

Compounding in English and Arabic:

A contrastive study

الكلمات المركبة في الانجليزية والعربية:
دراسة تقابلية
ملخص الدراسة

By

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ملخص الدراسة

إن اللغتين العربية والانجليزية لغتان مختلفتان مورفولوجياً فالأولى هي لغة سامية والثانية هي لغة هندوأوروبية لذا فالمتوقع أنهما مختلفتان في تكوين الكلمات المركبة. لذا تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى توضيح نقاط التشابه والاختلاف المورفولوجي بين اللغتين في هذا الجانب ولتحقيق ذلك فقد استخدمت الدراسة نظرياً الإطار اللغوي التقابلي لتوضيح نقاط التشابه والاختلاف لخدمة العاملين في حقل تعليم اللغة الانجليزية ومصممي المناهج وطلبة الترجمة والمترجمين. تبدأ الدراسة بتعريف الكلمات المركبة وتوضيح العلاقة التركيبية والدالية بين أجزاء الكلمات المركبة في الانجليزية وهنا فقد غطت الدراسة الصفات والأفعال المركبة وبعد ذلك انتقلت لوصف الكلمات المركبة في العربية. انتهت الدراسة بتلخيص النقاط التقابلية بين اللغتين مع التركيز على مواضع الصعوبة في فهم وتعلم هذه الكلمات وبعد ذلك تم وضع مجموعة من التوصيات التي من المتوقع أن تكون ذات فائدة للعاملين في مجال الترجمة وتعليم اللغة الانجليزية في فهم وتعليم الكلمات المركبة في الانجليزية ودقة ترجمتها من والى العربية.

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Abstract

Arabic and English are morphologically asymmetrical. The former is Semitic and the latter is Endo-European language. Thus, they are expected to be morphologically divergent. This study aims at clarifying the morphological symmetries and divergences between the two languages. Thus it is done contrastively for the interest of the English language practitioners, syllabus designers and those who study or work in the field of translation. It begins with a definition of the compounding words and the semantic and syntactic relationship between the parts of the compounding words in English. It also covers compound nouns, compound adjectives, compound verbs and self compounds. Then the paper touches compounding in Arabic. The study ends with pinpointing contrastive implications and some recommendations that may be useful for translators and English language practitioners in translating or teaching compounds.

1.1 Introduction

Compounds are groups of two or more elements treated as a unit. They consist of two or more bases joined together without the use of derivational affixes. Compounds are either primary or secondary. In a primary compound or base-compound, two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together. In a secondary compound or stem-compound, both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems (free forms). Following (Hall 1992), many derived forms are very complex, involving two or more layers of derivation. The formation of larger compounds is generally based on those of two-element compounds as:

light housekeeper is constructed from housekeeper and light (house).
A-shaped Eiffel Tower is constructed from A-shaped Eiffel and Tower.
Wheel-shaped base is constructed from Wheel-shaped and base.
Silver-blue building is constructed from Silver-blue and building.

Adjectives may be embedded in nominal constructions with no special marker (black coffee). For analyzing embedded constructions, the term head is used to refer to the center of the construction, the term attribute for the modifier. An endocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents are comparable to the complete construction. An exocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents do not function like the complete construction. The contrast between endocentric and exocentric is present in compounds as well as in derivatives. If the function of the compound is the same as that of one of its elements, it is to be classed as endocentric. If the compound belongs to a form-class or subdivision of one different from that of its elements, then it is exocentric. (Hall, 1992). The description of English and Arabic compounds will entail listing both types of primary and secondary compounds, and the elements comprised in each. The list of compounds will include the presence of full stress on the first element, internal disjuncture and intermediate stress on the second element.

English and Arabic compounds are asymmetrical. This may be due to the difference in the morphological origin of the two languages; Arabic is Semitic and English is Indo-European language. This study aims at clarifying the morphological symmetries and asymmetries between the two languages. It begins with a definition of the compounding words and the semantic and syntactic relationship between the parts of such compounding words. Then the semantic and morphological types of compounds in English. The study then turns to compounding in Arabic. The paper ends with having some suggestions for teaching English compounds.

2. Compounding in English

2.1. The components of the compounding words.

English primary and secondary compounds can be formed in a variety of ways: two nouns, a verb followed by a noun, a noun followed by a verb, a verb and a preposition, an adjective and a noun. In English, compound nouns are the most common, verb compounds are not quite so common.

