

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF ADVANCED STUDY SIMLA

THE ONE COMMON LINGUISTIC MIND

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PREFACE

THIS IS A NEW APPROACH TO THOUGHT AND LANGUAGE UNFOLDING A NEW INTEPRETATION OF LIFE BASED ON LINGUISTIC, PHILOSOPHIC, LEGAL AND SCIENTIFIC UNDERSFANDING OF THIS IMPORTANT SUBJECT:

MIND AND REALITY, OR THE RELATIVE AND THE ABSOLUTE

LANGUAGE

1. DECISIVE FACTORS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE.

Historically speaking, soud and gesture seem to have been turning points in the progress of thought communication throughout millions of bygone ages.

This big universe of ours with its various and multiple natural, seasonal and other phenomena gave the hint to both, sound and gesture, in combined and dissociated occurences: Combined - as in the light and thunder, dissociated - as in the variety of forms brought about four times a year.

In the jungle world, the lion and the bird can best illustrate the use of the sound in intimating ideas and feelings.

A roaring lion takes a move to assoult another animal with a view to feeding on it. In roaring, a lion expresses its starving hunger and impresses that fact on the victim. This is self-assertion.

Song birds, on the other hand, do not kill to live; so they did not develop the piercing, paralyzing effect of the sound. Such birds can produce, however, very beautiful sounds in the expression of happy feelings which is not meant to be a move towards self-assertion.

Hints and intimations can be produced not only by such sounds but by gestures as well, a feature which is still maintained to-day in one form or the other in all languages.

Our present-day linguistic structure is reminiscent in part of the gesture and a continuation of the sound factor. Our present declarative and emotive sentences are the primitive sound reproductions of the jungle life. The gesture however is preserved in the few indicating words now available in every language.

These factors helped to produce and develop our present thought communication system by introducing the idea of focused attention.

Thus emerged thought into being. And with thought came the need for it to expand. This marks the real starting point of the language which according to the author's view has 2 functions.

2. THE FUNCTIONS OF THE LANGUAGE.

- A. To convey a thought. Hence the language as a vehicle of thought.
- B. To interpert life. Hence the language as an interpretation of life.

A. LANGUAGE AS A VEHICLE OF THOUGHT.

Many definitions have been given of a language. The one given in the Encyclopedia Brit. In its new survey of Universal knowledge reads as follows: «Language is a system of conventional spoken or written symbols by means of which human beings as members of a social group and participants in its culture communicate. This book is not the physical thing itself but a token of it».

From the nouveaux Larousse Universel we quote; «Le language est tout moyen de communiquer la pensée, ou d'exprimer les sentiments. La pensée et le language se sont developpés parallèlement en se prêtant un mutuel appui Nommer un objet, c'est l'identifier. C'est lui conférer une individualité et le classer Dénomination et predication sont deux aspects d'une même activité linguistique.»

The definition given by W.V.O. Quine in his

book, word and Object, is that language is a social art.

Writing on language, Lytton Strachy said « Perhaps of all the creations of man language is the most astounding». It is indeed the creation of the genius of man.

According to J. O. H. Jespersen, « Primitive linguistic units must have been much more complicated in point of meaning as well as much longer in point of sound ».

The Grand Larousse defines language as a combined industrial social art. «The individual seeks to convey to others his ideas and feelings by way of a socially accepted method which he has to obey.»

Archeological explorations have thrown some light on the support of language to primitive hand crafts in the making of hunting and other tools.

In the Bible we read that language started with the creation of man. Adam could understand the word of the Lord and himself gave name to every beast of the field and every fowl of the air, so that whatever Adam called every living creature, that was the name therof. Eve was able to converse with the serpent. In a verse in the Koran we alse read, «And he taught Adam the names, all of them».

Again in the old Testament we read that the whole earth was at a time of one language and one speech. It was only when the tower of Babel was being built that the Lord confounded the language of all the earth and men were scattered all over the earth.

