

# **Non-Finite Forms of the Verb in Arabic into English Translation**

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

- 1.1 The Problem
- 1.2 The hypotheses
- 1.3 Aims of the study
- 1.4 Scope of the study
- 1.5 Value of the study

#### **1.1 The problem :**

One of the most difficult parts of any language is usually the part that deals with the verb. Learning a language is to a very large degree , learning how to operate the verbal forms of the language , and the patterns and structures of the verb in each language seem to differ very considerably from those in every other language .

The complex verb system of English means that the language depends heavily on the verb phrase to express a variety of meaning which may be said to be grammaticalized in the verb phrase . Arabic , on the other hand , does not depend so heavily on the verb phrase to express a wide range of meaning ; such meaning are lexicalized rather than grammaticalized in Arabic. (Aziz,1998:59).

Arabic , in common with other semitic languages , is deficient in tenses , and this does make for ease in learning . moreover , the tenses do not have accurate time-significance as Indo-European languages .

In the Arabic verb-tense system , the number of forms recognized by grammarians and taught by teachers is far less than English . furthermore , the correspondence of form and meaning in the former is not so clear-cut as in the latter .(Khara,1983:44) translation equivalence between English and Arabic verb systems is eventually determine by the context of the verb phrase . (Aziz,1998:59)

English non-finite forms of the verb occur on their own only in depended clauses. And lack tense and mood distinction. Arabic does not have such a separate phenomenon called non -finite forms . Arabic non-finite verbs may be identification in terms of the structure they occur with.

Translators face difficulty un rendering the non-finite verbs from Arabic into English due to the lack of the counterparts and for they reveal various meanings which affect the entire

meaning of the text. Therefore , it has been found that this area as deserving investigation hoping to tackle the question of the possibility of rendering Arabic non -finite verbs into English.

### **1.2 THE HYPOTHESES :**

The study hypotheses that :

- a. Some Arabic non-finite verbs can not be rendered into correspondent expressions.
- b. Some Arabic non-finite verbs can be rendered into correspondent expression.

### **1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY :**

The present study aims at :

- a. Investigation the semantic and syntactic aspects of non-finite forms of the verb in the Arabic and English ;
- b. Pointing out the similarities and differences between Arabic and English non-finite verb.
- c. Providing the basis for translating Arabic non-finite verb into English ;and
- d. Investigation the translatability of Arabic non-finite verbs in narrative fictional text:

### **1.4 THE PROCEDURES :**

In order to achieve the aim of the study , these procedures are followed :

- a. Presenting a semantic and syntactic analysis :  
of non-finite verbs in the both Arabic and English ;
- b. Tackling the question of translating Arabic non-finite verbs in the light of the contrastive analysis above;
- c. studying the structural and semantic features of narrative texts.
- d. Embodying how Arabic non-finite verbs are translated in narrative fictional texts.

### **1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY :**

As for scope of the study , the investigation and translation

Of the non-finite verbs in Arabic as a linguistic phenomenon involves the four non-finite forms suggested by Kharma (1983).

The study will confine itself to investigate and translation of the non-finite forms of the verb only from Arabic into English.

### **1.7 VALUE OF THE STUDY :**

The present study can be of two-fold value. It is hoped that this study will bring the translator into a better understanding of the possibility of rendering Arabic non-finite verbs into English.

It is also hoped that the study will be useful for:

- a. Those interested in contrastive studies and linguistic research;
- b. Teachers of translation.
- c. Text-book designers.

## Chapter two

### Arabic non-finite forms of the verb

#### Introduction :

This chapter is devoted to the discussion of non-finite forms of the verb in Arabic. As is mentioned in the first chapter, non-finite forms of the verb are those which are not time and aspect referring. Arabic verbs, with some other factors, are always used to show or reveal the time of the action involved. As long as the so-called non-finite do not show so, they are not verbs according to the principles of the Arabic grammar. In another words they are nouns because we are obligated to admit the maxim that time is expressed by the verb anything except that is a noun.

The procedures followed in this chapter is that to investigation these four forms trying hopefully to find the counterparts and to make the balance needed between Arabic and English for, in Arabic, such as a phenomenon does not exist.

Arabic uses two kind of infinitive "مصدر"; the first is called "المصدر الموزون" which is, in turn, divided into infinitive with particle "المصدر المسبوك باداءة". the second is called "اسم الفاعل" which is equivalent to the English action participate fourth form is "اسم المفعول" which is called in English the passive participate.

#### 2.1 THE INFINITIVE WITH PARTICLE :

##### 2.1.1 INTRODUCTORY REMARK :

Ziyada and winder (1957:70) state that the infinitive or masdar is an abstract noun expressing the action of the corresponding verb. in line with (الفلاييني 1981:164), believes that infinitive is that utterance which denotes the action without any reference to time. These two definitions share the same idea that is the infinitive denotes an absolute time.

On the other hand, Kharma (1983:44) notes that as to apply to Arabic the idea of English non-finiteness, we have to agree with all Arab grammarians and Arabists that there is no infinitive form of the verb in Arabic since every form of the verb must have a subject, either explicit or understood. In spite of this, when we process further in the study of English infinitive, we find that there is an Arabic structure, namely, the particle "أن" "an" (called al-masdariyyah) the second simple form of the verb, which occurs in places where the English infinitive would occur.

On the bases of what Kharma says, we come to fact that the infinitive with particle "المصدر" is made by a finite verb processed by "أن" "an" or any particle that has its meaning. in this respect (السامرائي 1987,751,2:147) list five particle called the infinitival particle. they are "لو" and "كي", "ما", "ان" "أن".

Owing to the co-occurrence of these five particles with the verb , the infinitive with particle will be tackled through the discussion of each one of these five infinitive particle.

### 2.1.2 THE PARTICLE أَنْ :

the particle "ان" "an" , with quiescent nun , co-occur with following , nearly always in the imperfect signification

is either for perfect or future and future and for imperfect (60:1963 عبد الحميد) as in :

( وان تصدقوا خير لكم " ( البقرة 280

“And that you should give freewill offering is better for you “(Alberry ,1955:42)

أَنْ (an) with following verb can be used after verb which express “duly, effect, effort, fear, necessity , permission , inclination , disinclination , order , prohibition , etc .

(حسن, 371:75101:1961) . this can be shown in the following

Example :

ينبغي ان ينوي المتعلم بطلب العلم رضا الله

It behooves the learner to strive by his seeking after

Knowledge To please God. ( Wright , 1967:25)

This particle may occur in combination with other particles

like

(372:75101:1961, ان لا, الا, حسن, as in

" ما منعك الا تسجد "

It also occurs with لن which means “it will not happen that “

(Wright , 1967:751.2”25). consider this example :

(لن تمسنا النار الا اياما معدودة " (البقرة 80

A number of days .(Arberry, 1955:22)

Sometimes , if it is wished to inducted that the thing ordered or resolved upon has actually been done , the verb may be followed by أَنْ with perfect (62:1961, عبد الحميد) as in:

انه تعالى لما قدر ان احياها اولا قدر لن بحبيبها ثانيا

After God has decreed to call them to life for the first time , he decreed to call them to life the second time .(Ziada and winder , 1957:135).

Likewise , according to haywood and nahmad (1970: 441),

The particle ان (anna) with indicative of the imperfect is often employed as equivalent of ان (an) with the subjective . take this example:

كلما رمت ان اقدم خيرا لمعادي و رمت اني لتوب

As often I intended to send onward some good for my future life and to repent toward God ,

And also it may be used with imperative (حسن, 373:75101:1961)

As in :

(واذا نزلت سورة ان امنو بالله " (التوبة 86:

“and when sure is sent down , saying , believe in God “. (arberry, 1955, 261)

in reference to the temporal signification of the infinitival particle ان , it often inflects the present to future

(حسن , 373:75101:1961) as in :

(ام تريدون ان تسالوا رسولكم كما سئل موسى من قبل " (البقرة 108"

“Or, do you desire question your messenger as Moses was questioned informed time “(Arberry,1955:28)

in ( ) the question in future , but with :

(وجعلنا على قلوبهم اكنة ان يفقهوه" (الانعام 25"

“and we lay veils upon their hearts lest they understand“(Arberry,1955:172)

it can be understood that the time in ( ) is not particularly specified for future only but also it cover the present as well.

And in :

(والقى في رواسي ان تميد بكم " (النحل 15"

“And he cast on the earth firm mountains, lest it shake with you “. (Arberry , 1955 :350)

this means that the time of the verb extends since the creation of the human , now ,and then forever , so , it can be come up with that the use of the imperfect with the ان and verb flows in favor of the continuation of time.

Furthermore , ان (an) sometimes is used in causation (ابن عقيل 5:75103:1974)

(عيس وتولى ان جاءه الاعمى" (عيس 1-2"

“he frowned and turned away that the blind man came to him”(Arberry, 1955:784)

and instead of the particles "كي" and "ان" لام" can also be used in causation when it is followed by the perfect.

This can be ascribed these two particles which do not occur with the perfect (1 bid), as in:

(افنضرب عنكم الذكر صفحا ان كنتم قوما مسرفين" (الزخرف 5"

“shall we turn away the remembrance from you , for that you are a prodigal people “ (Arberry, 1955:644)

Additionally 1981:166) (الفلايني states that if the verb to which ان (an) is subordinate does not indicate any wish , effect ,expectation , or the like ,and the verb which is governed by ان (an) has the meaning of the perfect or present , the indicative of the or imperfect is used offer ان (an) , as in

I know that he said . اعلم ان قال .

I know that he is a sleep . اعلم ان ينام .

1987:149) (السامرائي describes how the particle "ان" is substituted by the particle "كي" in purposive sentences.

This because the infinitival sentences whose verbs are of “asking “ may be identical in meaning to the purposive ones . consider the following :

(انما يريد الله لن يعذبهم بها " (التوبة 55"

“God only desire thereby to chastise them “ (Arberry,1955:255)

but sometimes , the particle “ان is not semantically allowable to be substituted by"كي" because the meaning of the constructed may differ . look at this example :

(تقتلون رجلا ان يقول ربي الله " (غافر 28"

Will you slay a man because he say, my is God “(Arberry,1955:619)

When substituted the meaning of ( ) will be dependent.

If we put "كي" , it will mean that “he says not “

In regarding to the omission of the particle, ان can rarely be omitted before the subjunctive (1961:374 , (حسن) , Order him to write it . مره يكتبها



But it is worth noting that when the particle ان is omitted , its influence remains on the verb , that is ,making it in the subjunctive .

According to 1974:701.3:6 (ابن عقيل), the particle ان may sometimes seem to have the meaning of the “lest, for fear that” as in:

(ان تضل احدهما فتذكر احدهما الاخرى " (البقرة 282)

“if one of the two women errs, the other will remind her”.(Arberry,1955:67)

As regards the syntactical functions of the construct "ان" and the following verb , it can function in different ways . so. It is :

**a. Inchoative**

(وان تصوموا خير لكم " ( البقرة 184 "

“And that you should fast is better for you “(1bid :24)

**b. subject of verb**

(الم يان للذين امنوا ان تخشع قلوبهم لذكر الله" (الحديد 16"

“is it not time that the heart of those who believe should be humbled to the remembrance of God “(1bid:716)

**c. object**

(ان الله لا يغفر ان يشرك به " (النساء 48"

“God forgive not that aught should be with him associated.”

(1bid:116)

**d. Genitive of proximity**

(قالوا اوذينا من قبل ان تاتينا " ( الاعراف 129"

“they said “we have been hurt before you come to us ““(1bid”217)

Consequently, it seems important here to refer to the fact that the construct of "ان" and the following finite verb which forms المصدر المؤول is semantically equivalent to the verbal noun المصدر الصريح. The construct, thus, “to send “ينزل” is equivalent to “sending “انزال” . This will be highly focused in the following item in this chapter.

2.1.3 the particle ان (anna) with double nun this infinitival , which forms its substantive and predicate , is equivalent to the master or infinitive . and it occurs only with nominal sentences. (1961:112، (السيوطي). In line with him , 86,1964) (المخزومي) says that this equivalence can be

expressed as that the master is derive from its predicate when its inflected and annexed to its substantive , as in

اعلم ان زيدا يحضر

I know that Zaid will be present. (Haywood and nahmad, 1965:146)

In fact, the construct can be constructed as a master meaning: اعلم حضور زيد

Yet , the particle ان and its nominal sentences can be used for asseveration like the following

(واعلموا انكم ملاقوه" (البقرة: 223"

“and know you shall meet him”.( Arberrry , 1955:52)

another point that is to be noted is that sometimes the particle ان (Anna) has the same restriction of the particle ان (an) in assuming the infinitive or masder. When its predicate is formed of an a plastic verb which has no verb noun ( 1961:75101:372، حسن )

(وان عسى ان يمون قد اقترب اجلهم " (الاعراف: 185"

“that it May be their term is already night “(Arberrry,1955)

the infinitive or masder , in this case , is taken from the meaning of the a plastic verb (عسى) which means "التوقع" "to expect “ in regard to the syntactic functions , the construction commenced by the particle ان can be as :

### 1. inchoative.

(ومن اياته انك ترى الرض خاشعة " (فصلت: 39"

“and among his sign is that you see the humble”.(Arberrry,1955:633)

### 1. subject

(او لم يكفهم انا انزلنا " (العنكبوت "51"

“what , is it not sufficient for them that we have sent down”.(Arberrry,1955:528)

### 3.object

(ولا تخافون انكم اشركتم بالله " (الانعام "81"

“You fear not that you have associated with God” (Arberrry,1955:181)

### 2. object of preposition

(الم يعلم بان الله يرى " (العلق:14"

“Did he not know that God sees”. (Arberry , 1955:806)

#### 2.1.4 The particle ما (ma):

The definite pronoun ما is used to introduce a clause equivalent to the infinitive or masdar and is , in that case , called the infinitival ma 1961:143 (السيوطي و). (ما المصدرية)

75102:101 (السامرائي 1990) adds that this particle co-occurs

with verbal sentences whose verbs are fully conjugated whether it is-perfect or imperfect but with constraint.

(وانا برئ مما ترجمون " هود 35"

“and I am quit of the sins you do” (Arberry,1955:293) the constraint of its occurrences is that it ,as 1979:192 (المرادي) state, most frequently co-occurs with the perfect, as in

"ما دمت حيا " (مريم 31"

“so long as I live ) (Arberry, 1955:402)

and sometimes , the verb in the perfect which occurs after to takes the meaning of the imperfect (present or future ). As in :

لا لقيتم ما ليقتم ضرا

“may you never meet with harm”. (weight, 1967:75101:17) and rarely does it occur with unnegated imperfect , but with negated , as in

(ام حسبتم ان تدخلوا الجنة ولماياتكم مثل الذين خلوا" ( البقرة :214"

“or did you suppose you should enter paradise without there had come upon you the like of those who passed away”.(Arberry,1955:49)

however .in reference to its status , 1963:81 (عبد الحميد) notes that the infinitival "ما" is regarded as زمانية او ظرفية i.e., as equivalent to a verbal noun or infinitival in the accusative of time on the bases of the following example :

(انا لن ندخلها ما دامو فيها " (المائدة 24"

“we will never enter it so long as they are in it”. (Arberry, 1955:147)

it is noticed that 152:75101,1990 (السامرائي) seems to agree with عبد الحميد saying that " ما" construes what follows as infinitive whose accusative of time is supplied in advanced in the sentences. The accusative supplied is a ward which refers to time or a period of time. Consider the following:

(خالدين فيها مادامت السموات والارض " (هود 108"

“there dwelling forever so long as the heavens and earth abide”.(Arberry,1955:303)

as this example reveals , "ما" is followed by the period of abidance of heavens and earth . this is why it is called accusative as the majority of Arab grammarians do consent.

Wright (1967:75102:18), on the other hand , put forward a totally different idea saying that ما الزمانية is, in fact , only a variety ,in its application to time , of the conditional "ما"

But conversely, 261:1961) (ابن هشام) rejects the idea of accusative ظرفية. He strongly emphasizes viewing it as ما الزمانية on the bases of the meaning of the following verses:

(كلما اضاء لهم مشوا فيه " (البقرة 20)

Whensoever it gives them light, they walk in it “Arberry,1955:12)

The time, as understood in this example, is a noun in the genitive by attraction ,i.e,“ every time of lighting”

Which can not , as ابن هشام believes , be deemed as accusative.

Another view is recommended by 1984:145) (الاندلسي) and 1974:177) (ابن عقيل) which envisages "ما" as deputy-accusative of time . this view can be ascribed to that if it indicates the time by itself and not by mere deputation , it will be considered a noun and non infinitival.

It is to be noted that the aforementioned data focused on the accusative "ما" .now ,it is time to shift to another type of infinitival "ما" ,that is not used accusatively.

According to 1984:152) (الاندلسي) and 1979:194) (المرادي) , this type of "ما" is called so because no mentioning to “time” is made in the construction. It occurs with a verbal sentences in which the verb is fully conjugated. This construction is equivalent to the infinitive or masder, as in  
يعجبني ما عملت .

I like what you did

The construction, "ما" and the verb, is understood as masder like عملك “your doing “

They add that it often co-occurs with perfect and not imperative, as in:

(وضاقت الارض عليكم بما رحبت " ( التوبة 25 )

“and the land for all its breath was strait for you “. (Arberry ,1995:249)

yet , the use of the imperfect seems to be rather rare , lets take this example:

(لما تصف السنكم " (النحل 116)

“as to what your tongues falsely describe.”(1bid 365)

### 2.1.5 The particle كي (kay)

this infinitival particle co-occurs with the imperfect and its infinitive often occurs as an object of the preposition "ل" whether. Explicit or implied. This "ل" is called "لام كي" because it takes the meaning of "كي" like "لكيلا، لكيلا، لان، لكي، and لئلا" then is a preposition if not preceded by "ل".these particles indicate the intention of the agent and the object of the act as well (حسن 1963:84، عبد الحميد، 1961:75101:376).the use of these can be shown in the following:

(ليغفر لك الله ما تقدم من ذنبك "الفتح:2")

“that God may forgive you your faults of the past”.(ali,1989:1391).

وإذا حفظت شيئا فعلقه كي تعود اليه

When you learn anything, write it down, so that you may constantly refer to it.(write,1967:75102:28)

تعلموا كي تعلموا

Learn that you may teach (1bid)

However ,it seems important to note that after "1961:143) (ل" السيوطي assume the ellipsis of "ان"which always appears before the negative , "لئلا", as in :

انما قال لئلا يستخف بالعلم

He said this only in order to that learning might not be disparaged .(Wright ,1967:75102:28)

So , the insertion of "ان" is allowable , like in :

جئتك لاقرا

جئتك لان اقرا

I came to you to read

But expect when it is the “denial lam” او لام الجود i.e. when it is the predicate of ما كان or لم يكن (حسن و 1961:75101:377)

(ما كان الله ليعذبهم وانت فيهم " الانفال :33")

“God would never chastise them , with you among them.)(Arberry, 1955:237)

note that the addition of the infinitival "ما" appears sometimes to interrupt the government of "كي" (Wright , 1967”75102:29) , as in :

إذا انت لم تنفع خضر نائما يرجى الفتى كيما يضر وينفع "

“ when you can not benefit , when harm , for nothing is expected of a man but that he should harm or benefit “ (1bid)

and sometimes , "ان" is added after "كيما" to strengthen the regimen , as that you may not deceive and beguile .(1bid)

#### 2.1.6 THE PARTICALE "لو"

this particle forms a point of argument for Arab

grammarians . some say that "لو" is infinitival and other say

hypothetical or conditional . this item concerned with former.

According to "الاندلسي" (1984:151) ، "لو" and "ابن هشام" (1961:221) ، "المرادي" (1979:189) as an infinitival particle and , thus , it does not need apodosis . it is often used in the optative case . consentaneously , the optative case specifically occurs with the verb "ود" to love , wish , like ,etc, or the meaning of these verbs. Consider of the following:

(يود احدهم لو يعمر الف سنة ) (البقرة 96"

: there is one of them wishes if he might be spared a thousand years,"(Arberry,1955:26) and this particle has meaning of "ان" and it related the perfect to the imperfect ,as :

(ودت طائفة من اهل الكتاب لو يضلوكم )"أل عمران :69"

“ there is a party of people of the book yearn to make you go astray.”(Arberry,1955:81)

so , since it has this meaning ,this example can be assumed as :

"ودت طائفة من اهل الكتاب ان يضلوكم"

Furthermore , for those who believe in its infinitivity , it is so because it can occur with the explicit "ان" .such a construction is used for asseveration . take this example :

"وما عملت من سوء تود لو ان بينها و بينه امدا بعيدا "

It will wish if there were only a far space between it and that day". (Arberry,1955:75)

Thus far , the infinitive with particle in Arabic has tackled and thereafter the following item will be concerned with discussion of the infinitive without particle which is the second kind of the المصدر المؤول.

## 2.2 المصدر المسبوك من غير سابق

### 2.2.1 An introductory note :-

المصدر المسبوك من غير سابق ( or roughly speaking , infinitival without particle ) is the other kind of the المصدر المؤول out of which a mention was made for the first kind ,i.e., the infinitive with particle or المصدر المسبوك بسابق . the construction of this kind is through to have on implied "أن before the finite verb.

The infinitive without particle may occur as follows:

### 2.2.2 Annexation to sentences :-

Annexation , in generated , applied to singular substantives not to verb or sentences . the sentences ,however , for which the substantive is annexed can be constructed or is equivalent to an infinitive without particle (ابن هشام ،1961:227:السيوطي ،1961:152)

#### 2.2.2.1 substantives of time (adverb or substantives )

this kind of substantives indicate a period of time. consider the following :

(والسلام علي يوم ولدت "(مريم: 33 "

“And peace be upon me , the day was born “

(arberry,1955:402)

the sentences "ولدت" is equivalent to the infinitive "ولادتي" which is , in turn , annexed to the substantive "يوم" . this also the case in :

(هذا يوم لا ينطقون " (المرسلات : 35 "

“ this the day shall not speak “. (1bid :778)

the construction is viewed as an infinitive without particle for the sentences " لا ينطقون " is understood as "عدم نطقهم"

#### 2.2.2.2 the word "حيث"

On the contrary to other substantives of place that . are optionally annexed to sentences , the annexation of the lets see the following example :

(سنستدرجهم من حيث لا يعلمون " ( الاعراف : 182 "

This can be assumed as "من حيث لا يعلمون" which reveals that the verb is preceded by an implied "ان" .

#### 2.2.2.3 the word "اية"

This word , which means “sign” can be annexed the verbal in which the verb is fully conjugated whether affirm or negated by "ما". the reason behind the annexation is that it is equivalent to time because the meaning of "اية" is “sign “ and “time “ is the sign of events and their co-occurrence "1961:228 ، (ابن هشام ، as in :

"(واية لهم الليل نسلخ منه النهار " ( يس:37 "

“ And a sign for them is the night , we withdraw there from the day”. (Ali:1989:1178)

this can be assumed as "انسلاخ النهار" “withdrawal”

#### 2.2.2.4 the word "نو" :

It is among those words that are annexed to sentences. And the verb that follows is equivalent to the infinitive . the use of "نو" is of two sided viewed ; the first is for imperative, and the other for time (243:1989, (الاندلسي as ,in :

اذهب بذي تسلم

Go with that of your safety .

This can be taken as “with the thing of your safty “ or “in the time of your safety “.

#### 2.2.3 After "او او المعية" ، "فاء السببية" and "او" :-

The infinitival without particle may also occur when the imperfect co-occurs after فاء السببية and حتى " " when preceded by negation or interrogative , and after "او" when it means " حتى " ( عبد الحميد :68:1962، عبد الحميد :7:751.3:1999) the construction of these particles is through to have and implied "ان" before the verb and the particle . this why it is envisaged as an infinitive without particle . hence , the particles " او ، او المعية ، او ، فاء السببية " ، حتى ، and "اذن “ will be treated respectively .