Compounds will be described in terms of the word class to which the source items belong.

2.1.1. Primary Compounds.

In a primary compound or a base compound, no derivational affix is involved and two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together (with or without some meaningless connecting element). Most examples occur in the English learned Greco-Latin vocabulary (Hall 1992). These elements, usually Greek or Latin in origin, are termed as combining forms by Oxford English Dictionary.

These combining forms are treated as affixes because they are sometimes added to lexemes just like any other affix.

English primary compounds are formed from a large number of Greek and Latin bases. Some Latin prefixes are:

bi-, circum-, counter-, hypo-, in-, inter-, intra-, de-, dis-, ex-, extra-, hyper-, ambi-, ante-, anti-, arch-, pro-, quad-, re-, retro-, intro-, mal-, mis-, mono-, multi-, non-, peri-, post-, pre-

Some Greek bases (roots) are: glot-, gram-, graph-, heli-, hetero-, homo-, hydroanthropo-, auto-, bibli-, chrom-, litho-, cyclo-, logo-, mania, chrono-, demo-, derma-, dynamo-, geo-, hypno-, itis, cosmo-, crypto-, mega-, micro-, morphi-, tempo-, vacuus, videre, vivere.

Consider the following:

- *cardiogram, cardioscope, cardiovascular,*
- *subway, subterranean, submarine, subclass.*
- *appendicitis, sinusitis, bronchitis, tonsillitis.*
- *autobiography*
- *television, telephoto, telegraph, telescope.*
- *photograph, photocopy, photosynthesis.*
- *electrocardiogram.*
- *pathology, psychology, geology, biology, zoology.*
- *automatic, autonomous, automobile,*

The meaning of a primary compound can be generally understood from the meaning of its parts, and this is semantically referred to as endocentric compound.

2.1.2. Secondary Compounds

In a secondary compound or stem-compound, no derivational affix is involved, and the constituents of a derived stem are simply juxtaposed and both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems. English has at least one fairly widespread type of stem compound, in our combinations of noun plus verb such as baby-sit. Many derived forms are very complex, involving two or more layers of derivation. (Hall, 1992). English secondary compounds are formed in a variety of ways: Two nouns, a verb followed by a noun, a noun followed by a verb, a verb and a preposition, an adjective and a noun. Compound nouns are the most common, whereas verb compounds are not quite so common. English compounds will be classified (described) on the basis of the function they play in a sentence as nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs. The sub-classification of compounds will be done by the form of the items that make up the compound (the word class to which the source items belong), because this type of classification will help focus on the semantic relationships within each of the categories provided. Compounds will be classified into compound nouns, compound verbs, compound adjectives and compound adverbs. Each kind of compound consists of a variety of components. (Bauer, 1988) the meaning of a secondary

compound cannot be generally understood from the meaning of its parts, and this is semantically referred to as exocentric compound.
Compound nouns may consist of the following:

The first element of a compound can be:

- 1a. a noun, e.g. armchair
- b. a pronoun, e.g. he goat
- c. an adjective, e.g. blackboard.
- d. a verb, e.g. drawbridge.

The second element of a compounding noun can be:

- 2a. a noun, e.g. goldsmith.
- b. a pronoun, e.g. overall.
- c. a verb or verb stem, e.g. smash-and-grab, chimney-sweep.
- d. an adverb, e.g. passer-by, fly-over.

2.2. Syntactic relation of elements of compounds.

There are syntactic relations between the two elements of the compound words. Consider:

- 3a. syntactic word group relations, e.g. part of speech son-in-law, good-for-nothing.
- b. co-ordination, e.g. bread and butter, gin and tonic.
- c. verb and object or adjunct, e.g. cease-fire.
- d. qualifier and noun, e.g. blackbird, bluebell.
- e. adverb and verb, e.g. downpour, outlay.
- f. adverb and noun, e.g. outpost.
- g. the first element may denote the subject, e.g. daybreak.
- h. the first element denotes the object, e.g. bloodshed.

2.3. Semantic relation of elements of compounds

There is also semantic relationship between the two elements of the compounding words. (the first element is the main concept)

- a. The first element denotes place or time, e.g. headache, nightclub.
- b. The first element denotes purpose, e.g. teacup.
- c. The first element denotes means or instrument, e.g. handwriting, sword-cut.
- d. The first element denotes resemblance, e.g. goldfish.
- e. The first element denotes sex, e.g. manservant.

