘a little man’ (despising)	رَوِجَلَاتٌ [rwidʒla:t] ‘little men’ (despising)
طِفْلٌ [tʃfel] ‘a boy’	طِفْلِيْنٌ [tʃfejjel] ‘a little boy’	طِفْلِيَّاتٌ [tʃfejla:t] ‘little boys’
كِتَابٌ [kta:b] ‘a book’	كُتَيْبٌ [ktajjeb] ‘a booklet’	كُتَيْبَاتٌ [ktejba:t] ‘booklets’
قَطٌّ [qetʃtʃ] ‘a cat’	قُطِيْوُطٌ [qtʃi:wetʃ] ‘a kitten’	قُطُوْطَاتٌ [qtʃiwtʃa:t] ‘kittens’
قُنْيُنٌ [gni:n] ‘a rabbit’	قُنْيُوْنٌ [gni:wen] ‘a little rabbit’	قُنْيُوْنَاتٌ [gniwna:t] ‘little rabbits’
سَيَّارٌ [sajja:ra] ‘a car’	-None	
طَيَّارٌ [tʃajja:ra] ‘a plane’	-None	

It is obvious that all plurals of the diminutive nouns are attached to the suffix [-a:t]. As a matter of fact, many noun categories are attached to the suffix [-a:t] in the sound plural form.

#### 4.2.3. Case Forms

While in Classical Arabic as well as in Modern Standard Arabic, the three case system, which consists of the nominative, the accusative, and the genitive, is maintained and applied on nouns and adjectives of the language, it has nowadays practically



disappeared from the colloquial dialects (Holes, 2004). This is also the case with AAUD. Other cases such as instrumental, ablative and dative do not exist in this dialect. However, possessive case form is realized with ‘my’ and ‘his’.

#### 4.2.3.1. Possessive case form

This type of grammatical inflection is realized through the combination of pronouns with the nouns as well as with the possessive particles [taʕ] and [dja:l].

➤ دَارْ	دَارِ	دَارُ
[da:r]	[da:ri]	[da:ru]
A house	Noun+1 <sup>st</sup> sing poss. pron.	Noun+3 <sup>rd</sup> sing pron.
	house my	house his
	‘My house’	‘His house’

Inflection of the possessive particles [taʕ] and [dja:l]:

تَاْغْ [ta:ʕ]	دِيَالْ [dja:l]
تَاْغْ [ta:ʕi] 1 <sup>st</sup> sing. poss. pron. ‘Mine’	دِيَالْ [dja:li] 1st sing poss. pron. ‘Mine’
تَاْغْ [ta:ʕu] 3 <sup>rd</sup> sing. poss. pron. ‘His’	دِيَالْ [dja:lu] 3rd sing. poss. pron. ‘His’

#### 4.2.4. Definiteness

It is shown in nouns by either the definite particle, inherited form in a noun root, or by the vocative.

##### 4.2.4.1. Definite Article

The definite article لْ [l] is prefixed to common nouns to mark the feature of definiteness. The absence of this definite article is the marker for indefiniteness. The form of the definite particle depends on the nature of the consonants which succeed it

(Please refer to appendix2). In other words, if the consonant is lunar [qamariyyah], the definite particle would be [l].

- بَيْتٌ [bi:t] ‘a room’ ([b] is lunar)  
الْبَيْتُ [lbi:t] ‘the room’
- مَاءٌ [ma:] ‘water’ ([m] is lunar)  
الْمَاءُ [lma:] ‘the water’
- قَمَرٌ [qmar] ‘moon’ ([q] is lunar)  
الْقَمَرُ [lqmar] ‘the moon’.

But if it is solar [famsiyyah], the [l] is assimilated. Therefore, an emphasis would be on the concerned consonant (It is doubled/ it gets a [feddah] ّ).

- دَارٌ [da:r] ‘a house’ ([d] is solar)  
الدَّارُ [dda:r] ‘the house’
- سَاعٌ [sa: ʕa] ‘a watch’  
السَّاعُ [ssa: ʕa] ‘the watch, the hour’
- شَمْسٌ [ʃems] ‘sun’  
الشَّمْسُ [ʃʃems] ‘the sun’

Thus, the two forms of the definite article are in complementary distribution conditioned by phonological conditioning. Moreover, the occurrence and the absence of the definite article are also in complementary distribution.

The definite particle is prefixed to head nouns, to adjectives, and to numeral modifiers.

➤ دَارُ شَابِّ هِيَ رَابِعَ

دَارُ	شَابِّ	هِيَ	رَابِعَ
[dda:r	[ʃa:bba	hija	rrabʕa]
The house	the beautiful	she	the fourth
Def. + Head noun	def. +adj.	3 <sup>rd</sup> . per pron	def. +numeral

‘The beautiful house is the fourth one.’

➤ لَوْنُ شَاطِرٍ هُوَ رَابِعَ

لَوْنُ	شَاطِرٍ	هُوَ	رَابِعَ
[llewwel	əʃʃa:tʰer	huwa	rra:beħ]
The first	the smart	he	the winner
Def. + Numeral	def. art. + Adj.	3 <sup>rd</sup> .Per. Pron.	def. art. +Head noun

‘The winner is the smart first one.’

#### 4.2.4.2. Indefiniteness

As mentioned above, the marker for indefiniteness is the absence of the definite article. Yet, another marker is found in AAUD. It is not a prefix but an independent form, وَاحِدٌ [wa:hed] ‘one’. Unlike the cardinal numeral 1, this marker does not agree with the noun it precedes. This is illustrated in the following examples:

1. جَا وَاحِدٌ رَّاجِلٌ

جَا	وَاحِدٌ	رَّاجِلٌ
[dʒa:	wa:hed	rra: dʒel]
came+he	one	the + man

‘A man came.’

## 2. جَاتُ وَاحِدٌ لَمْرَ

جَاتُ	وَاحِدٌ	لَمْرَ
[dʒa:t	wa:hed	lemra]
came+she	one	the + woman
‘A woman came.’		

### 4.2.4.3. Root inherited form

Certain classes of nouns, such as proper names and self-standing personal pronouns, have an inherent definiteness feature. Therefore, they do not need the definite particle in assuring their definiteness.

- Proper names: Nur, Farida (personal names), Tizi-Ouzou, Tipaza (names of towns in Algeria).
- Self-standing personal pronouns: أَنَا [ana:] ‘I, me’, نَنْتَ [nta] ‘you’. Sing. Masc.

However, there are some proper nouns which have the definite particle occurring as a prefix.

- زَائِرُ [ʔazza:jer] def. art +proper name: ‘Algiers’
- لَبْيَارُ [lebja:r] def. art. +proper name: ‘A district name in Algiers’
- لَحْرَاشُ [lharra:f] def. art. +proper name: ‘A district name in Algiers’

### 4.2.4.4. The vocative particle [ja] ‘oh’

The vocative particle is a tool of definiteness.

- يَا رَاجِلْ! وَشْ بِيكْ [ja ra:dʒel waf bi:k] ‘Oh man! What’s wrong with you?’
- يَا وَلَدْ رُوَاخْ [ja wled ɔrwa:h] ‘Oh boy! Come’

In AAUD, contrary to many other Arabic dialects, the vocative [ja] is not used before the personal names when they are called upon. Instead, the names are used as a vocative expression:

فَرِيدَا! [farida!], **not** [ja Fari:da] ‘Oh Farida!’.

However, it does occur before a possessive form and before the relative clause marker *لِي* [ɔlli:] ‘who, that, which’:

➤ *يَا بَنْتِ حَبْسِ*

*يَا      بَنْتِ      حَبْسِ*  
[ja      benti      ɥabsi:]

Oh      daughter+ my      stop

‘Oh (daughter) stop it’

➤ *يَا خُنَّ لَحْيِبُ لِي غَابَ عَلَيْنَا*

*يَا      خُنَّ      لَحْيِبُ      لِي      غَابَ      عَلَيْنَا*  
[ja:      xu:na:      leɥbi:b      lli:      ɣa:b      ʕli:na]

Oh      brother our      darling      who      absent upon us

‘Oh our darling brother who is absent among us’

#### 4.2.5. Derivative forms

As presented in the previous sections, the principles governing word formation in Arabic are based on root and pattern system. We can describe the root as a set of consonants, usually made up of three or four consonants (sometimes less or more than that), and the pattern as the insertion of vowels in between the consonants, with the possible addition of some other consonants. Arabic grammarians agree that the root is the verb in the perfect aspect, with the 3<sup>rd</sup>.singular masculine personal pronoun. Thus, nouns, adverbs, and adjectives are basically derived from a root verb.

##### 4.2.5.1. Derived adjectives

For the sake of argumentation we would take a noun stem derived from a base root verb to show how the adjective is derived.

Noun stems		Derived adjectives with [feʕla:n] pattern	
1.	بَرْدٌ [berd] ‘a cold/chill’	بَرْدَانٌ [berda:n]	‘being cold’
2.	نُعَاسٌ [neʕa:s] ‘somnolence’	نُعَاسَانٌ [neʕsa:n]	‘sleepy’
3.	عِيٌّ [ʕja] ‘fatigue, tiredness’	عِيَّانٌ [ʕejja:n]	‘tired’

In example 1, 2 and 3 we notice that the noun bases are attached to the final [-a:n]. Though ‘[-a:n]’ is present in the three derived adjectives and in example 1 the base form does not undergo any change, it can not be said that it is a suffix. Base forms of examples 2 and 3 show the occurrence of internal change. Thus, the derivation is conditioned according to the given pattern.

Hence, in example 2, [e] is inserted after the first consonant while [a:] is deleted. Finally, the final [-a:n] is attached to the altered base.

However, in example 3, the base form is a two consonant and a final weak base type. Therefore, [j] is duplicated to fill the gap for the third consonant of the pattern.

#### 4.2.5.2. Adjectival nouns

There are indeed adjectives which are used as nouns in this dialect.

➤ جَا شَاطِرٌ

جَا

شَاطِرٌ

[dʒa

ʃʃa:tʕer]

v. (+pro)

def. art. + adj.noun

(He) came

(the) clever/smart

‘The smart one came.’

➤ رَاخْ زَّرِ

رَاخْ                      زَّرِ  
[ra:h                      zziri]

V. (+ Pro.)      Def. Art. + adj.N

(he) went      (the) Algerian

‘The Algerian man left.’

➤ لَمْسَكِينْ تَعْ لُبَارْحْ رَجَعْ

لَمْسَكِينْ                      تَعْ                      لُبَارْحْ                      رَجَعْ  
[lmaski:n                      taʕ                      lba:reħ                      rdʒaʕ]

Def. art.+(adj.N)      Part.      Adv.      V

(The) poor                      of                      yesterday                      came back

‘The poor guy (we saw) yesterday came back.’

We notice that adjectives working as nouns are attached to the definite article ل [l]. This prefix [l] allows any adjective to work as noun. Thus, these adjectival nouns can have numerals, demonstratives, and relative clauses as modifiers. If modified by a numeral, both the adjectival noun and the numeral are attached with the prefix/definite article [l], whereas with a ‘normal’ noun the definite article is only attached to the numeral.

E.g. هَذُكْ لَعَشْرَ لَكْبَارْ لِي شَفْنَاهُمْ جَاوْ

[haduk      lʕaʕra                      lekba:r                      lli:                      ʃefna:hum                      dʒaw]

Dem+pl.      Def.Art+Num.      Def.Art.+Adj.N. Rel. Pr.      1<sup>st</sup>Pl.Pr.+V+3<sup>rd</sup>.Pl. Pr.      V  
+3<sup>rd</sup>.Pl. Pr.

+Pl.

Those      the ten                      the                      big                      whom                      we saw                      them                      they came

‘Those big ten, whom we saw, came.’

#### 4.2.5.3. Derived adverbs

[AAUD] has adverbs which are derived from nouns or adjectives with the use of the suffix [-en]:

Noun/adj. stems	Derived Adverbs
1. دَائِمٌ (adj.) [da:jem] ‘permanent/lasting’	دَائِمٌ [dajmen] ‘always’
2. عَادَةٌ (noun) [ʕa:da] ‘a habit, a custom’	عَادَتُنْ [ʕa:da <del>en</del> ] ‘usually’

In example 2, [t] is inserted for phonological conditioning. Two vowels cannot co-occur next to each other. The actual Arabic noun is عَادَةٌ [ʕa:datun]. This explains why [t] is inserted and not another consonant.

