

The Verbal System of Malay and Arabic: Contrastive Analysis

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Abstract

This study examines the contrast between verbal system of Arabic and Malay. The researcher starts with a descriptive study for issues of verbal system in Malay. The following subjects are discussed: active voice, passive voice, derivation through prefixes and suffixes, repetition of the numbers and structures. In Arabic this study describes conditional sentences, conjugation, the expression, actions in different kinds, derivation, inflection, types of sentences, derivation of verbs and forms of perfect. The study found that the differences between two languages are in the subject of present tense, future, verb agreement, and passive voice and active voice.

Keywords: Contrastive Hypothesis-Morphology Structure- Malay- Morphology Arabic – Differences-Similarities-Conclusion

1. Introduction

1.1. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is defined as a sub discipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of language in order to determine both the differences and similarities between them. (See Fisiak, Jacek 1978, 2; Roger, Richard S 1994, 118, Gradman, Harry Lee 1970, 30)

According to the Fisiak (1978) there are two types of contrastive studies: theoretical and applied, analogous to Di Pietro's (1971) autonomous and generalized. Theoretical studies within semantics and syntax deal with universal categories and the ways they are realized in contrasted language.

Theoretical contrastive studies give an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages, provide an adequate model for their comparison, how and which elements are comparable, correspondence, etc. applied contrastive studies are part of applied linguistics. Drawing on the findings of theoretical contrastive studies they provide a framework for the comparison of languages, selecting whatever information is necessary for a specific purpose, e.g. teaching, bilingual analysis, translation, etc.

Applied contrastive studies are preoccupied with the problem of how a universal X, realized in language A as Y, is rendered in language B, and what may be the possible consequences of this for a given field of application. Another task of applied contrastive is the identification of probable areas of difficulty in another language. Applied contrastive studies deal with differences and similarities alike.

Contrastive analysis (CA) is the technique associated with contrastive linguistics (which is a branch of linguistics seek to compare the sounds, grammars, and vocabularies of two languages with the aim of describing the similarities and differences between them) and it may be defined as: a systematic comparison of selected linguistic features of two or more languages. The contrastive analysis hypothesis is stated by Gradman (1968, 168) "Contrastive analysis is based on the assumption, he says,

1. That the prime cause, or even sole cause, of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the learners native language;
2. That the difficulties are chiefly, or wholly, due to the differences between the two languages;
3. That the greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be;
4. That the results of a comparison between the two languages are needed predict the difficulties and errors which will occur in learning the foreign language;
5. That what there is to teach can be best be found by comparing the two languages and then subtracting what is common to them, so that "what the student has to learn equals to sum of the differences established by the contrastive analysis. It should be mentioned that scholars differ on how strongly they wish to claim for Interlingua interference the pride of place among error types".

I will analyze the areas of contrastive analysis (CA) at the morphological level in both Malay and Arabic as in the following:

2. *The Morphological Structures of Malay*

'Morphology is the study of the internal structure of forms which means the phonological or word orthographic representation of a grammatical word' (Mathews 1967). Morphology is a branch of grammar that studies the structure of words. (Crystal 1992). Malay morphology usually distinguishes between three morphological processes: affixation, reduplication, and compounding. (Hassan, Abdullah 1974, 43, Raminah 1985, 160)

The classification of morphemes into inflectional and derivational morphemes is not clear-cut. The list of inflectional morphemes in the studies on Malay morphology shows considerable variation. Hassan (1974, 45) said that the inflection/derivation distinction might be useful for what he calls voice affixes. They are four such affixes:

- (1) Active voice: (Hassan, Abdullah 1974, 100)
 - a. Mem + ber + henti + kan
 - b. Men + ter + balik + kan
 - c. Men + ter + tawa + kan
- (2) Passive Voice
 - a. Di + meng + erti 'to be understood'
 - b. Di + ter + balik + kan 'to be over turned'
 - c. Di + ter + tawa + kan 'to be laughed at'
- (3) Active/Passive
 - a. Ter + tawa + kan 'to cause/be caused to laugh unintentionally'
 - b. Ter + balik + kan 'to cause/be overturn'
 - c. Ter + ber + henti + kan 'to cause/be caused to stop unintentionally'

Prentice (1987, 921) admits two inflectional morphemes: men- denoting agent-orientation and di- denoting object-orientation. N in men- stands for nasal consonant homorganic with the initial phoneme of the root word (Schmitz, Michael 1990, 283).

Raminah (1985, 165) regards all word-class retaining affixes as inflectional and has therefore the longest list: di-kan, ber- per- an, ke-an (noun), wan ke-an (adjective), ter-. "in Malay affixes we will regard universal applicability of morphological pattern as a reason to classify an affix as inflectional, while distributional irregularities, multiple function of affixes and the ability to change the word class membership of the root will characterize an affix as derivational". (Hassan, Abdullah 1974, 78)

The most likely candidates for membership in the set of Malay inflectional morphemes are mean-, di-, ber-, and, ter. Ke-an are verbal affixes but they occur rarely and do not fulfill the condition of universal applicability. (See Hassan 1974, 78-79)

"There are two grammatical units involved in the morphological description of Malay: morphemes and words. In Malay, however since these are very few exceptions which can be handled by general rules, all morphemes are represented by word segments of constant phonological shape". (Hassan 1974, 40)

Mashudi (1981, 51) admits that verbs and adjectives are considered as belonging to a major grammatical category, verbal, because that have common properties. Causative verbs can be derived from both adjectives and true verbs as in the following examples:

From adjectives:

Tinggi	“tall”	--- meninggikan	“to cause to become tall”
Lebar	“wide”	--- melebarkan	“to cause to become wide”