Other kinds of relations can be detected in such words as newspaper, rainbow, and motorcar.

2.3.1. Semantic types of compounds

Generally, the meaning of a compound noun is a specialization of the meaning of its head. The modifier limits the meaning of the head. This is most obvious in *descriptive* compounds, also known as *endocentric* compounds, in which the modifier is used in an attributive or appositional manner. A *blackboard* is a particular kind of board which is black, for instance.

In *determinative* compounds, however, the relationship is not attributive. For example, a *footstool* is not a particular type of stool that is like a foot. Rather, it is a *stool for one's foot or feet*. (It can be used for sitting on, but that is not its primary

purpose.) In a similar manner, the *office manager* is the manager of an office, an *armchair* is a *chair with arms*, and a *raincoat* is a *coat against the rain*. These relationships, which are expressed by prepositions in English, would be expressed by grammatical case in other languages. Compounds of this type are also known as *exocentric* compounds.

These two types account for most compound nouns, but there are other, rarer types as well. *Coordinative, copulative* compounds combine elements with a similar meaning, and the compound meaning may be a generalization instead of a specialization. *Bosnia-Herzegovina*, for example, is the combined area of Bosnia and Herzegovina, but a *fighter-bomber* is an aircraft that is both a fighter and a bomber. *Iterative* or *amredita* compounds repeat a single element, to express repetition or as an emphasis. *Day-by-day* and *go-go-go* are examples of this type of compound, which has more than one head.

2.4. Morphological types of compounds

Since English is a mostly analytic (isolating) language, unlike most other Germanic languages, it creates compounds by concatenating words without case markers since case is covert in English, Amer (1996). Compounds may be written in three different ways, which do not correspond to different pronunciations. Consider:

- The *solid* or *closed* form in which two usually moderately short words appear together as one. Solid compounds most likely consist of short (monosyllabic) units that often have been established in the language for a long time. Examples are *wallpaper*, *makeup*, *housewife*, *lawsuit*, etc.
- The *hyphenated* form in which two or more words are connected by a hyphen. Compounds that contain affixes, such as *house-build(er)* and *single-mind(ed)(ness)*, as well as adjective-adjective compounds and verb-verb compounds, such as *blue-green* and *freeze-dry*, are often hyphenated. Compounds that contain particles, such as *mother-of-pearl* and *salt-and-pepper*, are also often hyphenated. Wikipedia.
- The *open* or *spaced* form consisting of newer combinations of usually longer words, such as *distance learning*, *player piano*, *lawn tennis*, *olive mount Islamic university* etc.

Open, hyphenated, and closed forms may be encountered for the same compound noun, such as the triplets *container ship*, *container-ship*, *containership* and *particle board*, *particle-board*, *particleboard*. This mostly depends on the individual choice of the writer rather than on a hard-and-fast rule. However such compounds in American English differ from British English. The hyphenated compound in the former may be solid in the latter.

These morphological features of compound nouns also correspond to compound adjectives and compound verbs.

2.4.1. Compound adjectives

A compound adjective is formed when two or more adjectives work together to modify the same noun. These terms should be hyphenated to avoid confusion or

ambiguity.

Such adjectives are constructed in a very similar way to the compound noun. The black-and-blue mark, *leftover ingredients*, *Blackboard jungle*, *green monkey disease*, and *gunmetal sheen*, are cases in point.

A **compound adjective** is a modifier of a noun. It consists of two or more morphemes of which the left-hand component limits or changes the modification of the right-hand one, as in "the dark-green dress": *dark* limits the *green* that modifies *dress*.

The compound adjectives are divided morphologically into three types:

2.4.1.1. Solid compound adjectives

There are some well-established permanent compound adjectives that have become solid over a longer period, especially in American usage: *earsplitting*, *roundabout*, *eyecatching*, and *downtown*.

However, in British usage, these, apart from *downtown* and *roundabout* are more likely written with a hyphen: *ear-splitting*, *eye-catching*.

Other solid compound adjectives are:

- Numbers that are spelled out and have the suffix *-fold* added: "fifteenfold", "sixfold".
- Points of the compass: *northwest*, *northwester*, *northwesterly*, *northwestwards*, but not *North-West Frontier*.