#### 2.2.3.1 فاء السببية :

This particle introduced a clause that express the result or effect of a preceding clause . the preceding clause must be contain an imperative (affirmative or negative ) , or words equivalent in the meaning to an imperative; or else it must express a wish or hope , or ask a question . the signification of "فاء السببية" in all these cases is equivalent to that of "فاء السببية" . " حتى " assumed to be followed by the ellipse of "ان" in order to be through as infinitival particle ( 1964:172, (المخزومي) . consider the following example which indicate a wish ;

"(يا ليتني كنت معهم فافوز فوزا عظيما " ( النساء :73"

‘ I wish I had been with them to attain a might triumph “.

And it sometimes indicates an imperative , like :



(ولا تطغوا فيه فيحلعليلكم غضبي " (طه: 81)

But commit no excess there in , lest my Wrath should justly descend on you “. (Ali , 1989:806)

#### 2.2.3.2 " حتى "

It express the intention of the agent and the object of the act , or the result of the act , as taking place not without the will of the agent or , at least according to his expectation (cantario , 1974:382) . according to (عبد الحميد 1962:66) , this particle occurs before indicative and subjunctive . in references to the former , the verb should indicate the present and not future , like :

سرت حتى ادخلها

I have journeyed to it till I am (now ) entering it . (wright,751.2:30)

As regards the latter ,i.e., the subjective , the verb after " حتى " should be in the future as compared to that before it or to the time of speaking , as in :

" (لن نبرح عليه عاكفين حتى يرجع الينا موسى " (طه : 91)

We will not case to cleave to it , until Moses returns to us “ . (Arberry, 1955:418)

But when " حتى " expresses only a simple temporal limit or the mere effect or result of an act , without any implied design or expectation in the part of the agent , it is followed by the perfect or the indicative of the imperfect , as in :

" سارو حتى طلعت الشمس "

The journeyed till the sun rose .( Wright , 1995:751.2:29)

Moreover , the particle " حتى " , when it co-occurs with the subjunctive , has two meaning ; it may mean " كي " or " الى ان " . the latter implies the ellipse of " ان " . sometimes . it may reveal both meanings ,as in the following example :

(فقاتلوا التي تبغي حتى تفي الى امر الله " ( الحجرات :9)

“ then fight against the one that transgress until it complies with the command of God “ .(Ali , 1989:1405)

#### 2.2.3.5 "اذن" or "اذا"

This particle commences a clause expressing the result of effect of a previous statement , provided that the verb in the subordinate clause refers to a really future time , and that it is immediate juxtaposition to " اذن " or at least , separated from it only by the negative " لا " or by oath or by vocative (حسن,373:751.1:1966;Wright ;33:751.1:1967;)

As in

اذن لا اهينك

Well then , I will not insult you .

(Wright , 1967:75102:33)

moreover, حسن and Wright add , if the particle " و " or " ف " be prefixed to " اذن " , the verb may be put ion the indicative as well as the subjunctive . consider the following :

" (واذا لا يلبثون خلفك الا قليلا ) ( الاسراء : 76 "

“ And the they would have tarried after you only a little “. (Arberry, 1955:378)

#### 2.2.4 correct of attribute

the infinitive without particle may also occur in the sentences of correlative of attribute . the verb , here , is in the equalization case which implies the use of the word " سواء " , “ a like “ , or a word having the same meaning or so , like " ما ابالي " “mind not “ or

" ما ادري " , “know not “ , etc

( المرادي ). (17,1961،ابن هشام ,1979:193)

Notes that after the word " سواء " , two sentences occur with constraints that the second should commence with the particle " أم " and the " همزة " “hamza” occurs in the sentences by which the masder is substituted . Have a look on the following example:

" (ان الذين كفروا سواء عليهم أ أنذرتهم ام لم تنذرهم لا يؤمنون ) ( البقرة : 6 "

“ As for unbelievers , alike it is to them whether you warned them or not , they do not believe “. (Arberry,1955:10)

semantically , the above example indicated that the meaning is assumed as :

" ان الذين كفروا مستو عليك انذارهم و عدمه "

Because " ان نذرهم " is equivalent to " انذارك " .

#### 2.2.5verbal inchoative

this another kind of infinitive without particle and it occurs when a nominal sentences is commanded with a verb . syntactically , this position should be occupied by a noun or a word

equivalent to a noun. The verb , thus , in this construction is deemed as it is preceded by an implied " أن " , that is , an infinitive or masder (ابن هشام, 1961:18)as in :

تسمع بالمعيدي خير من ان تراه

That you hear of muaidi is better seeing him .

In this example , the verb " تسمع " "to hear " , is preceded by implicit " ان "and it is omitted for the meaning is contextually conceived and understood as " سماعك " which is a verbal noun

### 2.2.5 Antecedent

This kind of infinitive without particle occurs when the supplied masder an antecedent of a pronoun mentioned in the construction

(1962:82, عبد الحميد ).this can be best explained through the following example:

(واعدلوا هو اقرب للتقوى " (المائدة : 8 "

“ Be equitable that is nearer to God fearing “ (Arberry,1955:144)

it seem obvious that the verb " اعدلوا " "be equitable “ is the antecedent of the pronoun " هو " , that ,and the meaning of the verb is understood as " ان اعدلوا " ,which is an infinitive with implied " ان " . lets take another example :

" ولايحسبن الذين يبخلون بما اتاهم الله من فضله هو خير لهم بل هو شر لهم "

(أل عمران : 180 )

“But as for those who are niggardly with the bounty God has given them , let them not suppose it is better for them , may ,it is worse fot them”. (1bid, 100)

likewise , it is to be imagined that there are two entities before and after the pronoun . the verb " يبخلون " , "niggard", should be understood as masder like " ان يبخلون " in order to be equal to the entity , which is a noun ,that understood as masder.

### 2.2.6 Demonstrative

This when a demonstrative pronoun occurs referring to a masder which does not verbally or orally exist in the construction

(1962:84,عبد الحميد).consider the following :

(اذا ناجيتم الرسول فقدموا بين يدي نجواكم صدقة ذلك خير لكم واطهر " (المجادلة: 12 "

When this the case , the demonstrative pronoun " ذلك " , “ that “ , is used to refer to the masder which is understood as " ان قدموا " with implied " ان " . and also , this infinitive is said to

be without particle in virtue of the signification of the verb "قدموا", "offer". This idea can also be shown in the following :

"تؤمنون بالله ورسوله وتجاهدون في سبيل الله باموالكم و انفسكم ذلكم خير لكم ان كنتم تعلمون "

(الصف : 11 )

You shall believe in God his messenger , and struggle in the way of God with your possession and yourselves , that is better for you , did you but know “. (Arberry, 1955:734)

Semantically speaking , the demonstrative "ذلكم" , "those" , represents the masders as it is understood from the signification of the verbs of the both . this is meant to be taken as "ذلكم" is equivalent to "ان تؤمنوا" , "to believe" and "ان تجاهدوا" , " to struggle “ , which are , in turn , equivalents to "الايمن و الجهاد" "believing” and struggling “.

### 2.2.8 void exception

(حسن) 3-751:302:1966 state that the infinitive without particle occurs through the use of one of the kind of expression , namely , . void expression . according to Cachio (1973:19) , it means “ the expression made void of government ‘ in which the general; term is not expressed” , as in the following :

" نشدتك الله الا فعلت "

I beseech you by God to do (it) (Wright , 1967:751.2:339)

The construction of this example is constructed under the restriction that the sentence should include an oath which is explicitly negative but affirmative in meaning .so , the meaning of this example may be explained by the following :

" ما طلبت منك الا فعلت "

I beg of you nothing but your doing .( 1bid:340)

Additionally , the complement of the oath should be a verbal sentence in which the verb is superficially in the past but , at the same time , indicates the future . this verbal sentences should also be commend with the particle "الا" . therefore and due to the restrictions of void expression , the meaning seems to be incomplete as is shown in the above example .

Besides , this kind of expression can expressed by a sentences that may sometimes be introduce by "ان" ، "وقد" ، "و" look at the following:

فما حللتها وقد ذهب الرجل

And before I had unloosed it , the man was gone .(1bid :339)

And also in :

(هل ينظرون الا ياتيهم الله في ظل من الغمام " ( البقرة :210 "

“ what do they look for ; but that God shall come to them in the cloud -shadows , and the angles ?” . (Arberry , 1955:48)

### 2.3 اسم الفاعل ( or henceforth , active particle )

#### 2.3.1 Introduction

The derived noun which is called اسم الفاعل , or active particle is a verbal adjective ,i.e., an adjective derived from verbs and nearly corresponds in nature and signification to what we call particle . this verbal adjective , which indicates the subject and the obstruct meaning , often becomes in Arabic, as in other languages ,a substantive . however , what follows will be concerned with the discussion of the formation and the syntactic-semantic function of the active particle.

#### 2.3.2 On forming the particle :

According to (1964:751.3) حسن and (1984:203) الاندلسي , the active particle is formed from the first from of the trilateral verb " فعل " as "فاعل" like " كاتب " "writing " . when formed from " فعل " and the transitive " فعل " ( as ركب ) , these active particles are not only real particles indicating a temporary , transitory or accidental action or state of being , but also server as adjective or substantives , expressing a continuous action , a habitual state of being , or a permanent quality , as in " كاتب " , writing " خادم " , and " حاكم " , ruling.

It is also formed from the quadrilateral verb as " جاهد " , “struggle “ by substituting the first of the imperfect by " قيم " and putting “Kasra” under the penultimate .

#### 2.3.3 The Grammatical status of the active particle :

The active particle which holds in the middle position between the verb and the noun , and partake of the force of both , may , like the verbal noun , follow the government either of the verb or the noun , or of both (1964:751.3:195).

In this respect ,(1961:362) ابن هشام and (1964:751.3:195) حسن list the following rules :

1. The active particle may be put either in the accusative or in the genitive when it has but one objective complement.

Consider the following example in the genitive :

(سارعوا الى مغفرة من ربكم و جنة عرضها السموات و الارض اعدت للمتقين " (أل عمران : 133 "

“Hasting to forgiveness from your lord , and to a garden whose breath is as the heavens and earth prepared for the God fearing “(Arberry, 1955:91) And in the accusative :

(الذين ينفقون في السراء و الضراء و الكاضمين الغيظ " (أل عمران :134 "

“Who expend in prosperity and adversity in almsgiving , and restrain their rage “  
(Arberry,1955,92)

sometimes , with the same construction , "تاء التأنيث" may be connected with the active particle to indicate femininity ; like :

" و كل نفس ذائقة الموت "

“Everyone shall die one day “

the active particle of directly transitive verbs admit of being constructed , with verbal power , either with the accusative or with the generative , provided they have meaning of the historical imperfect , present and future . as the generative connection is In this case " غير الحقيقية " , improper , the governing ward may be defined by the article ; as

قاتل الناس or قاتل الناس

One who kills people .

القاتل الناس or القاتل الناس

He who killed people .

This case is clearly shown in the following example :

(والمقيمي الصلاة " ( الحج :35 "

“And who perform the prayer “( Arberry , 1955 : 441)

when , on the contrary , the active particles of transitive verbs have the meaning of the perfect , they approach mor nearly to the nature of the noun that springs from them (as كاتب , writing , as writer ) , and hence are constructed which the genitive only . further , since this genitive connection is proper , the governing word cannot be defined by the article : قاتل الناس (and not القاتل الناس) (Wright , 1967:751.2:64) . takes the following :

(فاطر السموات و الارض " ( فاطر : 1 "

“ Originator of the heaven and earth “.(arberry , 1955:570)

this example shows that the active particle ( فاطر ) is not defined by the article .

look , the same remarks apply , when the genitive is a pronominal suffix instead of a separate substantive , as in :

ايها الشاتي لتحسب مثلي

you who revile me , in order that you may be though my equal . (1bid)

besides , being undefined , the active particle governs the accusative in the following cases:

a) when it is the attribute or the predicate of a subject , or stands in the accusative to express a state or condition of that subject ; as in

مررت بفارس طالب ثأر أبيه

I passed by horseman seeking revng fot his father . (1bid)

b) preceded by an interrogative or negative particle , when it is the attribute of a preceding or following subject . consider the following example which includes interrogative and the active particle is followed by the subject .

will you fulfil a promise on which I relied . (1bid )

and a negative with the subjective precedes the active particle :

( ما انت بتابع قبلتهم " ( البقرة : 145 )

“ you are not a follower of their direction “ . (Arberry,1955:35)

c)after an interjection as a predicate of a suppressed subject . look at this example :

يا طالعا جبلا

O climbing a hill . ( Wright , 1967:751.2:65)

It is noteworthy that the active particle , when singular and followed by a substantive in the genitive , can take the article only when the substantive is itself defined by the article or governs another substantive that is so defined ; as in :

الضارب العبد

He who beats the slave .

And

الضارب رأس العبد

He who beats the slave on his head .(1bid)

But we cannot say

الضارب العبد

He who beats a slave .

This can be attributed to that a certain equipose may be preserved between the governing word , المضاف and the governed word , المضاف اليه .

On the other hand , the article may be prefixed to the dual or the plural masculine , even when the following genitive is not defined because after the rejection of ن and المضاف and ن , المضاف اليه became more closely connected , and grow , as it were , into one word like the active particle when defined by the article and followed by a pronominal suffix . hence we may say :

(الضاريون عبدا ) ابن هشام ، 1961,226 and ,الضاري عبده ، الضاربا عبدا (Wright ; 1967;751.2;114). To shed more light , lets consider the following example :

الشاتمي عرضي ولم اشتمها

The two who revile my character , without my having revile them .(Wright,1967,114)

Furthermore , (المرادي) 1979,248 adds a third form of expression arising out of a combination of these two ,viz, الضاربا عبدا , in which the rejection of the ruminant , as in the phrase :

جاء الامير القاتلا اخواه محمدا

The prince came , whose two brothers killed Mohammed (Wright , 1967:751.2:66)

This example shows that another substantive (اخواه) is actually inserted , as the subject , between the active particle in the dual (القاتلا) and its object (محمدا) .

Besides , (عبد الحميد ) 1962,271 and Wright (1967:751.2:66)

Emphasize that when a pronoun is annexed as object to the dual or plural masculine of an active particle which is defined by the article , three forms of expression are likewise admissible ,viz,

1)الضاريه or الضاريه.

2) الضاريان له or الضاريان اياه .

3) الضاريونه or الضارياته .

In the last case , the pronoun , through apparently a nominal suffix in the genitive , is in reality a verbal suffix in the accusative ; and even in the first case , the Arabs regard the pronominal object as an accusative , and not as a genitive using "ني" instead of "ي" for the first person singular . consider the following

ليس الموافيني ليرفد خائبا

He who comes to me obtain a gift is not disappointed . (Wright:1967:751.2:67)

In addition , it is to be that when the active particle is followed by two or more objects connected by "و" or "أو" , it is not rarely happens that the first alone is put in the genitive ,



and the others in the accusative , the nominal force of the active particle passing , because of the distance of the complement , into the verbal ; as in :

" جاعل الليل سكنا والشمس والقمر حسبانا "

“he makes the night for rest and the sun and moon for the reckoning “(Ali, 1989 : 317)

2) when the active particle is derived from a verb which governs two or three objective complements , it takes the first either in the accusative or in the genitive , and the others in the accusative (272 :1962 ; عبد الحميد ، Wright , 1967, 751.2, 68) as in :

" أنا معطي زيدا درهما "

I will give Zaid a dirham .(Wright , 1967:751.2:68)

It is important to note that if the objective complement of an active particle of a doubly transitive be pronoun , both may be appended to it as suffix ;like :

معطيكه

He who gives it to you.( 1bid)

And also like :

مطعميها

he who gives me it to eat . (1bid)

furthermore , the second of the two complement of an active participle , or that which is in the accusative , is rarely inserted between the active particle and the first complement , or that in the genitive ; as in :

" (فلا تحسبن الله مخلف وعد رسله " ) ابراهيم :47 "

Now , as regards the occurrence of اللام لتقوية العامل with the active particle , (1961,227) ابن هشام، and 1974:751.2) ابن عقيل list the following cases :

a) "ل" is used when the active particle immediately precedes the object and is undefined ; as in :

و الحيلة ال تجوز اذا كان الخصم متعننا لا طالبا للحق

And artifice is not allowed , except when the opponent is disputatious sophist , and not a seeker after the truth. (Wright , 1967:751.2:68)

This example reveals that the undefined active particle is the predicate of a circumstantial clause .

This especially the case when the active particle is in the adverbial accusative ; as in :

(وامنوا بما انزلت مصدقا لما معكم " ( البقرة :41 "

“and believe in that I have sent down , confirming that which is with you “(Arberry , 1955:16)

b) ل is also used when the active particle immediately preceded the object , and is defined by the article as in :

الحافظون لحدود الله

Those who keep the ordinances of God .(Wright , 1967:751.2:69)

b) finally , ل is used when a genitive is interposed between the active particle and the object , as in :

مطعمها لي

He who gave it to me to eat (1bid)

It is worth mentioning the particle ل must be used to instead of the accusative , when the objective of the active particle is rhetorically transposed and placed before it ; as in :

(انا له لحافظون " ( الحجر :9:

“We will assuredly guard it “ (Ali, 1989:638)

and if the transposed object be a pronominal suffix , the word "يا" mat be employed instead of "ل" ; as in :

اياك نعبد

You , therefore , we worship .

#### 2.3.4 the syntactical functions:

the active particle can function in different ways among which are as follows :

1) Inchoative ; as in :

ما مجير احد عدو احبائه

No one gives protection to the enemy of his friends. ( Wright ,1967:751.2:65)

2) predicate , as in :

ربنا انك جامع الناس

Our lord , you will be an assembler of mankind .

3) subject ; as in :

جاء المنفق ماله

He who spends his money came .

4) Object , as in :

(ولا تحسبن الله غافلا عما يعمل الظالمون " (ابراهيم : 42 "

“ Deem not that God is helpless of what the evildoers work” . (Areberry , 1955 , 339)

5) Adjectives ; as in :

(هديا بالغ الكعبة " ( المائدة : 95 "

“ An offering to reach the Kaaba “. (1bid:163)

6) "تميز" , Tamyeez ; as in :

. رأيت احد عشر سائلا

I saw eleven inquires .

7)Object of preposition :

(و جنة عرضها السموات و الارض اعدت للمتقين " ( آل عمران : 133 "

“A garden whose breath is as heaven and earth prepared for the God fearing “. (1bid:91)

8) state " حال " ; it may be :

a) an adjective , expressing a transitory state and permaneut as in :

دعوت الله سميعا

I called upon God as hearer . (Wright , 1967:751.2:114)

b) a proposition – there may be more than one state referring to the subject or of an act , or to both ; as in :

جاء زيد راكبا ماشيا

Zaid came riding laughing . ( 1bid:115)

Having thus treated of the active particle , we now proceed to speak of the passive particle which has much in common with the former .

## 2.4 اسم المفعول ( or passive particle )

### 2.4.1 Introductory remarks:

the fourth form is called "اسم المفعول", which is called parallel to the English form " passive particle ". this form has very much in common with the just mentioned form , i.e., the "active particle ". the majority of the rules can be applied for either , therefore , we will concern ourselves to speak about the peculiarities of the passive particle and to pay less attention to what has been said in the latter section .

### 2.4.2 On Defining passive particle :

حسن (1964:751.3:219) defines the passive particle as a derived noun which indicates both the abstract meaning which is not permanent and the receiver of the action (regimen) as well . bateson (1957:34) and الغلاييني (1981:186) put somewhat a different definition as what the passive particle is an adjective which is derived from the passive verb and is used to indicate the action that it received by the patient . Beeston (1970:35) , moreover , states that the passive participle is a noun ( substantive or adjective ) which , like the verbal abstract , matches a verb . morphologically , it has a wholly predictable word-pattern in relation to a verb of any type .

the fundamental semantic value of a passive participle is that of describing an entry about which the verb can be predicated.

### 2.4.3 Formation

by generated consent , the passive particle is formed on the measure of " مفعول " for the simple triliteral verb like ضرب and فتح to be " مضروب " , struck , and " مفتوح " , opened . it is decline like other nouns and takes the sound plural . but , as hoywood and Nahmad (1965:144) claim , it sometimes acquires a technical meaning and is used as a noun in its own right . it then usually takes a broken plural of the measure " مفاعيل " as " مسجون " , imprisoned , " مساجين " , prisoners .

and from the quadrilateral and other verbs , passive particle is formed on the bases of its passive imperfect by substituting the imperfect letters " حروف المضارعة " by "ميم" with dhama and putting fatha on the penultimate , like , " محترم " , respected.

Sometimes, there are verbal adjective which has the same form for the active and passive particle, like " محتاج " , needy and " مختار " , choosing or chosen .

In addition , same verbal adjectives , which are on the measure of " فعيل " , like " , " حبيب " , " قتييل " , " مذبوح " , etc .

Indicate the meaning of the measure " مفعول " as " مقتول " , killed , " محبوب " , beloved , " مذبوح " , slain

### 2.4.4 The grammatical status :

this item will be as shorter as that of the active particle for , as in mentioned earlier , the two particles partake almost the majority of the rules in respect of their occurrence in the sentential level .

Haywood and Nahmad (1965:144) add that the passive particle is capable of considerable semantic extension . many words which above the pattern of a particle contain a highly specialized senses within their semantic spectrum in addition to the fundamental value.

Generally , according to 1964:751.3.219) (حسن) , the passive particle indicates the present and the future or the continuity when it is undefined by the article . so , in this case , it has the same rules as it passive imperfect verb when governing a deputy-agent (or passive subject); as in ;

يا مضربا غلامه

O thou whose slave has been beaten . ( Wright , 1967:751.2:68)

When the imperfect of the passive particle governs two objective complements with the agent and the other remains in the subjective ; as in :

يا معطى كل خير

O thou are gifted with every good thing . (1bid)

And also when the verb of the passive particle is transitive governing three object complements with the agent is omitted and substituted by one of these objects , this object should be in the indicative and the other in the subjunctive ( عبد الحميد ، 1962 : 277 ) ; as in :

زيد معلم ابوه عمرا منطلقا

Zaid's father is informed that Amr is going away . (Wright , 1967:751.2:70)

This shows that the first object "ابوه" , because the passive subject and the two objects "عمرا" , and "منطلقا" , remain in the subjunctive .

1979:183) (المرادي) believes that when the verb from which the passive particle is derived is intransitive and its subject is omitted and is substituted by other than the object like an intransitive too and governs a passive subject ; as in :

" وترى المجرمين يومئذ مقرنين في الاصفاد "

“And you will see the sinner that day bound together in fetter “ . (Ali , 1989:633)

And , he adds , the passive particle may be annexed to its regimen . in this case , it indicates a permanent meaning which is contrary , as it is mention in the beginning of this section , to its normal occurrence . if so , it will be deemed assimilate epithet .

It is worth nothing that the use of the passive particle as assimilate epithet is confined only to the trilateral . this is also the case when governs only object complement ; like :

(مفتحة لهم الابواب " (ص: 50)

“the gates are open to them “ (Arerry , 1955:601)

besides , being used as assimilate epithet , the passive particle may be on the measure of "فعليل" as "جريح" wounded , and "قتيل" , killed , this has the same meaning as the measure of " " , "مفعول" . the measure of "فعليل" , however , is employed for masculine an feminine at the same time

( 1999:751.3.138 ) عبد الحميد . ( 211 ، 1984 ، الاندلسي ) adds that when "فعليل" is derived from transitive verbs , it usually has a passive sense . lets consider the following :

مررت بفتى جريح

I passed by a wounded boy

مررت بفتاة جريح

I passed by a wounded girl .

Moreover, the infinitive or masder is sometime used instead of the passive particle; as in:

هم خلق الله

Which means as:

هم مخلوق الله

They are the creatures of God.