From verbs:

Roboh	“to fall”	---- merobohkan	“to demolish”
Naik	“to go up”	---- menaikkan	“to raise”

Adjective:

Akan tinggi	(will be tall)
Sudahpendek	(already short)
Akan roboh	(will fall down)
Sudahnaik	(has gone up)

In Malay there are: (1) action-verbs like pukul “to hit”, pergi “to go”, and (2) non-action verbs like mempunyai “to own”, and menyerupai “to resemble”. There are also: (1) action adjectives such as sabar “(to be) patient”, amanah “(to be) honest” and (2) non-action adjectives such as panjang “long” and besar “big”. (Mashudi 1981, 51-52)

2.1.Causative verbs

Furthermore, in the Malay language the causative verbs can be derived from adjectives and true verbs. Mashudi (1981) admits that causative verbs can be derived from ada “to exist” as well. For example:

Tidur	“sleep”:	mean + tidur + kan	---menidurkan	“to cause to sleep”
Besar	“big”:	mem + besar + kan	--- membesarkan	“to cause to enlarge”
Ada	“to exist”:	meng + ada + kan	---- mengadakan	“to exist”

Derivation

Morphological processes.

There are three (3) morphological processes in Malay: affixation, reduplication and compounding.

2.2.Affixation

Affixation is a morphological process whereby a base may be extended by one or more affixes. A base is a form to which affixes are attached, or upon which reduplication operates. A base may be free or bound root morpheme or a complex, reduplicated or a compound form. (Hassan 1974; Onn, Farid 1980, 61)

Affixes may be classified as prefixes, suffixes, infixes, and circumfixes according to their position or occurrence in relation to the base. Prefixes precede the base, suffixes follow the base, infixes are inserted within the base, and circumfixes are discontinuous combinations of prefixes and suffixes.

The means of prefixation which provide the most interesting data are the ones that are used to mark the active voice, and the ones from which nominal's are derived. Both prefixes (active voices, nominals) have a final nasal and for convenience are referred to as the nasal-final prefixation. (Onn 1980, 61)

(1) Verbal	Nominal	stem	Gloss
Memandupemandupandu		‘guide’	
Menarikpenariktarik		‘pull’	
Mengawalpengawalkawal		‘guard, petrol’	
Menanampenanamtanam			
Memborongpemborongborong		‘wholesale’	
Mendakipendakidaki		‘climb’	
Menjajahpenjajahjajah		‘explore, colonize’	
Mengganaspengganasganas		‘wild, terror’	

When a nasal-final prefix is attached to stems with an initial voiceless consonant, the surface effect would be that the final nasal consonant of the prefix becomes homorganic to the following consonant, and the stem initial voiceless consonant is dropped. If the initial consonant of the stem is voiced, it is not dropped; nut will form a cluster with the preceding homorganic nasal.

When a nasal-final prefix is attached to a stem with final one or a glide, the final nasal consonant of the prefix does not normally show up on the surface. Examples are as follows:

Verbal	nominal	stem	gloss
Melarangpelaranglarang		‘forbid’	
Meragutperagutragut		‘snatch’	
Melukispelukislukis		‘paint, draw’	
Merayuperayurayu		‘appeal’	

A large inventory of prefixes is used in Malay to perform a number of functions. Most of these prefixes behave like the prefix di-, in that their surface forms are invariable, and that their attachment to the primary stem results in no comparing change in the stem itself. The prefixes that occur in Malay are discussed by Onn (1980) and Hassan (1974). I referred to the work of Abdullah Hassan and FaridOnn on the functions of affixes in Malay.

2.3.Reduplication

Reduplication is defined as a process of repeating a word either wholly or partially (Hj Omar, Asmah 1975, 186; Onn 1980, 68; Hassan, Abdullah 1974, 44). There are ten types of reduplication. These types are determined according to:

- (1) The component of the word which undergoes reduplication, and
- (2) The structure of the word which is resultant from the process of reduplication.

1.1 reduplication type 1

This is whole reduplication where the whole word, simple or complex, is reduplicated. This process applies to words of all classes. (Hj Omar, Asmah 1975, 186-187)

(1) nouns

(i)	rumah	‘house’
	rumah-rumah	‘houses’
(ii)	orang	‘person’
	orang-orang	‘persons’
(iii)	binatang	‘animal’
	binatang-binatang	‘animals’
(iv)	fikiran	‘thought’
	fikiran-fikiran	‘thoughts’
(v)	permainan	‘game’
	permainan-permainan	‘games’

- (2) verbs
- | | | |
|-------|-------------|--|
| (i) | putus | ‘broken’ |
| | putus-putus | ‘broken to pieces (of string or such like things)’ |
| (ii) | buat | ‘to do’ ; ‘to make’ |
| | buat-buat | ‘to pretend’ |
| (iii) | main | ‘to play’ |
| | Main-main | ‘to joke’ |
| (iv) | maki | ‘to abuse’ |
| | maki-maki | ‘to keep on abusing’ |
- (3) adjectives
- | | | |
|-------|---------------|--|
| (i) | baik | ‘good’ |
| | baik-baik | ‘very good ; good (with plural subject)’ |
| (ii) | tajam | ‘sharp’ |
| | tajam-tajam | ‘sharp (with plural subject) ‘very difficult’ |
| (iii) | tinggi | ‘tall’ |
| | tinggi-tinggi | ‘tall, high (with plural subject) ‘very tall, very high’ |
| (iv) | putih | ‘white, fair’ |
| | putih-putih | ‘white, fair (with plural subject) ‘very fair, extremely fair’ |
- (4) adverbs
- | | | |
|-------|---------------|--------------------------|
| (i) | dulu | ‘before’ |
| | dulu-dulu | ‘long ago’ |
| (ii) | dekat | ‘near’ |
| | dekat-dekat | ‘very near’ |
| (iii) | hampir | ‘almost’ |
| | hampir-hampir | ‘almost (with emphasis)’ |
| (iv) | nyaris | ‘almost’ |
| | nyaris-nyaris | ‘almost (with emphasis)’ |
| (v) | selalu | ‘always’ |
| | selalu-selalu | ‘always (with emphasis)’ |

These examples above are given for the major classes only.