2.4.1.2. Hyphenated compound adjectives

A compound adjective is hyphenated if the hyphen helps the reader differentiate a compound adjective from two adjacent adjectives that each independently modify the noun. Compare the following examples:

- "acetic acid solution": a bitter solution producing vinegar or acetic acid (*acetic* + *acid* + *solution*)
- "acetic-acid solution": a solution of acetic acid.

The hyphen is unneeded when capitalization or italicization makes grouping clear:

- "old English scholar": an old person who is English and a scholar, or an old scholar who studies English
- "Old English scholar": a scholar of Old English.
- "De facto proceedings" (not "*de-facto*")

If, however, there is no risk of ambiguities, it may be written without a hyphen: *Sunday morning walk*.

Hyphenated compound adjectives may have been formed originally by an adjective preceding a noun:

- "Round table" → "round-table discussion"
- "Blue sky" → "blue-sky law"
- "Red light" → "red-light district"
- "Four wheels" → "four-wheel drive" (the singular, not the plural, is used)

Others may have originated with a verb preceding an adjective or on adverb:

- "Feel good" → "feel-good factor"
- "Buy now, pay later" → "buy-now pay-later purchase"

Yet others are created with an original verb preceding a preposition.

- "Stick on" → "stick-on label"
- "Walk on" → "walk-on part"
- "Stand by" → "stand-by fare"
- "Roll on, roll off" → "roll-on roll-off ferry"

However, combining an adverb (usually a word ending in "ly") and an adjective does not create a compound adjective. No hyphen is required because it is already clear that the adverb modifies the adjective rather than the subsequent noun. Consider the following example:

The remarkably hot day turned into a remarkably long week.

The following compound adjectives are *always* hyphenated when they are not written as one word:

1. An adjective preceding a noun to which *-d* or *-ed* has been added as a past-participle construction:
 - a. "loud-mouthed hooligan"
 - b. "middle-aged lady"
 - c. "rose-tinted glasses"
2. A noun, adjective, or adverb preceding a present participle:
 - a. "an awe-inspiring personality"
 - b. "a long-lasting affair"
 - c. "a far-reaching decision"
3. Numbers spelled out or as numeric:
 - a. "seven-year itch"
 - b. "five-sided polygon"
 - c. "20th-century poem"
 - d. "30-piece band"
 - e. "tenth-story window"
4. A numeric with the affix *-fold* has a hyphen (15-fold), but when spelled out takes a solid construction (*fifteenfold*).
5. Numbers, spelled out or numeric, with added *-odd*: sixteen-odd, 70-odd.
6. Compound adjectives with *high-* or *low-*: "high-level discussion", "low-price markup".
7. Colours in compounds:
 - a. "a dark-blue sweater"

- b. "a reddish-orange dress".
- 8. Fractions as modifiers are hyphenated: "five-eighths inches", but if numerator or denominator are already hyphenated, the fraction itself does not take a hyphen: "a thirty-three thousandth part".
- 9. Fractions used as nouns have no hyphens: "I ate only one third of the pie."
- 10. Comparatives and superlatives in compound adjectives also take hyphens:
 - a. "the highest-placed competitor"
 - b. "a shorter-term loan"
- 11. However, a construction with *most* is not hyphenated:
 - a. "the most respected member".
- 12. Compounds including two geographical modifiers:
 - a. "Afro-Cuban"
 - b. "African-American" (sometimes)
 - c. "Anglo-Asian"
- 13. But not
 - a. "Central American".

The following compound adjectives are not normally hyphenated:

A compound adjective should not be hyphenated if the adjectives are capitalized, such as when they are part of a title. For example:

His book was entitled, "Gender Neutral Language in English Usage," and it revolutionized the way people think about sex roles.

A compound adjective should not be hyphenated when there is no risk of ambiguity:

- o "a Sunday morning walk".

A compound adjective should not be hyphenated if left-hand components that end in *-ly* that modify right-hand components that are past participles (ending in *-ed*):

- o "a hotly disputed subject"
- o "a greatly improved scheme"
- o "a distantly related celebrity"

Compound adjectives that include comparatives and superlatives with *more*, *most*, *less* or *least* should not be hyphenated:

- o "a more recent development"
- o "the most respected member"
- o "a less opportune moment"
- o "the least expected event"

Ordinarily hyphenated compounds with intensive adverbs in front of adjectives are not hyphenated:

- "very much admired classicist"
- "really well accepted proposal"

2.4.2. Compound verbs

A compound verb is usually composed of a preposition as a modifier and a verb as a head, such as: overrate, underline, outrun, browbeat, sidestep, manhandle, out-Herod, out-fox, whitewash, blacklist.