Another point that is noted is the active particle is said to be used occasionally in place of verbal noun, as in the phrase:

but this more frequently the case with the passive particle for the nouns of time and place from the derived from of the trilateral verb , or from the quadrilateral , are identical in form with the passive particle like the word مصلى , a place of prayer , and the word ملتقى , a place or time of meeting (Wright , . 1976:7501.1:123) . take the following example :

الى الله منها المشتكى والمعول

To God is our complaint and on him our reliance. (1bid)

And semantically , the use of the active voice may indicate the meaning of the passive particle , like :

(في هيشة راضية " ( القارعة : 7 "

“Shall inherit a pleasing life “ ( Arberry , 1955:810)

consequently , all the earlier mentioned constructions will best be focused through the following section which is devoted to the syntactical function .

#### 2.4.5. syntactical function :

the passive particle can fulfils certain function in the sentential level among which are as follow :

1. inchoative

2. subject of a sentence :

جاء المضمون كاذبا

He ho is through a liar coma .

3. predicate of the sentence :

(بل يده مبسوطتان يبفق كيف يشاء " (المائدة: 64)

“Nay , his hand are outspread ; he expands how he will “ (Arberry , 1955:156)

4. object ;

(ولا تجعل يدك مغلولة الى عنقك " ( الاسراء :29)

“Make not your hand tied (like a niggards) to your neck “ (Ali,1955:702)

5.object of preposition ;

(لتكونن من المرجعين " ( الشعراء : 116)

“You shall assuredly be one of the stoned .” (Arberry ,1955:488)

6.Manner ;

(و لا تجعل مع الله اله آخر فتتعد مذموما مخذولا " (الاسراء :22)

Set not up with God another god , or you will sit condemned and forsaken .” (1bid:370)

7. tamyeez :تميز :

شاهدت ثلاثة عشر مجروحا في الشارع

I saw thirteen wounded in the street .

8. adjective ;

(عسى ان يبعثك ربك مقاما محمودا " ( الاسراء :79)

“Soon will your lord raise you to a station of praise and glory “. (Ali,1989:717)

now having tacked the four forms hich are equivalent to the four non-finite forms of the verb in English . our attention will be drawn to the discussion of the choice between them .

## 2.5 Choice

### 2.5.1 Introductory note

Arab grammarians tend to use each from of the four forms under study to perform certain syntactic and semantic functions . this can attributed to the fact that same functions can be performed by certain forms . this section is devoted to help translators do their job properly and to make them avoid the confusion that may caused by the use of one form instead of the other , we find ourselves obligated tackle such comparisons to clear the way for them .

### 2.5.2 Choice

#### 2.5.1 Introductory

Arab grammarians tend to use each form of the four forms under study to perform certain syntactic and semantic functions . this can be attributed to fact that some function can be performed by certain forms. This section is devoted to help translators do their job properly and to make them avoid the confusion that may caused by the use of one form instead of the other . for this reason or another , we find ourselves obligated to tackle such comparisons to clear the way for them .

2.5.2. المصدر المئول , infinitive with “to “ and المصدر الصريح , the gerund :

This item is concerned with focusing the syntactic , semantic and stylistic differences between المصدر المئول , or the infinitive with “to” and المصدر الصريح or the gerund , there are several restriction concerning the use of each one of these two forms , as is know from the previously-mentioned data , the latter forms is not include in our investigation . so it will be slightly highlighted through the following point .

Thus , (السامرائي 1991:141) and (السيوطي 1961:282) ، ابن هشام (1961:305) ، الاندلسي ( 1984:317) list a number of differences between these two form among which are :

1. the infinitival construction is used to refer to a specific or special occasion ; it indicates past , present or future ; as when one way :

. اريد ان ازورك .

I want to visit you .



اعجبني ان قمت

It pleased me

Where first indicate present and future while the second expresses the past . on the contrary , the gerund is used to indicate absolute time . if we consider an example like :

تعجبني دراستك

I like your studying .

It will be understood that it bears an open reference ; it covers the past , present and future at the same time .

2. the infinitival expresses the possibility of the occurrence . it shown no strong obligation towards the happening of an action , i.e, the action may (be) happen (ed) or not . lets have a look on this example :

ظهر ان يسافر زيد

I seemed that Zaid might travel .

It is not assuredly stated whether “Zaid may ravel “ or not , in contrast with that , the gerund reveals that the action has really happened ; as in :

ظهر سفر زيد

Zaid’s traveling became obvious .

To sum up , the infinitival indicates possibility whereas the gerund shows certainty as regards the happening of an action .

3. in reference of modification , the gerund can be qualified by the use of an adjective , but , since the infinitival indicates an abstract meaning, it can not be qualified in the same way ; as in :

يعجبني ان تمشي السريع

Yet , it should be noted that the infinitival can be qualified by the use of an adverb , like :

يعجبني ان تمشي سريعا

I like you to walk quickly .

I like you to walk quickly .

4. the gerund may occur as objective complement of the verb. In such a function , the gerund is used to corroborate its verb – the verb from which the gerund is derived . take this example :

(إذا رجّت الارض رجا بست الجبال بسا " (الواقعة: 4-5 "

“When the earth shall be shaken to its depth , and the mountains shall be crumbled to atoms  
“. (Ali,1989:1484)

in contrast , the infinitival construction an not be used in this function for the result is an unacceptable sentences .

إذا رجّت الارض ان ترج

5- in the case of the infinitival construction which is composed of "ان" or " ان " imperfect . the omission of the preposition that precedes the particle is possible . so , both of the following sentences are acceptable :

عجبت من ان تقوم

I was surprised that the you stand .

يعجبني ان تقوم

I like you to stand .

But with the gerund , there is no such a choice , I.,e, the preposition should not be omitted . when this the case , we may say

عجبت من قيامك

I was surprised of your standing .

But we cant say .

عجبت قيامك

5. the infinitival can function as the subject and predicate of "عسى" the following verse illustrates this idea ;

(وعسى ان تكرهوا شيئا وهو خير لكم " . (البقرة:216)

“Yet it may happen that you will hate a thing which is better for you “. (Ali,1989;49)

this example reveals that the construction of the particle and the verb is equivalent to the subject and predicate . this idea is not passable with the gerund . therefore , it is not true to say :

عسى كرهم

7- Arabic uses five infinitival particles ; each one has its own meaning in the infinitival construction . the particle "ان" then . indicates the future , "ان" is used for corroboration , "ما" , when used with imperfect , shows the present,"لو" is used for reveal the speaker's wish , and

"كي" expresses reasoning . this means that the semantic significance differ in respect to the change of the particle , let's examine the following :

يسرني ان تذهب

It pleases me that you go .

يسرني لو تذهب

In which the use of different particles conveys different meaning and function while the use of the gerund involves inability to indicate the same significance ; as in :

يسرني ذهابك

Your going pleases me .

8- The gerund can function as the adverb of time in this case . it taken the final position in the sentences like :

جئتك صلاة الفجر

I came you at the time of the prayer of dawn .

Conversely . the infinitival can not performed such a function it is , thus , unacceptable to say :

جئتك ان تصلي الفجر

9- it important to note that with the use of the infinitival construction , it is , let's , easy to point out the subject , agent or the object in the sentences whereas these can not easily be shown with the use of the gerund . consider the following :

ساءني ابن يعاقب زيد

It made me sorry that Zaid is punished .

Which reveals that "Zaid" is a passive subject ; and .

ساءني ان يعاقب زيد اخاه

It made me sorry that Zaid may punish his brother .

In which "Zaid" is viewed the agent , also .

ساءني ان يعاقب عمرا زيدا

It made me sorry that Amr punish Zaid .

For "Zaid" is an object , but in a sentences like :

ساءني معاقبة زيد

For the prime facie , this sentences may form a source of ambiguity ; it is easy to distinguish whether “Zaid” is a subject or object of the sentences . this is why the infinitival is advisable.

10-with the use of the infinitival . it is possible to distinguish between forms and their significance . when this is the case , each form may be relevant to a certain pattern ; as in the following :

يعجبني ان يضرب زيد .

It pleases me that Zaid may be hit .

يعجبني ان زيدا ضاربا ; And

It pleases me that Zaid is hitter .

Where “hitter” is an action particle . look at the following example :

يعجبني ان زيدا مضروب

It pleases me that Zaid is hit .

In which “hit” is a passive particle . as it looks , the first sentences is expanded into more than one pattern , but when the gerund is used , all these pattern may be equivalent to one form only ;as in :

يعجبني ضرب زيد

Zaid’s hitting pleases me.

As this sentences shows . the infinitival , in which a case , is more advisable because it eliminate or removes the confusion that is caused by his example .

11- the infinitival may be substituted of the subject (or correlative of attribute ) and the predicate ;as in :

(احسب الناس ان يتركوا " (العنكبوت : 2)

“Do men that they will be left alone “. (Ali ,1989:1029)

such an occurrence can be ascribed to that the infinitival is basically a sentences which is functionally singular whereas the gerund is formally singular.

12- sometimes , the infinitival may be used as composed of an a plastic verb from which a gerund form can not be formed . take this example :

(وان ليس للانسان الا ما سعى " . (النجم:39)

“That man can have nothing but what he”

strive .(Ali,1989:1449)

the gerund can not be derived from the a plastic verb "ليس" this is why the infinitival and gerund can not be interchangeable used .

and raving listed these points this calls us to make another comparison between the other two non-finite forms , viz, the active and passive particle forms.

#### 2.5.4 The Active particle and the assimilate Epithet

both the active particle and assimilate epithet derived adjective but each one indicate certain semantic significance . this part is devoted to focus the difference in use and meaning between them .

1. the active particle is formed from both the transitive and intransitive while the assimilate epithet is formed from the intransitive only .(see the notes to the chapter )
2. the assimilate epithet expresses a permanent meaning which is not restricted to a certain time ; it complies now , before and after now . so , when one say , "حسن" , handsome , it implies continuity , let's consider the word "شريف" in the following example :

انه رجل شريف

He is an honest man

On the contrary , the active particle indicates a temporary state of being , as in "كاتب" which express the present or future , another example can clearly shown his idea .

هل مكرم انت زيد أَوَّ ؟

Will you treat Zaid with respect ?

## Chapter Three

### Non- Finite Forms of the verb in English

#### Introduction

In English, there are four non- finite forms of the verb : the (to) infinitive, gerund and participle.

These forms possess some verbal and non- verbal features.

As regard their forms, Burton- Roberts (1986, 251) states that the four types of non – finite forms are classified according to the untensed form taken by the first verb in the verb group. The term “non – finite” covers “infinitive” and “participle” verb group :

Infinitive Vgrps:

I : Bare infinitive

II: To – infinitive

Participle vgrps:

III; Passive participle

IV: \_\_\_\_ ing participle

Wald and Zeiger (1981, 44) add that non – finites possess the verb categories of voice, correlation and aspect. They lack the categories of person, number, mood and tense.

Quirt et al, (1985, 150) and palmer (1965, 12) agree that the four non – finite forms, (to) infinitive, gerund, and – ed participle occur only with finite forms in independent clauses, though some of them may occur alone in dependent clauses. Moreover, when finite and non- finite forms occur together, the first and the first only is finite.

Lexically, non-finites do not differ from finite forms. Grammatically, the difference between the two types of forms lies in the fact that they denote a secondary action, a process related to that expressed by the finite verb (kabrina, 1985: 103). Non of the forms have morphological features of non-verbal parts of speech, neither nominal, adjectival or adverbial. In the sphere of syntax, non-finites possess both verbal and non-verbal features. Their non-verbal character reveals itself their syntactical functions of the noun, which are those of subject, object and predicate, while the participle function as attribute. They can not form a predicate by themselves, although unlike non-verbal parts of speech, they can function as part of a compound verbal predicate (Strumpf and Douglas, 1999: 151).

Syntactically, the verbal character of the non-finites is manifested mainly in their combinability. Similarly to finite forms, they may combine with nouns functioning as direct, indirect and prepositional objects, with adverbs and prepositional phrases used as adverbial modifiers, and with subordinate clauses. Non-finites may also work as link verbs, combining with noun, adjectives or stative as predicatives.

They may also as modal verb semantic equivalents when combined with an infinitive. So structure of a non-finite verb group resembles the structure of any verb phrase. All non-finite verb forms may participate in the so-called predicative constructions, that is, two-component syntactical units where a noun or a pronoun and a non-finite verb form are in predicative relations similar to those of the subject and the predicate (Kobtina, 1985 : 104) (Lapolombara, 1976: 60).

In the following sections of this chapter, the four forms of the verb will be separately dealt with.

### **3.1 The Infinitive with to**

#### **Introduction**

An infinitive is a verbal consisting of “to” followed by a verb (Warriner, Whitten and Griffith, 1958: 69). It expresses the notion of the verb in its general sense, not as it applies to any particular subject. It is called “infinitive” because its form is not limited (Latin *finis* = limit) as a finite verb is, by the number and person of its subject (Eckersley and Eckersley, 1970 : 230) (Morsberger, 1976 : 117). House and Harman (1931, 240) state that the infinitive is a non-finite form of the verb. In all its forms and functions, the infinitive has a special marker, “the particle to”. The particle “to” is generally used with the infinitive stem and is so closely connected with it that does not commonly allow any words to be put itself and the stem. Occasionally, however, an adverb or particle may be inserted between them.

In common with other non-finite forms of the verb, the infinitive has a double nature : it combines verbal features with those of the noun. The verbal features of the infinitive are of two kinds : morphological and syntactical.

1-morphological : the infinitive has the verb categories of voice, correlation and aspect.

2-syntactical : the infinitive possesses the verb combinability:

- a. It takes an object in the same way as the corresponding finite verbs do;
- b. It takes a predicative if it happens to be a link verb;
- c. It is modified by adverbials in the same way as finite verbs (Leech, Deuchar and Hoogenraad, 1982 : 79):
  - a. To tell him about it the same night was out of the question.
  - b. She wanted to be a teacher.
  - c. To draw his attention I had to speak very loudly.

The nominal features of the infinitive are only syntactical : it performs almost all the syntactical functions of the noun (subject, object, predicative, attribute, adverbial modifier :

To understand is to forgive. (subject, predicative)

That's what I wanted to know. (object)

I saw the chance to escape into the garden. (attribute)

I merely came back to water the roses. (adverbial modifier)

Up to this point, "infinitive with to" has been clearly introduced and it is the time to discuss the grammatical categories of the infinitive; correlation, aspect and voice.

### 3.1.1 The Grammatical Categories of the Infinitive with to

As regard the system of morphological categories of the infinitive, we can find the category of correlation realized by "perfect nonperfect opposition, the category of aspect formed by "common aspect continuous aspect" and the category of voice – with transitive verbs – constituted by "active voice passive voice" opposition.

#### 3.1.1.1 The Category of Correlation

As just mentioned above, this category can be realized through the opposition of perfect – nonperfect forms.

The perfect infinitive, as other forms of the verb, always denotes an action preceding some moment of time in the present, past or future, which is marked out by the tense form of the finite verb- the predicate of the sentence (Swan, 1980: 259).

I am glad

I was glad to have seen you again

I shall glad

On the other hand, as Quirk et al, (1985, 237) note that the non-perfect infinitive is more flexible in meaning and easily be modified by the context. Kobrina et al, (1985, 106) add that although the most general meaning of the non-perfect infinitive is that of simultaneity with the time of the action denoted by the finite verb (the predicate of the sentence), it may vary according to its syntactic function. Under such circumstances, it may acquire the meaning either of succession or even priority. It expresses succession that is, indicates that the action follows the action denoted by the finite verb, as in the following cases:

a) as an adverbial modifier or purpose:

She bit her lip to keep back a smile.

I came here to help you not to quarrel with you.



b) as part of a compound verbal predicate:

You know, she is beginning to learn eagerly.

c) as an object of a verb of inducement:

He ordered the man to come at three.

She always asks me to help her when she is busy.

The action denoted by the infinitive in all these cases is hypothetical.

In certain cases, the non-perfect infinitive, when functioning as an adverbial modifier of subsequent events, denotes an action that actually takes place after the action denoted by the finite verb is performed:

I woke up to hear the rain lashing the window.

Panes (I woke and then heard.....).

On the contrary, the non-perfect infinitive may express an action prior to the action denoted by the finite verb. In such cases, a verb denoting an emotional state may be used as : to shock, to surprise, to wonder, etc.

I was shocked to see him there again (first I saw him, then I was shocked).

### 3.1.1.2 The category of Aspect

In this category, the speaker is primarily concerned with the completion or lack of completion – in short, with the progression of the happening. Mentally, he walks round it and observes it from this angle or that, considering whether it is still proceeding (imperfect aspect), completed (perfect aspect), beginning (inceptive aspect), or happening several times (iterative or repetitive aspect). In English, the primary distinction seems to be between the imperfect and perfect aspects (common or continuous) (Whitehall, 1960: 82) (Hudstone, 1990 : 72).

The difference between the category of aspect in finite verb forms and in the infinitive is that, in the infinitive, it is consistently expressed only in the active voice. The passive voice has practically no aspect opposition (Kobrina et al, 1985 : 108).

Quirk et al, (1985, 238) state that distinctions of aspect are the only ones which are expressed with the constructional possibilities of a single non- finite verb phrase. Even then, the full range is only possible within an infinitive phrase:

to be winning his race. (simple progressive)

Sir Topaz appears to have won his race. (simple perfective)

to have been winning. (perfective progressive)

Semantically, as Freed (1979, 54) notes, the aspect in the infinitive is the same as in the finite verb: the continuous aspect form denotes an action in progress at some moment of time in the present, past or future.

### 3.1.1.3 The Category of voice

Voice, which theoretically indicates whether the subject acts (active voice), is acted on (passive voice), performs the action for itself (dynamic voice), or acts on itself (reflexive voice), is relatively unimportant in English. Our so-called passive voice is best regarded as a word-order device for giving emphasis to what would normally be inner and outer complements (Whitehall, 1960: 82).

Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, 68) and Kobrina et al, (1985, 168) believe that the infinitive and other verb form do share great similarity in the category of voice but they differ only in that in the infinitive, it occurs only in the common aspect forms.

She was born to love. (active).

She was born to be loved. (passive).

However, there are cases where the active form of the non-perfect infinitive denotes an action directed towards the subject, that is, although active in form, it is passive in meaning. The active infinitive thus is called retroactive.

He is to blame ----- He is to be blamed.

There was only one thing to do ----- There was only one thing to be done.

### 3.1.2 Tenses of Infinitive with to

An infinitive is formed by adding the infinitive marker "to" to the first form of the present tense of a finite verb.

Though an "infinitive" is generally used with the sign "to" is not an essential part of the infinitive. There are certain verbs after which the infinitive without "to" is used (this will be dealt with in the following section). Thomson and Martinet (1960, 212) and Swan (1980, 259) suggest the following tenses for the infinitive:

#### 3.1.2.1 The Perfect Infinitive

A. form

Perfect infinitive is normally formed as :

To have + past participle

B. Use

Perfect infinitive is used as follows :

1.with “was / were” to express unfulfilled plan or arrangement :

The house was to have been ready today. (but it isn't).

2.with “ought” to express unfulfilled obligation; or, in the negative, a wrong or foolish action.

I oughtn't to have lied to him. (but I did).

3.with “should / would like” to express unfulfilled wish :

He would like to have seen it. (but it wasn't possible).

4.with verbs like “appear, happen, pretend, seem,.....” .

Note the difference between present and perfect infinitives here :

Present infinitive:

He seems to be a great athlete = it seems that he is.....

He seemed to be a great athlete = it seemed that he was.....

But in perfect infinitive :

He seems to have been.....= it seems that he was.....

He seemed to have been.....= it seemed that he had been.....

That is, the action of the perfect infinitive is an earlier action; it happens before the time of the main verb. Consider other examples :

I happened to have driven that kind of car before =

I happened that I had driven that kind of car before.

He pretended to have read the book =

He pretended that he had read it.

5.with verbs in the passive voice like “acknowledge, believe, consider, find, know, report, say, suppose, think, understand”.

He is understood to have left the country.

6. with some verbs like “mean” to refer to “unusual” past situations that are the opposite of what really happened (Spankie, 1987: 149):

I meant to have telephoned, but I forgot. (The speaker did not telephone).

He was to have been the new ambassador, but he fell ill.

7. The perfect infinitive is possible but less usual with “claim, expect, hope, promise”:

He expects / hopes to have finished by June =

He expects / hopes that he will have finished by June.

8. with “would like / would prefer” and one or two other verbs, a double perfect infinitive is sometimes used in informal speech; the extra perfect infinitive does not change the meaning :

I would have liked to have seen Harry’s face.

### 3.1.2.2 The Continuous Infinitive

#### A. Form

The continuous infinitive is normally formed by :

to + be + present participle

#### B. Use

The continuous infinitive is used as follows :

1. after “appear, happen, pretend, seem” :

He appears to be living in the area =

He appears that he is living in the area.

I happened to be standing next to him when he collapsed =

I happened that I was standing next to him when he collapsed.

2. after “hope” and “promise” and, but less usually, after “agree, arrange, decide, determine, be determined, plan, undertake” :

I hop / hoped to be earning my living in a year’s time =

I hop I will / hoped I would be earning my living a year’s time.

The verbs “determine / be determined, plan” could replace “hope” above with slight changes in meaning :

I promised to be waiting at the door when he came out.

3. after the verbs “believe, consider, suppose, think”, etc. in the passive :

He is believed to be living in Mexico.

The Perfect Infinitive Continuous

A. Form

This tense can be formed as

To have been + present participle

B. Use

1. It is used after “appear”, “seem”, “happen”, “pretend”

He seems to have been spying for both sides.

He appears to have been waiting a long time.

3.1.2.3 The Present Infinitive

Present infinitives used (to + simple form) if its action occurs at the same time as the action of the main verb or after the action of the main verb, consider the following :

She does want to continue the conversation.

She did not want to continue the conversation.

In a sentence like :

It was senseless to tell such a story.

The meaning intended here is that telling the story was senseless at the time the story was told. Because the action described by the infinitive occurred at the same time as the action of the main verb, the present infinitive to tell is used (Enrich and Murphy, 1976: 62)

3.1.3 The Subject of the Infinitive with to

Like other non-finite forms, the infinitive with to may have a subject, whether expressed or unexpressed (implied), as the finite verbs. They both (finite and non-finite) express this ability in a way that sometimes they share the same or identical subject. Due to the kind of the construction, the subject of an infinitive may be obligatorily deleted when it is coreferential with

the subject of the finite verb of the sentence, or mentioned for semantic and syntactic considerations.

In the discussion of the items of this chapter, examples are maintained without any reference to the subject, expressed or implied, of any of the forms involved in this study.

### 3.1.3.1 Infinitive with to construction without expressed subject

when the subject of the infinitive is unexpressed it is called by Long (1971, 124) as “implied subject”. It may suggest in various ways. Consider the subject of the following example :

to assume the superiority of one's clan, tribe or race seems deplorable human.

The implied subject of the infinitive clause is suggested by the possessive “one's”.

One assumes the superiority of one's clan.....

While the implied subject of the infinitive clause is suggested by the main subject, as in :

George has finally decided to buy a small car.

This means :

George will buy a small car.

In

Nobody forced Phyllis to become a housewife.

The implied subject is suggested by the first complement “Phyllis”, as in :

Nobody made Phyllis become a housewife.

Phyllis become a housewife.

In other cases, the speaker or writer may be the implied subject, as in :

To be candid, Tom is not a hard worker.

Which means :

I am candid.

Generally, it can be expressed in two cases; the first is that the subject is understood to be generic”. This type of constructions is familiar in stating general facts.

To err is human.

Insert : Anyone + tense + err.

Matrix : NP + is unhealthy.

Result : For anyone to err is human.