1.2 reduplication type II

This type of reduplication does not apply to the noun or class. It applies mainly to the verbs, the adjectives and the numbers and quantities. (Hj. Omar, Asmah 1975, 188; Suliman, Othman 1990, 257)

- (5) verbs
- | | | |
|-------|----------------------|--|
| (i) | menangis | ‘to cry’ |
| | menangis-nangis | ‘to keep on crying’ |
| (ii) | membaca | ‘to read’ |
| | membaca-baca | ‘to while away the time reading’ |
| (iii) | berbual | ‘conversing’ |
| | berbual-bual | ‘to keep on conversing’ |
| (iv) | memperbesarkan | ‘to enlarge’ |
| | Memperbesar-besarkan | ‘to exaggerate’ |
| (v) | melompati | ‘to jump over (something)’ |
| | melompati-lompati | ‘to jump over (something) again and again’ |
- (6) adjectives
- | | | |
|------|-----------------|-------------------------------|
| (i) | sepandai | ‘as clever’ |
| | sepandai-pandai | ‘most clever, however clever’ |
| (ii) | setinggi | ‘as tall’ |
| | setinggi-tinggi | ‘tallest, however tall’ |

According to Hj. Omar, Asmah (1975) the adjectives which are affected by reduplication type II are only those with the prefix *se-*. She mentioned also that adjectives with the prefix *ter-* (the only other adjective affix) are not affected by this process.

(7) Numbers and quantities

(i)	Ribu	‘thousand’
	Ribu-ribu	‘thousands’
(ii)	Ratus	‘hundred’
	Ratus-ratus	‘hundreds’
(iii)	Lima	‘five’
	Kelima	‘the fifth, all the five’
	Kelima-lima	‘all the five’
(iv)	Ramai	‘many’
	Ramai-ramai	‘(in) a large group’
(v)	Malam	‘night’
	Bermalam-malam	‘(in) many nights’

For further information the reader is referred to the work of Hj. Omar, Asmah (1975,197) for details of other types of reduplications. Below is a summary of the different types of reduplication provided by Asmah:

‘type I has the highest percentage score (3019 + 59.92%). Type II comes second (1888 + 37.48%). The percentages scored by the rest of the types are all below 1%. The explanation for this is provided by the percentage scores of the roots involved and the resultant reduplicative in terms of their class membership...of the nouns and the verbs have the highest percentage scores in that order. Most of the nouns in Malay are reduplicated by reduplication- type I, whereas most of the verbs are reduplicated by reduplication- type II. These two types are about the only productive ones. As far as the other types are concerned, not only are they non-productive but their examples are also restricted in number’.

2.4.Compounding

A compound form is a construction that has two or three free forms as its constituents (Hassan, Abdullah 1974, 46). Each of the constituents of a compound is combined syntactically. According to Abdullah Hassan it is called a syntactic compound, for example *ayah tua* ‘eldest uncle’ (*ayah* ‘father’ and *tua* ‘to be old’ are head modifier respectively) ; otherwise it is a syntactic, for example, *mahasiswa* ‘student’ (*maha* ‘big’ and *siswa* ‘student’ are modifier and head respectively).

There are two kinds of compounds: endocentric and exocentric

1. Endocentric compounds

An endocentric compound has a similar syntactic function to one of its constituents, which is the head of the construction, e.g. *kayu api* ‘fire wood’ (*kayu* ‘wood’ is the head and *api* ‘fire’ is the modifier) and *birumuda* ‘light blue’ (*biru* ‘to be blue’ is the head , and *muda* ‘to be young’ is the modifier). (Hassan, Abdullah 1974,47)

2. Exocentric compounds

The constituents of an exocentric compound do not belong to the same form class (or have the same syntactic function), thus all the constituents are obligatory in the sense that none of the constituents may function as the whole compound, e.g. *keluar* ‘to emerge’ (*ke* ‘to’ and *luar* ‘out’), and *yang terhormat* ‘the respected one’ (*yang* ‘which’ and *terhormat* ‘to have respect’). Abdullah Hassan admits that some commantically exocentric (or idiomatic), e.g. *langkahkanan* ‘to be lucky’ (or in time for something). *Langkah* ‘a step’ is the head, and *kanan* ‘right (side)’ is the modifier).

3.The morphological structures of Arabic

The morphological component contains at least (3) main sets of rules: the derivational rules those which produce mainly the consonantal faces. The inflectional rules those which develop such bases into fully-fledged verb forms. The redundancy rules those which state the redundant features of the segment before they enter the phonological component.

In what follows, there are three (3) types of redundancy rules in standard Arabic:

- a) The root structure condition (RSCs)
- b) The segment structure condition (SSCs)
- c) The truffle rules (Bakalla 1975, 337,97)

I will concern myself with the semantic and grammatical aspects of Arabic morphology and their relation to basic forms, ignoring the many phonological changes which basic forms undergo.

3.1. Arabic morphology (Taṣrīf)

The core of morphology revolves around the concepts of taṣrīf تصريف, which can be broadly translated as “morphology” and in some contexts as “derivation”, and to a lesser degree ‘ishtiqaq’ “derivation”.