From a morphological point of view, some compound verbs are difficult to analyze because several derivations are plausible. *Blacklist*, for instance, might be analyzed as an adjective+verb compound, or as an adjective+noun compound that becomes a verb through zero derivation. Most compound verbs originally have the collective meaning of both components, but some of them later gain additional meanings that may predominate the original.

In the case of verb+noun compounds, the noun may be considered either as the subject (grammar) or the object of the verb. In *playboy*, for example, the noun is the subject of the verb (*the boy plays*), whereas it is the object in *callgirl* (*someone calls the girl*).

2.4.2.1. Phrasal verbs

English syntax distinguishes between phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs. Consider the following:

- I held up my hand.*
- I held up a bank.*
- I held my hand up.*
- *I held a bank up.*

The first three sentences are possible in English; the last one is unlikely. When *to hold up* means *to raise*, it is a prepositional verb; the preposition *up* can be detached from the verb and has its own individual meaning "*from lower to a higher position*". As a prepositional verb, it has a literal meaning. But when *to hold up* means *to rob*, it is a phrasal verb. A phrasal verb is used in an idiomatic, figurative or even metaphorical context. The preposition is inextricably linked to the verb, the meaning of each word cannot be determined independently but is in fact part of the idiom.

The *Oxford English Grammar*, cited in http://www.fact-index.com/c/co/compound_verb.html, distinguishes seven types of prepositional or phrasal verbs in English:

- intransitive phrasal verbs (e.g. *give in*)
- transitive phrasal verbs (e.g. *find out* [*discover*])
- monotransitive prepositional verbs (e.g. *look after* [*care for*])
- doubly transitive prepositional verbs (e.g. *blame* [something] *on* [someone])
- copular prepositional verbs. (e.g. *serve as*)
- monotransitive phrasal-prepositional verbs (e.g. *look up to* [*respect*])

- doubly transitive phrasal-prepositional verbs (e.g. *put [something] down to [someone] [attribute to]*)

English has a number of other kinds of compound verb idioms. There are compound verbs with two verbs (e.g. *make do*). These too can take idiomatic prepositions (e.g. *get rid of*). There are also idiomatic combinations of verb and adjective (e.g. *come true, run amok*) and verb and adverb (*make sure*), verb and fixed noun (e.g. *go ape*); and these, too, may have fixed idiomatic prepositions (e.g. *take place on*).

3. Compounding in Arabic:

In contrast to English, compounding does not play such an important part in Arabic. These compounds are of the following types:

1. construct state المضاف اليه : the syntactic relation between the components of the possessive or genitive, e.g.

duudat-u l-ard-i دودة الأرض 'earth worm' .
 yawm-u l-hisaab-i يوم الحساب 'doomsday'
 rajul-u d-dafaadi-i رجل الضفادع 'frogman'
 abir sabil عابر سبيل /'passer-by'
 tulu al nahar طلوع النهار /'day-break'
 ihtiram al dat احترام الذات /self- respect.

2. al-murakkabu l-mazjiyy المزجى 'fusional compound': the syntactic relation between the elements is either the same as in بيت لحم Bethlehem, or in which the relation is unknown, simply because most of these words are of foreign origin. Each of these compounds is treated as one word in Arabic grammar.

3. al-murkkabu l-isnaadiy المركب الاسنادي 'predicative compound' the syntactic structure is that of predication. This is very similar to the English syntactic structure converted into a compound word, such as well-to-do. This type comprises a very limited class of proper noun., e.g. تأبط شراً ta ? abbata- Sarran.

4. In addition to these, Arab grammarians mention الأعداد المركبة, the compound numerals from 11 to 19 .In this case each numeral behaves syntactically as one word. The two elements are simply juxtaposed in the English manner, the second element always being the word for 'ten'. Thus the English numeral fourteen is rendered in Arabic as / arba' ata ashar/

5. Numbers from twenty-one-to ninety-nine although behaving like compound words, the two parts are inflected just like other words having the same relation, e.g. twenty-one is/wahid wa isrun/(one and twenty).

Arabic compound nouns may be classified into the following classes:

3.1 Primary Compounds

Primary compounds similar to English compounds consisting of Greek and Latin bases do not exist in Arabic.