The particle [kul] is added to the nouns to derive an adverbial expression:

Nouns	Derived adverbial phrase
سَاعٌ [sa:ʕa] ‘an hour’	كُلُّ سَاعٍ [kul sa:ʕa] ‘every one hour’
يَوْمٌ [ju:m] ‘a day’	كُلُّ يَوْمٍ [kul ju:m] ‘everyday’

#### 4.2.5.4. Derived possessives

Two noun forms can be juxtaposed to derive a possessive construction.

E.g.

1. عَمَّتُ يُوسُفَ

عَمَّتُ                  يُوسُفَ

[ʕemmet              ju:sef]

auntie                Yussef

‘Yussef’s auntie’



## 2. دَارُ خَالِي

دَارُ	خَالٍ
[da:r]	xa:li]
house	uncle + my
‘My uncle’s house’	

### 4.2.5.5. Derived instrumental nouns

Instrumental nouns which indicate tools or devices used in a given situation are derived usually from a verb base and have specific patterns. However, not every noun denoting an instrument is derived. Indeed, there are ‘underived’ nouns denoting instruments which have unspecified patterns, such as مُوسٍ [mu:s] ‘a knife’ or فَاسٌ [fa:s] ‘an axe’. The derived instrumental nouns come usually under the patterns [mefʕa:l] and [feʕʕala], among others.

Base form	Derived instrumental noun. [feʕʕala] pattern.
طَارَ [tʰa:r] ‘to fly’	طَيَّارَ [tʰejja:ra] ‘an airplane’
مَشَّ [mʃa] ‘to walk’	مَشَّائٍ [meʃʃa:ja] ‘a walker’
كَمَشَ [kmaʃ] ‘to grasp’	كَمَّاشَ [kemma:ʃa] ‘pincers’
لَقَطَ [lqetʰ] ‘to pick up’	لَقَّاطَ [leqqa:tʰa] ‘tweezers’

Base form	Derived instrumental noun. [mefʕa:l] pattern.
فَتَحَ [ftah] ‘to open’	مِفْتَاحَ [mefta:h] ‘a key’
نَشَرَ [nʃar] ‘to saw’	مِنْشَارَ [menʃa:r] ‘a saw’
نَقَرَ [nqar] ‘to peck’	مِنْقَارَ [menqa:r] ‘a beak’
سَوَّكَ [sewwek] ‘to clean up teeth’	مَسْوَاكَ [meswa:k] ‘a toothpick’

We notice that, while in the first set of examples, presented above, the stem or base form is modified, in the second set, the prefix [me-] is attached to the base form, along with its [a] inverted to [a:]. In actual fact, the prefix [me-] is originally [mi-] in Standard Arabic. The examples presented below also have in fact the prefix [mi-] which is shortened to [m-] in the two first examples. Therefore, the prefix [m (e)-] is usually attached to verb base to derive instrumental nouns.

Base form	Derived instrumental noun. Other patterns
قَصَّ [qes's <sup>ʕ</sup> ] 'to cut'	مَقْصَصٌ [mqes <sup>ʕ</sup> ] 'scissors'
فَكَكَّ [fek <sup>k</sup> ] 'to unfasten'	مِفْكَكٌ [mfek <sup>k</sup> ] 'screwdriver'
قَلَّ [qla] 'to fry'	مَقْلٌ [meqla] 'a frying pan'

#### 4.2.5.6. Derived locative nouns

Locative nouns are derived from verb base to which the prefix [m (e, a)-] is attached.

Base form	Derived locative nouns
1. لَعَبَ [lʕeb] 'to play'	مَلْعَبٌ [melʕeb] 'playground'
2. دَرَسَ [dres] 'to study'	مَدْرَسَةٌ [medrasa] 'school'
3. كَتَبَ [kteb] 'to write'	مَكْتَبَةٌ [mektaba] 'library'
4. كَتَبَ [kteb] 'to write'	مَكْتَبٌ [mekteb] 'office'
5. خَزَنَ [xzen] 'to store'	مَخْرَزٌ [mexzen] 'store room'
6. طَارَ [tʕa:r] 'to fly'	مَطَارٌ [matʕa:r] 'airport'
7. كَانَ [ka:n] 'to be'	مَكَانٌ [mka:n] 'place'

In examples 2 and 3, the feminine suffix [-a] is added to the derived locative nouns.

#### 4.2.5.7. Diminutives

Nouns of this type are derived from nouns as well as from adjectives. The common characteristic of the majority of these diminutive nouns is the occurrence of an initial cluster followed by the vowel [i].

Noun	Diminutive
كِتَاب [kta:b] ‘a book’	كِتَيْب [ktijjeb] ‘a booklet’
طَرْف [tʰerf] ‘a piece’	طَرَيْف [tʰrijjef] ‘a small piece’
بِنْت [bent] ‘a girl’	بِنْت [bni:ta] ‘a little girl’
حُمْر [ħmar] ‘red’	حُمَيْر [ħmimer] ‘to be slightly red’
صَغِير [sʰyi:r] ‘little, young’	صَغِير [sʰyi:wer] ‘diminutive for ‘little’’
حُوت [ħuta] ‘a fish’	حَوَيْت [ħwita] ‘a small fish’
مَاء [ma] ‘water’	مَوِي [mwiha] ‘a little water’

كِتَاب      كِتَيْب

[kta:b]      [ktijjeb]

A book      A booklet

Note: The letters in **bold** are the root letters whereas the additional ones are in italics.

#### 4.2.6. Numerals

##### 4.2.6.1. Cardinal and Ordinal Numbers

Contrary to the Arabic script written from right to left, the numbers are written and read from left to right.

#### 4.2.6.1.1. Derivation of numerals ‘one to ten’ (1 – 10)

Cardinal numbers	Ordinal numbers. 1st/3rd person singular <u>masc.</u>
زِرُّ [ziro] صَفْرُ [sʕafr] 0 ‘zero’	-
وَاحِدٌ [wa:hed] 1 ‘one’	أَوَّلٌ [llewwel] ‘the first’
زَوْجٌ [zu: dʒ]/ ثَنِيْنٌ [tni:n] (very rare) 2 ‘two’	ثَانِي [tta:ni] ‘the second’
ثَلَاثٌ [tlata] 3 ‘three’	ثَالِثٌ [[tta:let] ‘the third’
رَبْعٌ [rebʕa] 4 ‘four’	رَابِعٌ [rra:beʕ] ‘the fourth’
خَمْسٌ [xemsa] 5 ‘five’	خَامِسٌ [lxa:mes] ‘the fifth’
سِتٌّ [setta] 6 ‘six’	سَادِسٌ [ssa:des] ‘the sixth’
سَبْعٌ [sebʕa] 7 ‘seven’	سَابِعٌ [ssa:beʕ] ‘the seventh’
ثَمْنِي [tmany] 8 ‘eight’	ثَامَنٌ [tta:men] ‘the eighth’
تِسْعٌ [tesʕa] 9 ‘nine’	تَاسِعٌ [tta:seʕ] ‘the ninth’
عَشْرٌ [ʕaʃra] 10 ‘ten’	أَعَشَرُ [lʕa:ʃar] ‘the tenth’

Note:

- The antonym of [llewwel] (‘the first one’), [llexxer] ‘the last one’, is also part of the ordinals.
- The definite article اَلْ [l] is attached to the ordinal numbers.

The cardinal numbers from 1 to 10 do have ordinal numbers derived from them, based on the pattern [fa:ʕel]. ‘one’ and ‘two’ have irregular derived forms though. We note also that the above cardinal numbers are those for singular masculine. Thus, they would have changes if they were for singular feminine (feminine suffix [-a] attached), or for plural (plural suffix [-i:n] attached).

Ordinal numbers. 1st/3rd person singular <u>fem.</u>	Ordinal numbers. Plural form
لَوَّلَ [llewla] ‘the first’	لَوَّلِينَ [llewli:n] ‘the first ones’
تَّانِي [tta:nja] ‘the second’	تَّانِيِينَ [tta:nji:n] ‘the second ones’
ثَّالِثَ [[tta:lta] ‘the third’	ثَّالِثِينَ [[tta:liti:n] ‘the third ones’
رَّابِعَ [rra:bʕa] ‘the fourth’	رَّابِعِينَ [rra:bʕi:n] ‘the fourth ones’
لُخَامِسَ [lxa:msa] ‘the fifth’	لُخَامِسِينَ [lxa:msi:n] ‘the fifth ones’
سَّادِسَ [ssa:dsa] ‘the sixth’	سَّادِسِينَ [ssa:dsi:n] ‘the sixth ones’
سَّابِعَ [ssa:bʕa] ‘the seventh’	سَّابِعِينَ [ssa:bʕi:n] ‘the seventh ones’
تَّامَنَ [tta:mna] ‘the eighth’	تَّامَنِينَ [tta:mni:n] ‘the eighth ones’
تَّاسِعَ [tta:sʕa] ‘the ninth’	تَّاسِعِينَ [tta:sʕi:n] ‘the ninth ones’
لُعَاشِرَ [lʕa:ʃra] ‘the tenth’	لُعَاشِرِينَ [lʕa:ʃri:n] ‘the tenth ones’

We note that all ordinal numbers are preceded by the definite article ‘the’.

A paradigm of the above illustration is given below:

- لَوَّلَ [llewwel] ‘the first’. (1st/3rd person singular masc.)
- لَوَّلَ [llewla] ‘the first’. (1st/3rd person singular fem. With the fem. suffix [-a])
- لَوَّلِينَ [llewli:n] ‘the first ones’. (Plural form with the pl. suffix [-i:n])

The elision of [e] is observed in 1st/3rd person singular fem. and plural forms.

In AAUD, these numerals are used for counting as well as modifiers. These cardinal numbers do not change for gender, except in the case of ‘one’, which has the same characteristics of an adjective. Thus it agrees in gender with the modified noun:

رَاجِلٌ وَاحِدٌ	مَرَأَةٌ وَاحِدَةٌ
رَاجِلٌ                  وَاحِدٌ	مَرَأَةٌ                  وَاحِدَةٌ
[ra:dʒel                  wa:hed]	[mra                  wahda]
Man                  one	Woman                  one
‘One man’	‘One woman’

#### 4.2.6.1.2. Derivation of Numerals ‘Eleven to Nineteen’ (11 -19)

They are derived by suffixing [-tʰa:j] to the root numbers, with the exception of حَدَاشٌ [hda:j] ‘eleven’ and طُنَاشٌ [tʰna:j] ‘twelve’ which are derived using the suffix [-a:j].

Cardinal numbers	Cardinal numbers
حَدَاشٌ [hda:j]                  ‘eleven’	وَاحِدٌ [wa:hed] 1                  ‘one’
طُنَاشٌ [tʰna:j]                  ‘twelve’	زُوجٌ [zu: dʒ]/ ثَنِيْنٌ [tnin] (very rare) 2                  ‘two’
ثَلَاثَاشٌ [tletʰa:j]                  ‘thirteen’	ثَلَاثٌ [tlata] 3                  ‘three’
رَبْعَاشٌ [rbeʃtʰa:j]                  ‘fourteen’	رَبْعٌ [rebʃa] 4                  ‘four’
خَمْسَاشٌ [xmestʰa:j]                  ‘fifteen’	خَمْسٌ [xemsa] 5                  ‘five’
سَطَاشٌ [setʰa:j]                  ‘sixteen’	سِتٌّ [setta] 6                  ‘six’
سَبْعَاشٌ [sbeʃtʰa:j]                  ‘seventeen’	سَبْعٌ [sebʃa] 7                  ‘seven’
ثَمْنَاشٌ [tmentʰa:j]                  ‘eighteen’	ثَمْنِيٌّ [tmenya] 8                  ‘eight’
تِسْعَاشٌ [tseʃtʰa:j]                  ‘nineteen’	تِسْعٌ [tesʃa] 9                  ‘nine’

With the introduction of the suffix [-a:j], we notice that while the base form وَاحِدٌ [wa:hed] ‘one’ for حَدَاشٌ [hda:j] ‘eleven’ has its first syllable dropped and the [e] of the second syllable is elided, “طُنَاشٌ [tʰna:j] ‘twelve’”, using the rare base form ثَنِيْنٌ [tnin] as its base form (which is indeed the actual original cardinal number for number two) has its first consonant [t] inverted to[tʰ] along with the ending [-in] being dropped . As far as the suffix [-tʰa:j] is concerned, it is attached to the rest of the cardinals. As a consequence, the [e] of the first syllable of رَبْعٌ [rebʃa] ‘four’, خَمْسٌ [xemsa] ‘five’, سَبْعٌ

[sebʕa] ‘seven’, and تَسْعَ [tesʕa] ‘nine’ is elided, whereas the vowel [a] of the second and last syllable is inverted to an [e] before the last consonant. Furthermore, while سِتٌّ [setta] ‘six’ has the entire last syllable dropped, ثَمْنِي [tmenya] ‘eight’ has its [ja] dropped.