Taṣrīf is based on the root ṣrf صرف which has a basic idea of changing direction, averting and of following freely. From this root are derived a number words of import in grammatical studies, all having the idea of “flowing freely” being able to change from one form to another. (Ibn Jinni(II) 1955, p 56)

Taṣrīf: distinguishing basic and non-basic sounds.

Three (3) meanings of Taṣrīf can be distinguished two of them very close to each other. First it is concerned with defining the basic and non-basic sound zāid زائد “added”. The basic sounds are represented (f) (‘) and (l) (f’ “do”) so that for example, the word fahim فهِم “understand” would have the shape fa‘ila, d‘araba “hit” fa‘ala the noun rajul رَجُل “man” fa‘ul and so on. All the sounds in these fahima and together define the basic meaning of the root. The non-basic sounds are represented by themselves, so that for example, yaktubu يَكْتُبُ “he writes” is yaf‘ulu, where the ya-prefix is a ḥarf mud‘āri‘, a sound of the imperfect verb انتقل انتقل “moved” is ‘ifta‘ala with a-t-infix in the نَقَلَ “root” ngl. The added sounds occur especially as infixes in words, a point which led Arabic grammarians to emphasize the word-internal domain of taṣrīf. Short vowels are used to define possible types of morphological structure (e.g. nouns never are of the form fu‘il, they do contribute to the overall meaning of a form (Ibn Faris 1982, 310)

The morphological patterns are morphologically as apposed syntactically determined. The syntactically determined are the case endings, pronominal suffixes, the items of definiteness the indefinite –n and the definite article prefix, and in addition certain prepositions, discourse and emphazier affixes are not counted as a part of the morphological word structure though they are written orthographically as affixes. (Owens, Jonathan 1988, 100)

Virtually all other morphological elements can be discussed within the terms of taṣrīf “morphology”. These elements have in common is they are associated with a fixed pattern and that if any of the elements are taken away the morphological pattern is destroyed and the meaning radically alter or lost together.

An example of the taṣrīf “morphology” of a root, its total range of forms, is as follows, using the root ktb كَتَبَ “concerning writing”. (Thatcher, G. W 1982, 62; Wickens, G. M 1980, 38)

(1) Kataba كَتَبَ	“to write”
Yaktubu يَكْتُبُ	“he write (s)”
Taktubu تَكْتُبُ	“she write (s)”
Kattaba كَتَّبَ	“make write”
Maktūb مَكْتُوب	“written”
Kātaba كَاتَبَ	“correspond”
Maktab مَكْتَب	“office”
Maktabatun مَكْتَبَةٌ	“library”
Makātib مَكَاتِب	“offices”
Kitāb كِتَاب	“Book”
Kutub كُتُب	“Books”
Kitābatun كِتَابَات	“writings”

Thtaṣrīf of ktb, or any other root refers to the different built on this root. Taṣrīf is viewed both as a system and as a process by Arabic grammarians. On one hand the taṣrīf of a form is the total range of patterns a root fits into (where no roots will realize all possible morphological patterns). At the same time one can apply thtaṣrīf “to make it circulate”, to obtain the range of forms it is realized in.

The importance of the system of taṣrīf not only lies on its function in classifying all morphological forms in Arabic, but also in providing the speaker to template in order to find new forms which he or she may never have heard of before on the basis of those which he or she knows (Ibn jinni (II)1952,40). For example if a speaker wants to create a verbal noun maṣdar مصدر from the verb أَكْرَمْتُهُ akramtuhu “I honored him”, then he/she will prefix mu- to the root and place /a/ after the /r/ (= al) مَكْرَمٌ mukram, since this is the pattern of all verbal nouns to verbs of the form ‘af’ala أَفْعَلٌ (Owen, Jonathan 1988, 101-103)

3.2.Sub-categories of taṣrīf

A different dichotomical description of taṣrīf was made, namely that between morphological derivation and morph phonological rule by ibn‘uṣfūr (1980, 31-32). Five sub-parts of taṣrīf were distinguished: the addition of added sounds, change in the form in terms of consonants and vowels, deletion of sounds to another ‘ibdāl إبدال. Roughly it will appear that the first two pertain to another morphological change (e.g. derivational change) taṣrīf I, while the other three to morphological change taṣrīf II.

3.2.1.The function of inflection

Inflection is basically a nominal property. Verbs and particles lack inflection (IbnFaris 1982, 205;IbnuAlanbari1971,24). On the one hand, they argue that a noun like zayd زيد has a meaning by itself, but is undifferentiated as to distinguish it in its various sentence functions, particularly to distinguish agent from object (IbnFaris 1982,76, 309)

(1) Ḍaraba/zaydan/‘amrun
 ٤ / ٤ ٤ ٤ / ٤ ٤ ٤
 Hit/ Zayd /Amr
 acc/ noun

“Amr hit Zayd”

In (1) only case inflection distinguishes the two nouns. On the other hand, there is only a single verb in a sentence, so it does not need to be distinguished by inflection.

3.2.2. Verb inflection

The imperfective verb is inflected for mode: indicative, subjunctive and jussive but not the perfective which is uninflected for mode the verb kataba كَتَبَ “he wrote” takes the following inflection:

Kataba كَتَبَ “he wrote”
 Lanyaktuba لَنْ يَكْتُبَ “he won’t write”
 Lam yaktub لَمْ يَكْتُبْ “he didn’t write”

The reason the imperfective verb, which is basically uninflected, can take inflection is that it resembles the active participle. The imperfective verb has a number of resemblances to the noun, which is basically inflectable, and because of these resemblances it becomes inflectable as well. (IbnAlanbari 1971, 107-108)

3.2.2.The imperfective verb:

أصل uninflected far‘inflected فرغ
 علة illa The imperfective verb’s resemblance to the noun

A verb is basically uninflected, but because of various resemblances to nouns, it takes on the marked characteristic of a noun by taking on inflection.