3.2 Secondary Compounds

A compound refers to a group of words usually two –but sometimes

more-joined together into one vocabulary unit that functions as a single part of speech. (Al-Jurf 2005).

Still Arabic has other forms of compound which are formulated from combinations of different types, as it is shown below:

3.3. Compound particles: 'al-huruuf L-murakkaba' الحروف المركبة combine with ما/ma/(a particle with various different meanings حروف مركبة huruf murakka that are used as adverbials or conjunctions, e.g.:

إنما /inna/ma/(only).
ربما /rubba/ma/ (perhaps)
ريثما /raythama/ (whilst)
مهما /mah/ma/ (whatever/however)
اذما /id/ma/ (whenever)
حيثما /hythu/ma/ (whenever)
كيفما /kayfa/ma/ (however)
حالما /hala/ma/ (as soon as)
سيما و لاسيما /siyya/ma/and /la siyya/ma/ (especially)

3.4. Defective verb compound: they are usually construed with /ma/ as their first element. This particle may add the sense of duration or negation to the second element, which can also be used independently, e.g.

ما دام /ma/dama/ (as long as)
ما زال /ma zala/, ما برح /ma/bariha/, ما تئى /ma/fati?a/,
and ما انفك /ma/infakka/ (they all mean 'still')

There are one or two interrogative pronouns in Arabic that are also compound: these are: مندا /man da/ (who/m or who(m)ever?)

ماذا/ma/da/ (what? Or whatever?)

3.5 Compound nouns

(a) Many English compound nouns are rendered either by original nouns that Arabic already has in its stock as: sun-in –law صهر /sihr/, he-goat تيس /tays/, or by one –word nouns (or adjectives /participles functioning as nouns). Traditional grammarians believe that such Arabic compounds are derived from the trilateral verb form or from one of its derived forms, e.g. goldsmith صائغ /sa?igh/ (from the verb /sagha/), onlooker متفرج /mutafarrij/ from the verb /tafarraja/

(b) Some are rendered in Arabic by the structure N+Adj (+Adj) (the normal order in Arabic),e.g. The Red Sea البحر الأحمر /al bahr al-ahmar /

(c) Some are rendered by a syntactic structure that differs from the above mentioned types, for example:

part of speech قسم من أقسام الكلام /qism min aqsam al kalm / (one part from the part of speech). This group of compounds cover the following:

Proper noun:

some original Arabic proper nouns are compounds of the form N+Adj,e.g القاموس المحيط /alqamus almuhit/ (The Comprehensive Dictionary.) and التل الكبير /al tal al kabir/(the big hill-a place in Egypt).

personal proper nouns:

Shajaratu ADurr شجرة الدر Abu-Baker ابو بكر

Geographical names:

Makka Al-mokrama مكة المكرمة Deir Yaseen دير ياسين

Titles

Ameer l-Mo'meneen امير المؤمنين ra'ees l-wuzaraa' رئيس الوزراء

Others ناطحة سحاب NaTeHat saHaab (skyscraper) سفينة فضاء safenat faDaa' (spaceship)

Noun + adjective

These are very productive in Arabic, as in the following:

Subject names:

Al-feezyaa' n-nawwawia الفيزياء النووية atomic physics

Other technical terms

الامعاء الدقيقة Al-am9aa' d-daqqeeqa (small intestine) ميناء جوي، menaa' jawee (airport)

Noun + apposited noun + adjective

جمهورية مصر العربية، jomhoryat mesr l-9arabia

Noun + apposited N. + apposited N

رئيس مجلس الوزراء ra'ees majeles l-wozaraa' (prime minister)

Particle + noun

The negative particle لا is used as a prefix, making possible compounds like:

لاسلكي Laselki (wireless) ، لاأخلاقي la'axlaqee (impolital)

3.6 Compound adjective:

(a) English compound adjectives are translated to single-word adjectives, e.g.:

trustworthy موثوق /mawtuq/

up to date حديث /hadith /

(b) the adj +adj type where the relation is that of co-ordination ,which usually takes the same form in Arabic, e.g: bitter-sweet مرولو /murr hlw/ and in some cases where the relation is that of qualification., e.g: dark blue أزرق غامق /azraq gamiq/

(c) Otherwise it takes the form of a simile with as (ك/ka/) as does the

N+Adj type where the relation is that of resemblance, e.g.:

red-hot حار كالجمر /harr kal jamr/ (as hot as live coal)

blood- red أحمر كالدم /ahmar kal dam/(as red as blood).