When these numbers occur directly before nouns, they take [-en] as a suffix with no apparent change, as shown in the following examples:

➤ حَدَاشْنُ وَحْدَ.

وَحْدَ حَدَاشْنُ

[hda:ʃen wahda]

Eleven one/unit

‘Eleven units’

➤ سَبْعَاشْنُ دَارُ

دَارُ سَبْعَاشْنُ

[sbeʃʔa:ʃen da:r]

Seventeen house

‘Seventeen houses’

We note that the modified nouns do not take the plural form.

#### 4.2.6.1.3. The Tens

The tens are derived by adding the suffix [-i:n] to the corresponding base. Thus a change in the last vowel is attested.

عَشْرَ [ʕaʃra] 10 ‘ten’	عَشْرِينَ [ʕaʃri:n] ‘twenty’
ثَلَاثَ [tlat̪a] 3 ‘three’	ثَلَاثِينَ [tlat̪i:n] ‘thirty’
رَبْعَ [rabʕa] 4 ‘four’	رَبْعِينَ [rabʕi:n] ‘fourty’
خَمْسَ [xemsa] 5 ‘five’	خَمْسِينَ [xemsi:n] ‘fifty’

With the insertion of the suffix, we notice the elision of the last vowel [a].

#### 4.2.6.1.4. The Hundreds

They are derived by combining the cardinal number forms with the noun [mja] ‘one hundred’. Except for [miti:n] ‘two hundred’, with a dual form in the genitive case, the cardinals would undergo some vowel alterations (through the derivational process). We note that it is [mja waḥda] sing.Fem. ‘one hundred’ instead of [mja wa:hed] sing. masc.

Cardinal Number.		Hundreds
وَاحِدٌ [wa:hed] 1	‘one’	مِئَةِ مِئَةٍ / مِئَةِ [mja] / [mja waḥda] ‘one hundred’
زَوْجٌ [zu:dʒ] 2	‘two’	مِئَتَيْنِ [miti:n] ‘two hundred’
ثَلَاثٌ [tlata] 3	‘three’	ثَلَاثِمِئَةٍ [teltmja] ‘three hundred’
رَبْعٌ [rabʕa] 4	‘four’	رَبْعِمِئَةٍ [rebʕemja] ‘four hundred’
خَمْسٌ [xemsa] 5	‘five’	خَمْسِمِئَةٍ [xemsemja] ‘five hundred’
سِتٌّ [setta] 6	‘six’	سِتِّمِئَةٍ [settemja] ‘six hundred’
سَبْعٌ [sebʕa] 7	‘seven’	سَبْعِمِئَةٍ [sebʕemja] ‘seven hundred’
ثَمْنِيٌّ [tmenya] 8	‘eight’	ثَمْنِمِئَةٍ [temnemja] ‘eight hundred’
تِسْعٌ [tesʕa] 9	‘nine’	تِسْعِمِئَةٍ [tesʕemja] ‘nine hundred’
عَشْرٌ [ʕaʃra] 10	‘ten’	عَشْرِمِئَةٍ [ʕeʃremja] ‘ten hundred’

It is found that, except for ثَلَاثٌ [tlata] ‘three’ which has its last vowel dropped , the last vowel [a] of the cardinals is dropped and replaced by [e] in the derived forms. Moreover, [tlata] ‘three’ and [tmenya] ‘eight’ are the only units to undergo internal changes. Indeed, an [e] is inserted after the first consonant while the first vowel is dropped.



When the number is beyond ten, the cardinal number is used in its original form with [mja]. E.g. [ħda:f mja] ‘eleven hundred’.

When these hundreds, except for the dual [miti:n], occur directly before nouns, they take a [-t] or a [-ten] (varies among speakers) as suffixes. Again we notice that the modified nouns do not take the plural form. Some examples are presented below:

➤ مَيْتٌ دِينَارٌ

مَيْتٌ دِينَارٌ

[mjat] dina:r]

Hundred Dinar

‘One hundred Dinars’

➤ ثَلَاثُمِائَتَيْنِ بَابٌ

ثَلَاثُمِائَتَيْنِ بَابٌ

[teltemjaten baab]

Three hundred door

‘Three hundred doors’

#### 4.2.6.1.5. The Thousands

The process is similar to the formation of hundreds’.

Cardinals			Thousands		
وَاحِدٌ [wa:ħed]	1	‘one’	أَلْفٌ وَاحِدٌ / أَلْفٌ [elf] / [elf waħda]		‘one thousand’
زَوْجٌ [zu:dʒ]	2	‘two’	أَلْفَيْنِ [elfi:n]		‘two thousand’
ثَلَاثٌ [tla:ta]	3	‘three’	ثَلَاثَ أَلْفٍ [teltala:f]		‘three thousand’
رَبْعٌ [rebʕa]	4	‘four’	رَبْعَ أَلْفٍ [rebʕala:f]		‘four thousand’
خَمْسٌ [xemsa]	5	‘five’	خَمْسَ أَلْفٍ [xemsala:f]		‘five thousand’
سِتٌّ [setta]	6	‘six’	سِتَّةَ أَلْفٍ [settala:f]		‘six thousand’
سَبْعٌ [sebʕa]	7	‘seven’	سَبْعَ أَلْفٍ [sebʕala:f]		‘seven thousand’
ثَمَانِيٌ [tmenya]	8	‘eight’	ثَمَنَةَ أَلْفٍ [temnala:f]		‘eight thousand’
تِسْعٌ [tesʕa]	9	‘nine’	تِسْعَ أَلْفٍ [tesʕala:f]		‘nine thousand’
عَشْرٌ [ʕaʃra]	10	‘ten’	عَشْرَةَ أَلْفٍ [ʕaʃrala:f]		‘ten thousand’

We also notice that the last vowel of the base form is elided. Again, [tlata] ‘three’ and [tmenya] ‘eight’ are the only units to undergo internal changes. Indeed, [e] is inserted after the first consonant while the first vowel is dropped.

When the number is beyond ten thousand, the ordinary [elf] form would be changed to [alef] when combined with the rest of the cardinal numerals with the addition of the consonant [n]. This is illustrated in the following examples:

- خَدَشَنَافْ [hda:ʃn**alef**] ‘eleven thousand’
- عَشْرَنَافْ [ʕeʃri:n**alef**] ‘twenty thousand’
- خَمْسَطَشَنَافْ [xmestʕa:ʃn**alef**] ‘fifteen thousand’

#### 4.2.6.1.6. Large numbers

مَلْيُونْ [melju:n] ‘one million’, مَلَايْنْ [mla:jen] (pl) ‘millions’, مَلْيَارْ [melja:r] ‘one billion’, and مَلَايِرْ [mla:jer] (pl) ‘billions’ are considered to be nouns. When used with two through ten, the plural form is used; whereas with the rest of the cardinal numbers, the singular form is used:

- زُوجْ مَلَايْنْ  
 مَلَايْنْ      زُوجْ  
 [zu:dʒ              mla:jen] (Pl.)  
 Two              millions  
 ‘Two million’
- طَنَاشْ مَلْيُونْ  
 مَلْيُونْ      طَنَاشْ  
 [tʕna:ʃ              melju:n] (Sing.)  
 Twelve      million  
 ‘Twelve million’

#### 4.2.6.2. Fractions

These are considered to be in the category of nouns as well as of adjectives. Apart from ‘half’, the rest are derived from the cardinal number forms. They are as follows:

1. نَصْ [nesʕ] ‘half’
2. ثُلُثْ [telt] ‘a third’, from [tla:ta] ‘three’ (We notice that the last vowel is dropped while the first one is inverted. Thus an [e] is inserted after the 1<sup>st</sup> consonant)
3. رُبْعْ [rbeʕ] ‘a quarter’, from [rabʕa] ‘four’ (We notice that the last vowel is dropped while the first one is inverted. Thus an [e] is inserted after the 2<sup>nd</sup> consonant)
4. خُمْسْ [xmes] ‘a fifth’, from [xamsa] ‘five’ (Same changes as in 3.)
5. سِدْسْ [sdes] ‘a sixth’, from [sadsa] (ordinal) ‘sixth’ (Same changes as in the previous one)
6. سَبْعْ [sbeʕ] ‘a seventh’, from [sebʕa] ‘seven’ (Same changes as in 3 and 4.)
7. ثَمَنْ [tmen] ‘an eighth’, from [tmenja] ‘eight’ (We notice that the syllable [ja] is dropped)
8. تَسْعْ [tseʕ] ‘a ninth’, from [tesʕa] ‘nine’ (Same changes as in 3, 4, and 6.)
9. عَشْرْ [ʕfer] ‘a tenth’, from [ʕefra] ‘ten’ (Same changes as in 3, 4, 6, and 8.)

Some examples are presented below:

<p>➤ 1 ½</p> <p>وَاحِدُنَصْ</p> <p>[wa:hedunasʕ]</p> <p>One+half</p> <p>‘One and a half’</p>	<p>➤ 2 ¼</p> <p>زُوجُرْبَعْ</p> <p>[zu:dʒurbeʕ]</p> <p>two+one quarter</p> <p>‘Two and a quarter’</p>
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<p>➤ 4/5</p> <p>رَبْعُخَمَاسٍ</p> <p>[rebʕaxma:s]</p> <p>Four fifths</p> <p>‘Four fifths’</p>	<p>➤ 8/10</p> <p>تَمَنَعَشَارُ</p> <p>[temnaʕʃa:r]</p> <p>Eight tenths</p> <p>‘Eight tenths’</p>
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It is also noticed that when the fractions are modified by the cardinal numbers, they take the plural form, as shown in the two last examples.

#### 4.2.7. Occurrence/Function of Nouns as adjectives

Nouns can occur as adjectives in this dialect. They occur after a modified noun to form a possessive construction.

E.g.

- شَيْخُ تَارِيخٍ
- شَيْخُ      تَارِيخٍ
- [ʃix      tta:rix]
- Teacher      (the) history (subject)
- ‘The History teacher’

- كَلْبُ دَارٍ
- كَلْبُ      دَارٍ
- [kelb      dda:r]
- dog      (the) house
- ‘The house dog’

➤ بَابُ لَحْنُتْ

لَحْنُتْ بَابُ

[ba:b lhanut]

door the + shop

‘The shop door’

It is found that the definite article ‘the’ is not mentioned in the Arabic statements with the modified noun but rather with the noun-adjective. However, it is the head noun which is being defined through the attribution process.

#### 4.2.8. Occurrence/Function of Nouns as Verbs

Unlike English which has verbs and nouns having the same form, such as ‘to act/an act, to question/a question...’ Arabic does not have such a phenomenon due to its pattern system.