The second cases, the subject of the finite verb is same as that of the infinitive. Thus, it is obligatorily deleted because it is identical for both (culicover, 1976 : 217) :

Mary wants to go out.

Insert : Mary + tense + go out

Matrix : Mary wants + NP.

Result : Mary wants for Mary to go out.

### 3.1.3.2 Infinitive with to construction with expressed subject

In deciding the subject of the infinitive, there is a rule that works in this place. It reveals that the subject is the nearest NP before the infinitive; it may be a noun or a pronoun. Look at this example :

Helen wants John to sing.

According to the above rule, the subject of the infinitive is "John". This rule, though works for a high range of verb, does not apply to all (Palmer, 1974 : 187).

Compare :

I allowed her to sing.

I promised her to sing.

Syntactically, both of these two sentence are parallel while semantically, they are different in the area of the subject of the infinitive. For the first example, the subject is "her", and for the second, it is the speaker.

Another way to express a subject is that through the use of "for". Long and Long (1971 : 131) show that infinitival clauses that include subjects are most often used as objects of the phrasal preposition "for.....to". An example like.

I waited for her to ask me about it,

the complement of "waited" consists of a prepositional unit in which the preposition is "for.....to" and its object is the infinitival clause "her ask me about it". The subject of an infinitival clause is "me, him, her, us, them" where the subject of a corresponding main declarative would be "I, he, she, we, they"

The phrasal preposition "for.....to" also applies to "it" construction, as in :

It's early for me to have coffee.

This prepositional until, i.e., "for.....to" with infinitival –clause objects may sometimes function as subjects :

For him lose temper now would spoil all the fun.

For the cost of living to rise further would be disastrous.

### 3.1.4 Syntactical Functions of the Infinitive with "to"

In regard the syntactical functions, infinitive with "to" performs almost all functions; it may be used alone as in :

She wants to eat.

Or as the headword of an infinitive phrase, as in to steal money is wrong.

It worths noting that although the functioning of infinitive, alone or phrase, is identical, both of them will be used without distinction.

#### 3.1.4.1 Infinitive with to as subject

In older English, an infinitive phrase could easily be the subject of a sentence (Swan, 1980 : 263) as in :

To make mistake is easy.

To wait for people who were take made him angry.

but, in modern English, this is unusuall in an informal style, "it" is more often used as a preparatory subject" and put the infinitive later (Ibid).

krusinga (1931, 217) and kobrina et al, (1985, 40). add that the infinitive as a subject may precede or follow the predicate. If it follows, the infinitive is introduce by the "introductory it" by which the construction begins. (see "it" construction)

If there are two or more homogeneous infinitive subject in a sentence, all of them keep the particle "to", as in :

To be recognized, to be greeted by some local personage afforded her a joy which was very great.

And when the predicate of the infinitive subject is a verbal one, a causative verb may be used :

To talk to him bord me.

To see the struggle frightened him terribly.



Kruisinga (1931, 218) adds that the infinitive as a subject, though frequent in written English, is less common in spoken English. In many cases, the sentences are of an abstract kind, there being no definite subject :

To undertake such duties of such a time is an act of signal courage.

To see from the top of Grey Hill the rising of the sun on Easter morning was one of customs.

Additionally, when the predicate takes the form of the subjunctive mood, the construction acquires a conditional meaning which can be denoted by the infinitive subject and its consequence by the predicate. Consider the following example :

To have said that in the eighties or even the nineties would have given his father a fit –cit he had said .....it would have given .....).

Now and in order to shed more light on the to – infinitive as a subject, it is inevitably necessary to include “it” construction in this discussion.

#### 3.1.4.1.1 “It” construction

as part of the infinitive with “to” as a subject, the use of “it” construction is more common at the beginning of the sentence than the “to – infinitive” form. Sementically, “it” differs from the to- infinitive in that the subject (with “it”) is more accentuated. Compare :

It’s impossible to do it.

To do it is impossible.

And structurally. “it” can be both declarative and interrogative while to- infinitive can only be declarative. Note the following :

It’s nice to see you again. (Declarative)

Is it bad to love one so dearly ? (Interrogative)

Swan (1980, 294) states that to – infinitive does not normally come at the beginning. It is preferable to start with a preparatory subject “it” and to put the infinitive expression later (long or complicated items are often put towards the end of a sentence; these usually have highest information – value in any case).

Quirk et al, (1985, 1391) add that this replacement is called “extraposition” and the resulting sentence thus contains two subject, which we may identify as the postponed subject (the one which is notionally the subject of the sentence) and the anticipatory “it”. The “it” used in extrapolation is called anticipatory “it” because of its pronominal correspondence to a later item. A simple rule for deriving a sentence with subject extroposition from one of more orthodox ordering is:

Subject + predicate ~ it + predicate + subject

To hear him say that + surprised me ~

It + surprised me + to hear him say that

But it wreaths emphasizing that for causal subject, the postponed position is more usual than the canonical position before the verb. Example are :

SVC : It is a pleasure to teach her.

SVO : It surprised me to hear him say that.

SVOC : It makes her happy to see others enjoying themselves.

SVpassC : It was considered impossible for anyone to escape.

Preparatory or anticipatory "it" is common before (be + adjective / noun). The adjective that occur are those adjectives (chiefly naming evaluative attribute of persons) are following by an of – phrase identifying the person (s) being discussed (Eckersley and Eckersley, 1970 : 388) (Alexander et al, 1990 : 232), as in :

Its nice to talk to you

It was wrong (of you) to phone.

Introductory "it", as us called by Thomson and martinet (1960, 78), can be used with "for – structure" following to – infinitive. "it" is followed by adjectives expressing "possibility, necessity, importance, urgency, frequency and value judgement, as in :

It's impossible for the job to be finished in time.

It seem unnecessary for him to start work this week.

Is it usual for foxes to come so close to the town?

This structure can also be used after nouns in expressions with meanings similar to adjectives listed above. Nouns like : time, a good, bad idea, plan, aim, need, request, mistake, shame, etc.

It's time for everybody to go to bed.

It was a big mistake for them not to keep John as manger.

Up to point, to – infinitive as subject has been rather satisfactorily treated, and "it is time to take it as predicative".

#### 3.1.4.2 Infinitive with to as predicative

In this function, the predicative infinitive denotes an action that follows the action of the subject infinitive

To see her was to admire her.

To come there at this hour was to risk one's life.

Generally, the infinitive predicative is used in compound nominal predicates after the link verb "to be" :

His dearest wish was to have a son.

Sometimes, more than one infinitive may occur in a construction. The use of the particle "to" varies. If the infinitive are not linked by conjunctions, the particle is generally used with all of them :

My intention was to see her as soon as possible, to talk to her, to calm her.

But with the existence of the conjunctions "and" or "or", the particle attaches the first infinitive only (kruisinga, 1931, 230) (Kobrina et al, 1985 :111) :

Your duty will be to teach him French and play with him.

His plan was to ring her up at once, or even call on her.

The common non-perfect active forms of the infinitive can perform the predicative function, although sometimes passive forms also occur :

To be born in poverty was to be doomed to humiliation.

Conjunctive adverbs and pronouns like "how, when, where, what, whom" may introduce the predicative infinitive (swam, 1980, 274) (Quirk et al, 1187), as in :

Now the question was what to tell him.

The problem was how to begin.

The function of the subject of the predicative infinitive can be performed by the pronoun "all" or the substantivized superlatives "the most" and "the least" with an attributive clause attached to them :

All I wanted was to be left alone.

The least I can expect is to have this day all to myself.

### 3.1.4.3 Infinitive with to as object

The infinitive with “to” can function as object after verbs, adjectives, adjectivized participles and statives. After verbs, the infinitive may be either the only object of a verb or one of two objects. Thomson and Martinet (1960, 214), Palmer (1976, 212), Krusinga (1931, 185) suggest the following group of verbs that take only one object: “attempt, agree, claim, decide, deserve, fail, forget, learn, like, mean, plan”, etc.

He planned to spend the day in town.

You’ll soon learn to read.

Kobrina et al, (1985, 113) note that the above verbs are generally used with the non-perfect forms of the infinitive. Some of them, however, also occur with perfect forms. Among them are “claim, fail, forget, regret, remember”, etc, with which the perfect infinitive expresses priority proper, that is, actions which actually take place or are supposed to take place before the action of the finite verb. Consider these examples:

I regret to have said it to her.

I remembered to have met him once.

Another group of verbs like “attempt, expect, hope, intend, mean, try”, add to the perfect infinitive a modal colouring showing that the action of the infinitive was not fulfilled:

I hoped to have found him at home.

He intended to have reached the coast long before.

In addition to the group of verbs that take one object, the following group includes verbs that take two objects, the first of which is a noun or a pronoun while the second is an infinitive. They are “allow, ask, beg, force, invite, leave, let, advise, decide, forget, tell, etc.

Tell him to hurry.

He asked her to keep an eye on the clock.

Out of the above group, there are few verbs that their object can be performed by an infinitive or an infinitive conjunctive phrase. Consider the following example (Spangier, 1987 : 134):

They advised me to go on.

He advised me of last how to settle the matter.

Some verbs like “show, know” take only a conjunctive infinitive phrase as their object. Eckerstey (1970, 389) put this construction as “verb + how / where / what ; when / why / which / + infinitive:

She couldn’t think what to say.

I don't know where to go.

Show me how to do it.

Semantically, a construction like "verb + infinitive" may be the same as a "that - clause". Verbs like "appear, forget, happen, learn, pretend, promise, remember", etc. have this peculiarity (Thomson martinet, 1960: 214) (Kruisinga, 1931: 181):

I promise to wait = I promise that I will wait.

He pretended to be angry = He pretended that he was angry.

But, on the contrary, a "verb + infinitive" does not necessarily have the same meaning as the same verb used with a "that 0 clause". With "learn, forget and remember", the meaning will be noticeably different:

He learnt to look after himself.

He learnt (= was told) that it would cost \$ 100.

In reference to the verb just mentioned, the construction "learn how + infinitive" have the meaning of "acquire a skill" (swan, 1980: 274) (Kruisinga, 1931: 175):

She learnt how to make lace.

Though if the skill is fairly usual one, the "how" is normally dropped:

She learnt to drive a car.

"learn" + infinitive (without "how") may have another meaning:

she learnt to trust nobody = she found from experience that it was better to trust nobody.

#### 3.1.4.4 Infinitive with to as Attribut

kruisinga (1931, 162) states that the infinitive with "to" can attributively used to modify nouns, verbs, pronoun, adjectives, adverbs, etc.

In many cases, the infinitive with "to" seems to qualify a noun or adjective:

Fenwick was certainly not in a position to gauge his own feelings towards Mrs. Nightingale.

In this case, when modifying a noun, it expresses a wish:

I should like to be a teacher. That what I want to be.

With adjectives, it denotes a feeling, after "glad, happy, contented, delighted, afraid, eager, impatient".

I am glad t hear you agree with me.

I should be afraid to ask him for help.

Also with verbs such as “to like, to trust, to late, to fear.....

We hope to see you again.

He hated to look at the letters.

It also modifies the indefinite, negative and universal pronouns in – body, - thing and – one:

Have you anything to offer me.

He had everything to make his life a happy one.

It was someone to admir.

Occasionally, the infinitive with “to” can have the function of an attribute to personal or reflexive pronouns:

I’ve only you to trust.

The infinitive attribute can also be used with substantivized ordinal numerals (especially “first”), substantivized adjectives “next” and “last”, substantivized quantitative adjectives “much, little, (no) more, (no) less, little more, enough”, and substantivized adverb “nowhere”. Consider the following examples:

Jack was the first to come.

She was the last to reach the hall.

A man in your position has so much to lose.

I’ve no more to add.

Now, I had nobody to see, nowhere to go.

Swan (1980, 494) shows that when a noun or pronoun is the object of a following infinitive, a relative pronoun is not normally used:

I can’t think of anybody to invite. (not anybody whom to invite)

However, relative pronouns are possible with preposition structures:

We moved to the country so that the children would have a garden in which to play.

He was miserable unless he had neighbors with whom to quarrel.



To be perfectly frank, you're a bad driver.

I never met him, to tell you the truth.

To occupy her mind, however, she took the job given to her.

Lastly, the infinitive of purpose may be modified by limiting particles:

I'm here just to see you.

He came down only to say good – night to you.

## 2. of Subsequent events

Here, the infinitive with "to" functioning as an adverb modifier of subsequent events denotes an action that actually takes place after the action denoted by the predicate. Its position in the sentence is fixed-it always follows the predicate (Kobrina et al, 1985: 121).

He arrived at three o'clock to hear that Fleur had gone out with the car at ten. (He arrived and heard.....)

I came down one morning to find papa excited to the point of apoplexy. (I came down and found....).

Moreover, the infinitive may be preceded by the particles "only", "merely", "simply", which change the meaning of the whole sentence : the action denoted by the infinitive preceded by these particles makes the action denoted by the predicate pointless or irrelevant.

- She returned to London in a few days, only to learn that Bess had gone to the continent. (she returned .....but learnt.....)

- The men had tried a rush simply to be swept out of existence. (had tried a rush, but were swept....)

## 3. of result

In functioning as an adverbial modifier of result, the idea of result may be completely absent, as the infinitive with to, instead of qualifying the verb, is used to complete its meaning. Close (1975:74) believes that the infinitive is used to denote unexpected result, as in:

He went how to find his old friend Goerge waiting for him.

Kruisinga (1931, 173) adds that the infinitive of this function may be preceded by adjectives, nouns, adverbs, which are modified by the adverbs of degree "too", "enough", "so", and "such". In the case of "so" and "such", the infinitive is preceded by the correlative "as". Let's see the following:

She had gone too far to draw back.



He was fool enough to enjoy the game.

She was so kind as to accept my proposal.

Do you think I am such a fool as to let it out of my hand?

In all these cases, the v infinitive denotes an action, which become possible (enough, so, such) or impossible (too) due to the degree of the quality expressed in the words it refers to.

The position of the infinitive is fixed; it always follows the words it modifies.

Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, 333) add that “enough” and “too” are comparative constructions that express the contrasting notions of sufficiency and excess. Paraphrase pairs may be constructed with antonymous items:

They are rich enough to own a car.

They are not too poor to own a car.

#### 5. of comparison

The infinitive, here, refers to predicate groups including adjectives or adverbs in the comparative degree. It is introduced by “than” (Kobrina et al, 1985: 122)

To give is more blessed than to receive.

Soon she realized that it was much more pleasant to give than to be given.

#### 6. of condition

Kruisinga (1931, 166) notes that the infinitive with “to” can express or seem to express the same meaning as an adverb clause of condition. In this case, it denotes an action that its realization pre-conditions the realization of the action of the predicate – Examples are:

You would do well to write more distinctly. (If you did well, you would write more distinctly).

To look at Montmorency you would imagine that he was an angel sent upon earth. (If you looked).

#### 7. of time

The infinitive denotes an action that specifically points out the moment of time up to which or at which the action of the predicate is performed.

His father lived to be ninety. (lived till he was....)

I may not live to reach the airstrip this afternoon.

(may not live till I reach.....)

Now, the infinitive with “to” has been possibly satisfactorily treated. The following pages will be devoted to tackle the infinitive without “to” (bare).

## Note to chapter two

### 1- المصدر الصريح or the gerund

The gerund (or sometimes called, verbal noun ) is an abstract substantive which expresses the action , passion , or state indicated by the corresponding verbs without any reference to object , subject , or time . it is also called "المصدر" (used in the study as infinitive or masder ) because most Arab grammarians derive the compound idea of the finite the trilateral , quadrilateral ,etc .as "قراءة" , reading , "سير" walking , "نصر" , victory , "مغادرة" departure , "ذهاب" , going . etc .(حسن:189:3:751.1964).

2- the assimilate epithet (or الصيغة المشبهة) is an adjective derived from the trilateral , quadrilateral , etc ., on the measure : افعال،فعال،فعليل،فعل،فعل،فعل،etc as in ، جبان ، جبان ، كحيل ، خرج ، ضخم ، حسن ، احمر ,etc , these adjectives indicate abstract and permanent meaning.

### 3-2 Bare Infinitive

#### Introduction

The Infinitive “to” is called the “bare Infinitive because it lacks the Infinitive particle “to”. It just consists of the (un tensed) stem of a lexical verb (Burton – Roberts, 1986: 252). In examples like :

She made him darn her socks.

All you have to do is squeeze the trigger slowly.

These non – finite (untensed) forms can be distinguished from simple present tense forms as in “I darn her socks every week”. By the feature [- tense].

Bare infinitive is compounded with finite auxiliaries in the production of many predicate forms, as : “shall go” , “will fight” may be “,” must leave”. It appears also with the finite auxiliary plus the participle in the make – up of predicate forms : “may have been”, might have been”. Bare infinitive can also be called as “plain”, “to- less”, and “pure” (House and harman, 1931: 240; spankie, 1987: 131).

In this section, it may seem that the bare infinitive is not elaboratively treated as opposed to the infinitive with “to”. It should be observed the bare infinitive restricts itself to predicative and non – predicative function. Rarely does it function as nominal only in informal style or pseudo- cleft sentences.

#### Syntactical Function of Bare Infinitive

Zandvoort and Van EK (1962, 4) state that the bare infinitive is only used in a verbal, never in a nominal function. It is used either by itself, or in combination with another verb. Having a different view, Quirk et al, (1985: 1067) believe that the nominal bare infinitive clause is severely limited in its function. Kruisinga (1931, 138) note that it can be used productively classed as the "imperative" and the "exclamative", and non-productively as an element of a group: either a purely verbal group or a mixed nominal and verbal group.

### The Predicative Use of Bare Infinitive

#### Imperative

The predicative use of bare infinitive can express a command or entreaty and also a challenge. It is oftenest used without a subject, which differentiates it from the present tense (Ibid: 138):

Go home and do what you are told.

Touch that bell if you dare.

The imperative is naturally used of those verbs only that express a voluntary action, as in:

Now boys, enjoy yourselves.

For this example, it is the boys own will that the enjoyment is supposed to depend on (Ibid: 138).

The imperative is also used, however, to express what is purely a wish, as in

Sleep well. (Zandvoort and Van EK, 1962: 5)

Such construction like that just mentioned may have prefixed subject "you". The pronoun is used to make the form more emphatic and is naturally strong stressed:

You sit down and get your breakfast.

It also when accompanied by a negative adjunct expresses a prohibition, both with a subject "you" and without:

Never you mind, but tell me what you're crying for.

Besides, the imperative may express a piece of advice or a warning, with the consequence expressed in the form of a coordinated sentence. The two elements are joined by "and".

Consider the following examples:

Thank goodness, the sun's shining at last. Give it another hour or so and we shall be able to sit out in the lawn.

Ask too many questions and you'll spoil everything.

(kruisinga, 1931: 139)

sometimes, the same relation may be expressed by two imperative sentences connected by "and":

read English newspaper and be well informed.

When the bare infinitive is accompanied by "once", the imperative meaning is inevitably weakened, so that the first sentence has the character of a conditional clause. Look at this example:

Shut them out once and you shut them forever.

Once grasp this fact you will cease it to be at the mercy of phrases.

(Ibid : 139)

the sentence is clearly a conditional clause when the bare infinitive expresses a state rather than an action, as in the following:

know one Frenchman and you know France.

Exclamative

The bare infinitive is used in an exclamatory sentence which may be better classed with the semi-imperative construction than with the non-predicative bare infinitive. The difference is evident in exclamatory questions, often introduced by an interrogative adverb and sometimes with a subject preceding the bare infinitive (Ibid : 144):

And talk about dukes being scarce:

Speak of handkerchiefs in a tragedy?

The bare infinitive in exclamations and exclamatory questions has been called a predicative form. From a formal point of view, the bare should rather be considered non-predicative when it is made negative by "not", this precedes the bare, whereas in predicative verbal form, the auxiliary "do" is used (Ibid: 144). Zandvoort and Van EK (1962: 8) indicate that a suggestion made in a question like:

Why spend such a lot of money ?

May be rejected as impossible or absurd in a following exclamatory sentence which may again take the form of a question:

Why not apologize and ask his pardon?

Non – Predicative Use of Bare Infinitive

The bare infinitive is used as a non- predicative form in two functions: 1) as a leading member of a purely verbal group, and 2) as a member of a mixed noun and verb group.

The bare infinitive as a leading member of a verbal group is chiefly used with the verbs that are classed as auxiliaries which form such a group like “can”, “may”, “must”, “shall”, “will”, “do”, and “have” (swan, 1980: 262):

Will you open another window?

Tell him he may go now.

Quirk et al, (1985: 216) add that the modal verb construction can be used with the progressive infinitive in a way which simply combines reference to future time with the “temporal frame” associated with the progressive:

When you reach the end of the bridge, I’ll be waiting there.

This call for no special comment. There is, however, a separate use of the “will / shall + progressive” construction to denote “future as a matter of course”. The use of this combination avoids the interpretation of volition, promise, etc.:

We’ll be flying at 30 000 feet.

This, spoken by a pilot of an aircraft to his passengers, means “30 000 feet is the normal and expected attitude for the flight”.

If, on the other hand, the pilot said:

We’ll fly at 30 000 feet.

The impression might be quite different : it could well be that the pilot had decided to fly at a specified height. Because of such differences, it is often an advantage to use this complex construction in situations where the : non progressive with “will / shall” might be lacking in tact or consideration.

Consider this example :

Whereas (1) may seem like a rather abrupt demand for payment, (2) seems more tactful, since it implies that the payment is something which will happen “as a matter of course”. In describing future happenings in which there is no direct human involvement, however, the choice between the progressive and : non progressive alternative is less important. Look at this example :



She watched the postman cross the street.

I won't have you say such things.

We made him repeat everything.

In the same tone, kruisinga (1931: 155) adds that the object with the bare infinitive is occasionally used, evidently as a parallel to the preceding cases, with verbs of sensation that generally take a prepositional noun- object : "to listen to", "to look at". The resulting construction may be called the "prepositional object with bare infinitive". Let's consider the following:

I spent half – an – hour listening to a lady talk about beasts.

Look at Glorvina enter the room.

As regards the nominal function, Quirk et al, (1985: 1067) and Thomson and Martinet (1960 : 220) state that the nominal bare infinitive clause may be the subject complement or (rarely) subject in a pseudo 0 cleft sentence:

What the plan does is ensure a fair pension for all. (subject complement)

Mow the lawn was what I did this afternoon. (subject, rare or informal)

It may also be the subject or subject complement of a variant of the pseudo- cleft sentence, where a noun phrase of general reference replaces "what":

Turn off the tap was all I did.

The best thing you can do now is write her an apology.

The "to" of the infinitive is obligatorily absent when the infinitive clause is subject in these constructions, but it is optionally present when the clause is subject complement. (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990 : 312). Look at these examples:

What they must do is (to) propose an amendment to the solution.

The thing you should do is (to) show them your diploma.

The bare infinitive requires the substitute verb "Do" in the subordinate clause. Contrast the obligatory "to" in the following first example with the optional "to" in the second:

All I wanted was to help him.

All I wanted to do was (to) help him.

The Gerund

## Introduction

A gerund is a non – finite form of the verb with some noun features. It is a word derived from a verb stem by means of the suffix “ing” may be used in a variety of meanings and function, according to the context in which it occurs (Zandvoort and Van EK, 1962 : 24). Likewise, Spankie (1987: 144) notes that a gerund is \_\_ing form that looks exactly like \_\_\_\_ing participle but its uses are quite different. It is a noun that can be all the work of a noun, it can be subject or object of a verb and complement of a preposition. Verbal noun is the name sometimes given to the gerund because it name an activity and the doing of the activity. It may occur in compounds, sometimes with a hyphen between the parts, or they are one word. A gerund is usually a mass noun and not countable. It is singular and the pronouns “it, this, that “can stand instead of a gerund phrase, as in:

Eating sweets spoilt their teeth.