Snow-white أبيض كالثلج /abyad kal talj/ (as white as snow).

(d) Most of the other relations in the types N+Adj+Adj are usually rendered by an Arabic syntactic structure, usually employing a preposition, e.g:

sea-sick البحر بدوران مصاب /musab bi duwar il bahr / (afflicted with sickness of the sea). Blood thirsty لدماء متعطش /muta attis li-ddima?/(thirsty of blood).

(e) Most of the Adv+Adj compound adjectives are usually rendered in Arabic by means of the possessive, e.g:

ever green دائمة الخضرة /da?im ul xudrah / (permanent of greenness)

Ever-ripe زائد النضج /za?id ul nudj/(excessive of ripeness).

Or with the help of an intensifier, e.g: all-important جداً /muhim jiddan/ (very important)

3.7 Compound verbs

Morphologically, some compound verbs are difficult to analyze because several derivations are plausible. Blacklist, for instance, might be analyzed as an adjective + verb compound, or as an adjective+ noun compound that becomes a verb through zero derivation.

Most Compound verbs of English originally have the collective meaning of both components, but some of them later gain additional meaning that may predominate the original, accurate sense. Therefore, sometimes the resultant meanings are seemingly barely related to the original contributors. Compound verbs composed of a noun and verb are comparatively rare, and the noun is generally not the direct object of the verb. In English compounds such as *bread-bake or *car-drive do not exist. Yet we find literal action words, such as breastfeed, tape record and washing instructions on clothing as for example hand wash. The equivalent of type of compound verb consists of derived nominal plus noun in Arabic as in ghaseel yad (hand wash)

The Adv + v type (the verb not being a participle) is extremely foreign and strange – looking to the Arab student. It is non-existent in Arabic, and its meaning is usually expressed by verb, basic or derived, e.g:

uphold سند /sanda/(support) (basic).

Undergo تحمل /tahmmala/(suffer) (derived).

Those compounds where the verb takes the form of the present or past participle are usually treated in Arabic as compound adjectives (as is actually the case in English) and are formed in the same ways.

3.8 Self compounds

This type of compound in English is very similar to its Arabic counterpart, even the relation between the two elements is the same (i.e. the possessive relation),e.g:

Myself ذاتي /dati/, نفسي /nafsi/

Yourself ذاتك /datuka/, نفسك /nafsika/

Ourselves ذاتنا /dawatuna/, أنفسنا /anfusunna/

In both languages, these are used both as reflexives which are semantically used for emphasis.

Arabic compounds have a gender assignment.

The plural formation of compound nouns. Can often be identified whenever their inflectional characteristics differ from those of the elements of which they are formed.

4. Comparison

1. English makes extensive use of compounding; however it is of very limited use in Arabic. Arabic compounds are phrases with normal word-order, compressed into two or three lexical items. Those patterns of compounds that exist in Arabic are not particularly productive in making new formations. These patterns are outside the ordinary derivational structure of Arabic. Al Jurf, (2005).

2. exocentric compounds are difficult to translate due to the fact that their meaning cannot be deduced from its parts. For example: *greenback*, stun-gun; flower-power; gang-bang; nitty-gritty; brain-drain.

3. The meaning of such compounds cannot be determined from either component but lies outside the center of the compound. An external element must be added to interpret the compound. For example, *a greenback* is not 'a back that is green' but rather 'an object that possesses a green back',

4. Compounds may be usefully interpreted in relationship to other syntactic patterns of English.

5. The compound may precede the noun it refers to (*a ten-year-old boy*) or follow the noun (*a boy ten years old*). The first problem in dealing with compounds is how to distinguish phrasal compounds from simple phrases. Recourse must be added to additional non-syntactic features such as prosodic characteristics of stress, pitch or juncture, the use of special forms of the constituent elements, or the possibility of either interrupting the construction or expanding it by the addition of further modifiers. In languages that have stress systems, there are often special patterns of modulation signaling compounds as such. The presence of the juncture phenomena (internal disjuncture) assists in identifying compounds of English but not Arabic and this may complicate the translation processes from English to Arabic.