#### 4.2.9. Verbal nouns

Verbal nouns refer to “the activity or state indicated by the verb from which it is derived... (They) also often refer to the result of the activity indicated by the parent verb” (R.S. Harrell 1962). Many verbs have their corresponding verbal nouns in AAUD as well. They are of consistent different patterns, according to the measure the verb belongs to. However, there are some irregular verbal noun forms and not all verb measures form verbal nouns. Some examples from measure 1, 2 and 3 are presented below:

Measure 1 verbs			Verbal Noun. [fʕi:l] or [fʕi:la] patterns	
1.	رَسَمَ [rsem]	‘to draw’	رَسِيمٌ [rsi:m]	‘drawing’
2.	غَسَلَ [ysel]	‘to wash’	غَسِيلٌ [ysi:l]	‘washing’
3.	شَرَبَ [ʃreb]	‘to drink’	شَرِيبٌ [ʃri:b]	‘drinking’
4.	كَتَبَ [kteb]	‘to write’	كُتِيبٌ [kti:ba]	‘writing’
5.	ذَبَحَ [dbeh]	‘to slaughter’	ذَبِيحٌ [dbi:ha]	‘slaughtering’
6.	سَرَقَ [sreq]	‘to steal, to rob’	سَرِيقٌ [sri:qa]	‘theft’

In 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, the elision of [-e-] and insertion of [-i:-] is noticed whereas, in 4, 5 and 6 the suffixation of the sing. fem. marker is observed as well.

Measure 1 verbs	Verbal Noun. [feʕla] pattern
1. دَخَلَ [dxel] 'to enter'	دَخْلٌ [dexla] 'entering'
2. خَرَجَ [xredʒ] 'to go out'	خَرْجٌ [xerdʒa] 'going out'

The inversion of [e] along with the addition of the singular feminine suffix is observed in both 1 and 2.

Measure 1 verbs	Verbal Noun. [fʕel] pattern
1. كَذَبَ [kdeb] 'to lie'	كَذِبٌ [kdeb] 'lying'
2. خَدَعَ [xdeʕ] 'to deceive, to betray'	خَدْعٌ [xdeʕ] 'deceiving'
3. مَكَرَ [mker] 'to feint'	مَكْرٌ [mker] 'feinting'

The root verb and the verbal noun are identical with the [fʕel] pattern in all the above examples.

Measure 1 doubled verbs	Verbal Noun. [feʕla:n] pattern
1. سَبَّ [sebb] 'to curse'	سَبَّانٌ [sebba:n] 'cursing'
2. عَضَّ [ʕedd] 'to bite'	عَضَّانٌ [ʕedda:n] 'biting'
3. حَكَّ [hekk] 'to rub, to scrape'	حَكَّانٌ [hekka:n] 'rubbing, scraping'

Here it is found out that the base form does not undergo any change. The addition of the final (suffix) [-a:n] is noticed.

Measure 1 final weak root verbs	Verbal Noun. [feʕla] pattern
1. شَرَّ [ʃra] 'to buy'	شَرٌّ [ʃri] 'buying'
2. مَشَّ [mʃa] 'to walk'	مَشٌّ [mʃi] 'walking'
3. بَكَ [bka] 'to cry'	بَكٌّ [bki] 'crying'
4. بَنَّ [bna] 'to build'	بَنْ [bni] 'building'
5. رَمَّ [rma] 'to throw'	رَمْ [rmi] 'throwing'

In the above list, we notice the deletion of the final weak vowel [a] and the insertion of the final [i].

Measure 2 verbs	Verbal Noun. [tefʕa:l] and [tefʕil] patterns.
عَمَّرَ [ʕemmar] ‘to fill up’	تَعْمِيرُ [teʕma:r] ‘filling up’
دَوَّرَ [dewwar] ‘to make round, to reverse’	تَدْوِيرُ [tedwa:r] ‘making round, reversing’
خَرَجَ [xerredʕ] ‘to put s.thing/ s.one out’	تَخْرِيجُ [texra:dʕ] ‘putting out’

In the above notice the addition of initial [t-] along with the inverted [e]. The insertion of medial [-a:-] is also noticed.

Measure 3 verbs	Verbal Noun. [mfaʕla] pattern
بَارَكَ [ba:rek] ‘to congratulate’	مُبَارَكٌ [mba:rka] ‘congratulating’
سَامَحَ [sa:meh] ‘to pardon’	مُسَامَحٌ [msa:mħa] ‘pardoning’
دَاخَلَ [da:xel] ‘to befriend s.one closely’	مُدَاخِلٌ [mda:xla] ‘befriending closely’

Here it is found out that the initial [m-] is added along with the final [-a]. The elision of [e] is also observed.

#### 4.2.10. Compound Nouns

A compound noun is a unit comprising two or more bases joined together. No derivational affixes are used. However, compounds in Arabic are asymmetrical to their English counterparts, though certain similarities can be found. This is certainly due to the morphological nature of the two languages.

Compounding process in Arabic, as well as in AAUD, has the following types:

- a. Construct compound: This type is illustrated in the possessive or genitive forms, in which the components are syntactically related. This is shown in the following examples:

➤ دَارُ عَمِّ

دَارُ                  عَمِّ

[da:r                  ʕammi]

house                  uncle+my (paternal)

Head noun    noun+poss. pro

‘My uncle’s house’

➤ وَسْطُ لَمْدِينِ

وَسْطُ                  لَمْدِينِ

[westʕ                  lemdi:na]

center                  the town

Noun modifier    def. art. + head noun

‘City center’

It also includes:

1. Personal proper nouns:

نُورُ دَيِّنِ [nur ddi:n] , فَطْمَ زَهْرَ [fatʕma zzahra], مُحَمَّدُ نَبِيْلُ [muhammad nabi:l]

2. Geographical names:

لَبْحَرُ لَمْتَوَسِطُ [lebħar lmutawasitʕ] (An Algerian town), عِيْنُ وَسَّارَ [ʕin wassa:ra]

‘Mediterranean sea’, خَطُّ لِيَسْتَوَاءَ [xetʕtʕ lʔistiwa:ʔ] ‘Equator’

3. Titles:

رَبِيْسُ لِحُكُوْمَ [raʔi:s lhuku:ma] ‘Prime Minister’, لَمُدِيْرُ لْعَامِ [lmudi:r lʕa:m] ‘General Manager’.

4. Others: عُبَّادُ شَمْسِ [ʕubba:d ʃʃams] ‘sunflower’, بَسَاطُ رِيْحِ [bsa:tʕ rri:h] ‘flying carpet’

b. Fusional compound: this type includes words which are made up of two or more words fused together. A noun of this type is considered as one word.



➤ بَرْجُ مَنَائِلَ (It is actually مَنَائِلَ)

[bardʒmna:jel] (A small town in Algeria)

➤ حَمَّامُ لَوَانٍ (It is actually لَوَانٍ)

[ħamma:mlwa:n] (A place with thermal waters)

c. Predicative compound: No example found.

### **4.3. Adjectives**

Adjectives are forms which have their own patterns. They describe nouns (persons, animals, places, objects, etc.) and are dependent on nouns in occurrence. In Classical or Standard Arabic, adjectives as well as nouns, identify case, state, gender, and number and are inflected accordingly. Moreover, they occur after the nouns they modify. In Arabic dialects, however, many of these grammatical functions are lost, including case function. The same is true in the [AAUD]. However, its adjectives agree with the modified nouns in gender, number and definiteness. Again, adjectives have their derivational and inflectional processes which share many similarities with those of the nouns.

Adjectives are classified into:

- i. Simple adjectives
- ii. Demonstrative adjectives
- iii. Derived adjectives (Relative and Diminutive)
- iv. Numeral adjectives
- v. Comparison of adjectives

#### **4.3.1. Simple Adjectives**

##### **4.3.1.1. Adjectives in [feʃla:n] pattern**

Adjectives with the pattern [feʃla:n] (CeCCa:n) designates temporary states. They are derived mainly from measure 1 intransitive verbs. Some examples are presented below:

Base form	Derived Adjective with [feʕla:n] pattern
a- زَعَفَ [zʕef] ‘to get angry’	زَعْفَانُ [zeʕfa:n] ‘angry’
b- شَبِعَ [ʃbeʕ] ‘to become satiated’	شَبِعَانُ [ʃebʕa:n] ‘satiated’
c- جَاعَ [dʒa:ʕ] ‘to be hungry’	جِعَانُ [dʒiʕa:n] ‘hungry’
d- عَيَ [ʕja] ‘to tire’	عَيَّانُ [ʕejja:n] ‘tired’

In the examples ‘a-’ and ‘b-’, we notice the inversion of [-e-] along with the insertion of the suffix [-a:n]. While in middle weak (hollow) verbs (such as [dʒa:ʕ] in ‘c-’), an insertion of [i] occurs in the adjectival form to replace the [eʕ] of the pattern [feʕla:n]; in final weak (defective) verbs (such as [ʕja] in ‘d-’), it’s an insertion of [j] which occurs to fill in the missing 3<sup>rd</sup> consonant of the pattern.

Additionally, some verbs of measure 9 can occur as base forms to some of the derived adjectives. Here are some examples: (Base only + Suf. [me-])

Base form	Derived adjectives
صَفَرَ [sʕfa:r] ‘to become pale’	مَصْفَرٌ [mesʕfa:r] ‘pale’
شَيَّانَ [ʃja:n] ‘to become thin, to lose weight’	مَشَيَّانٌ [meʃja:n] ‘thin, skinny’

What makes these two adjectives mentioned above different from the measure 1 verbs is that though they appear to be on the [feʕla:n] scale or pattern, they have indeed the prefix [me-] attached to the base forms to realize the pattern form.

Doubled verbs of measure 1 can also have similar characteristics. Here are some examples where the prefix [me-] is attached to the base form with change occurring to it:

Base with internal change + Suf. [me-]

Base form	Derived adjectives
شَحَّ [ʃeħħ] ‘to spend very little’	مَشْحَاخ [meʃħa:ħ] ‘stingy’
شَكَّ [ʃekk] ‘to doubt’	مَشْكَاك [meʃka:k] ‘doubting’

Thus the two examples mentioned above have the prefix [me-] attached to the derived adjectives and are put on the [feʃla:n] scale, contrary to the two other examples which precede them. Hence, they have [-e-] elided and [-a:-] inserted between the doubled consonant.

Furthermore, there are some adjectives on the [feʃla:n] scale which can be derived from a noun base. However, there are very few instances.

E.g.

Noun base	Derived adjectives
a- سَرَّ [serr] ‘charm’	مَسْرَار [mesra:r] ‘charming, cute’
b- عَرَّ [ʕra] ‘nudity’	عَرِيَان [ʕerja:n] ‘nude’

Structure: a- [me-] + base with [-e-] elided + [-a:-] between the doubled consonant

b- Base with [-e-] inserted + insertion of [-j-] (because of the final weak phoneme [a], deleted) and insertion of final [-a:n].

#### 4.3.1.2. Adjectives in [feʃʕa:n] pattern

Some adjectives may come under this pattern to denote a habit or a quality which the presumed person/animal is especially inclined to do. These may be called ‘dispositional adjectives’ (Cowell, 1964). Some examples are presented below:

Root	Derived adjective
كَلَّ [kla] ‘to eat’	وَكَّالٌ [wakka:l] ‘a big eater’
كَدَبَ [kdeb] ‘to lie’	كَدَّابٌ [kedda:b] ‘a liar’
سَرَقَ [sreq] ‘to rob’	سَرَّاقٌ [serra:q] ‘a robber’
بَيَّعَ [bejjeʕ] ‘to spy’	بَيَّاغٌ [bejja:ʕ] ‘a spy’

#### 4.3.1.3. Adjectives in [fi:l] pattern

Some adjectives may come under this pattern. They are derived mainly from verbs of measure 1 and some verbs of measure 9.

Root (measure 1)	Derived Adjective
كَبُرَ [kber] ‘to grow up’	كَبِيرٌ [kbi:r] ‘big’
مَرَضَ [mred] ‘to get sick’	مَرِيضٌ [mri:d] ‘sick, ill’
قَلَّ [qell] ‘to diminish’	قَلِيلٌ [qli:l] ‘few, little’

The derivation of this type of adjectives is characterized by the elision of [e] and the insertion of [i:]. The last example has a doubled root verb. That explains the slight change, compared to the first two examples.