The resemblances include the following:

(1) Both can be specified by a prefix for the verb, the specification involves narrowing down the set to which the noun/verb refers. The imperfect can refer to either present future time. When the prefix sa- is added it indicates future time. For the noun, the specification involves the definite article prefix, which narrows the reference of a noun down from an indifferent set to a definite individual :

rajulu – رَجُلٌ “a man”
 alrajulu الرَّجُلُ “the man”
 def
 yaktubu يَكْتُبُ “he writes”

sa-yaktubu سَيَكْتُبُ “he will write/will write”
 fut

(2) Both can be preceded by the morpheme la- which emphasizes the predicate.

Noun:

Inna/Zaydan / la-munṭaliqun/
 مِنْطَلِقٌ + لَ / زَيْدٌ / إِنَّ
 /Indeed/Zayd/ is/ leaving/
 “Indeed Zayd is leaving”

Verb:

Inna/Zaydan/ la-yagumu/
 يَقُومُ - لَ / زَيْدٌ / إِنَّ
 “Indeed Zayd is standing”

(3) Both can have the same phonological form, a sequence of short vowel + consonant.

d'ārib ضَارِبٌ “hitting”
 CaCCIC (AP=N)

yuqbil يُقْبِلُ “he comes”
 (Verb) (Jussive)

(4) Both occur in the position of a noun (e.g. as comment or modifier, na‘t)

a) Zaydun/qā'imun Zaydun/yaqūmu

قَائِمٌ / زَيْدٌ
 Zayd /Standing يَقُومُ / زَيْدٌ
 “Zayd is standing” “Zayd is getting up”

Marartu/ bi -rajulin/qā'imin/marartu/ bi -rajulin/yaqūmu/
 قَائِمٌ / رَجُلٍ - بَ / مَرَرْتُ يَقُومُ / رَجُلٍ - بَ / مَرَرْتُ
 Passed-I/ by/ man/ standing Passed/ by - man /standing

“I passed a man standing” “I passed a man fitting up”

In (4a) the verb occurs in the position of an inflected noun.

3.2.3. Derivation al-'ishtiqaq الإشتقاق

In the study of morphology there exists a subject related to taṣrīf and to a certain degree based on it though somewhat more restricted in nature. This is the derivation of one word from another, where the derivation involves both a change in form and meaning.

A second meaning has a usage very similar to the taṣrīf the sets of morphological forms derived from a single root. (IbnJini(II)1956 , 134)

Compounding تَرْكِيْب tarkīb

Compounding involves the joining of two words together to form a unit that is like a single word. The effect of the compounding process must be in some way. The difference between compound and non-compound words can be exemplified as follows:

- (5) a. هذا ha-dhā “this”
 b. خمسة عشر khamsata ‘ashar “15”

Both examples have words of two morphemes. In (5a) there is ha “warning” and dha “this”, also an independent morpheme. Here the two occur together and are written as one word, but do not form a compound word because there is no change, syntactic or morphological, between ha-dha as single words and as one (orthographic) word. Khamsata “5” ‘ashar “10” occur as independent words, but khamsata is a regular inflected noun by itself, taking nominative, accusative and genitive case inflections. (5b) when it occurs in th‘ashar it invariably ends in –a (mabni‘ala l-fath). Khamsata‘ashara is thus a compound noun whose inflectional status changes in the course of compounding.

4. Contrastive analysis

The areas of differences between Arabic and Malay in verbal system can be specified in the following:

4.1 Tense: in Arabic is an inflectional category which locates the action expressed by a verb at a time relative to the moment of speaking. Time is a non-linguistic concept which is usually thought of in the terms of subdivisions: past, present and future, while in Malay tense may be expressed by auxiliaries which precede the verb but need not be used if the tense is already sufficiently evident from the context.

Egs:

a. wasalat/ al-risaalatu/ al-sā‘ata /al-tasi‘ati /sabaahan /amsi/

(1)

رسالة / وصلت / رسالة + أل / وصلت /
 Came/ the letter / o'clock / nine / morning/yesterday/
 ‘The letter came by the nine o'clock post yesterday’

b. surat/sampai/pos/pukul/Sembilan/kelmarin/pagi/

Letter/ arrive/ post/o'clock/ nine / yesterday/ morning/
 ‘The letter came by the nine o'clock post yesterday morning.’

(2) a. fī /dhālika/ al-waḡti/kāna/ustazuna/yaqra’u/ al-risaalata/
 رسالة + أل / يقرأ / كان / أستاذنا / وقت + أل / ذلك / في

In / that / the time/to be/ hewas /teacher (our)/read / the- letter/
 ‘At that time our teacher was reading a letter’

b. pada/masa/itu/cikgu/kita/ tengah/ baca/ surat

from/ time/ that/ teacher/ we /To be engaged to/ read/ the letter
 ‘At that time our teacher was reading a letter’

It is noticeable from the example in (1.a) that the verb waḡalat ‘came’, placed the action expressed by the verb at the time prior to the moment of utterance. On the other hand in the Malay sentence (1.b) the verb sampai ‘to come’ is expressed by the adverbial “kelmarin”.

In sentence (2.a) the past as illustrated by yaqra’u ‘read’ past time is expressed by “masaitu” that indicating an event that has passed. On the other hand, in sentence (2.b) the verb tengah ‘to be engaged’ together with a word baca ‘to read’ expressed past time tengahbaca ‘was read’.