This spoilt their teeth.

Some gerunds are count nouns and can be either singular or plural to suit the speaker’s meaning. As nouns, gerunds can have articles, adjectives, possessive adjectives, all the other items that normally go with nouns.

The grammatical meaning of the gerund is that of a process. Thus, to some extent, it competes with nouns of verbal origins, as in: “translating – translating”, “helping – help”, etc. nouns tend to convey the fact or the result of the action, which in certain circumstances may be something material (Kobrina et al, 1985: 128).

Sometime, if the meaning of the gerund is nearly the same as that of the noun, the former emphasizes the process, and the latter – the fact (Greenbauw and Quirk, 1990: 311), as in

Thank you for helping me.

Thank you for your help.

It is natural that the verbal character of the gerund is more prominent in transitive verbs owing to their combinability and possession of passive forms. Morphologically, the verbal character of the gerund is manifested in the categories of voice and correlation. These two categories will be treated through the following item.

### Grammatical categories of the gerund

As just mentioned, the gerund has only two categories, those of correlation and voice.

#### The category of correlation

The category of correlation can be expressed through the contrast of perfect – non perfect forms.



The nonperfect gerund denotes an action simultaneous with that expressed by the finite verb (Kobrina et al, 1985 : 129), as in.

John improved his pronunciation by listening to tape recordings.

The perfect gerund denotes an action prior to the action denoted by the finite verb:

I regret having altered these words.

The perfect gerund is invariable in indicating priority, whereas the meaning of the nonperfect gerund is more flexible and may easily be modified by the context.

The nonperfect gerund is to be found in gerundial phrases (1) introduced by the preposition “on” and “after”:

On reaching the end of the street, we turned towards the river.

(Ibid, 129)

Preedy, after reflecting a little, gave a long sigh.

(1)gerundial phrases are those phrases which have \_\_\_ing forms – one – word or phrases – as predicators and clause markers. They include both those in which the predicators are often called gerunds and those in which they are often called present participles. Thus, “entertaining lavishly” is here considered a gerundial clause in both the following.

It should be noted that the position of the preposition “on” suggests immediate priority and an instantaneous action.

The nonperfect gerund expresses a succeeding action after verbs, adjectives and prepositions implying reterence to a future event such as “intend”, “insist”, “object”, “suggest”, “look forward to” and after the preposition “before” (Quirk et al, 1985: 238):

I insist on your staying with us.

We are looking forward to visiting new places.

We met once more before parting.

Sentences:

Entertaining lavishly keeps Martin busy.

Martin keeps busy entertaining lavishly.

“Entertaining” can be described as a gerundial verb form used as the predicator and clause marker in a gerundial verbal clause in each of these sentence. In the first sentence, the gerundial clause is used as subject of the containing main declarative, in the second, it is used as an

adjunct. On – word gerundial verb forms are always \_\_\_ing forms, phrasal gerundial verb forms have \_\_\_ing forms as their first words (Long and Long, 1971: 15).

The category of voice

The gerund of transitive verbs possesses voice distinctions. Like other verb forms, the active gerund points out that the action is directed from the subject, whether the passive gerund indicates that the action is directed towards the subject (Kobrina et al, 1985, 130):

I hate interrupting people.

I hate being interrupted.

He entered without having knocked at the door.

The door opened with having been knocked on.

Swan (1980: 280) point out that some verbs like “need”, want, require, deserve”, with the adjective “worth” are followed by an active gerund with passive meaning:

I don't think his article deserves reading.

(=.....deserves to be read).

Your hair needs cutting.

The car wants servicing.

Your suggestion is worth talking over.

The Subject of the Gerund

Kruisinga (1931: 79) shows that the action expressed by the \_\_\_ing most frequently proceeds from what in a psychological sense, may be called its subject. This subject is not expressed grammatically when it is indicated by the context. So, in many cases, no definite subject is either thought of or expressed grammatically, as in the first part of the following construction:

Hunting, hawking and shooting were, however, his chief delights.

There is no subject at all, neither definite nor indefinite.

However the subject may be expressed or implied.

Gerund without expressed subject

Gerunds, most frequently, occur without expressed subject, i.e. , implied. The implied subject of the gerund is suggested in various ways; that in the gerundial clause either is general (people or

one) or is suggested by the context (Long and Long, 1971: 119). An examination of the following example may show that:

Reading novels takes time.

So, it may be:

People read novels.

Or

I read novels.

In a sentence like

Her chief concern is keeping herself thin.

The implied subject in the gerundial clause is suggested by the possessive "herself" within the subject of the containing main declarative, as the use of "herself" as reflexive first complement of "keeping" makes plain:

She keeps herself thin (Ibid: 119)

Moreover, the main subject "I" may be suggested as the implied one in the clause. Consider the following sentence:

I remember asking for the address.

It means:

I asked for the address.

Again, if we overlook a sentence like:

They caught Smith a stolen car.

We may find that the implied subject in the gerundial clause second complement is suggested by the first complement it reveals:

Smith was driving a stolen car.

Whereas in a sentence like:

Considering his age, Wong's tennis is extraordinary.

The implied subject is general. It means:

One considers his age. (Ibid, 119)

Sometimes, the subject of the clause is suggested the head to which the clause attaches:

People are anthropoids apes living like termites .

Also, the subject in the containing main declarative may be suggested as implied, as implied, as in:

I thanked George by paying the bill.

For it means:

I paid the bill.

But a sentence like:

I thanked George for paying the bill.

It reveals that the implied subject is suggested by the first complement in the containing main declarative "George", as in:

He paid the bill

When wrong subjects for gerunds can be expressed even momentarily, by grammatically prominent nearby neural units, the result is what is often called "dangling" construction. Let's see this example.

Riding the ferry to Staten island, the statue of liberty looms up in the harbor.

Gerund with Expressed subject

Long and (1971: 120) indicate that gerundial clauses with expressed subject are less widely, and less comfortably, usable than those without kruisinga (1931: 79) adds that the subject of the gerund is often expressed by what may be looked upon as the object of the leading verb, as in:

Sir Hector found her waiting in the dining – room.

The gerund in this sentence must be interpreted as a predicative adjunct to the object. In this case, we seem to discuss three verbs of perception with which the object with the gerund is very common. The verbs are to feel to hear, and to see. "A few other verbs expressing seeing also take the construction, such as "to watch, to perceive " and the literary "to behold". It will be observed that the verbs can not be classified as expressing physical perception but mental process consider these examples.

Felix felt his heart beating

Quinney heard him chuckling as he made his way downstairs.

That is the conviction which we should like to see spreading classes.

The object with the gerund is also found after a number of other verbs. This applies to the construction with the verbs: "to find, catch take, keep, leave, start". The construction is also used with a number of verbs that express a kind of movement: "to bring, set, send". (Ibid: 82).

He found himself hoping that this statement

Would be laughed at.

I can't keep the horses wailing.

This conversation set me thinking.

It occurs very often that there is no part of the sentence that can at the same time serve as a subject of the gerund. In this case a noun or pronoun serving as a subject of the gerund has no other function and forms a close syntactic group with the gerund. According to the form of the noun or pronoun, we distinguish (Ibid: 86).

Indefinite case with the gerund.

Possessive with the gerund.

Genitive with the gerund, and

Nominative with the gerund.

As regards the first, i. e. the indefinite case, when the subject of the gerund is not indicated as suggested by a part of the sentence, it can always be expressed by an indefinite case.

You mean to insist upon Belly apologizing personally?

Hurried reading results in the learner forgetting half of what he reads.

In reference to possessive with the gerund it is as freely used as the indefinite case.

Have you any objection to my approaching.

Michael took refuge in a dream of his own fashioning.

With genitive, the subject of the gerund is in a limited number of cases expressed by the genitive of a noun expressing time.

She lay in bed, and her sister administered remedies of the chemists advising.

She hoped that Roger's coming home would set it to rights.

The nominative of a personal pronoun of the first or third person can also be used to express the subject of the gerund.

Tempest was also there, he being both magistrate and clergyman.

Brindle introduced Steve to his sister, he being a bachelor.

#### The syntactical functions of the Gerund

A gerund may exhibit all the syntactical properties of a noun; it performs any syntactical function performed by a noun, although in each case it has peculiarities of its own. Thus. It may be preceded by an article, a possessive or demonstrative pronoun, a noun in the genitive, or an adjective, or following by a noun adjunct with "of" (or another preposition). It may function as the subject, object or nominal predicate of a sentence, and form part of a prepositional adjunct. It may occur in plural as well (Crowell, 1964: 182; Dart, 1982:166).

On the other hand, a gerund may also exhibit the syntactical properties of a verb. It may be qualified by an adverb or adverbial phrase, and in the case of a transitive verb may govern an object. It may also take a subject of its own. It may be used in the perfect tense and in the passive voice (Zandvoort and van Ek, 1962:25).

It should be noted that the functions of gerundial constructions are identical with those of single gerunds and gerundial clauses. Therefore they shall not be treated separately, and thus examples given will cover both.

#### The Gerund as subject

Being the subject, it stands in front position, as in:

Running will make you feel better.

Studying requires most of my time during the day.

Quirk et al (1985: 1891) state that the gerund as the subject can be used with "it – construction":

If you want me to help, it's no good beating about the bush

It will make no difference your being quiet.

The introductory "there" may be used with the gerund the construction is found in positive sentences, but more frequently in negative, both to deny a statement of facts and a suggestion of a possibility (Kruisinga, 1931: 73):

The cattle moved slowly about the field, and there was harvesting going on.

There can be mistaking the doctor's speech.

### The Gerund as Predicate

The gerund is occasionally used as a nominal predicate in a sentence. The construction is less uncommon with the neuter pronoun "it" as a formal subject (Ibid: 77):

Don't say anything more to him it's throwing words.

Kobrina et al (1935: 133) add that when the gerund combines with phasal verbs, it forms a compound verbal predicate of aspect. The finite phasal verb denotes a phase of the action expressed by the gerund. The most frequent phasal verbs followed by the gerund are, "begin, burst out start, continue go on keep on, finish, stop, give up leave off and cease".

Again you start arguing.

They kept on laughing.

Your health will improve as soon you give up smoking.

### The Gerund as Object

The gerund can perform the function of a direct or a prepositional object. The gerund as object is very common with three verbs of perception: "feel" "hear", and "see". A few other verbs expressing seeing also take this construction, such as "watch", "perceive" and "behold". It will be observed that these verbs cannot be classified as expressing physical perception (Kruisinga, 1931: 80):

He saw Jahn coming slowly across the room.

Eckersley and Eckersley (1970: 246) and Graver (1972: 142) suggest the following list of verbs that are followed by the gerund as their object: "admit, appreciate, avoid, consider, delay, deny, dislike, doubt, enjoy, escape, excuse, favour, finish, forgive, imagine, include, involve, justify, keep, mean, mind, miss, pardon, postpone, practise, propose, resist, stop, suffer, suggest, understand, can't help, can't stand, it's good, it's (not) worth". Examples are:

She denied knowing anything of the plan.

Have you finished cooking?

It's no good talking to him.

I could not help asking where he had left his wife.

Zandvoort and van Ele (1962: 27) state that perfect and passive gerunds are by no means uncommon, for instance:

He denied having her before.

I could not help being impressed.

After very verbs like “deserve, need, require, and want”, the gerund has passive sense (Swan, 1980: 280).

You hair needs cutting (=... Needs to be cut).

The car wants serving. (=... needs to be served).

Thus, in the light of what has been just mentioned, an item like that discussed in the first section of this chapter, i. e. , the tenses, will not be included in this section.

However, another list is added by several grammarians among them are Graver (1972: 152), Shepherd et al, (1984: 170) and Azzar (1992: 277). This list includes a number of verbs followed by either the gerund or to- infinitive. The verbs are “begin, cease, continue, dislike, love, neglect, prefer, propose, purpose, recollect, remember, start, try, it’s (of) no use “ (The choice between the gerund and to – infinitive will be treated in a following item).

It began raining.

It began to rain.

Kobrina et al (1985: 134) note that the gerund as a prepositional object may follow:

a. monotransitive prepositional verb, as “agree to, consist in, hear of, learn of, think of, persist in, count on, depend on, rely on, succeed in, look forward to, to, object to”. Consider the following examples:

We all agree to your opening the discussion.

Happiness consists largely in having true friends.

b. ditransitive verbs taking a direct and prepositional object such as “accuse of suspect of prevent from, stop from, assist in, help in, thank for, blame for, praise for, punish for, sentence for have no difficulty in, congratulate smb. on”:

Roy accused me of disliking him.

I had no difficulty in getting the tickets for the concert.

c. adjectives and stative verbs.

These adjectives and stative verbs are “to be afraid of, to be aware of, to be conscious of, to be capable of, to be fond of, to be ignorant of, to be proud of, to be sure of, to be responsible for, to be sorry about, to be keen on, etc:

We are all proud of our citizens getting the first prize.

Ned will be responsible for arranging the farewell party.



d. en participle, generally when used as a predicative, as: "to be accustomed to, to be used to, to be absorbed in, to be surprised at, to be tired of":

I'm not used to being talked to in that rude way.

We were surprised at your leaving the party.

### The Gerund as Attribute

The gerund can be used to function as attribute. It here, modifies, mainly, abstract nouns. It is always preceded by a preposition, most frequently, "of, as in combinations like "the art of teaching, the habit of speaking, a certain way of walking, a chance of seeing somebody, etc (Kobrina et al, 1985: 135).

There is a chance of catching the train.

The idea of his being in Paris was not a pleasant one.

When it modifies an abstract noun, the gerund is often used to reveal its meaning, expressing the same notion in a more detailed way- in this case, the gerund functions as a particular kind of attribute called "apposition". Thus in:

There is a chance of finding him at home.

The gerundial phrase explains what the chance consists in. Besides, when a gerund modifies a concrete noun, it, preceded by the preposition "for" and the whole gerundial phrase as attribute expresses the purpose or destination of thing mentioned (Ibid: 135):

The barometer is an instrument for measuring the pressure of the air.

Finally, a gerund as attribute precedes the noun it modifies. A premodifying attribute is used without a preposition, as in "a dancing master, a diving suit, a reading lamp. A spending habit, a working method, a writing career.

### The Gerund as Adverbial

When functioning as adverb modifier, the gerund may have different meanings. The difference in meaning can be ascribed to the variety of prepositions that precede the gerund. So, it can act as an adverbial modifier of:

#### 1- Time

The adverbial modifier of time may indicate the starting point of the action. It may be introduced by prepositions like "on, after, in, before, since" and by subordinators like "once, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst" (Quirk et al, (1985: 1078):

They washed their hands before eating.

Be careful crossing streets.

## 2- Reason

It is introduced by prepositions like “because of, for, from, for fear of, on account of (Kobrina et al, 1985: 135):

So you I couldn't sleep for worrying.

## 3- Manner

It occurs with the prepositions “by” and “without”:

You will achieve a lot by telling the truth.

She dressed without making sound.

## 4- Affendant circumstances

It requires the preposition “without” (Ibid: 136):

They danced without speaking.

## 5- Concession

It is preceded by the preposition “in spite of “ (Ibid: 136):

I don't ask any question in spite of there being a lot of questions to ask.

## 6- Condition

Quirk et al, (1985: 1005) believe that the gerundial clause which are introduced by “if, even if, and unless” are restricted to open conditions:

If coming by car, take the A10 and turn off at the A 414.

“Even if” and “unless” are relatively more acceptable in such contexts:

Unless receiving visitors, patients must observe normal hospital rules.

## 7- Purpose

It is introduced by the preposition “for”:

They took her for the station for questioning. (Kobrina et al, 1985: 136).

## - Cd participle

### Introduction

The – cd participle is defined by Homer and House (1931: 215) as “a word which is derived from a verb and which performs the function of both a verb and an adjective; participles are verbal adjectives, for instance, “fighting”, “dancing”, “taken”, “performed” they add that it doesn’t mean that every adjective having a verbal idea is a participle. For to be so, a form must be a part of the actual inflexion of a verb. According to the examples mentioned above, a distinction should be drawn between the two forms of adjectives: “fighting” taken” veit (1976: 220) puts that “fighting” is an active participle (often inaccurately called a present participle), while “taken” is a passive participle (often inaccurately called a past participle). Thomson and martinet (1960: 33) expressly explain the difference between these two forms, i.e., present and past participle, through that the former means “having this effect” while the latter means “affected in this way”. Kruinga (1931: 36) takes part in this discussion stating that the participle of a transitive verb is passive in meaning, whereas that of intransitive is active. Thus, the participles “taken” and “invited” are semantically passive, while we see “arrived” and “gone” are active. It is to be noted that the major concern of this section is the passive or- ed participle. Koberina et al, (1985: 153) complement that passive participle stands apart from other nonfinits, in that it does possess their morphological categories. Nevertheless, being a verb form, it possesses the potential verb meaning of voice, aspect and correlation.

The Grammatical categories of the – ed participle

The Category of voice

As the term of passive participle suggests, the meaning is always passive not active. For this, the participle of transitive verbs is opposed to present participle which is always active: “writing-written” (Kruisinga, 1931: 36). Hence, Koberina et al, (1985: 156) suggest that the passive meaning of participle may fall under three types:

those denoting an action directed towards the subject as the carrier of the action. Verbs like: “accompany, follow, watch, carry, teach listen (to), laugh (at): look (at, on far), speak (of, to), love, hate. “consider the following example:

Spanish is one of the foreign languages taught at our institute.

those denoting a state, which is the result of an action. Verbs like: “bring, catch, do,, find, make, put solve, build, realize, open, close”, as in:

The thief was caught

those denoting a pure state; psychological states and emotions, such as: “ amuse, annoy, offend, surprise, please, excite”, as in:

she was surprised At that news.

It is to be noted that the action denoted by the participle is carried by the subject of the sentence in the noun or pronoun modified by the participle.

The categories of Aspect and Correlation

Palmer (1976: 217) believes that the aspectual meaning of this non-finite form is perfectivity which is combined with the passive meaning of intransitive verbs. These, passive participle can be opposed to present participle in the aspectual meanings of perfectivity, imperfectivity as in taking-taken. For this reason, the two categories have been treated in one item.

Quirk et al (1985: 288) indicated that the -ed participle phrase has no formal contrasts of aspect, and is therefore the most restricted type of phrase in terms of semantic contrasts. However, there is a potential contrast with the passive-ing participle phrase.

Climbed by a student.

I saw the tower      Being climbed by a student.

The participle “climbed” in the first is the passive counterpart of the infinitive “climb”. It describes the climb as a completed event, whereas “being climbed” describes it as in progress, and possibly incomplete.

Likewise, Kopteva et al, (1985: 156) indicate that the meaning of perfectivity, imperfectivity results in the potential meaning of correlation. The idea of priority and simultaneity is suggested by the aspectual character of the verb and is realized in the given context. This idea, i.e., priority and simultaneity, may become fused, since the action is prior to and the resulting state is simultaneous with the action of the main verb or the moment of speech. Thus, in a sentence like:

First of all went to the bombed building.

The action of bombing is prior to the action of the finite verb “went”, but the resulting state of the action is simultaneous with it.

The Subject of the - ed Participle

As other non- finites, participial clauses occur both with and without expressed subjects.

Participials without expressed subject

Long and Long (1971: 134) indicated that participial clauses without expressed subjects function second complements within larger containing clauses. If so, the first complements normally suggest their subjects. Consider the following:

The neighbors had him arrested

We barely made ourselves heard.

When they function as adjuncts, the subject of the containing clauses usually (but not always) suggest their subjects, as in:

Given an opportunity, he will make an excellent teacher.

Rabbits, let loose upon the land several ago, have become real pests.

Moreover, when the participials are used as contained modifiers, the heads to which they attach suggest their subjects, as in the following examples:

The generation forty years ago is taking the reins.

Participals with expressed subject

Quirk et al, (1985: 1004) state that the clause with on-ed participle may be introduced by some subordinators that are used for finite clauses. These clauses can be related to finite clauses for which the subject is supplied in a sentence like:

When taken according to the directions, the drug has no side effects (when the drug is taken...)

The subject of the subordinate clause must generally be understood as identical with that of the matrix clause.

Another example of this case is:

Unless told otherwise, be here every night (unless you are told...)

It is apparent that the subject "you" is the implied subject of the imperative superordinate clause.

Swan (1980: 402) notes that when-ed participle is used in passive construction, the agentive by-object formula reveals its subject, as in:

She was frightened by a mouse that ran into room.

I was annoyed by the way she spoke to me.

## Syntactical Functions of the – ed Participle

The – ed participle can be used to function as the headword of a participial phrase or stand as an independent element of the sentence, resembling an adjective, so that it may be called a verbal adjective. It may function as an attribute, predicate or as an adverbial modifier.

### The – ed Participle as Attribute

Generally, the participle when used as an adjective it expresses a quality as state that is thought of as the result of an action or occurrence expressed by the verbal stem from which the participle has been formed. The attribute participle may express the actual result of an action without referring to a definite time of the action or to an agent. In this case, it precedes its leading noun. It occurs of practically all transitive verbs construed with a plain or prepositional object (Kruisinga, 1931: 30-1).

He found some difficulty in keeping the conversation in the desired channel.

In this function, the – ed participle can be used as a pre- and postmodifier. Premodification is more common when an active participle is modified by an adverb( ).

Let's consider the following examples:

a much – traveled man/

the newly- arrived immigrant

(Swan, 1980, 402)

As with post modification, Quirk et al, (1980: 1357) add that the – ed participle can be active or passive, as is:

I should like this matter settled immediately.

The active participle is rarely used in premodification.

Contrast the following (Leech and Svartvik, 1975, 222):

The immigrant who has arrived.

But not

The arrived immigrant.

Though there are some exceptional cases:

The escaped convict has been captured.

(Eckersley and Eckersley, 1970, 240).

Being a postmodifier the –ed participle manifests its verbal character when accompanied by a preposition or prepositional verb (Kobrina et al, 1985: 157):

Participle has a by – agent construction, only post modification is possible. Krusinga (1931: 39) affirms that activity seems to be suggested when the agent is mentioned preceded by "by".

The sonnets written by the poet describe his cat.

The – ed participle as predicative

The – ed participle can be used predicatively, both as a nominal predicate and as a predicative adjunct to an object. In the case of the nominal predicate, the participles of transitive verbs are used to suggest the time of the agent (Ibid: 37):

When the bag was packed, he sat on the bed and thought about everything.

Another case is that when the –ed participle does not express the meaning of a verbal adjective, the noun or pronoun is only an apparent object of the preceding verb, and it serves as the subject of the verbal meaning expressed by the participle. Quirk et al, (1985, 1207) suggest that this apparent object and- ed participle is used with :

causative verbs: "get, have".

She got the watch repaired immediately.

volitional verbs: "want , need, like".

I want this watch repaired immediately.

3- perceptual verbs: "see, hear, feel, watch",

someone must have heard the car stolen.

verbs expressing resulting state: "find, discover, leave",

I left him worn out by travel and exertion.

Quirk et al add that this construction is semantically equivalent to one with an infinitive form of the verb "be" Thus, a volitional verb sentence like:

I would like my room cleaned.

Is synonymous with:

I would like my room to be cleaned.

And a perceptual verb sentence, such as:

He saw the team beaten.

Is synonymous with:

He saw the team be beaten.

In reference to the predicative adjunct use, Keusing (1931: 44) and Eckersley and Eckersley (1970: 241) agree that the –ed participle of transitive verbs is often used in free adjuncts, both related and absolute participles. In both of these constructions, the –ed participle expresses a state or condition which is considered as accompanying the predicative rather than as qualifying a noun:

Consider the following example:

Once seen it can never be forgotten.

Granted that he is not a brilliant, he is at least competent and works hard.

The –ed participle as Adverbial modifier

Kobrina et al (1985, 158) state that the adverbial function and meaning of -ed participle can be seen only from the general meaning of the sentence. Thus, in a sentence like”.