The following examples of measure 9 inchoative verbs observe the elision of [-a:-] from the base form and the insertion of [-i:-] in the adjective form.

Root (measure 9)	Derived Adjective
صَغَرَ [sʕa:r] ‘to become small’	صَغِيرٌ [sʕi:r] ‘small, little, young’
سَمِنَ [sma:n] ‘to become fat, to gain weight’	سَمِينٌ [smi:n] ‘fat’
قَدِمَ [qda:m] ‘to be outdated’	قَدِيمٌ [qdi:m] ‘old, ancient, outdated’

#### 4.3.1.4. Adjectives of color

Adjectives which designate color have the pattern [fʃel]. They are derived from measure 9 inchoative verbs. At this end, we observe throughout the following examples the elision of [-a:-] from the base and the insertion of [-e-].

Examples:

- كَحَلَ [kħa:l] ‘to become black’ → كَحْلٌ [kħel] ‘black’
- بَيَّضَ [bjɑ:d] ‘to become white’ → بَيَّضٌ [bjed] ‘white’
- خَضَرَ [xda:r] ‘to become green’ → خَضِرٌ [xder] ‘green’
- صَفَرَ [sʃɑ:r] ‘to become yellow’ → صَفَرٌ [sʃer] ‘yellow’
- زَرَقَ [zra:q] ‘to become blue’ → زَرَقٌ [zreq] ‘blue’ etc.

There are some other adjectives which have the same pattern, designating some physical characteristics. Similar to adjectives of color, these adjectives are derived from measure 9 verbs. The elision of [-a:-] and the insertion of [-e-] is also observed.

Examples:

Base	Adjectives (Pattern [fʃel])
رَطَّبَ [rtʃɑ:b] ‘to become smooth, soft’	رَطْبٌ [rtʃeb] ‘smooth, soft’
حَرَّشَ [ħra:f] ‘to become rough, hard’	حَرَشٌ [ħreʃ] ‘rough, hard’

#### 4.3.2. Demonstrative Adjectives

The demonstrative adjectives in English are ‘this, that, these, those, and such’. They point out which noun is referred to. They are also used as demonstrative pronouns, as demonstrated in the pronouns section (Demonstrative Pronouns). The demonstrative adjectives describe nouns and answer the question ‘which’ related to the noun they modify, whereas demonstrative pronouns replace nouns. The same principle is applied in [AAUD]. The demonstrative adjectives found in this dialect are:

‘Proximal’ demonstrative adjectives	‘Distal’ demonstrative adjectives
هَدَا/ هَدَايَا [hada/ hadaja] ‘this one’ (masc. sing.)	هَذَاكَ [hada:k] ‘that one’ (masc. sing.)
هَدِي/ هَدِيَا [hadi/ hadija] ‘this one’ (fem. sing.)	هَذِيكَ [hadi:k] ‘that one’ (fem. sing.)
هَدُم/ هَدُمَا [hadu/ haduma] ‘these’ (pl.)	هَذُكَ [haduk] ‘those’ (pl.)

Structure: Base form [had] + suffixed pronouns

E.g.

➤ عَطِنِ هَدَا

هَدَا عَطِنِ

[ʔtʔini hada]

Give+me this

‘Give me this one’

➤ عَطِنِ هَذَا لَخْضَرُ

لَخْضَرُ هَذَا عَطِنِ

[ʔtʔini had lexder]

Give+me this green

‘Give me this green one’

➤ هَذَا سَنِيْلُ تَعَا

تَعَا سَنِيْلُ هَذَا

[had stilu teʃha]

this pen hers

‘This pen is hers’

Note: Please refer to ‘Demonstrative pronouns’ for detailed description of the demonstratives.

### 4.3.3. Derived Adjectives

#### 4.3.3.1. Relative Adjectives

These adjectives are derived from a noun base by suffixing [-i] to the noun. They usually designate a nationality, a place related, color related, character related... Some examples would illustrate this type of adjective formation:

Noun base	Derived relative adjectives
طَلْيَان [tʰalja:n] ‘Italy’	طَلْيَانِي [tʰalja:ni] ‘Italian’
مَرْكُ [merrok] ‘Morocco’	مَرْكِي [merroki] ‘Moroccan’
خَوْخ [xu:x] ‘peaches’	خَوْخِي [xu:xi] ‘peach like colored’
عَاصِمَ [ʕa:sʰima] ‘Capital city’	عَاصِمِي [ʕa:sʰimi] ‘a person from the capital city’
قَهْو qahwa] ‘coffee’	قَهْوِي [qahwi] ‘coffee like colored, brown’

No apparent changes are noticed in the stems of the first three examples after the insertion of the suffix [-i]. However, this is not so with all the relative adjectives. The phenomena of inversion and elision are indeed common. The last two examples of the above list show the deletion of the [a] vowel to be substituted by [-i] (replacement of [-a] by [-i]).

Some more examples to illustrate the inversion and elision phenomena are presented below:



Noun base	Derived adjectives
a- زَائِر [zza:jer] ‘Algeria’	زَائِر [zzi:ri] ‘Algerian’
b- مَصْر [masʕer] ‘Egypt’	مَصْر [masʕri] ‘Egyptian’
c- تُونِس [tunes] ‘Tunisia’	تُونِس [tunsi] ‘Tunisian’

We notice that all the three examples of the derived relative adjectives have the suffix [-i] attached to them. However, in ‘a’ we notice the elision of [-a:j] to be replaced by [-i:-]. However, in ‘b’ and ‘c’ the elision of [-e-] is observed.

Some other changes can occur in the stems. We exemplify them in the following instances (Base + [-w-] + [-i]):

- صَحْرَ [sʕahra] ‘desert’ → صَحْرَوِ [sʕahrawi] ‘Saharian’
- مَلْطَ [maltʕa] ‘Malta’ → مَلْطَوِ [maltʕawi] ‘Maltese’
- فَرَنْسَ [fransa] ‘France’ → فَرَنْسَوِ [fransawi] ‘French’

Here we notice the insertion of the suffix [-wi] in the relative adjective rather than the suffix [-i]. It is because the noun base ends with [a]. Yet, the following examples provide us with base forms which end with consonants:

- زَهْوُ [zehw] ‘fun, amusement’ → زَهْوَانِي [zehwani] ‘a person who likes to have fun’
- وَسْطُ [westʕ] ‘middle’ → وَسْطَانِي [westʕani] ‘medial one’
- تَحْتُ [teht] ‘under/below’ → تَحْتَانِي [tehtani] ‘the under one’
- فَوْقُ [fu:q] ‘on, over, above’ → فَوْقَانِي [fu:qani] ‘the upper one’

In the above examples, we notice the insertion of [n]. Thus, the suffix attached to the noun base becomes [-ani]. An [a] is added by necessity (phonological conditioning) because the noun base ends with a consonant and the suffix begins with a

consonant. Thus, two consonants appear next to each other ([zehw<sup>h</sup>ni], [west<sup>h</sup>ni]), making the pronunciation difficult.

Moreover, we notice that relative adjectives can be derived from prepositions of spatial relation, as denoted in the last three examples of the above list.

Some other relative adjectives referring to some habits in one's character may have the pattern [fʕejli] as shown in the following examples:

Noun base	Derived Adjectives
لَعْب [leʕb] 'game, play'	لَعَائِب [lʕejbi] 'playful, tricky'
حَشِيش [ħʃi:ʃ] 'hashish drug'	حَشَائِش [ħʃejʃi] 'a hashish addict; sly, tricky'
شُنَاف [ʃna:f] 'bad mood'	شُنَائِف [ʃnejfi] 'always in bad mood'

In the first example of the above list, [e] is elided while there is the addition of the medial [-ej] (replacing the base vowels) and the final (suffix) [-i] in all the three examples.

#### 4.3.3.2. Diminutive Adjectives

Like nouns, adjectives may have a diminutive form characterized by having the second consonant of the root repeated (CCiCeC, [fʕiʕel]). However, not every adjective has a diminutive form. Here are some examples which accept a diminutive form:

Base	Diminutive
حَمَر [ħmer] 'red'	حَمِير [ħmimer] 'small red one'
صَغِير [sʕyi:r] 'small, little'	صَغِير [sʕyiwer] 'small little one'
كَبِير [kbi:r] 'big'	كَبِير [kbiwer] 'small big one'
سَمِين [smi:n] 'fat'	سَمُون [smiwen] 'small fat one'

Apart from the first example, the three other examples of the above list have roots with the weak letter [i:]. The first example observes the deletion of the [-e-] from the base and the insertion of the [-i-] along with the duplication of the second consonant of the base. However, in the three examples which follow, a [w] is inserted with [-i-] in the derived diminutive form, rather than having the second consonant of the root repeated.

➤ [ħmer] ‘Red’

[ħmimer]: insertion of [i] and addition of the duplicated consonant.

➤ [sʕyi:r] ‘small, little’

[sʕyiwer]: insertion of [i], addition of [w] instead of the repeated consonant, and insertion of [e].

#### 4.3.4. Numeral Adjectives

Numerals (ordinal forms and fractions) function as adjectives as well as nouns in this dialect. Cardinal numbers, including large numbers (millions and billions) function only as nouns, with the exception of the cardinals وَاحِدٌ [wa:ħed] ‘one’ (masc.) and وَاحِدَةٌ [waħda] ‘one’ (fem.) which do function as adjectives. Unlike the other cardinals, they occur after the modified noun and agree with it in gender, as shown in the following examples:

I. مَعْرَفَ وَاحِدَ

مَعْرَفَ      وَاحِدَ

[myerfa      waħda]

spoon      one

‘one spoon’

II. طَبْسِ وَاحِدَ

وَاحِدَ      طَبْسِ

[tʕebsi wa:ħed]

plate one

‘one plate’

III. رُوجُ مَغَارِفَ

رُوجُ مَغَارِفَ

[zu:dʒ mya:ref]

two spoons

‘Two spoons’

IV. رُبْعُ طَبَاسَ

رُبْعُ طَبَاسَ

[rebʕa tʔba:sa]

four plates

‘Four plates’

Note: As for the morphological processes of this kind of adjectives, please refer to ‘Noun morphology’ (Numerals.)

Some examples of the use of numeral adjectives are as follows:

a) هُوَ ثَانٍ وَ أَنَا ثَالِثٌ

هُوَ ثَانٍ وَ أَنَا ثَالِثٌ  
[huwa tta:ni wa na tta:let]

He second and I third

‘He is the second and I’m the third one’

b) رَنَ فَسْمَانُ لَوْلَا نَعْ شَهْرُ

رَنَ فَسْمَانُ لَوْلَا نَعْ شَهْرُ  
[rana fesmana llewla teʕ ʃʃhar]

(we) are in (the) week (the) first of (the) month

‘We are in the first week of the month’

c) دَارُ ثَالِثَ هِيَ رُخِيصَ

دَارُ	ثَالِثَ	هِيَ	رُخِيصَ
[dda:r	tta:lta	hija	rrxi:sʕa]
house	(the) third	its	(the) cheap

‘The third house is the cheapest one’

#### 4.3.5. Comparison of Adjectives

Contrary to English and even to Standard Arabic, adjectives which show degrees of comparison do not exist in AAUD. The adjective in the positive degree is used along with a preposition to show the comparative and superlatives degrees. Some of the examples are given below:

➤ زَكَرِيَّ كُبِيرُ

[zakarijja kbi:r]

N. adj. → Adjective in the positive degree.

Zakaria (is)big

‘Zakaria is a big/ grown up person’

➤ زَكَرِيَّ كُبِيرُ عَلَيْهِ

زَكَرِيَّ كُبِيرُ عَلَيْهِ

[zakarija kbi:r ʕli:h]

N. adj. prep+pr. → adj. in the comparative degree

Zakaria (is) big prep+him

‘Zakaria is older than him’.

➤ زَكَرِيَّ كَبِيرٌ عَلَيْهِمْ

زَكَرِيَّ كَبِيرٌ عَلَيْهِمْ

[zakarijja kbi:r ʕli:hum]

N. adj. prep.+ pr. → adj. in the superlative degree

Zakaria big prep. + them

‘Zakaria is older than them’.