It is noticeable from the above sentences (2.a.b) that time in both languages differ in expression; while time in Malay is indicated by adverbs and expression of time. The Arabic tense is expressed by the verb.

4.1. Verbal derivation

Arabic has derived verbal forms which are based on the root word which forms the basis of many related meanings, while the Malay verbal system, in most cases, is characterized by the use of prefixes or suffixes and its reliance upon modals.

4.1.1. Conjugation of the perfective

The Arabic verb has five moods namely, the indicative, the subjunctive, the jussive or conditional, the Imperative, and energetic, while Malay verbs are grouped into eight classes which generally take prefixes or suffixes, with others using both, while another class does not require any.

4. The imperative

In Arabic the imperative verb is formed from the very jussive by omitting the pronominal prefix, but as a word in Arabic must not begin with a vowel letter it is supported by a prefixed 'alif'. This 'alif' takes the vowel d'amma 'a', (only if the second radical has kesra 'a' or fatha 'a'). Malay uses the simple form of the verb for the imperative to direct commands to a singular or plural addressee.

Egs:

(1) a. 'itaṣil (impv)/'ala/ al-ṭabībi
 طبيب- ال / على / اتصل

'Call the doctor'

b. hubungi (impv)/ doctor/
 'Call the doctor'

(2) a. 'ajib (impv)/'an/dhālika/ al-suāli/
 سؤال+ال/ ذلك / عن / أجب

'Answer the question'

(3) a. 'a'ṭini (impv)/dhālika/ al-qāmūsa/
 قاموس+ال/ ذلك / أعطني

'(Please) bring me the dictionary'

b. Berikan (Impv) sayakamusitu.

'(Please) bring me the dictionary'

(4) a. nam (impv)/huna
 هنا / نَمْ

'(Please) sleep here'

b. tidur (lah) (impv) di sini.
 '(Please) sleep here'

(5) a. Ali/tafad'al/'udkhul (impv)
 ادْخُلْ / تَفَضَّلْ / علي

'Ali... come in'

b. Ali, masuk (lah)
 'Ali, come in'

It is noticeable from the above sentences that the imperative in Arabic is formed from the jussive by omitting the pronominal as in 'ittaṣil' 'call'; 'ajib' 'answer'; 'a' 'ṭi' 'bring'; nam 'sleep' and 'udkhul' 'come in'.

These verbs mentioned above begin with hamzat al wasl الِ هَمْزَةُ الْوَصْلِ 'a vowelless letter supported by the prefixed 'alif.

On the other hand, the imperative verbs in Malay sometimes take a suffix –I as in *hubungi*, or –kan as in *kiriman*. Malay can also soften direct imperatives by using the particle –lah as in *masuklah* ‘come in’; *tidurlah* ‘sleep’.

It is clear from the contrast that the imperative in both languages differs in form and the Malay verb does not have moods like Arabic.

4.1.2 Imperfective (present tense) فعل الأمر

The present tense in Arabic expresses an action still unfinished at the time to which reference is being made, while in Malay the present is indicated by the various expression of time. It can also be understood from the context (habitual action).

Egs

- (1) a. *hiya/ ta ‘malu (ipfr)/fii/ al-jami‘ati*
 جامعة-ال/في / تعمل/ هي
 She / work / in / the/ university/
 ‘She works at the university’

- b. *diabekerja (ipfr) di universiti*
 ‘She works at the university’

- (2) a. *huwa/yashrabu (ipfr)/ al-mā’a*
 ماء-ال/ يشرب/ هو
 He/ drink/ the water/
 ‘He drinks water’

- b. *diaminum (ipfv) air itu (sekarang).*
 ‘He is drinking the water (now)’

It is noticed from the above examples (1.2.a) that the imperfective verb *ta‘malu* ‘she works’ gives the meaning of continues present or the habitual present; the imperfective verb *yashrabu* ‘he drinks’ expresses an action still unfinished. This verb *yashrabu* is construed most naturally by Arabic speakers of the standard variety with a present meaning parallel to the given speech situation, while in the Malay sentences (1.2.b) the “tense” of a verb standing alone is undetermined; that is, time may be expressed by the auxiliaries and other expressions which precede or follow the verb but need not be used if the time is already sufficiently evident from the context.

Notice that the verb *kerja* indicates habitual action and the adverbial *sekarang* “now” indicates that the action is still unfinished.

4.2. Perfective (past tense) الفعل الماضي

The perfective in Arabic denotes a finished action. The application of the perfective can be summed up as follows: (1) it designates a terminated action or state of affairs (2) aspirations and wishes, where it implies that its wish has already been fulfilled and (3) to provide a situational picture arising from past actions. In such cases, the confirmatory particle *qad* is often put before the perfect to strengthen it, while in the Malay the perfect is expressed by the use of the auxiliary verb *sudah* ‘finished, done, over’. *Sudah* in Malay may be employed as a verb meaning “to complete and in conjunction with the verb *habis* ‘used up, finished off”, to signify “finished”. *Sudah* ‘enough, sufficient’ in Malay can be used up to cease any course of action.

Egs

- (1) a. *al-hārisu/‘axhlaqa/‘al-bāba/‘amsi*
 أمس/ باب-ال/ أغلق/ حارس – ال
 The watch man closed –he the – door yesterday

‘The watchman closed the door last night’

- b. *penjaga/ itu/sudah/tutup/pintu/semalam*
 Person/ watch/ has/ close/ the door/ yesterday

‘The watchman closed the door last night’

(2) a. dakhala//al-muslimūna/makkata

مكة / مسلمون - ال / دخل

‘Muslims entered mecca’

b. orang Islam/sudah/masuk/mekah

‘The Muslims had entered Mecca’

Notice that the perfective in sentence (1.a) and (2.a) designates an action with a past component of a meaning, while the perfect in Malay expresses the past time by the auxiliary sudah ‘to finish’.