Arrived there, he went into the shop.

The participle “arrived there” does not suggest any idea of time, but in the context of the sentence, the phrase acquires the function and meaning of an adverbial modifier of time. In this function, the –ed participle is often preceded by a conjunction, which explicitly indicates the semantic type of the adverbial modifier. Consider the following:

He won't stop arguing until interrupted (time).

Deprived of his wife and son, Jolyon found the solitude at Robin Hill intolerable. (reason).

I shall certainly give evidence on your behalf, if required (condition).

I got off the train”, he repeated as if hypnotized (comparison).

Infinitive with or Gerund



It is not always easy to decide when the infinitive with “to” should be used after a verb and when the gerund. Generally, the infinitive with “to” and the gerund have much in common for they both have some nominal and some verbal features. However, the verbal nature is prevailing in the infinitive with “to” while the nominal one with the gerund.

According to Quirk et al, (1985: 1191), the difference in meaning may be related to “potentiality” and “performance”. As a rule, the infinitive with “to” give a sense of mere “potentiality” for the action, as in:

He hoped to learn French.

While the gerund gives a sense of actual “performance” of the action itself, as in:

He enjoyed learning French.

Besides, Zandvoort and van Ek (1962: 29) attribute the difference to that the infinitive with “to” is mostly used with reference to a special occasion while the gerund is more appropriate to a general statement:

She begins to knit after lunch.

She begins knitting after lunch.

Another slightly similarly stated distinction is added by Kabrina et al (1985: 137) which reveals that the infinitive with “to” is more specific and more bound to some particular occasion whereas the gerund is more general, as in:

I like to swim in this lake.

I like swimming (I am fond of swimming).

Kruisinga (1931: 287) and Thomson and Martinet (1960: 189) agree that the infinitive with “to” is used to give a proposal, while the gerund is used to talk about a habit. The infinitive with “to” reveals the result or effect of the action; the gerund in a statement of habit refers to the action itself. Consider the following:

To brush the teeth after a meal is necessary.

Brushing the teeth after a meal is necessary.

The first sentence reveals that the action of brushing is viewed as an instruction given by someone, let's say a doctor; the second one implies that brushing is an everyday habit or a matter of routine.

Palmer (1974: 205) puts another view in this respect saying that the infinitive with “to” refers to the fact in isolation with no reference to what has preceded or what follows, whereas the gerund

presents the fact as the beginning, middle point or the end of a continuing process. Notice the following.

The spectators began to arrive before eight o'clock.

The spectators began arriving before eight o'clock.

The first sentence shows that the speaker is only interested in the first arrival, while the second reveals that the speaker is interested in the whole action.

Likewise, close (1976: 137) indicated the infinitive with "to" refers to a new act in a chain of events while the gerund may refer to an activity in progress. The distinction might be noticeable in the following pair:

It is a pleasure to be with you tonight.

It is a pleasure being with you tonight.

Again, close adds that the infinitive with "to" points to a move forward in a series of events and the gerund looks backwards to a previous activity in progress or even to a previous act completed. Here the two members of the following pair may have quite different meanings:

I remembered to telephone the doctor.

I remembered telephoning the doctor.

The first means that first I remembered what I had to do, then I telephoned. The second means that I telephoned the doctor, and remembered doing so, we could also say:

I remembered having telephoned the doctor.

In addition to that, crowell (1964: 184) puts another rule to the choice which shows that the infinitive with "to" is timeless and does not suggest duration, whereas the gerund is used to express continuing acts or actions that have some duration.

Charles's aim is to win.

Charles's favorite recreation is swimming.

Leech and Svartvik (1975: 158) note that the infinitive with "to" expressed an "idea" while the gerund expresses a fact". Thus in some context, the infinitive with "to" clause may have neutral meaning.

He likes me to work late.

He likes working late.

Moreover, the infinitive with “to” expresses non-intentional action and the gerund expresses intentional or deliberate action (Swan, 1980: 285). Let’s consider the following: The baby started to cry.

The baby started crying.

The first sentence shows that the action is unconsciously done, while the second shows that the action is consciously done.

Consequently for the purpose of stating clear restrictions for the choice between the two forms, it is necessary to realize four groups of verbs. They are:

those followed by only the infinitive with “to”.

Those followed by only the gerund.

Those followed by either form without any change in meaning.

Those followed by either form with a change in meaning.

1- those followed by only the infinitive with “to”.

As regards the verbs that are followed by only the infinitive with “to” Eckersley and Eckersley (1970: 247) suggest the following groups: a all the special finites, such as “ought”, “has”, etc and b the verbs like: “dare, decide, desire, endeavour, expect, guarantee, hope, mean (= intend), offer, pretend, promise, refuse, swear, undertake, want, wish”, Example are.

You ought to go there.

He must endeavour to do better.

2- Those followed by only the gerund

Close (1975: 81) proposes the following list of verbs after which the use of the gerund is obligatory. The list contains: “admit, appreciate, avoid, consider, delay, deny, detest, dislike, enjoy, explain, fancy, feel like, finish, forgive, can’t, imagine, it involves, keep, mention, mind, miss, pardon, postpone, practise, prevent, recall, resent, resist, risk, stop, suggest, understand “Examples are:

I deny taking it.

He resented being accused.

Out of the above list, Alexander (1990: 236) notes that after the verbs “come” and “go”, the gerund when relating to outdoor activities is often used. These activities include “climbing, driving, fishing, riding, sailing, shopping, skating, walking, water-skiing, etc.

Why don't you come shopping with us?

Let's go sailing.

Some of the verbs of the first list may be preceded by their own subject expressed or a direct object or possessive (Ibid: 237):

I can't imagine my mother's approving.

They resented me winning.

The gerund is also used after "it's no good", "it's no use", and "it's worth (while)" (Ibid: 237):

It's no good worrying.

Being an object of a separable two-word verb and an object of preposition, the gerund is used preceded by a preposition.

John gave up smoking.

Charles finds relaxation in swimming.

3- Those followed by either form without any change in meaning.

Alexander (1990: 240) and Close (1976: 137) state that some verbs can have either the infinitive with "to" or the gerund without change of meaning. The list includes the verbs expressing "initiation" such as "begin" and "start", "termination" such as "cease" and "continue" such as "continue". The list may also include "can't bear", "prefer", "attempt", "commence", "intend" and "omit".

He intended to write a message.

He intended writing a message.

The verb "can/could bear" (chiefly used in the negative) can be followed by either form:

I can't wait to wait.

But when the infinitive with "to" refers to a deliberate action, the expression implies that the subject's feelings prevent (ed) him from performing the action, as in:

I couldn't bear to tell him (so I didn't)

(Thomson and Martinet, 1960: 235)

Sometimes, when the gerund but to avoid repetition, the infinitive with "to" is preferable when the first verb is in the progressive, as in:

we are proposing to start at night.

On the other, hand, only the gerund occurs in:

Cease firing!

Marking the end of a process.

Moreover, verbs like "agree" and "decide" can be followed directly by an infinitive or by a preposition gerund, as in:

The agreed                      the profits equally

(close, 1976: 141)

There is a similar choice after certain nouns and adjectives (close, 1975: 83):

I hope to have a chance                      you

They were quite content                      where they were

4- those following by either form with a change in meaning

These is group of verbs that can be followed by both the infinitive with "to" and the gerund with which there is a considerable change in meaning; they never mean the same. Palmer (1974: 166) suggest the following list of verbs: "attempt (can't) bear (can't) help, demand, deserve, dread forget, go on, note, intend, learn, leave off, like, love, mean need, neglect, omit, plan, prefer, propose, regret, remember, require, scorn, stop, study, try".

According to Alexander (1990: 241) the infinitive with "to" refers to the present or future and the gerund refers to the past, as in:

You mustn't forget to ask.

Have you forgotten meeting me year ago?

Swan (1980: 283) adds that verbs "remember/forget" followed by gerund refer back to the past – to things that one did "Forget.. ing" is used mostly in the phrase "I 'll never forget... ing consider the following:

I still remember buying my first bicycle.

I'll never forget meeting the Queen.

But "remember/forget" followed by the infinitive with "to" refer to forward in time - to things that one still has or still had to do at the moment of remembering or forgetting.

You must remember to fetch John from the station tomorrow.

I forgot to buy the soap.

Quirk et al, (1985: 1193) apply the "potentiality, performance" distinction to the "retrospective verbs", "remember" and "forget". This distinction is extended into the past so that there is a temporal difference between the two constructions. The infinitive with "to" construction indicates that the action or event takes place after (and as a result of) the mental process denoted by the verb has begun, while the reverse is true for the gerund construction, which refers to a preceding event or occasion coming to mind at the time indicated by the main verbs. Let's consider the following:

I remembered to fill out the form (I remembered that).

I was to fill out the form and then did so).

I remembered filling out the form (I remembered that).

I had filled out the form).

I forgot to go to the bank. (I forgot that I was to go to the bank, and therefore did not do so).

I forget going to the bank (I forget that I went to the bank)

Zandvoort and van EK (1972: 27) state that the verb "try" takes the infinitive with "to" when it means "to make an attempt or effort" and takes the gerund when meaning "to make an expedient" or "take up as in:

They tried to put wire netting all round the garden (they attempted to do this).

This sentence does not tell us whether they succeeded or not but:

They putting wire netting all round the garden.

This means that they put wire netting round the garden to see if it would solve their problem. We know that they succeeded in performing the main action.

For Thomson and Martinet (1960: 237), the verb "go on" meaning "continue" is normally followed by a gerund but it is used with the infinitive with "to" when it refers to a change of activity usually of verbs like "explain", "talk" and "tell", when the speaker continues talking about the same topic







christopherson and sandved (1970: 135) indicate that the two forms can be distinguished in terms of the function they perform. The gerund can function as a nominal, while the present participle function as a modifier. Compare these two constructions:

A sleeping dog.

A sleeping room.

The “sleeping” in isolation, does not reveal the difference in meaning in both constructions. The meaning can be restated by a corresponding relative clause which comes to modify the noun head. So, for the first, it can be expressed as “a dog which is sleeping”. The second can not be expressed in the same way for it unsatisfactorily may mean “a room which is sleeping”. However, it simply means “a room for sleeping”.

In addition to function, they can be distinguished by the use of the hyphen between the gerund and the noun. In this respect, zandvoort and van Ek (1962: 45) note that the gerund is used to form compounds by being combined with the noun that follows, as in: a sewing – machine = a machine for sewing clothes.

Moreover, spankie (1987: 147) points out that sometimes there may be some compounds without a hyphen but they still bear the gerundial peculiarity, such as:

a wedding ring.

a travelling suit.

On the contrary, long and long (1971: 195) state that in some compounds, the gerund and the present participle might be applied. Consider the following:

A singing teacher.

This can be analysed as:

A teacher who sings.

A teacher whose profession is singing.

Likewise, an example like:

A washing – machine.

Can be paraphrased in favour of the gerund and the present participle as well. Thus, as a gerund, it may mean “a machine for clothes washing”, with the “machine” merely as an instrument. And as a present participle, it means as “a machine that washes clothes” with the “machine” as the active agent in the washing (Ibid: 196). The very well-known example can be added to show confusion of the usage of both constructions.



interpretation, thus, may either be a gerund having the meaning of “I like the dancing of hers” or a present participle meaning “I like her when she is performing a dance”.

### Bare Infinitive or Present Participle

The present participle occurs in constructions where a choice is indispensable in contrast to the bare infinitive form. In a sentence like:

I saw him \_\_\_\_\_ the road

The choice is affected by certain restriction. Alexander et al, (1975: 122) indicate that the bare infinitive is preferred when emphasis is on completed act, while the present participle is used when emphasis is on the action in progress.

Eckersley and Eckersley (1960: 239) refer to that the bare infinitive and present participle meet when both follow as object in verb patterns like SVO. Hence Eckersley and Eckersley agree with kruisinga (1931: 248) in adopting a different position from the view suggested by Alexander et al. They attribute the justification behind the choice of either forms to a rule which reveals that verbs of “sensation” or “perception” like “feel, hear, notice, see, watch, etc” take the bare infinitive form if they are used to express a mental activity or perception. They take the present participle if they refer to sensation rather than a mental activity; in this case, they take a durative form.

Close (1976: 137) deems the rule just mentioned above in a way that the choice is affected by the “aspect”. The use of the bare infinitive, i.e., non-progressive implies completion of the action, whereas the use of the present participle or progressive implies incompleteness of the action. Consider the difference in the use of both:

I saw him walk across the road.

I saw him walking across the road.

Where the first means that he was seen completing the act of walking from one side to the other, the second reveals that he was seen in the act of walking without continuous watching till the end of act; it is not known whether he got the other side or not. Another example is:

I heard Mary sing a song.

I heard Mary singing a song. (Drummond, 1997: 394).

The first means “I heard the whole song from beginning to end”, while the other means “I heard Mary’s voice while she was singing”. The second sentence can be interpreted as that “she started singing before I heard her and went on after me.”

Quirk et al, (1985: 835) put somewhat a different interpretation for the following example:

I heard the dog bark.

I heard the dog barking.

The first expresses one sound of bark where as the second refers to a chain or continuity of bark sounds.

Moreover, kruisinga (1931: 248) notes that verbs of “experience” like “find” and “have” can be followed by either forms. The bare infinitive expresses the idea of causation, while the present participle denotes the idea of appeal. Let’s consider the following.

I found the language present little difficulty.

I found the student reading.

Close (1976: 38) adds that with the verbs of “experience”, the idea of “aspect” may dominate. The present participle can express the durative aspect, as in:

I should like to have her practise these exercises .

I should like to have her practising these exercises.

## **Chapter four**

### **Translability of non- forms of verb**

#### **4-1 introductory remarks:**

This chapter concerns itself to the discussion of the possibility of translating the non-infinitive forms into English. In this chapter , light will be shed in model of translation and its elements. For the participle side of this study, some Arabic narrative fictional text are selected. These selected texts have been translated by different translator.

#### **4-2 The model:**

a model for translation is always adopted or built to enable the translator to produce highly objective outcomes. Thus the model adopted in this study is that an adapted form of Reiss’s (2000) model. It is adapted to accord the needs of the study. The following diagram shows the model in its broader view

Linguistic components

ST

Extra-linguistic determinates

TT

Text Typology

Figure (1)

#### 4-2-1 Element of the model:

the discussion of the elements of the model adopted gives a conspicuous idea about the model to have cleaner idea, let's go to the diagram below:

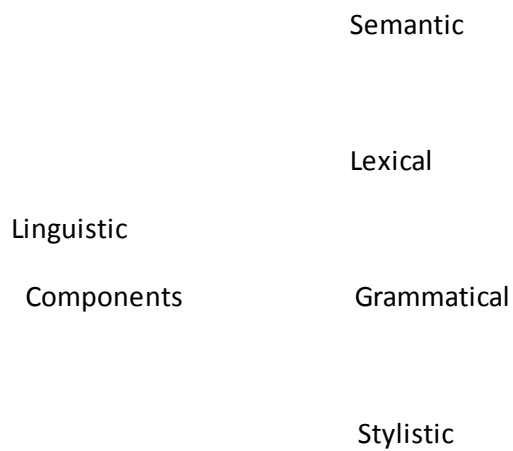


Figure (2)

Extra Linguistic determinates

Immediate

Subject

Time

Place factor

Speaker factor

Audience factor

Affective implication

Figure (3)

Text Typology

Content-focused

Form-focused

Appeal-focused

Figure (4)

after diagramming the elements of the model, it would be plausible to enter into a detailed description and analysis for these elements .

#### 4-2-1-1: linguistic components

The linguistic components refer to the language style in general. And this has to do with the equivalents in the target language. Reiss (2000:48) explains this idea by noting that it means examining in detail how the translation process has represented the linguistic peculiarities of the source language in the target language.

For Reiss, the linguistic components lie in four areas, namely, semantic, lexical, grammatical and stylistic. For the first component, she believes that the semantic component of a text is a critical factor in preserving the content and meaning of the original text, and, failure to recognize polysemous words and homonyms, the lack of congruencies between source and target language terms, misinterpretation and arbitrary additions or omission are the greatest source of dangers for the translator.

To determine semantic equivalence, the linguistic context must be examined, because this is where it can be seen most clearly what the author intends by what is said. As cited in Reiss (1bid:53), Koschmieder states that it is absolutely necessary to understand what is intended by the expression in the statement being translated, let's consider the following example:

All seem pendulous.

تبدو الاشياء كلها معلقة بالهواء

Typically, it is obvious that the word 'all' corresponds to the Arabic noun "الاشياء", the semantic potential of English and Arabic allows this usage.

In reference to the second components, viz, lexical, Reiss (1bid) states that the standard for the lexical component must be adequacy, A kind of mirror-image literal accuracy—ward for ward translation- so often demanded in the target language cannot serve as an objective criterion because the vocabularies of any two languages—with their structural and conceptual differences- simply cannot coincide completely, therefore it has been considered whether the components of the original text have been adequately carried over to the target language on the lexical level, this involves observing whether the translator has demonstrated competence in dealing with technical terminology and special idioms, metaphors, proverbs, etc, let us have a look on the following proverb for which a literal may be misleading:

Don't cry for the moon

This proverb may be translated literally, as:

لا تنادي القمر

Such a translation has nothing to do with the real message intended to be conveyed, to cope with, the functional equivalence may bridge a wide gap as, in

لا تنشد المستحيل

Turning now to the third component, the grammatical component of a source text must be governed by the criterion of 'correctness'. Due to the fact that the differences between the grammatical systems of the languages are frequently quite great, it is the morphology and syntax of the target language that clearly deserve priority unless there is some overriding factor either in the nature of text or some special circumstances. Otherwise, the grammatical correctness is satisfied if the translation conforms to usage of the target language and if the relevant semantic and stylistic aspects of the grammatical structure of the source language have been understood and adequately rendered. Friedrich –cited in Reiss, 1bid. 61.

A similarity of expression. consider the following example

The boys are playing in the park

Aziz, 1989,9      يلعب الاولاد في الحديقة العامة  
these two example are two stretches of utterances, each stretch is made up of one sentence. each of two sentences comprises one clause. in these two, then, the boundaries of the sentences and clause are identical.

In sum, it is important for the translator, if not absolutely essential, to be aware of the status and subtle overtones of grammatical components in the source language, as Lessing (cited in Reiss, 1bid:63) states that too meticulous a fidelity will make a translation awkwardly affected, because not everything that is natural in one language will be equally in another.

As regards the fourth component, viz, the stylistic, it is a must to decide whether the text in the target language exhibits complete correspondence (Reiss, 1bid:63). In this connection, "style" is not understood in the narrow sense assumed by Kloepfer (cited in Maier, 2000 :161) when he states that a translation is literary only if it has style, but in the modern or more comprehensive understanding of the concept that views styles as referring to a choice among the elements and forms available in the language, Again with Reiss( 2000:63), she goes on stating that of primary interest here is whether the translation give due consideration to the differences between colloquial standard or formal usage observed in the original, and whether the difference between the language levels in the two languages are actually comparable. It is also important to stress at a point that it should be determined whether the translation takes into account the stylistic components of the source text with regard to standard, individual, and contemporary usage, and whether particular stylistic aspects the author's creative expression deviate from normal language usage, let's have a look on how the following example can be differently translated in accordance with different styles:

Marlborough was expert in the art of so disposing his troops as to impose upon the enemy the conditions of fighting which he himself preferred.



a. كان ماليرة بارعا في فن تنظيم جنوده بشكل يفرض على العدو شروط القتال التي يفضيها.

b. كان ماليرة بارعا في فن التعيينة.

(Khuloussi, 1982, 227)

#### 4.2.1.2 Extra – linguistic determinants

According to Riss (1bid :67) extra-linguistic determinates include a broad range of extra-linguistic factors enabling the author to make specific choices among the variety of means available in this mother language which would not only be intelligible to the reader or hearer , but under certain circumstances would even permit him to ignore certain linguistic means and still be understood by member of his language group-since all of these factors have an influence on the linguistic form of the text , they are designated as such .

Moulin ( cited in Maier ,2000:149) concerns himself with problem of extra-linguistics determinants , he believes that for linguistic science , the situation comprises all the geographical , historical and cultural data that are not always verbally expressed ,and yet necessary for a full translation today does not mean simply observing the structural and linguistic meaning of the text , it is lexical and stylistic content , but rather the whole meaning of the statement , including its environment ,century , culture and if necessary the whole civilization which produce it .

In her model, Riss (2000.67) lists seven determinants:

They are: immediate situation, subject matter, time factor, place factor, speaker factor, audience factor and affective implication.

Extra-linguistic factor may on occasion permit an author to reduce to a minimum the linguistic forms of the message to be conveyed, because the hearer or reader will be able to supply the rest of the situation in his own language. this has to do with the immediate context and not an entire work , examples would interjection , allusion , shortened colloquial expressions, etc , such expression are found very frequently in the volatile dialogues of plays and novels . such texts leave translators quite helpless unless they are able to imagine themselves

“ in the situation “ of speaker . only then can they be in a position to find an optimal equivalent in the target language that will enable the reader of the translation to understand both the words and their context .

The other factor is the subject matter which is an influential factor affecting the linguistic form of not only the original but also of its translation , every text requires that the translator be sufficiently familiar with its field be able to construct a lexically adequate version in the target language (1bid:70) likewise, Brang ( cited in Riss ,1bid:70) notes that all goes to show that the subject matter of a text must be understood and duly recognized by the translator , still the subject-related determinants are in the broadest sense primarily on the lexical level in the target

language, for example, a translation of technical text may have a strong component of foreign loan words, otherwise, it may run the risk of appearing unprofessional.

The time factor, then, usually becomes relevant if the language of a text is intimately associated with a particular period.

It naturally has an effect on translation decision, in translating old texts, the selection of words, antiquated morphological or syntactical forms, the choice of particular figures of speech, etc., should accord as closely as possible to the usage of the source text, also, the translation of an 18th – century text should essentially be distinguishable from the translation of a 20th century text (Reiss, 2000:71). Besides, Wirl (cited in Reiss, 1bid :73) argues that the familiar phenomenon of aging translation is operative. This is the reason why the old classics of world literature need to be translated a new form time to time. He adds that advances in historical, philological and text critical can other traditionally accepted understandings of a literary or poetical work as well as affect the overall import and specific details for text.

Another determinant is the place factor, this factor can present the translator with even greater difficulties as a determinant than the time factor, place factors include primarily all the facts and characteristics of the country and culture of the source language, and further also any associated of the scene where the action described take place. It is especially difficult to translate into a target language lacking similar kinds of places, attempting to describe things which are beyond the range of its speaker, imagination (Gasset, cited in Reiss, 1bid)

On the other hand, speaker determinants means primarily those elements which affect the language of the author himself or of his certain as extra-linguistic factors, these factors appear in many ways on the lexical, grammatical and stylistic levels.

The extent to which they should be considered in translating depend on the particular type of text represented, an example is in appeal-focused text-which will be discussed in a following item – a particular extra –linguistic, nonliterary purpose affects the vocabulary and style of the author (Reiss, 1bid:82)

Turning to another determinant, namely, the audience determinant, it is important to make clear what the term “audience” means, the “audience” is always the reader or hearer of the text in the source language, here, it is considered as determinant only what the author of the original had in mind for his reader when forming the original text as he did in the source language, therefore, the whole social and cultural context is important. The audience factor is apparent in the common idiomatic expression, quotation, proverbial allusions and metaphor, etc, of the source language. The amount of consideration that audience-related factors depends on the type of text (1bid:78).

As regard the last determinants which is the affective implication, Mounin (cited in Maier, 2000:159) notes that emotional determinants affect primarily lexical and stylistic matter, but they extend also to the grammatical level of the source language version, he adds that in a

language, there are affective values, means of expression, affective elements of thought, an affective character of means of expression; an affective syntax, and the like, crucially, the translator is expected to try hard to make these implications appropriately echoed in the target language.