#### 4.3.6. Gender

To denote the feminine gender, the suffix [-a] is added to the base form of all types of adjectives. The base form consists of the masculine singular. The addition of the feminine suffix may or may not cause change in the base form.

Base + [-a]

Masculine (base form)	Feminine
جَعَانٌ [dʒiʕa:n] ‘hungry’	جَعَانٌ [dʒiʕa:na] ‘hungry’
سَمِينٌ [smi:n] ‘fat’	سَمِينٌ [smi:na] ‘fat’
كَبِيرٌ [kbi:r] ‘big’	كَبِيرٌ [kbi:ra] ‘big’
سَمَوْنٌ [smiwen] ‘fat’ (diminutive form)	سَمَوْنٌ [smiwna] ‘fat’ (diminutive form)
صَغِيرٌ [sʕiwer] ‘small’ (diminutive form)	صَغِيرٌ [sʕiwra] ‘small’ (diminutive form)

While no apparent change is reported in the first set of base forms in the above examples, the second set undergoes elision of the [e] with the addition of [-a].

The [i] is kept in all the rest of adjectives ending with [i] along with the insertion of [j] and the addition of the feminine suffix [-a].

Base form + suffix [-ja]

Examples:

Masculine	Feminine
طَلِّين [tʰalja:nɪ] ‘Italian’	طَلِّينِي [tʰalja:nɪja] ‘Italian’
مُرُك [merroki] ‘Moroccan’	مُرُكِي [merrokɪja] ‘Moroccan’
زُّير [zzi:ri] ‘Algerian’	زُّيرِي [zzi:rija] ‘Algerian’
مَقْل [meqli] ‘having been fried’	مَقْلِي [meqlija] ‘having been fried’

What follows are some examples of adjectives of color.

Masculine	Feminine
زَّرَق [zreq] ‘blue’	زَّرَقَا [zerqa] ‘blue’
كُحْل [kʰel] ‘black’	كُحْلَا [kehla]
صَفَر [sʰfer] ‘yellow’	صَفْرَا [sʰefra] ‘yellow’

Here we find that [e] is inverted with the addition of the feminine suffix [-a].

### 4.3.7. Number

#### 4.3.7.1. Sound Plural

Similar to nouns, the main number suffixes for masculine and feminine adjectives are [-i:n] and [-a:t] respectively. The introduction of these suffixes may or may not induce change in the base form. All participles, relative adjectives, adjectives with [feɣla:n] and [feɣʕa:n] patterns and diminutive adjectives take the plural suffixes [-i:n] and [-a:t].

Adjectives with [feɣla:n] and [feɣʕa:l] patterns do not undergo any change with the addition of the number suffixes.

- i. Base form + suffix [-i:n] (masc.)
- ii. Base form + suffix [-a:t] (fem.)

Base form ( with [feʕla:n] pattern)	Masc. plural	Fem. plural
زَعْفَانُ [zeʕfa:n] ‘angry’	زَعْفَانِيْنَ [zeʕfa:ni:n]	زَعْفَانَاتُ [zeʕfa:na:t]
شَبْعَانُ [ʃebʕa:n] ‘satiated’	شَبْعَانِيْنَ [ʃebʕa:na:t]	شَبْعَانَاتُ [ʃebʕa:na:t]
مَصْفَارُ [mesʕfa:r] ‘pale’	مَصْفَارِيْنَ [mesʕfa:ri:n]	مَصْفَارَاتُ [mesʕfa:ra:t]
مَشْيَانُ [mejʃa:n] ‘thin, skinny’	مَشْيَانِيْنَ [mejʃa:ni:n]	مَشْيَانَاتُ [mejʃa:na:t]
Base form ( with [feʕʕa:l] pattern)	Masc. plural	Fem. plural
وَكَّالُ [wakka:l] ‘big eater’	وَكَّالِيْنَ [wakka:li:n]	وَكَّالَاتُ [wakka:la:t]
كَدَّابُ [kedda:b] ‘liar’	كَدَّابِيْنَ [kedda:bi:n]	كَدَّابَاتُ [kedda:ba:t]

#### 4.3.7.2. Broken plural

There are adjectives which have broken plural forms. Adjectives of color for instance have only one plural form for both masculine and feminine with the pattern [fʕu:la].

Examples:

Base form	Plural form
كَحَلُ [kʰel] ‘black’	كُحُولُ [kʰu:la]
بَيِضُ [bjed] ‘white’	بُيُوضُ [bju:da]
صَفَرُ [sʕfer] ‘yellow’	صُفُورُ [sʕfu:ra]

Through this morphological process, we notice the elision of [e] to be replaced by [u:] and the addition of final [-a].

Adjectives with the pattern [fʕi:l] have broken plural as well. The [i:] is deleted and replaced by [a:], included under [fʕa:l] pattern, as it is illustrated in the following examples:



Base form	Plural form
كَبِيرٌ [kbi:r] ‘big, old’	كُبَارٌ [kba:r] ‘big, old’
مَرِيضٌ [mri:d] ‘sick, ill’	مَرَاضٌ [mra:d] ‘sick, ill’
قَلِيلٌ [qli:l] ‘few, little’	قُلَالٌ [qla:l] ‘few, little’
ضَعِيفٌ [dʕi:f] ‘weak’	ضُعَافٌ [dʕa:f] ‘weak’

#### 4.3.8. Occurrence of the adjective forms

In the above sections, we have seen how the different adjectives are formed. Yet, similar to the adjectives of Standard Arabic, adjectives of AAUD occur after the nouns they modify. Some examples are given below:

i. وَلَدٌ عَيَّانٌ

وَلَدٌ                      عَيَّانٌ

[wled                      ʕejja:n]

(a) boy                      tired

‘A tired boy’

ii. لَوْلَدٌ لُّعَيَّانٌ رَقَدَ

لَوْلَدٌ                      لُّعَيَّانٌ                      رَقَدَ

[lewled                      lʕejja:n                      rqed]

the boy                      the tired                      slept

‘The tired boy has slept’

In the above examples, it is observed that the adjective forms occur after the modified nouns. Moreover, these adjective forms agree with the modified noun in definiteness.

In the following examples, we observe the agreement of the adjective forms with the modified nouns in number, gender and in definiteness:

a. رَاجِلٌ مُرِيضٌ

رَاجِلٌ      مُرِيضٌ

[ra:dʒel      mri:d]

(a) man      sick

‘A sick man’

b. مَرَّ مُرِيضَ

مَرَّ      مُرِيضَ

[mra      mri:da]

(a) woman      sick+ fem. marker

‘A sick woman’

c. رُجَالٌ لَمْرَاضٌ

رُجَالٌ      لَمْرَاضٌ

[ʕrrdʒa:l      lemra:d]

the men      the sick (pl. form)

‘The sick men’

However, in AAUD, there are instances where the adjective occurs before the modified noun, as shown in the following examples:

➤ صَغِيرَ دَارٍ

صَغِيرَ      دَارٍ

[sʕʕi:ra      dda:r]

small      the + house

‘Small house/The house is small’

➤ بُنِينَ لَمَكْلٍ

بُنِينَ      لَمَكْلٍ

[bni:na      lmakla]

tasty      the + food

‘Tasty food/The food is tasty’

Here it is found that the adjective does not agree with the modified noun in definiteness as it appears in initial position.

## 4.4. Study of Pronouns

There are different types of pronouns in AAUD. They include personal pronouns (including possessive form), demonstrative and interrogative pronouns.

### 4.4.1. Personal Pronouns

Unlike English, Algiers Arabic dialect (as well as Standard Arabic) has suffixed pronouns in addition to its ‘independent’ (self-standing) personal pronouns. Compared to the self-standing pronouns which have simple forms and a definite number, suffixed pronouns show complexity and variation.

#### 4.4.1.1. Self-standing (inherent) pronouns

They are presented in the following table:

Independent pronouns	Singular	Plural
1 <sup>st</sup> person	أَنَا [ana] / [anaja] ‘I’	هَنَا [hna] / [hnaja] ‘we’
2 <sup>nd</sup> person masc.	أَنْتَ [nta] / [ntaja] ‘you’	أَنْتُمْ [ntuma] ‘you’
2 <sup>nd</sup> person fem.	أَنْتِ [nti] / [ntija] =	أَنْتُمْ [ntuma] =
3 <sup>rd</sup> person masc.	هُوَ [huwa] ‘he’, ‘it’	هُمْ [huma] ‘they’
3 <sup>rd</sup> person fem.	هِيَ [hija] ‘she’, ‘it’	هُمْ [huma] =

The independent pronouns are not commonly and overtly used as independent subjects. They are implied in the verbal predicates used. They are overtly used only for emphasis or statement clarification purposes, as well as in vocative phrases.

E.g. هُوَ يَرْوُحُ وَأَنْتَ تَبْقَى

تَبْقَى      نْتَ      وَ      يَرْوُحُ      هُوَ  
[huwa jru:h    we    nta    tebqa]

He      goes      and      you      stay

‘He will leave and/but you stay’

The above example illustrates a contrastive emphasis. The following examples however, illustrate a statement clarification:

➤ حَنْ مَقُلْنَاش رَاكُم كَذَّابِينَ

حَنْ	مَقُلْنَاش	رَاكُم	كَذَّابِينَ
[ħna	maqulna:ʃ	ra:kum	kedda:bi:n]
we	not+said	are+you	lying

‘We didn’t say that you are lying’

➤ هِي نْتُمْ

هي	نْتُمْ
[he:	ntuma]
Voc.	You (pl.)

‘Hey you!’

#### 4.4.1.2. Suffixed Pronouns

Structure: Base + suf. pron.

Person	Suffixed singular pronouns	Suffixed plural pronouns
1 <sup>st</sup> person	[-i] / [-ja]/ [-ni] ‘ <b>me/ my</b> ’	[-na] ‘ <b>us/ our</b> ’
2 <sup>nd</sup> person	[-(e)k] ‘ <b>you/ your</b> ’	[-kum] ‘ <b>you/ your</b> ’
3 <sup>rd</sup> person masc.	[-u] ‘ <b>him/his; it/its</b> ’	[-hum] ‘ <b>them/ theirs</b> ’
3 <sup>rd</sup> person fem.	[-ha] ‘ <b>her; it/its</b> ’	

The suffixed pronouns are commonly used. They occur with nouns, verbs, and prepositions. They denote possessive form when suffixed to nouns.

E.g.

➤ بَيْتٌ [bi:t] ‘a room’;

بَيْتُهَا [bi:th**a**]

N + pron.

room + her

‘Her room’

→ Thus, N + suffixed pron. = possessive form + N (in English).

However, these pronouns occur in objective case forms when suffixed to verbs or to prepositions.

E.g.

➤ قَالَ [qa:l] ‘He said’

قَالَهُمْ [qa:l**hum**]

V. + pron.

told + them

‘He told them’

➤ فَوْقَ [fu:q] ‘above, over, on’

فَوْقَكُمْ [fu:q**kum**]

Prep. + pron.

Above + you. Pl.

‘Above you’

The phenomena of elision and inversion are encountered in some cases within these morphological processes. (The use of italics helps to distinguish the elided and inverted phonemes whereas the bold items denote the suffixed pronouns).

E.g.

➤ نَوَاطِرُ [nwa:der] ‘glasses’

نَوَاطِرِ [nwa:di] → The [e] is elided.

N. + pr.

glasses + my

‘My glasses’ (we note that the elision does not occur with all the suffixed pronouns with this example. It occurs with 1<sup>st</sup> per. sing., 2<sup>nd</sup> per. sing., and 3<sup>rd</sup> per. masc. sing.)

➤ سَرَقَ [sreq] ‘he robbed’

سَرَقَكَ [serqek] → the [e] is inverted.

(pro) + V. + suffixed pron.

(he) robbed + you

‘He robbed you’

Here the inversion of [e] occurs only with the suffixed pronoun [-ek] of the 2<sup>nd</sup> per. sing. and [-u] of the 3<sup>rd</sup> per. masc. sing.