6. It is the single stress that differentiates compound nouns from word groups. In word groups both elements take stress, e.g. 'gold 'chain, 'Oxford 'University, 'lady' doctor, if the group consists of more than two words, each word receives primary stress: 'Tottenham 'Court 'Road. Again this may harden the translation process from English to Arabic since such a system is not available in Arabic. (Spencer, 1991)

Consequently, the morphological divergence in constructing compounds in the two languages causes learners to commit serious interlingual errors mainly in translating from Arabic into English. Some of such errors are expected to be caused because of students' literal translation from Arabic to English and vice versa. However, some errors may be caused when teachers either fail to transfer correct patterns or concepts (meanings) to their students or do not stress and emphasize patterns, which have been correctly introduced. Thus, the result is that the students do not grasp such concepts properly. Additionally, some of the errors are caused because of the false application and ignorance of compounding rules.

Finally, some of the errors may be caused under redundancy which indicates that the students deduce false rules from what they perceive as similar patterns and overgeneralize such rules when they form English sentences.

5. Summary and recommendations

This study investigated the main differences between compounds in Arabic and English and identified areas of difficulties in compounding that are generally not easily be understood by Arab learners of English.

The results of the study show clearly that there are numerous differences. These are mainly represented in solid and hyphenated compounds along with the role of stress in compounding which are unavailable in Arabic. Therefore, errors are expected to be caused as a result of the difficulty in constructing English compounds and the negative interference between the two languages.

To master and use English compounds competently the following steps are recommended:

1. English language practitioners are recommended to teach English compounding from the very beginning as a system and not just as a haphazard collection of unconnected words. They should group together spatial compound words logically, and teach their meanings and uses through context and then conduct intensive drilling.
2. Compounding can only be mastered if its usage is carefully introduced and consistently reinforced. Therefore, teachers are strongly recommended to teach verbs, nouns or adjectives that govern compounding.
3. It is recommended that all the three types of compounding, the open form, spaced form, hyphenated form, and the solid or closed forms should receive adequate attention both in initial teaching and in subsequent reinforcement and revision.
4. Teachers are advised to be aware of the different types of compounding errors made by their students through observation and using prepared diagnostic tests that help them to be aware of the common errors so as to be able to apply adequate remedial work where necessary, and to predict what will be difficult and thus treat these difficulties by devoting special preventive care and emphasis to them.
5. Students should be informed why their errors are considered to be errors. For example, many students cannot differentiate between the use of “hyphen or spaced form or closed form”. Therefore, when errors occur it is necessary to point out the source of the error so that the students learn to differentiate between them.
- 6- Teachers are advised to relate problematic English compounding to their Arabic equivalents in order to draw students’ attention to the fact that literal translation into Arabic may lead them to make errors. So not every English compound word has a definite Arabic equivalent and vice versa .
7. Teachers should vary the methods and techniques of correcting errors committed by the students, not as usual way, just repeating the correct answer as a parrot. The error correction process needs more explanation to the correct answer when dealing with errors. Here the language log activity may be fruitful. (cf Amer 2004 for details)
8. It is necessary to give teachers in-service training courses to improve the performance in teaching. Further, evaluation and designing remedial plans for slow-learner students should be considered.
9. Due to the complexity of English compounding system and its rules which are not very helpful, the students need to use a certain grouping plan for learning a considerable number of compounds of all sorts.

In this grouping plan there are many groups. Each group contains compounds made up of similar elements with one and the same syntactic or semantic relation holding between their elements. Here is an example:

Group1: daybreak, sunrise, bloodshed, sun worship, housekeeper, self-command, self-respect, etc.

Group2: headache, toothache, stomachache, etc., nightclub, night porter, etc.

Group3: wineglass, dining room, inkstand, etc.

Group4: handwriting, fly-fishing sword-cut, etc.

Group5: manservant/ maidservant, bull elephant/ cow elephant, he-goat/she-goat, cock sparrow/ hen sparrow, etc.

Group6: blackbird, blackboard, bluebell, common law, green-room, etc

Group7: mad-house, sick-room, sweet-shop, etc.

Group8: drawing-room, knitting-needle, looking-glass, walking-stick, etc

Group9: drawbridge, grindstone, playground, treadmill, etc.

Group10: afterthought, byway, outpost, overcoat, underclothes, etc.

This grouping plan is very useful because it can expand and cover plenty of common compound words in English. This, to increase the student's stock of such compounds

Moreover, it may be good to provide students with the syntactic differences and semantic relations between the elements of compounds.

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