#### 4.2.1.3 Text Typology

A typology of text plays a respective role in the translation process because for the translator must realize what kind of text he is translating. In the discussion of the elements of the model, it is important to highly the types of text for they have the crucial part in deciding the method of translation.

Before processing to the analysis of Reiss's taxonomy of text typology, it seems, then plausible to make a reference to other taxonomies.

Fold taxonomy; she distinguishes 1) technical scientific texts, where characteristically a knowledge of technical facts takes precedence over linguistic proficiency;

2) philosophical text, where the intellectual ability of the translator to grasp intuitively the dimension of the author's conceptual world is more important than the details of terminology;

and 3) literary texts, where not only matters of content, but also of artistic form must be mastered and recreated in the target language.

On the other hand, Brang (cited in Reiss, 1981:19) presents another three-fold analysis of textual types, he recognizes 1) news and reviews, business and official documents, and scientific literary texts.

Clearer and more comprehensive than other taxonomies, Reiss (1981:27) puts her analysis using different terminology. She distinguishes three types of text;

1) content-focused;

2) form-focused;

3) appeal-focused texts.

As it is pointed out previously that the type of text is important in deciding the method of translation, it would be practically necessary here to enter into a brief description of each type of Reiss's.

##### 4.2.1.3.1 the content text

As the term suggests, attention is focused on the content of an idea and forms of expression are considered only for their relevance to a clear presentation of the content, and, in such texts, the relationship of form is always subordinate to that of content, the sole purpose of form is to give adequate expression to content (Wirl (cited in Reiss, 1981:29)

Reiss (1bid:28), on the other hand, claims that when a distinction is drawn between the content-focused and form-focused texts—which will be treated in the following item, one could argue that this does not imply that content-focused texts do not have a form. Just as there can be no form of communication without some kind of content, thus, in dealing with content-focused texts, it should be remembered that since content and form are inextricably interrelated, how a thought is expressed is hardly less important than what is expressed.

Typically in the principle kinds of text in the content-focused type would include press release and comments, news reports, operating instructions, direction for use, patent specifications, commercial correspondence, operating instructions, official document, treaties, etc.

#### 4.2.1.3.2 the form-focused text

Before setting out explaining this type, it is inevitable important to clear up the concept of “form”.

Reiss (1bid:31) states that “form” is concerned with “how” an author expresses himself, as distinct from “content” which deals with “what” the author says, in form-focused text, the author makes of formal elements, whether consciously or unconsciously, for a specific esthetic effect, these formal elements, do not simply exercise an influence over the subject matter, but go beyond this to contribute special artistic expressions, she also claims that is contextually distinctive and can be reproduced in the target language only by some analogue form of expression, therefore, the expressive function of language, which is primary in form-focused texts, must find an analogous form in the translation to create a corresponding impression so that the translation can be a true equivalent.

Nida (1964:94) on the other hand, notes that comparative and figurative manner of speaking, proverbs and metaphor should all be observed, the meter and its esthetic should also be noted. He, then, concludes, that the chief requirement is to achieve a similar esthetic effect. This can be done by creating equivalents through new forms.

The form-focused text includes all text based on formal literary principles, and therefore, all texts which express more than they state, where figures of speech and style serve to achieve an esthetic purpose (Reiss, 2000:34). When this is the case the form-focused texts include literary prose (essays, biographies, etc) imaginative prose (anecdotes, short stories, romances, etc, and poetry in all its forms. While these forms all serve to convey some content, they also have their individual character. If the original author's external or inner forms are not preserved in translation, whether in their poetic norms, their style, or their artistic structure, the necessity for precise identity of content, characteristic of the content-focused type of text, because relatively second to the demands for similarity of form and for an equivalence of esthetic effect.

#### 4.2.1.3.3 The Appeal-focused text

This type of text does not convey certain information in a linguistic form ; it is characterized by presenting information with a particular perspective , an explicit purpose , involving a non-linguistic consequence, hence ,the linguistic form of any given information content in appeal-focused text is secondary to achieving the non-linguistic purpose of its message ,it should provoke a particular reaction on the part of hearer or reader .

An example would be a commercial advertisement can be simply an enticement without offering any information or intending to stimulate any esthetic impression (1bid:38)

Like other types , the appeal-focused text includes all texts in which the element of appeal is dominated ,with advertising ,publicity ,preaching ,propaganda , polemic , demagoguery , etc.

Providing either the purpose or linguistic means of expression, Gallez (cited in Reiss ,1bid :39) posits that both the form and the content of commercial advertising are at one in their overall goal of provoking reaction on the part of the consumer .He, then believes that the text will lose its specific character in translation if an analogous form in the target language will not produce a comparable effect, Blixen (cited in Reiss ,1bid:41) confirms Gallez's indication nothing that in translating appeal-focused text , it is essential that in the target language the same effect be achieved as the original in the source language , this means the translator has to depart more from the content and the form of the original than the other type of text.

In short ,Reiss (1bid:42) sums up her own view about the translation of these three textual types when she states that content-focused texts require fidelity in reproducing every details in the content in the original fidelity in form-focused texts require a similarity in formal principles and the preservation of the esthetic effect of the original correspondingly in appeal-focused texts , it is fidelity to the original means achieving the result intended by the author , preserving the appeal inherent in the text .

Now having reviewed the three textual types ,it can be concluded that only the type of text can effectively decide what method of translation to be adopted , in this discussion , Reiss (1bid:17) claims what is the type of text which decides the approach of translator ;the type of text is the primary factor influencing the translator's choice of a proper translation method ,Hatem and Mason (1997:129) takes part in the discussion nothing that in the actual process of the text translation , the kind of text generally determines the order in which the linguistic elements should be consideration .

Consequently , having tackled this section which is devoted to the discussion text typology it is time to move to another part .

In the light of what has been mentioned from the very beginning of this chapter up to this point , a reference was repeatedly made to the concept of equivalent , it is to a large extent , needed to clear up matter which was so far taken for granted that the equivalent is viewed as the prior criterion for good translation , the following section concern itself to such a discussion .

#### 4.3 Translation Equivalent

When Maier (2000:151) puts her definition to translating, she makes a mention to the concepts of equivalence. For her, translating means finding equivalents for source text item in the target language, thus, it has become inevitable to make satisfactory apprehension for the concept.

Catford (1965:27) defines translation equivalent as an empirical phenomenon discovered by comparing the source language and target language text, and he adds, it occurs when the source language and target language texts or item are related to the same features of substance.

In line with the equivalent-based approaches, the remarkable function of equivalence is that it has served as a descriptive and prescriptive category for defining the relationship between source and target texts, its importance for translation as well revealed through Reiss's indication when nothing that the translation is considered good if it achieves optimum equivalent, i.e., considering the linguistic and situational context, the linguistic and stylistic level and the intention of the author. She defined equivalence in terms of texts and text elements being of equal value. It seems that equal value mostly refers to correct language use in target culture situation. Furthermore, she adds that the translator is able to choose the appropriate word or phrase by applying the process-governing rules; the determination of text type and analysis of the linguistic and extra-linguistic and extra-linguistic determinant (Reiss, 1971:15).

To proceed, Nida (1964:159), in this regard, distinguishes two types of equivalence; formal and dynamic. The former focuses attention on the message itself in both form and content. This means that the translator is concerned with such correspondence.

As poetry, sentence to sentence, and concept to concept, for Nida, this type of translation is called "a gloss translation" which aims at allowing the reader to understand as much of the source language context as possible. The latter, i.e., the dynamic equivalence, is based on the principles of equivalent effect which is concerned with the relationship between receiver and message.

Adding to what Nida stated, House (cited in Newmark:1988:67) puts another type of equivalence viz, the functional equivalence as she defined translation as replacement of text in the source language by a semantically and programmatically equivalent text in the target language, i.e., at functional equivalence on the text level.

Additionally, she ends her argument claiming that functional equivalence serves as yardstick for an appropriate translation.

Proposing other types for equivalence that confirm House's indication, Neubert (cited in Bassnett, 1991:27) notes that the translation equivalence must be considered as a semantic category, comprising a syntactic, semantic and pragmatic component arranged in a

hierarchical relationship, where semantic equivalence, and pragmatic equivalence conditions and modifies the other elements.

A suitable example for house's functional equivalence can be the following.

Never spurs a willing horse.

A literal translation give erroneous results, functional equivalent may provide the contrivance by which the target text will be more acceptable, here "a willing horse"

Is a person who works well and without complaint, this can be functionally rendered as

لا تحت عاملا مجتهدا .

Furthermore, Popovic (cited in Bassnett, 1980:25) adds more types of equivalence, he distinguishes,

- 1) linguistic equivalent, where there homogeneity on the linguistic level of source and target language texts;
- 2) paradigmatic equivalence where there is equivalence the elements of paradigmatic expression axis;
- 3) stylistic equivalent where there is functional equivalence of elements in the both original and translation; and
- 4) textual or systematic equivalence where this equivalence of form and shape

the Popovic's fourth type of equivalence is also defined by Catford (1965:27) he stated that it is any target language form which is observed to be equivalent to a given source language form in a sentence like:

Ali bought a new car

The portions that are changed in the source language text and their counterparts in the target text are thus found to be translation equivalence, this not true for all text, for instance Arabic uses the grammatical category "the dual" where English may express that the lexical item "two" which can serve as an equivalence of the dual if necessary, to illustrate this, let's imagine the following example where the context is fully evident:

His eyes were black

But in some cases, the context can not solve the problem, consider the following:

The (two) boys went to school .

ذهب الاولاد الى المدرسة

(1 bid:59)

and may more problematic in :

he went to school accompanied by his brothers.

رافقه اخواه ( اخوته ) الى المدرسة

(1bid)

#### 4.4 Rendering the construction of non-finite forms:

the translation of Arabic non-finite forms has special significance due to their unlimited occurrence. The significance stems from the fact that these forms are problematic to the extent that sometimes they may be render into other forms and for some construction do not have counterparts in English.

As will became clearer in the course of the following discussion , the structure of the non-finite forms will be exemplified and discussed in accordance with the data called.

##### 4.4.1 Rendering the infinitive with the particle.

As mentioned ,the infinitive with particle is formed on the basic of five infinitival particles.

##### 4.4.1.1 أن + imperfect / perfect.

The verb after this particle in nearly always in the imperfect subjective .consider the following:

وحاول حسين ان يتذكر الصباح القريب بتفاصيله

“Hussein tried to recall the details of this morning’s events.”

(Awad, 1985:16, L:4)

it is to be expected on the basis of the target text , the construction of “to +imperfect” is the widely-used counterpart of the Arabic infinitival construction “أن + imperfect ’. Here, the translator face on difficulty to provide such a counterpart as it is the only infinitival construction in English .and following word-to-word translation , he could manage to preserve the linguistic elements of the source text.

The use of the imperfect after the particle not only indicates the present, but also the future, considers the following:

"وانما يكون اصغر منها حجما ، وان يعرف باسم "الفلك"



(Nainiy, 1948:10, L3)

“But in much reduced dimension, and shall be known as the “Ark”.”

(1bid:1952:11, L: 21)

According, the infinitival with particle has been rendered into a bare infinitive construction. syntactically, this construction is a passivized infinitival . this counterpart is not always adopted , the construction may also be rendered into “to be know “, which is the usual ways of rendering passivized infinitival constructions.

On the other hand, the particle “ان” may also be followed by perfect verb, take this example:

ودامت الحال لبضعة اجيال خلت اذ حدث ان توفي احد التسعة وحدث على اثر وفاته ان جاء الفلك رجل غريب وطلب ان يقبل  
كواحد من الجماعة .

(1bid, 1948:16, L:2)

a few generations ago when once of the nine had just passed away , a stronger came to the gates and asked to be admitted into the community.

(1bid, 1952:18, L13)

as seems form the example ,the translator rendered the infinitival construction "ان + perfect into a verb the simple past tense , regardless the syntactic equivalent , the past tense it is the frequent counterpart of the above construction.

One could argue that translation of the infinitival constructions differs due to the change in the verb being perfect or imperfect .

Sometimes, the same constructions is rendered in another way , consider the following:

اما هذه فما ان رأتنا حتى توارت عن الباب كاننا وحوش نروم التهامها

(Mohfouz, 1949:36, L: 22)

“But this girl , no sooner did she set her eyes on us than she fled from us as though we were monsters who would devour.”

Following the semantic translation method, the translator could not preserved the syntactic features of the source text, the text suggests that the a construction “sooner did she set her eyes on us “ is counterpart for the infinitival construction. The lack of the theoretical background of the non-finite forms led to this translation , the particle "أن" is used , here , for emphasis and the construction can be semantically and semantically , understood as ما + perfect .here أن is syntactically void (cf.2.2.1

As soon as this girl saws us, she fled away of the door as though we were monsters who would devour her.

In regard to negation, the following example sheds lights on how to render a negated infinitival construction:

لا استطيع ان اتصور

(Mohfouz, 1949:6, L17)

I can't image

(Awad, 1985:16, L: 3)

it seems that the target text corresponds the source text. The counterpart provided the infinitival construction is formally a bare infinitive and semantically an infinitive with "to". In this example, the particle "أن" is implied in the meaning of the model.

Likewise, when the negation particle "لا" occurs between the infinitival particle "ان" and its verb, the same counterpart is used; let's have a look on the following example:

يحز في نفسي الا اجد فراغا للحنن عليك سيدي وفقيدي

(Mohfouz, 1949:57, L:2)

“my dead husband and master , it gives me that I do not have been time to mourn for you .”

(Awad, 1985:58, L: 14)

according to the above example it can be concluded that when the negation particle intervenes between the infinitival particle "ان" and it is verb or occurs before the finite verb which preceded the infinitival construction , in both case , the two construction have the same counterpart ,viz, modal+not+verb.

(cf.2.2.1)

turning now to the semantic implication of the English infinitive with “to” and the gerund, this

Absolutely has an influence in translation, the two forms are interrelated due to the function they performed consider the following:

اعذريني ان سالتك :ألم تستطيعي النوم

(Jabra,1979: 14 , L:5 )

“Forgive me for asking could not you get to sleep”

Hayder and Allen , (1985:14 , L : 3)

In this example , there are two non finite forms, seems that the target text semantically corresponds the source text, the translator rendered the infinitival construction into gerund and also rendered the gerund into an infinitive with 'to' , this is always true since there are a number of restriction for rendering these two forms , the translator behaves so because of the finite verb cf.3. generally the verb "forgive" is followed by v+ing while the second forms can be rendered into:

Could not you sleep ?

The idea of the finite verb is supported by the following example:

" . فدعا الرجل الام الى مشاركتهم الطعام "

(Mahfouz;1949 , L:21 )

"The man asked the mother to share their meal ."

(Awad , 1985:16 , L: 9 )

It is clear that all the elements of the source text are realized in the target text , the translator could profoundly provide a corresponding text for the source one , in reference of the verbal into infinitive with 'to' in virtue of the finite verb used 'asked'

Which has to be followed by an infinitive . to mislead the target reader ,this verbal noun can possibly be rendered into 'sharing' if it was preceded by the preposition 'for' , this form conveys a different message as compared with the former . cf .2.5.2 3.5.1

Another example which shows how the translator makes a shift in form .consider the following

"ولما ان انتهى الدرس خطرت له فكرة فصمم على تنفيذها دون تردد"

( Mahfouz ,1949:63 , L: 26 )

"when the lesson was over , an idea occurred to him . he rose up ,determined and unflinching to put it into effect ."

(Awad ,1985:80,L:11)

By looking at the target text, the translator ,following the semantic method ,could manage to provide a semantic equivalence having not at eye open on the syntactic equivalence, this rendering may be preferable with content-focused text since the translator pay less attention to the one-to-one syntactic equivalence , besides, the target text involves a class-shift as the verb 'انتهى' has been rendered into an adjective 'over'

4.4.1.2 ان +NP+VP

For Arabic particle is followed by a nominal sentence ,this means that there are always an intervening noun phrase between the particle and the verb . in translation , this particle has no specific counterpart and is always rendered implied in another construction in the target text , consider the following

اظن اني اعرف السر

(Jabra ,1979:20 , L:17 )

“I think I know the secret .”

(Hayder and Allen ,1985:23, L: 2)

In the above example it seem clear that the target text corresponds the source text as translator use ward-to-ward method of translation . corresponding the particle "ان" there is no noticable refference to the particle in the target text unless it is understood as implied in the construction ‘I know ‘. Lets see the following example

وايقنت بانها اعجز من ان تحتمل المكث الى جانب امها

( Mahfouz , 1949:126 , L:21 )

She realize that she could not bear to stay with her mother .

(Awad ,1985:146,L: 30 )

Doubtlessly , the equivalence provided through the target text is is mor preferable that provided in the previous example , the use of a relative clause helps preserve the syntactic elements of the source text.

Specifically speaking the construction of أن plus the noun phrase can be desirably rendered into a relative clause , through the use of this counterpart , the translator could successfully provide a correspondent target text.

#### 4.4.1.3 ما + perfect / imperfect

in Arabic this particle is followed by a perfect or imperfect verb while , in English , it is followed by a noun phrase , the first-pointed counterpart of this particle in Eglish is the ward ‘what’

consider the following

ما عرفته قبل يومين وما عرفته اليوم ليس واحدا

(Jabra ,1979:15, L: 4)

“What you know two days ago and what you know today are not the same thing”

(Hyader and Allen ,1985:18,L:9)

As it is clear that the word which the counterpart for the particle is followed by the noun phrase 'you know' following literal method, the translator could preserve all the linguistic elements of the source text.

In the light of this argument, it can be claimed that this counterpart can aptly be rendered through the use of literal translation method.

In addition to this use, the particle ما sometimes co-occurs in combination with the perfect verb "دام" when this is the case, the concept "as long as" is deemed another counterpart. This indication can be supported by the following:

ما دمنا نحمل التجربة كالمرض طي الاهداب

As long as we have to carry that the translator managed to preserve the construction of ما, when the particle co-occurs with "دام" it always commences a relative clause.

A class-shift may be clear in the following example where the translator renders the construction of "ما" + verb into a noun, consider the following:

مردادو فاه للمرة الاولى في سبع سنوات ولشدة دهشتنا لوما ابتهجنا عندما فتح

(Naimy, 1948:50,L:9)

"And great were our astonishment and joy when for the first time in seven years he opened his mouth and spoke."

(1bid:1952: 43,L:7)

Semantically, it seems that target text corresponds the source text, but, as regards the semantic elements there is a wide gap between the two text verbs "دهشنا" and "ابتهجنا" into noun as "astonishment" and "joy" respectively.

The translator managed to preserve the semantic element of the source text, but some errors can be noticed in the syntactic level.

On the basis of this argument, one can argue that such rendering may be desirable for a translation of content-focused text.

It can be said that the counterparts suggested in the previous two examples, the particle "ما", here, is void to the extent that it never influences meaning if neglected, as in

لشد ما دهشنا وابتهجنا

In order to put the above argument into effect, an alternative target text might be suggested

We were greatly astonished and pleased when, for the first time in seven years, Mirdad opened his mouth and spoke.

#### 4.4.1.4 كي + imperfect

As it is pointed out , the infinitival construction which included "كي" + imperfect often occurs as an object of the preposition "ل", implici or explicit . according to Kharma (1983:48) , the infinitival particles "كي" and "ل" can be rendered into an infinitive with "to" . this indication can be embodied in the following example.

لا بد من العرق كي نعيش

(Mahfouz , 1949:240,L:14 )

We all to sweat in order to live

(Awad ,1985:267.L:19 )

It seems that the text has been rendered literally or , as newmark 1982 76 believes , communicationively . though the translator managed to provide a correspondent text but some errors are still recognized , the target text involves intra-system shift which is represented by the use of the pronoun "we" which refers to plural . it also involves a semantic shift , the construction "لا بد" has been rendered into 'we all have to ' .

As regards the counterpart of the particle "كي" it can be rendered into "in order to " in the case of "كي" or "لكي" and into "to" in the sense of "ل" .consider the following example.

الا انه رحب بالتسليم عليه ليعلن صداقته بهذا الطالب القديم امام الطلبة المستجدين

(Mohfouz, 1949:245,L:12)

yet , he warmly welcomed a conversation with him to show the other freshman his friendship with upperclassman

(Awad : 1985:283;L:25)

it seems that the infinitival construction "to show" is a correspondence equivalent of the Arabic infinitive "ليعلن" it also seems that the target text corresponds the source text , the translator lexicalizes some words in the target texts.

Semantically , one of the errors that are realized in the target text is the rendering of the words "بالتسليم عليه" into " a conversation with him " the semantic relationship between the two concepts is that of part-to-whole ; in a sense that the potential semantic implication reveals that "تسليم" "to say hello " or " greet" is a part of a conversation .moreover , the word "upperclassman" dos not exactly corresponds the word "القديم" , the contextual meaning of this word in the source text is "المتقدم" which can be rendered into "senior" , the letter counterpart can be justified that it is used in rank-order situation , to validate this argument , an alternative translation suggested:

Yet , he warmly welcome to greet him to show the other freshman his friendship with this senior student.

It is worth noting that the suggest translation flows more fluent than the one criticized , and to leave the semantic method and rendered it communicatively , the target text will be:

Yet , he preferred greeting him to show the freshman his friendship with the senior .

On the other hand , the translation of negated construction of the particle "كي" can be tacked through negating the counterpart suggested in the first example .

Let's have a look on the following:

ذلك لانني ربما ما عدت أبه ان يفهمني الشخص الاخر لكي لا يطالبني بفهمه

(Jabra, 1979:44,L:21)

perhaps I no longer care whether people understand me or not ; then least they will not expect to understand them.

(Hyadar and Allen, 1985:24, L: 9)

on the basis of the target text , it can be argue that the target reader is totally misled ,this judgment is supported by the idea that the infinitive with "two" corresponds the infinitive with "كي" construction in terms of both form and function.

Leaving a side the thorny issue of whether the translation has preserved the linguistic elements of the source text and whether the target text involves shifts of different kind , the major concern in this example is the counterpart of "كي" construction ,the target text has a number of errors which require more effect to tackle them.

For the purpose of having a reader well familiarized with the structure and effect of the source text and providing a counterpart for the construction under study ,the following alternative translation is suggested:

That perhaps I no longer care for the other to understand me, in order to ask me to understand.

4.4.1.5 لو +perfect/imperfect:

As mentioned, this particle is considered infinitival if it co-occurs, in the optative case, with the verb "ود", "to wish", "to love", "to like", etc.

The frequent counterpart of this construction is

"wish +to+ verb (perfect/implied) . let's consider the following :

فودت لو تحذره من ان يستدرجه احد الى الزواج

(Mohfouz,1949:196,L:15)

" she wish to put him on his gourd against the snares of marring.

(Awad,1985:220,L:14)

it is evident the translator could manage to preserve the infinitival construction, though some errors can be noticed in other parts of the text, it is to be noted that the translator provided a functional equivalence for the text which led to the shift that are involved in the text.

One of the errors is the use of cross-association; he rendered the verb "تحذره" into "put him on his guard". This idiomatic use is not necessary due to the availability of lexical counterparts.

Besides, in reference to the semantic implication of the target text, the translator gives a negative idea about the concepts "الزواج"; "marriage", he equates the idea of "marriage" with "snares". Doubtlessly, the prior role of the functional equivalence is to create an effect on the target language, reader, but sometime a literal translation is needed to show the elements of the source text. it might be useful to provide a suggested translation:

"She wished to warn him against being persuaded in marriage"

to proceed, another point relevant to the discussion of the counterpart of "لو" is followed by perfect verb,

this argument can be supported by the following example:

"وتتمنى لو اسمها اهلها رحمة"

(Salih,1968:36,L:11)

she wished that her parents named her Rahma .