#### 4.4.1.2.1. Modifications of the suffixed pronouns

There are different forms of the first and the second person singular suffixed pronouns. Apart from the form [-ni], the forms depend on the ending of the stem. While the forms [-i] (1<sup>st</sup> per. sing.), [-ek] (2<sup>nd</sup> per. sing.) and [-u] (3<sup>rd</sup> per. masc. sing.) are suffixed to stems ending with consonants, the forms [-ja] (1<sup>st</sup> per. sing.), [-k] (2<sup>nd</sup> per. sing.), and [-h] (3<sup>rd</sup> per. masc. sing.) are suffixed to stems ending with vowels.

E.g.

➤ بِلَادُ [bla:d] ‘country’ → stem ending with a consonant

بِلَادِي [bla:di] ‘my country’

بِلَادُكَ [bla:dek] ‘your country’

بِلَادُهُ [bla:du] ‘his country’

➤ خُو [xu:] ‘brother’ → stem ending with vowel

خُوِي [xu:ja] ‘my brother’

خُوَكْ [xu:k] ‘your brother’

خُوَهْ [xu:h] ‘his brother’

➤ مَع [mʕa] ‘with’ → stem ending with vowel

مَعِي [mʕaja] ‘with me’

مَعَكْ [mʕak] ‘with you’

مَعَهْ [mʕah] ‘with him’

The form [-ni] (1<sup>st</sup> per. sing.) occurs only with verbs.

E.g.

➤ عَطَ [ʕtʕa] ‘he gave’

عَطَنِ [ʕtʕani] ‘he gave me’

Here, we notice that, without the insertion of [n], two vowels would occur next to each other. Phonologically, this is not possible.

➤ سَرَقَ [sreq] ‘he robbed’

سَرَقَنِ [sreqni] ‘he robbed me’

In the above example, although no vowel cluster is found to occur, [n] is inserted. This is because, without it, [sreqi] would be meaningless.

The different forms of 1<sup>st</sup> person singular suffixed pronouns are in complementary distribution. They carry the same meaning and have the same grammatical function. Yet, they are not found in identical environments mainly due to phonological conditioning.



#### 4.4.1.3. Reflexive Pronoun

The derived structure of this type of pronoun is as follows: رُوْح [ruh] ‘self’ + a suffixed pronoun. Thus, the derived form serves as a reflexive pronoun (self).

E.g.

➤ شَفْتُ رُحُكُمْ؟

شَفْتُ                  رُحُكُمْ  
[ʃeftu                  ruħkum]

Saw+you pl. self+your pl. (serves as object)

‘Have you seen yourselves?’

➤ ضَرَبَ رُحْ

ضَرَبَ                  رُحْ  
[dreb                  ruħu] (serves as object)

(he)hit self+his

‘He hit himself.’

➤ قُلْتُ لِرُحِ وَعَلَّاشْ مَا نُرْحَشْ

قُلْتُ                  لِرُحِ                  وَعَلَّاشْ                  مَا                  نُرْحَشْ  
[qult                  luħi                  waʕla:ʃ                  ma                  nruħʃ] (serves as indirect object)

told+I                  to+self+my                  why                  not                  I go not

‘I told myself why I shouldn’t go.’

➤ أَنْ بَرُحْ هَدَرْتُ

أَنْ                  بَرُحْ                  هَدَرْتُ  
[ana                  bruħi                  hdertlu] (serves as noun emphasize with the prep. [b] ‘with’)

I                  with+self+my talked+I+him

‘I myself talked to him’

#### 4.4.1.4. Reciprocal Pronoun

The structure of this type of pronoun is وَيَّ [wijja] + a suffixed pronoun. The derived meaning is ‘together’. It occurs only with a self-standing subject pronoun. Here are some examples:

➤ سَافَرْتُ أَنَّ وَيَّ

سَافَرْتُ أَنَّ وَيَّ

[sa:fert ana wijjaha]

travelled+I I together+she

‘I travelled (together) with her.’

➤ تَعَشَّأُوْهُمْ وَيَّاهُمْ

تَعَشَّأُوْهُمْ وَيَّاهُمْ

[tʃaʃfa:w huma wijja:hum]

Had dinner+they they together+them

‘They had dinner together with them.’

We notice that the subject in these sentences is mentioned twice but in different forms. The first one is mentioned through the inflection of the perfect verb (please refer to related section) while the second one is an overt self-standing subject pronoun.

#### 4.4.2. Demonstrative Pronouns

In this dialect, similar to English demonstratives, two categories are found, namely the ‘proximal’ demonstratives and the ‘distal’ demonstratives (Cowell, 1964). These pronouns take the place of nouns.

‘Proximal’ demonstratives	‘Distal’ demonstratives
هَدَا/ هَدَا [hada/ hada <b>ja</b> ] ‘this one’ (masc. sing.)	هَدَاكَ [hada: <b>k</b> ] ‘that one’ (masc. sing.)
هَدِي/ هَدِي [hadi/ hadi <b>ja</b> ] ‘this one’ (fem. sing.)	هَدِيكَ [hadi: <b>k</b> ] ‘that one’ (fem. sing.)
هَدُم/ هَدُم [hadu/ hadu <b>ma</b> ] ‘these’ (pl.)	هَدُوكَ [hadu <b>k</b> ] ‘those’ (pl.)

Structure: Base form + suffixed pronouns

The base form is [had]. The other forms are derived through suffixation. (The above table presents the different suffixes in **bold**.) The above pronoun forms can modify a noun. They may be translated into English as ‘this/that (one)’ and ‘these/those (ones)’ when the modified head-noun is not mentioned.

E.g.

➤ هَدِ كُبَيْرَ

كُبَيْرَ هَدِ

[hadi kbi:ra]

This big

‘This one is big’.

➤ هَدَ تَاعَ

تَاعَ هَدَ

[hada taʕi]

this mine

‘This (one) is mine’

However, the ‘proximal’ forms undergo changes when the modified head-noun is overtly mentioned. The suffixes are all deleted to get the root left out.

E.g.

➤ هَدُ طَفْلَ كُبَيْرَ

كُبَيْرَ طَفْلَ هَدُ

[had tʔʔefla kbi:ra]

This girl big

‘This girl is big’

➤ هَذَ دُرَارٍ قُبَاَحْ

قُبَاَحْ دُرَارٍ هَذَ

[had dra:ri qba:h]

These kids naughty

‘These kids are naughty’

Non-modifying demonstrative pronouns are derived by combining the particle هَا [ha:] with first person suffixed pronouns ([ni] and [na]), self-standing pronoun of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person in plural form (هُم [hum]), and third sing. fem. and masc. self-standing pronouns in a diminutive form (هُوَ [huwa] → هُ [hu]; and هِيَ [hija] → هِ [hi]).

E.g.

➤ هَآنِ! [ha:ni]

Part.+me

‘Here I am/ I’m coming’

➤ هَاهُ! [ha:hu]

Part.+he

‘Here he is/ He is coming’

➤ هَاهُمْ! [ha:hum]

Part.+they

‘Here they are/ they are coming’

We notice in the above examples that these forms occur by themselves. However, they can also occur in subject position in a sentence or a clause.

E.g.

➤ هَاهِ تَشْرَبْ

هَاهِ تَشْرَبْ

[ha:hi teʃreb]

Part.+she she+drink

‘(Here) she is drinking’

➤ هَانَ نَقَرُوْ

نَقْرَاوْ هَانْ

[ha:na            neqra:w]

Part.+ we      we+ read/study

‘(Here) we are reading /studying.’

#### 4.4.2.1. Locative Demonstratives

They denote ‘proximal’ and ‘distal’ places. There are two locative (place denoting) demonstrative forms for each category, namely هُنَّ/هَنَ [hna]/ [hnaja] ‘here’ and لِهِيَّة/لِهِيَّة [lhi:h / lhi:ha] ‘there’, respectively.

E.g.      هُنَّ تَسْكُنْنَ؟      تَسْكُنْنَ هُنَّ؟

تَسْكُنْ هُنَّ

[hna teskun]

Here (you) stay

‘Do you stay here?’

إِيَّاهُ هُنَّ نَسْكُنُ

نَسْكُنْ هُنَّ اهْ

[ʔih      hna      neskun

Yes here (I) stay

‘Yes, I do.’

تَسْكُنُ هُنَّ؟

هَنْ تَسْكُنْ

[teskun            hna]

(you) stay      here

إِيَّاهُ نَسْكُنُ هُنَّ

هَنْ نَسْكُنْ اِهْ

ʔih       neskun       hna]

yes (I) stay here

We notice in the above examples that the locative demonstrative may or may not be in the initial position of the sentence.

However, this is not always the case with other type of sentences.

E.g.	وِينْ رَاكْ	رَنِ هُنْ
	وِينْ رَاكْ	رَنِ هُنْ
	[wi:n ra:k]	[rani hna] ( <b>not</b> [hna rani])
	where are+you sing. masc.	am+I here ( <b>not</b> [here am+I])
	‘Where are you?’	‘I’m here’

#### 4.4.2.2. Indefinite Demonstrative

The indefinite demonstratives which exist in AAUD are هَاكْ [hak], هَاكَّا [hakka] or هَاكْدَا [hakda] ‘like this/this way’. They are actually alternant forms of one and same demonstrative. These forms occur:

- i) With nouns: هَاكْدَا دَنْيَا.
 

هَاكْدَا	دَنْيَا
[hakda	ddenja]
like this	(the) world
‘This is life.’	
- ii) With verbal predicates: هَاكْ تَنْصَرَفْ؟
 

هَاكْ	تَنْصَرَفْ
[hakka	tets <sup>erref</sup> ]?]
like this	you+ act
‘Is this how you behave?’	
- iii) With non-verbal predicates: هَاكْدَا دَايِرْ.
 

هَاكْدَا	دَايِرْ
[hakda	da:jer]
like this	(he is) made (A. P.)
‘This is how he is.’	

- iv) As complement:      بَعْدَ مَا دَارَ هَكَ هَكَ خَرَجَ
- بَعْدَ      مَدَارَ      هَكَ      خَرَجَ
- [beʕd   madaar      hak      xredʒ]
- after    (he) did      (like) this      (he) went out
- ‘He went out after he did this’
- v) After prepositions:      دَارَ كِمَ هَكَ مَتَلَقَيْهَاشْ
- دَارَ      كِمَ      هَكَ      مَتَلَقَيْهَاشْ
- [da:r   kima   hakka   matelqajha:ʃ]
- house   like      this      not+ find+it+ no
- ‘You won’t find a house like this one.’
- vi) As adverb:      دِرْ هَكَ وَلَا هَكَ
- دِرْ      هَكَ      وَلَا      هَكَ
- [dir   hakka      walla:      hakka]
- do      (like) this      and or      (like) this
- ‘Do it this way or that way.’

#### 4.4.3. Interrogative Pronouns

1. مَعَ مَنْ [mʕa **men**] ‘with whom?’
2. دِيْلْ مَنْ/تَعْ مَنْ [teʕ **men**/ djal **men**] ‘whose?’
3. لِمَنْ [li**men**] ‘to/for whom?’
4. بِمَنْ [bi**men**] ‘by whom?’
5. فِمَنْ [fi**men**] ‘in whom?’
6. شَكُونْ [ʃku:n] ‘who?’
7. أَمَّ [ama] ‘which one?’
8. وَاشْ [wa:ʃ], وَشْنُ [waʃnu] ‘what’

We notice in the first five forms that the particle [men] is used in each one of them, in combination with different prepositions. They can be used in both interrogative and declarative sentences.

Thus the structure is: Prep. + [men] {with +men}; {possessive +men}; {to/for +men}; {by +men}; {in +men}

E.g.

➤ مَعَ مَنْ خَرَجْتُ؟

مَعَ مَنْ خَرَجْتُ؟

[mʕa men xredʒt]?

With who went out +(you)

‘With whom did you go out?’

➤ تَعَمَّنْ هَٰذَا سُرَاوِلٌ؟

تَعَمَّنْ هَٰذَا سُرَاوِلٌ

[teʕ men ha:d ssra:wel]?

part. who these pants+pl.