5. Future tense المضارع المستقبل

In Arabic there are two ways of indicating futurity. A part from using combinations of two words, using one function syllable and one function word. The function syllable is sa-س. The function word sawfa-سوف. In Malay the future tense is formed by the verb mahu ‘to want’; ‘do’

Egs.

(1) a. naḥnu/sawfa/nuqābilu//al-rajula/ al-qazama

قزم - ال / رجل - ال / نقابل / سوف / نحن

‘We (want/will) see the short gentleman’

b. kami/akan/jumpa/tuanpendek/ esok/

‘We (want/will) see the short gentleman’

(2) a. min/fad’lika/ ‘an/tusā‘idni/ li / ‘annanii/sawfa/‘aruddu/‘ala/hadihii/ al-risālati.

رسالة-ال / هذه / على / أرد / سوف / أنني / لي / تساعدني / أن / فضلك / من

‘Please, help me; I will reply this letter.’

b. tolong bantu saya, saya akan menjawab surat ini.

‘Please help me; I will reply this letter.’

The expression future in Arabic can be signaled by using the particles qad ‘confirmatory’, law لو ‘if’, ‘idhā‘if’, when kayfa كيف ‘however’. Qad can be affixed to the imperfective verb, subjunctive, while law and idhā can precede the imperfective subjunctive.

In Malay the future is formed by preceding akan ‘will’. The future is also frequently formed by the use of the aspectual akan.

6. Subject Verb- agreement important

Keenan (1976) in defines the subject of a sentence as either a pre-verbal or post-verbal nominative noun phrase (NP). In Arabic, the subject in a sentence is an important word. Subject Verb- agreement is a prominent feature. A singular subject should take a singular verb. Likewise, a plural subject should have a plural verb in a sentence. In the perfect, the verb takes tense, number & person suffixes. The third masculine singular is unmarked form (and is used as the citation form)

Eg.

Kataba-كَتَبَ ‘he wrote’

Katab-at-كَتَبَتْ ‘she wrote’

Katab-ta-كَتَبْتَ ‘you (m) wrote’

Katab-ti-كَتَبْتِ ‘you (f) wrote’

Katab-tu-كَتَبْتُ ‘I wrote’

Katab-ū-كَتَبُوا ‘they (m) wrote’

Katab-tum-كَتَبْتُمْ ‘you (pl) wrote’

Katab-tunna-كَتَبْتُنَّ ‘you (f.pl) wrote’

Katab-nā' كَتَبْنَا 'we wrote'

The imperfect takes person prefixes and number/gender suffixes.

Eg.

Yaktub-u يَكْتُبُ 'he wrote'

Ta-ktub-u تَكْتُبُ 'she wrote'

Taktub-u تَكْتُبُ 'you (m) write'

Ta-k-īna تَكْتُبِينَ 'you (f) write'

'a-ktub-u أَكْتُبُ 'I write'

Ya-ktub-ūna يَكْتُبُونَ 'they (m) write'

Ya-ktub-na يَكْتُبْنَ 'they (f) write'

Ta-ktub-ūna تَكْتُبُونَ 'you (f.pl) write'

Ta-ktub-na تَكْتُبْنَ 'you (f.pl) write'

Na-ktub-u نَكْتُبُ 'we write'

In Malay, the nouns which indicate singularity or plurality take the same verb. The pronouns in Malay are: (Fag, LiawYock 1996)

First person:

Saya 'I, me, my'

Aku 'I, me, my'

Kami 'we, us'

Kita 'we, us'

Second person:

Awak 'you, your'

Engkau 'you, your'

Kamu 'you, your'

Awaksekalian 'all of you'

Andasekalian 'all of you'

Engkausekalian 'all of you'

Kamusekalian 'all of you'

Third person:

Ia 'he/she, him/her'

Dia 'he/she, him/her'

Beliau 'he/she, him/her'

Mereka 'they, them, their'

7. Conditional sentences (CA) جُمْلَةُ الشَّرْطِ (CA)

In Arabic, syntactically, conditional sentences are of two types: (Badawi, Elsaied. Maichael G. Carter and Adrian Gully (II) 2004, 636)

In Arabic language the traditional conditional sentence is made up of the following:

- adāt'al-shart أداة الشَّرْطِ 'a conditional particle'
- fi'lu'al-shart جملة الشَّرْطِ 'protasis' or lit. verb of the condition'
- jawāb'al-shart جواب الشَّرْطِ or jazā' 'apodasis' or lit. 'answer' or 'requital'

It is a general principle that both protasis and apodasis are verbal sentences.

The two main conditional particles of CA are 'in إِنْ 'if' and law لَوْ 'if only', each with a different function. In addition the particle idhā 'إِذَا' 'when' (past or future), although technically a temporal adverbial 'at the time of', precedes a clause containing conditional sense. Law لَوْ can be followed by a verb or nominal structure; and 'in إِنْ and 'dhā إِذَا must be in the perf., whilst 'in إِنْ may be followed by the perf.

In Malay the ayatsyarat 'conditional sentence' is made up of the main clause and the subordinate clause:

1. Main clause: This may precede or follow the subordinated clause when subordination is effected by the particle.

2. Subordinate clause: which is when two clauses are joined in subordinate relation one is the main clause, and the other, preceded by the particle is the subordinate clause.