(Johanson-Davidies,1968:52,L:14)

it seems that the target text corresponds the source text both semantically and structurally, what can be surmised from the two examples is that rendering of "لو" construction differs and is connected to the perfect / imperfect distinction.



On the hand , passivized construction of this particle have a pasivized infinitive with “to” construction let’s consider the following example

ودت ام حسين لو تدعى الى القصر

(Mohfouz,1949:31,L:5)

Hussein’s mother wished to be invited to the palace

(Awad,1985:38,L:25)

it seems that translator followed the literal translation method. the infinitival construction of the source text seems to corresponds that in the target text .this correspondence can be ascribed to that the lexical feature of both texts are literally equivalent.

To create the same effect on the target reader ,the translation sometimes tends to render the source text in a lesser number of words and phrases. This idea can be supported by the following example:

"اود لو اغمض عيني ثم افتحها فاجدها في بيت زوجها"

(Mohfouz,1949:222,L:8)

I wish to see her married

(Awad,1985:245,L:23)

this example reveals that the target text does not corresponds the source text formally .as the translator used the functional equivalence to semantically rendered the source text ,he departed form the form of the source text to the target text ,when this is the case ,the translator may resort to lexicalization.

#### 4.4.2 Rendering the infinitive without particle :

To translate the infinitive without particle construction, it to remember that there is an implied particle "ان" before the verb.

##### 4.4.2.1 حيث +perfect /implied:

This word with its verb function as accusative of place, when this is the case, the frequent counterpart is the word “where” .the example provided show that the translation of this word with the verb does not confine only to this counterpart ,to validate this argument ,let’s consider the following:

لم يتوهم انها تغلغت في قلبه حيث استكنت بهية

(Mohfouz, 1949:274, L:11)

“He did not delude himself that she penetrated his heart As Bahia Did.”

(Awad, 1985:304, L: 18)

Semantically, the target text corresponds the source text ,but formally ,it seems that the infinitival construction has been implicitly rendered in the meaning of the relative clause ,this rendering may be suitable for translating a content-focused text than the form focused text.

It can be argued that the translator manage to preserve the source text ,but still there are errors among which is dropping the infinitival construction .

Another rendering can be provided by the following example:

" . فحملته الام السلام والشكر ، وذهب الخادم من حيث اتى "

(Mohfouz, 1949:45, L: 2)

the mother sent the servant back with greeting and thanks.

(Awad, 1985:59, L: 27)

in order to make the target text flows more smoothly ,the translator used the free translation in order to create an effect on the target reader .

so far ,it can be argued that the two examples did not reveal a clear counterpart to be adopted in translation this construction ,what can be come up with is that rendering this partide is greatly dependent on other in the text.

#### 4.4.2.2 حتى +perfect /imperfect:

The translation of particle "حتى" varies according to the function it fulfils .generally ,when it indicates the result of the act , it may be rendered into “till” ,but when showing the intention of the agent , it is supposed to have an equivalent expression like “in order to “ ,”to” , “therefore” ,or the whole construction .this can be exemplified in the following:

"فما وافت الساعة الرابعة حتى تدفقت جماعات الموظفين حتى سدوا عطفة نصر الله سدا"

(Mohfouz, 1949:13, L:26)

“No sooner had the hour struck four than large groups of government employees filled the blind alley until they blocked it”

(Awad, 1985:24, L:13)

it is evident that the target text includes three non-finite forms represented by " حتى " ، "ماوافت" ، "حتى سدوا" ,the first form was treated with in the first section of this chapter.

It seems that the translator could manage different counterparts for the same particle .the first has been rendered into “than” and the other into “until” this different rendering can be attributed to certain factors. The first particle is viewed as void ;it has zero indication ,therefore ,it has not been counterpart as just mentioned ,this can made clearer when the target text is understood as follows;

فما وافقت الساعة الرابعة ، تدفقت جماعات الموظفين

This argument led to the decision that the particle "حتى" is considered a filler when it commences a sentence, in the case of the above example , it has been preceded by an adverb of time and not an act.

In relation to the second particle in the above example, it indicates the consequence of the action done by the agent, viz “government employees”

To make it possible for the target text to be closer more correspondents to the source text, another target text can be suggested.

No sooner had the hour struck four; large groups of government employees filled the blind alley until they blocked it.

It seems to be a matter of must to make a mention to the infinitival particle "ما" though discussed previously, since this particle indicates an accusative of time , it can be rendered into rather counterparts than “no sooner had “ .when this is the case , it can be rendered into “as” , “when” ,etc. look how this argument can be embodied in the following alternative translation.

When the hour struck four, large .....

As the hour struck four, large .....

In this case, to provide an equivalent counterparts for the infinitival construction that includes the particle "ما" or "حتى", the translator seems to face no difficulty in achieving this task due to the availability of numerous counterparts and the inability to provide them may be attributed to the lack of information.

#### 4.4.2.3 اذن + imperfect :

In Arabic, this word has very low frequency of occurrence. This word with the following imperfect form an infinitival construction, it can be rendered into “then” let’s consider the following:

اذن اطلق لجيتي

(Jabra, 1979:79, L: 11)

Then, I shall grow a beard.

It is clear that the translator, using word-to-word translator, could manage to provide a correspondent target text and preserved the semantic and syntactic features of the source text.

This word is different from other infinitival words and particle; there is an intervening noun phrase between the word and the verb.

In the case of question , the verb after "اذن" is into present particle form . it may be useful to have a look an the following example:

وقيم اذن تفكر؟

(Mohfouz, 1949:214, L: 18)

then , what are you thinking of ?

(Awad , 1985:240,L:22)

What seems clearer form the form the above example is the target text corresponds the source text both syntactically and semantically. And he also provides an equivalent to the infinitival construction.

It can be argued that the meaning of the word "اذن" implied that the action occurs at the time of speaking.

This lead to an induction that the verb after the word "اذن" is changed due to the declarative-interrogative distinction.

#### 4.4.42.4 Verbal inchoative:

this construction implies a verb commencing nominal sentences, and ,this verb is assumed to be preceded by an implied "ان", such an infinitival construction very rarely in Arabic, consider the following:

قال لي :احمل بندقيتك خير لك

(Jabra,1979:102,L:3)

He had said to me "Pick up you gun , that is better for you "

It is worth nothing that the construction is understood as "أن احمل"

On the principles of "مقول القول", this principle is meant that the construction needs a verb in order to be an infinitive or Masdar. In this case the source text can be read as:

حمل البندقية خير لك

This is because this position is to be occupied by a noun ,this information is needed for the translator to help him do his job property.

As regard the target text ,it seems that it corresponds the source text both semantically and syntactically and rendering such a construction is not problematic due to the availability of equivalent counterparts in English.

It is necessary to not that the same principle of translating this construction can be applied to the translation of the imperative, this argument can be put into effect through the following example:

لا تضطربنا ، واجلسا بسلام

Naimy,1948:74,L:3)

Be not perturbed , and sit you down in peace.

(Naimy ,1952:64,L:21)

it is evidence both the source text and target text corresponds ,and ,as just mentioned , the translator faces no difficulty in translating imperative constructions, this correspondence seems to be functional more than formal.

The above example include two bar forms.

The former is negated which was rendered in away that is preferable form-focused text. The letter is affirmative rendered in terms of form and function.

#### 4.4.2.5 Catenative construction:

The catenative construction includes a catenative verb of some kind (Perception , causation ,etc.) followed by one of the non- finite forms among which is the infinitive without particle .Admittedly .catenatives can be rendered into equivalent English catenative constructions ,this is embodied in to the following example:

وما كدت استعيد نفسي المخطوف دهشة حتى وجدتني محوطا بالمعزى من كل جانب

(Naimy ,1948:16,L:4)

before I could catch my breath ,goats surrounded me an all sides.

(Naimy,1952:16,L:10)

though the translator could preserve the catenative construction , he did not provide a correspondent text because the dropped part of the text .it is to noted that translating this cateantive verb is problematic since there is no restrict counterpart in English, the following example reveals that the catenative verb is rendered differently.

. وما كاد شوكت يندس في فراشه المخشخش الشراشف حتى نام

(Jabra,1979:10,L:11)

No sooner had shawakat slipped under his rustling sheets than he fell asleep.

(Hayder and Allen ,1985:13,L:22)

it seems that the translator managed to preserved the syntactical and semantic feature of the source text , but he did fail to do so in rendering the Arabic infinitive without particle which is preceded by a catenative verb , it is always rendered into English bare infinitive or present particle which is sometimes considered a counterpart for the Arabic active particle .

on the basis of this argument , it can said that the translator has departed from the form of the source text to a syntactically a new form in the target text,

to validate this argument let's see the following example.

اكاد ارتجف

(Jabra ,1979:13,L:24)

I was almost shivering

(Hayder and Allen ,1985:17,L:2)

this example shows that the catenative construction has been preserved , but still some errors on the semantic and syntactic levels are recognized , the verb "اكاد" indicates the present , therefore , a shift in tense was involved in the target text ; the construction has been rendered into the past tense.

Another equivalent can be provided by the following example:

وهو يكاد لا ينطق

(Jabra ,1979:80,L:20)

he himself hardly utters a word

(Hayder and Allen , 1985:73,L:18)

following the semantic method , the translator could manage to find a corresponding between the source text and the target text in both levels the semantic and syntactical.

In the light of all the example discussed .

One can argue that the variety of counterparts can be ascribed to that the catenative verb does not have on English counterpart , in this case , the translator may resort the lexicalization depending on certain factor like the type of text , the method of translation adopted, etc.

Some other catenative construction may not be problematic in translation , this can be attributed to having counterparts in English, cateantive verb classes , which can be followed by infinitive without particle are perception causative, aspectual , movement ,process , appropinquation etc . consider the following;

ارد ان ارى البحارة يغسلون ظهر السفينة

(Jabra,1979:105,L:3)

I wanted to watch the seamen clean the deck

(Hayder and Allen ,1985:94,L:36)

it is clear that the target text corresponds semantically and syntactically the source text. The translator could profoundly manage to preserved the catenative construction by rendering the text literally. The catenative construction ارى ..... يغسلون is rendered into “watch .....clean” which is a bare infinitive form , but ,this rendering is not always true , sometimes, a present particle may be used instead . look at the following:

وجدهم يتحدثون في السياسة.

(Mahfouz,1949:34,L:22)

he found them discussing politics.

(Awad ,1985:47,L:29)

on the basis of two examples , it can be stated the choice between the present particle and the bare infinitive can be achieved according to certain factors ,Mohamood (2004:179) believes that bare infinitive is preferable in form-focused text due to the similarity between Arabic infinitive without “to” and English bare infinitive formally and functionally , on the other hand , the present particle is functional more than formal and is more preferable in translation content-focused texts.

#### 4.4.3 Rendering the active particle :

Rendering the Arabic active particle into English may sometimes be problematic ,An issue can be ascribed to that it can be rendered into English present particle , infinitive with “to” and bare infinitive , the choice between these form may be determined by restricted rules in addition to the text type and method of translation . and , since this form is a derived adjective , it can sometimes be rendered into semantically equivalent adjective , consider the following example:

كان الرجل العجوز عاكفا على مراجعة الحساب الختامي لليوم و على حين وقف سليمان مرتفقا الطاولة ناظرا فيما بيمن يديه " في شرود ، واقتربت منه وهي تلقي عليه نظرة حادة ملتبهة

(Mohfouz,1949:127,L:26)

the old man was busy toting up the day's accounts , while Soliman stood with an elbow on the counter , staring absently between his fingers , Downing near , she cast a sharp , fiery glance at him.

(Awad , 1985:148,L:5)

it is clear that his example includes more than one active particle from ; they are "مرتفقا" ، "عاكفا" and "ناظرا" , Even the last sentence in the example can be understood as an active particle " وهي " تلقي .

on the basis of target text , it seems that the translator followed the semantic translation method , to render the active particle and to show its formal status , it is better for translation to follow the free translation method.

Now turning to the target text , it seems that it corresponds the source text semantically , and it involves a shift in form. The translator departed from the form of source text by rendering the active particle construction into formally univalent construction , this mean t the translator could not preserve equivalent construction.

The active particle form "مرتفقا" has been rendered into "stood with an elbow on the counter" . the semantic implication of this active particle form does not reveal that one elbow is involved in this situation . the tendency can be viewed as that the control properties made the translator retrieve or instantiate a form of such a situation , to overcome this problem , the translator has better use of the correspondent counterparts , for instance "Putting his elbows on the counter" may functionally and formally the problem.

In regard to the last sentences , the construction "واقتربت منه" which is a part form was rendered into a present particle form ; "down near" , the part is the infinitive without particle "نلتقي" which was rendered into another past form.

One can argue that rendering these two parts is not problematic and inability to provide equivalence can be attributed to the lack of information .to approach the right choice and preferable translation is connected to the aspectual problems ;completed vs. uncompleted distinction, by adopting this particle, one can suggest the following alternative.

She approached him casting a sharp and fiery glance at him.

To provided a criterion for whether rendering of casting works or not , it can be understood as "واقتربت منه ملقبة عليه" in which a shift in form is not needed .



this argument can be shown through the translation of the following example:

"ومالت نحو فناء البيت وانفاسها تتردد في ثقل وصعوبة "

(Mohfouz,1949:127,L:3)

breathing heavily and with difficulty ,she reached the courtyard of the house.

(Awad, 1985:148,L:1)

according, it can be said that both the source text and target text are correspondent . it is to argue that the present particle which is a correspondent counterpart of the Arabic active particle is very widely used functionally adverbially , this why translator tend to render the past form through the use of this form consider the following:

ثم حياة اخرى وغادره متحاميا النظر الى عينه وانظم الى اصدقائه

(Salih ,1970:34,L:2)

he made his farewells and walked away avoiding his eyes ,joining his friend.

(Johnson –David ,1968;51,L:19)

the shift is clear in the target text , the translator could preserve the participial construction but an error is recognized in area of the past verb "انظم" , this verb has been rendered into a present particle ; a problem was highlighted previously.

Another error related to the rendering of the active particle is that when translator tend to render the Arabic simple present form into a present participle look at the following;

ابي يستغيث ولا مغيث

(Mohfouz, 1949:48, L: 17)

"Poor father, asking for help, and nobody there to help him."

(Awad, 1985:63, L: 4)

Doubtlessly, such a self contained source text has structurally an acceptable target it is clear that both texts are not correspondent on the structural level.

The major error is that of rendering the finite verb of the sentence into a non-finite form, viz, present participle. Adding to the first problem , the active particle form "مغيث" has been rendered in terms of other construction;

a unit- shift is involves in the target text , this literal translation method is more preferable in translating content-focused text than the form-focused text.

Turning now to the catenative in which some verbs of different classes are to be followed by active particle forms , let's consider the following:

تقول انها وجدته في الليل على ظهر المركب يعد النجوم فراحت تعد النجوم معه .

(Jabra,1979:42,L21)

according to her , she discovered him at the stern of the ship at night counting the stars and starting counting the stars with him.

This example includes two catenative constructions, the form includes a verb of certainty plus an infinitive without particle , when this is the case , the infinitive without particle is rendered into a present particle due to certain factors dealt with in the previous section. Beside on the target text , the translator , following the literal translation method , could manage to preserve the catenative construction of the source text.

On the other hand , the Arabic active participle may be rendered into an infinitive with "to" (Safi,1974:106)

This argument may be supported by the following example:

اندفعنا نحو اواسط السفينة مبتعدين عن الاخرين

(Jabra,1979:96,L:25)

we headed for the center of the ship to get away from the others.

(Haydar and Allen,1985:87,L:4)

it is clear that the target text corresponds the source text in both semantically and syntactically , the infinitive with "to" . this meets what Kharma (1983:51) claim that the English infinitive with "to" is considered a correspondent equivalent of the Arabic active participle hence, the choice between the two forms is semantically bound in addition to that the infinitive with "to" can more desirable in translation the form-focused text , besides , Mohmood (2004,182) notes that the active particle is more preferable than the infinitive with "to" when he translator adopted the precise translation method.

#### 4.4.4 Rendering the passive particle :

For both being derived adjective , the passive particle shares much with the active particle among which is being rendered into an adjective , this can be determined by whether the passive particle is formed from transitive ,and whether the action is momentary or permanent ,consider the following example:

"واحيانا ارانا مطاردين فلا اعرف من هم المطاردون ولكننا دائما نبقي وحيدين"

(Jabra ,1979:60,L:18)

and then , I 'd see us being chased and have no idea who was chasing us, but we were always alone.

It seems that the translator could acceptably manage the participial construction of the source text, according to Mahmood (2004:191) translating this sort of construction is sometimes problematic , As is the case with the active particle , when translating passive particle , translators resort to lexicalization as a way of overcoming the lack of lexical equivalents.

to make this idea cleaner , consider the following example:

وانفصلو عنه ساخطين غاضبين يائسين

(Mohfouz , 1949:148,L:10)

they went away discontented , angry , and desperate

(Awad ,1985:169,L:20)

according to the above example , it seems that the free translation method adopted by the translator is useful that it allow the translator to depart from of the form of the source text and lexicalize the items that lack for equivalents in the target language , this behavior helps the translators render the source text into a more natural target text, therefore here the translator rendered the first active particle into a passive particle and the other two forms into a lexicalized equivalent adjective ; an assimilate epithet in Arabic, may be rendered into a passive particle form. Take this example:

ان كرازي تيس مدلل

(Naimy ,1948:17,L:11)

my bellwether is a spoiled goat.

(Naimy ,1952:16,L:19)

following the process , the translator has preserved the semantic features of the source text by rendering an Arabic adjective into an English past participle form, the rendering is the consequence of following literal or word-to-word translation.

Sometimes an active participle form is rendered into a passive participle , this can be due to two reasons ; the first is that sometimes the same form formed on the measure of "فعليل" may active and passive participle , the second reason is that the context ,which has a prior role in deciding what form to be understood and then rendered, this indication can be clearly shown in the following example:

فرقع الشاب اليه عينيه داهشتين في وجوم

(Mohfouz,1949:188,L:17)

“Sumbfounded , the young man raised his astonish eyes .”

(Awad ,1985:201,L:22)

**Note to chapter Four :**

The jury member are:

- 1- Khalid Ismael ph.D
- 2- Abdullah Salman ph.D
- 3- Ayad Hameed ph.D
- 4- Saleem Khulaif ph.D
- 5- Yarub Mohmood M.A

## **Chapter Five**

### **Conclusion, Recommendations, and suggest for further research**

#### **5.1 Conclusions:**

The present study puts the following conclusions:

1. above all , aim of this study have been arrived at.
2. Arabic uses five infinitival particles ,namely ,**كي** ,**ما** ، **ان** ، **ان** ، and **لو**

Arabic infinitival with “to” is formed in terms of one of these particles followed by prefect or imperfect verb. On the other hand, English realizes only one infinitival particle , viz , “to” ,which is always by imperfect . in translation , the infinitival construction , in both languages , is similar in the area of:

- a. **أن** + imperfect as corresponding “to’ +imperfect.
- b. **كي** + imperfect when rendered as “in order to” .
- c. **لو** + imperfect.

Both language diverge in the following area which lexicalization is needed:

- a. **كي** + imperfect when rendered into “so that” , “in order to” . Etc.

- b. أن + NP+V.
- c. ان +not + imperfect "is rendered into bare infinitive form"
- d. ما +perfect / imperfect is rendered in ما +NP+V.
- e. لو + NP+V.

This indication agrees with the hypotheses of the present study.

- 3. Arabic infinitive with particle is not always rendered into correspondent equivalents , it may be rendered into a verbal noun or present particle under certain restrictions attempted to focus through the study.
- 4. Arabic infinitive without particle co-occurs with several words and particles , this construction has very low frequency of occurrence in nowadays Arabic as occurring with " اذن ، ، ذو ، اية ، فاء ، او ، " ,correlative attribute , antecedent ,void exception, etc.
- 5. being a non-finite form ,Arabic active particle is different from that of English ; the gerund is a verbal noun having a nominal power , the English equivalent counterpart of the Arabic active particle is the present particle which both have verbal power ,it may also be rendered in bare infinitive or infinitive with "to".
- 6. Arabic passive particle corresponds with the English past particle for which they partake voice relation.
- 7. some particles that co-occur with the infinitival particles for emphasis have no equivalent counterparts in English , translator should resort to lexicalization .
- 8. English seems to be more concise than Arabic in the area of translation non-finite forms due to the numerous infinitival forms.
- 9. in the translation of passivized infinitival constructions, two equivalent construction may be used ; "modal +be + p.p" or " to +be +p.p".

Recommendations :

In the light of the conclusions some up with , the following recommendation are put forward:

- 1. in order to provide a correspondent text for the source text, translators should pay prior attention to the text typology of the source text in addition to other elements , linguistic and extra-linguistic.
- 2. translators should have good acquaintance with Arabic non-finite forms of verb.

3. showing more interest in focusing the non-finite forms in training translators.

Suggestion for Future research:

For more research , the following areas are suggested to be investigated.

1. A study may be carried out to investigation Arabic non-finite forms of the verb in other text types like appeal-focused text.
2. A study to investigate this phenomenon in the glorious and prophetic Hadith.
3. A comparative study may be conducted to access the translation of this phenomenon in more in more than one translation.

Abstract

Previous studies reveal that among the problems language users encounter may be related to the choice of verb. Differently may be attributed to that these forms have more or less similar function and occupy almost the same position. The present study attempts to investigation the Arabic into English translation.

The study hypothesizes that:

First: some Arabic non-finite forms of the verb can be rendered into English correspondent expression and.

Second : some Arabic non-finite forms cannot be rendered ,so, they are lexicalized.

They are lexical.

For the purpose of achieving the aim of the study and verifying the hypotheses derived from them , a semantic and syntactic analysis of Arabic and English non-finite forms of the verb has been done to point out the similarities and dissimilarities between both , And a mode for translation has been adopted by which selected translator narrative fictional texts were analyzed.

The findings of the study prove the validity of the hypotheses, it has been found that preserving semantic, semantic, syntactic, stylistic and lexical elements of the source text is difficult and some constructions of Arabic non-finite forms have no counterparts in English therefore, they should be lexicalized.

Finally, the study ends up with several recommendations and suggestions for further research.

## الخلاصة

اظهرت الدراسات السابقة ان من بين المشكلات التي يواجهها مستخدمي اللغة ربما تعود الى الاختبار القواعدي الصحيح للصيغة عديمة الدلالة على زمن واسلوب الحدث. وهذه المشكلات يمكن عزرها الى ان هذه الصيغ لها وظائف تكاد تكون متشابهة وتشغل نفس المكان تقريبا

ان هذه الدراسة الحالية هي محاولة استقصاء لامكانية ترجمة الصيغ عديمة الدلالة على زمن واسلوب الحدث من العربية الى الانكليزية.

وتفترض هذه الدراسة

اولا : ان بعض الصيغ يمكن ترجمتها الى الانكليزية بتعابير مماثلة

. ثانيا : ان بعض الصيغ العربية لا يمكن ترجمتها لذلك دلاليا

ولغرض تحقيق اهداف هذه الدراسة والتحقق من صحة الفرضيات التي اشتقت منها اجري تحليلا دلاليا -نحويا للصيغ عديمة الدلالة في العربية والانكليزية لمعرفة التشابهات والاختلافات بين اللغتين و تبنت الدراسة نموذجا للترجمة والذي من خلاله تم تحليل نصوص دراسية مترجمة منتقات

وقد اثبتت نتائج الدراسة صحة الفرضيات ووجد انه من الصعب بمكان حفظ الخواص الدلالية واللغوية والنحوية والاسلوبية والمفرداتية للنص الاصلي

.ووجد ايضا ، ان بعض التراكيب العربية لهذه الصيغ ليس لها ما يناظرها في اللغة الانكليزية ، لذلك ترجمت دلاليا

.واخلصت الدراسة الى توصيات ومقترحات لبحوث قادمة