‘Whose pants are these?’

➤ عَلَٰ بَالٍ لِّمَنْ حَتَّعْتُ هَٰذَا لَكْتُابٌ

عَلَٰ بَالٍ لِّمَنْ حَتَّعْتُ هَٰذَا لَكْتُابٌ

[ʕla ba:li limen hetteʕti had lekta:b]

on mind+my for+who going+give+you sing. this the+book

‘I know whom you are giving the book to.’

The form سُكُونٌ [ʃku:n] ‘who?’ is also used in interrogative as well as in declarative statements.

E.g.



➤ شُكُونٌ دَخَلَ؟

دَخَلَ شُكُونٌ

[ʃku:n dxeɪ]?

who come+past

‘Who came in?’

➤ شُكُونٌ أَنْتُمْ؟

أَنْتُمْ شُكُونٌ

[ʃku:n ntuma]?

Who you (pl.)

‘Who are you?’

➤ مَنَعَرَفَشْ شُكُونٌ هِيَ

مَنَعَرَفَشْ

هِيَ شُكُونٌ

[maneʃrefʃ]

[ʃku:n hiɟa]

Not + (I) know +no who she

‘I don’t know who she is.’

In the interrogative structure, the form شُكُونٌ [ʃku:n] occurs in the initial position of the sentence or phrase, whereas in the declarative structure, it does not.

The particle وَاشْ [wa:ʃ] ‘what’ is actually a combination of two items: the root [a:ʃ] ‘what’ and the added initial [w-]. Other initial parts (suffixed prepositions) are added to derive other interrogatives. These are listed below.

➤ بِاشْ [ba:ʃ] ‘with what’

➤ فَاشْ [fa:ʃ] ‘in what’

E.g.

1. بَاشُ تُعْطِ هَذَ لُخْرَدُ؟

بَاشُ                      تُعْطِ                      هَذَ                      لُخْرَدُ ?  
 [ba:ʃ                      tyetʰi                      hed                      lxurda]?  
 with+ what      cover +you sing.      this      the junk  
 ‘What are you covering this junk with?’

2. شَفْتُ بَاشُ دَارْتُ

شَفْتُ                      بَاشُ                      دَارْتُ  
 [ʃeft                      ba:ʃ                      da:rtu]  
 Saw (I)                      with what                      did + (she) + it  
 ‘I saw with what she did it.’

3. فَاشُ تُحْطُ هَذَ؟

فَاشُ                      تُحْطُ                      هَذَ ?  
 [fa:ʃ                      thetʰu                      hada]?  
 in+ what                      put +you pl.      this ?  
 ‘What container are you putting this in?’

4. تَعْرِفِ فَاشُ تُحْطِيْهِ

تَعْرِفِ                      فَاشُ                      تُحْطِيْهِ  
 [teʕerfi                      fa:ʃ                      thetʰi:h]  
 (you) know      in + what                      (you) put + it  
 ‘You know what container you should put it in.’

بَاشُ [ba:ʃ] ‘with what’, فَاشُ [fa:ʃ] ‘in what’ and وَاشُ [wa:ʃ] ‘what’ are similar in occurrence within the structures of AAUD.

As for the particle أَمَ [ama] ‘which one?’ it appears either just by itself in an interrogative phrase or in a declarative statement. However, its use is restricted.

➤ عَطِنِ لَكُتَابُ

عَطِنِ                      لَكُتَابُ

[ʔtʰini lekta:b]

give+me the+ book

‘Give me the book.’

أَمْ؟

[ama] ‘Which one?’

(Or)

أَمْ كُتَّابٌ؟

أَمْ كُتَّابٌ

[ama kta:b]?

‘Which book?’

**But we won’t say**

أَمْ هُوَ

أَمْ هُوَ

[ama huwa]

Which it

‘Which one (is it)?’

In this section, pronouns along with their different morphological form processes are presented. Their occurrence in the dialect structures is also explained with illustrations.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. Findings and Conclusion

Many findings are drawn from the data analysis. The Algiers Arabic Urban Dialect (AAUD) is mainly based on ‘Root Modification’ morphological process in its word formation, specifically referred to as ‘Transfixation’, as far as Semitic languages are concerned. It is also called ‘Templatic/Root and Pattern Morphology’. Thus, much of word derivation and formation involves the use of patterns with various infixes. Nevertheless, other minor morphological processes such as prefixation and suffixation, can be referred to in the word formation process and co-occur with the main and fundamental morphological process.

The majority of words are formed through internal change within the root. Therefore, many morphemes are discontinuous (Ryding, 2005). These morphemes are moulded according to established patterns and not sequenced in a row because of the interruption of infixes (McCarthy, 1981, cited by Katamba et al. 2006) as it is the case with:

- i.      عَيَّ      [ʕja]      ‘to get tired’ (medio-passive of ‘to tire’)  
         → عَيَّانُ      [ʕejja:n]      ‘tired’.

It is obvious that along with the addition of the final [-a:n] to the root, there is also the insertion of [e] and reduplication of [j] to fit within the pattern:

[feʕla:n] → [ʕejja:n].

- ii.              بُرَدُ      [bred]      ‘to feel cold’ (mediopassive of ‘to chill’)  
         →      بُرْدَانُ      [berda:n]      ‘cold (feeling cold)’

This second example is also within the same pattern. The pattern of the root is different from that of the above first example. We notice the inversion of [e] and the addition of the final [-a:n].

iii.	حَنْشَ	[hneʃ]	‘a snake’
→	حُنُوشَ	[[hnuʃa]	‘snakes’
iv.	قَطُّ	[qetʕ]	‘cat’
→	قُطُوطَ	[qtʕutʕa]	‘cats’ (etc.)

In the above examples, the plural is realized through the deletion of [e] and the insertion of [u:] along with the final [-a], although the pattern of the noun base is different. The pattern for this broken plural is [fʃula].

However, affixation is also a word formation process proven to be used in this Algerian dialect. Standard Arabic displays affixation as well (Katamba et al. 2006. p. 175). Prefixes are used in noun formation as it is the case with:

مَلْعَبَ	[melʕeb]	‘a playground’, from the root	لَعَبَ	[lʕeb]	‘to play’
مَدْرَسَ	[medrasa]	‘a school’, from the root	دَرَسَ	[dras]	‘to study’
مَكْتَبَ	[mekteba]	‘library, bookshop’, from the root	كَتَبَ	[kteb]	‘to write’
خَزَنَ	[mexzen]	‘store’, from the root	خَزَنَ	[xzen]	‘to store’ (etc.)

We notice that the prefix [me-] is attached to the base to refer to different locations and places along with the suffix [-a] denoting sing. fem. gender. Therefore, the notion of ‘place’ is shared between the different terminologies. Moreover, the suffix [-a] is attached to sing. masc. noun to refer to sing. fem. noun or adjective, as encountered in:

- كَلْبَ [kelb] ‘a dog’ sing. masc. → كَلْبَا [kelba] ‘a female dog’,
- سُلْطَانُ [selta:n] ‘sultan, king’ sing. masc. → سُلْطَانَا [selta:na] ‘queen’
- كَبِيرُ [kbi:r] ‘big’ sing. masc. → كَبِيرَا [kbi:ra] ‘big’ sing. fem.
- سَمِينُ [smi:n] ‘fat’ sing. masc. → سَمِينَا [smi:na] ‘fat’ sing. fem. (etc.)

Thus the ‘Item-and-Arrangement’ model can prove to be efficient in the morphological description of some of the morphological forms. However, as claimed by F. Katamba et. al., attempting the segmentation process into morphemes on Arabic words, as it is possible to conduct on English lexemes, “would be misguided” (p. 163). This is because, as mentioned above, there are various discontinuous morphemes. These are described through the ‘Templatic’ morphological principle. Hence, the Item-and-Process model and Root-and-Pattern morphology are the most appropriate for the morphological descriptive task.

Morover, the inflectional and derivational forms and their structures related to noun and verb categories are numerous. Some of the derivational forms related to the verb category are ‘the accusative, the medio-passive, the passive and the inchoative forms’. Most of these forms are realized through affixation:

- i. تَنَاف [tenʃa:f] ‘to be seen’, from شَاف [ʃa:f] ‘to see’→ (passive) use of prefix [ten-]
- ii. تَبَّن [ttebna] ‘to be built’, from بَن [bna] ‘to build’→ (passive) use of pref. [tte-]
- iii. بَيَّضَ [bja:d] ‘to become white’, from بَيَّضَ [bjed] ‘white’→ (inchoative) use of infix [-a:-]
- iv. نَعَسَ [nʃes] ‘to feel sleepy’→ (medio-passive)
- v. نَعَّسَ [neʃʃes] ‘to make someone feel sleepy’→ use of pattern [feʃʃel]: duplication of the second consonant and insertion of [e] (accusative)
- vi. بَرَّدَ [bred] ‘to feel cold’→ (mediopassive)
- vii. بَرَّرَ [berred] ‘to chill something’→ use of pattern [feʃʃel]: duplication of the second consonant and insertion of [e] (accusative) etc.

Other forms include perfective, imperfective, imperative as well as participles.

The inflectional and derivational forms and their structures related to noun category are various as well. Some are realized via suffixation such as Sound Plural form, Diminutives and Feminine form. Nouns can occur and function as adjectives, numerals, verbal nouns and compound nouns.

Furthermore, some morphological forms occur in Complementary Distribution as is the case with the suffixed pronouns of the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and with the Arabic definite article.

Lastly, it is to conclude that understanding the description of the morphological processes and structures helps language learners as well as researchers comprehend the theoretical framework of the Algiers dialect and to some extent, that of Standard Arabic. Furthermore, it can be a foundation for further research achievement. It may also yield rich insights for language researchers in comparative studies.

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# Appendices

## Appendix 1: Arabic letters

(The transcription symbols are those of IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet)).

<u>Letter</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>IPA</u>
ء <sup>3</sup>	hamzah	ʔ
ا	ʾalif	a:
ب	bāʾ	<u>b</u>
ت	tāʾ	<u>t</u>
ث	ṭāʾ	<u>θ</u>
ج	jīm	<u>dʒ</u>
ح	ḥāʾ	<u>ħ</u>
خ	ḫāʾ	<u>x</u>
د	dāl	<u>d</u>
ذ	ḏāl	<u>ð</u>
ر	rāʾ	<u>r</u>
ز	zayn/zāy	<u>z</u>
س	sīn	<u>s</u>
ش	šīn	<u>ʃ</u>
ص	ṣād	<u>sʕ</u>
ض	ḏād	<u>dʕ</u>
ط	ṭāʾ	<u>tʕ</u>
ظ	ẓāʾ	<u>ðʕ</u>
ع	ʿayn	<u>ʕ</u>
غ	gayn	<u>ɣ</u>

فَ	fā'	f
قَ	qāf	q
كَ	kāf	k
لَ	lām	l
مَ	mīm	m
نَ	nūn	n
هَ	hā'	h
وَ	wāw	w
يَ	yā'	j

◌ْ sheddah doubled consonant. E.g. دَدْ [dda]

Short vowels in Arabic:

◌َ a

◌ُ u

◌ِ i

Long vowels in Arabic:

◌َ a: / ◌ُ u: / ◌ِ i:

**Note:** In AAUD, ض [dʰ], ظ [ðʰ], and ذ [ð] are pronounced [d] while ث [θ] is pronounced [t].

## Appendix 2: The nature of Arabic consonants

Lunar [qamariyya] vs. solar [ʃamsiyyah] consonants in Arabic

Lunar [qamarijjah] consonants	Solar [ʃamsijjah] consonants
[ʔ] ء	[t] ت
[b] ب	[θ] ث
[d̤] ج	[d] د
[ħ] ح	[ð] ذ
[x] خ	[r] ر
[ʕ] ع	[z] ز
[ɣ] غ	[s] س
[f] ف	[ʃ] ش
[q] ق	[sʕ] ص
[k] ك	[dʕ] ض
[m] م	[tʕ] ط
[w] و	[ðʕ] ظ
[j] ي	[l] ل
[h] هـ	[n] ن