In Malay clauses of condition are introduced by *jika*, *kalau*, and *jikalau* 'if'. e.g: (Fank, LiawYock 1988, 180)

- a. *Jika* saya tidak salah, orang itu memang ayahnya.
'If I am not mistaken, that man is really his father'
b. *jikalau* dia tidak mau pergi, saya tidak mau pergi.
'If he does not come, I do not want to go'
c. *kalaupun* saya berjalani berlari.
'If I come, he runs away'

3.1 Particle: in Arabic the particle precedes the verb, while in Malay the particle precedes the Subject. E.g:

- a. 'In *yadhab* Ahmad
أحمد / يذهب / إن
If /go / Ahmad
'If Ahmad goes'

- b. 'In *yaqra*' Ali
علي / يقرأ / إن
If /read/ Ali
'If Ali reads'

In Malay:

- a. *Jika* / Ahmad / pergi.
If / Ahmad / go.
'If Ahmad goes'
b. *Jika* / Ali / baca.
If / Ali / reads
'If Ali reads'

8. *The passive voice* المبنى للمعلوم

The process of passivation in Arabic involves the deletion of the subject of the verb in active construction. Consequently the verb takes the passive form and is assigned the nominative case ending, while in Malay the verb is in the passive voice when it expresses an action performed on its subject. On the other hand, the active sentence in Malay change into the passive by (1) making the direct object the subject; (2) Making the subject is made the agent (expressed or implied) which may be preceded by the preposition *oleh* 'by' and ; (3) placing the verb in the passive form. All verbs in the passive *jati* (true passive) contain the prefix *di-* instead of the prefix *me-* and may be followed by *oleh*.

Egs.

Arabic

- (1) Active Ali/'akala/ al-'aruzza
الأرز / أكل / علي
Ali/ eats/ rice
'Ali ate the rice'

Passive 'ukila (passive)/ al-'aruzzu (agent)
الأرز / أكل
Was eaten/ the rice
'Rice was eaten by...'

Malay

(2) Active Ali /makan/nasi/itu.

Ali/ ate/ the rice

‘Ali ate the rice’

Passive Nasi/itu/dimakan/oleh/ Ali

The rice/that/ was eaten/ by/ Ali

‘The rice was eaten by Ali’

In Arabic the first or second object of certain verbs that may take two accusative objects:

Egs.

Active: 'a'ṭaytu (pfv)/zaydan/kitāban.

كُتِبَ / زَيْدًا / أُعْطِيتُ

‘I gave Zayd a book’

Passive: a. 'u'tiya (passive) zaydunkitāban

كُتِبَ / زَيْدًا / أُعْطِيَ

‘Zayd was given a book’

b. 'u'tiya (passive)/kitāban (obj)/zaydun

كُتِبَ / أُعْطِيَ / زَيْدًا

‘A book was given to Zayd’

In Malay, the uses of the first and second persons as agents in the di-construction have restrictions. When the first and second person pronouns, i.e. saya, kami, kita, kamu occur at NI in the active sentence, the sentence may not be changed to passive sentences.

9. Conclusion

This study found that there are differences between Malay and Arabic in the following subjects:

1. Tense in Arabic is an inflectional category which locates the action expressed by a verb at a time relative to the moment of speaking. Time is a non-linguistic concept which is usually thought of in the terms of subdivisions: past, present and future, while in Malay tense may be expressed by auxiliaries which precede the verb but need not be used if the tense is already sufficiently evident from the context.
2. Arabic has derived verbal forms which are based on the root word which forms the basis of many related meanings, while the Malay verbal system, in most cases, is characterized by the use of prefixes or suffixes and its reliance upon modals.
3. The Arabic verb has five moods namely, the indicative, the subjunctive, the jussive or conditional, the Imperative, and energetic, while Malay verbs are grouped into eight classes which generally take prefixes or suffixes, with others using both, while another class does not require any.
4. The present tense in Arabic expresses an action still unfinished at the time to which reference is being made, while in Malay the present is indicated by the various expression of time. It can also be understood from the context (habitual action).
5. The perfective in Arabic denotes a finished action, while in the Malay the perfect is expressed by the use of the auxiliary verb sudah ‘finished, done, over. Sudah in Malay may be employed as a verb meaning “to complete and in conjunction with the verb habis ‘used up, finished off”, to signify “finished”. Sudah ‘enough, sufficient’ in Malay can be used up to cease any course of action.
6. In Arabic there are two ways of indicating futurity. A part from using combinations of two words, using one function syllable and one function word. The function syllable is سَا. The function word sawfa سوف. In Malay the future tense is formed by the verb mahu ‘to want’; ‘do’.
7. In Arabic language the traditional conditional sentence is made up of the following:
adāt 'al-shart أداة الشرط ‘a conditional particle’ fi'lu 'al-shart جملة الشرط ‘protasis’ or lit. Verb of the condition’
jawāb 'al-shart جواب الشرط orjazā’ ‘apodasis’ or lit. ‘Answer’ or ‘requital’.

Both protasis and apodasis are verbal sentences. In Malay the ayatsyarat 'conditional sentence' is made up of the main clause and the subordinate clause: Main clause: This may precede or follow the subordinated clause when subordination is effected by the particle. Subordinate clause: which is when two clauses are joined in subordinate relation one is the main clause, and the other, preceded by the particle is the subordinate clause. In Malay clauses of condition are introduced by jika, kalau, and jikalau 'if'.

8. The process of passivation in Arabic involves the deletion of the subject of the verb in active construction.. On the other hand, the active sentence in Malay change into the passive by (1) making the direct object the subject; (2) Making the subject is made the agent (expressed or implied) which may be preceded by the preposition oleh 'by' and ; (3) placing the verb in the passive form. All verbs in the passive jati (true passive) contain the prefix di- instead of the prefix me- and may be followed by oleh.

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