It seems that the importance of language was so universal as to absorb men's attention and thought throughout the ages and evoke mystic interpretations one of which is found in Plato's Gratyphus in which it is stated that there was a naturel divine name for everything in the universe.

For a linguist, Adam giving only names to the physical objects of the world may throw some light on the importance placed in Language on the status of the Noun. According to this view a language is merely a compendium of names. Anything can be designated by a name so that it may be identified if it is a physical object or mentally conceived if it is an abstract thing. A noun is therefore the most inclusive and extensive of any other word in the language.

That the first function of language is to serve as a vehicle of thought requires that of all objective realities mind is to be regarded as the center of attraction. The word here is indispensable on account of the thinking process of the human mind. Thought rests on facts either in the form of tangible physical objects or in the form of conceptions based on inner feelings, sensations and convictions.

A physical object is easily convertible into an idea so recognized on account of its form, but a non-physical object is nevertheless an objective reality and must also have access to man's thinking. The word is the only means by which this takes place.

Abstract things can be conceived in the mind but to hold on they require something tangible. And that is available only in the word. This is tantamount to their being personified; otherwise the line of thinking or thought itself drags on indefinitely only to settle down in hallucinations, i.e. endless nonpersonified abstractions.

One form of this personification is the word itself. It is just a small symbolic dot on which thought may concentrate. A bigger one may be any other physical object or the universe itself as an unfoldement of the human mind. But this is a matter for philosophical speculation, which may help one to decide whether in the query for the Unknown it is the physical form or the mind that is at the origin of things.

B. Coming to regard language as an interpretation of life, we move from the individual mind into the universe as a whole.

Language does not convey only thoughts but it interprets, though only descriptively, the phenomena of existence.

This interpretation is the function of the word. So far no major development have been brought about in point of words as to the objects or attributes to which new names may be given. It can be said that language has not moved much ever since essential word canonization had been laid down. The fact also that almost the same words exist in all languages goes to indicate that men's minds are not only linguistically the same but also functionally. Hence the One Common Linguistic Mind

The interpretation placed by language on life may be recognized in the following linguistic underta kings:

1. The name given to each existing thing on the

globe running from the genera down to the smallest division. Hence the generic name based on the universal mind, regarding the class as a central absolute reality.

- 2. The individual reckoning of each living being or lifeless thing in the singular noun. Hence the individual mind that admits of the individuality of each member within a class.
- 3. The possibility of transition from one division into the other, the general noun becoming singular by determinatives and proper naming, and the singular becoming general through relative actualization, i. e. the merger of the abstract in the concrete. Beautiful in contrast to beauty means the abstract merged in the concrete, i. e. the recipient.
- 4. The maxim of final results. Processes and undertakings are determined by their aims not outsets.

This last item is explained in the Word and in the Sentence alike. The word, whether a noun or an adjective indicates an idea in the final stage. So does a verb. The first in an absolute and descriptive manner, the second in a time-determined and effective way, with the result achieved either in the subject or object of the verb. The word, man or beautiful, gives an idea of something already achieved; the first as a form, the second as an attribute.

The sentence, on the otherhand, whether a sentence is stated in connection with a particular occassion or a standing truth hinges on the idea of the final result. In «I played, built a house, man is a moral being», we have judgements taken on the basis of results achieved. Judgements in themselves are the result here, not the subject or the object of the verb as in the case with the word. The difference in the interpretation of these two results, one with the word and one with the sentence, is that the word gives a statial or objective result but the sentence gives a relative or subjective result, i.e. the enunciation or the judgment itself.

Given that the interpretation placed on life as given out by a linguist is that mind, as a relative reality, is associated with gesture, sound, attention, thought, and final result, it remains to know whether result achieved nudertakings or processes are still in progress. It would only be desastrous if life ceased to get new interpretations apace with the perpetual unfoldment of the human mind.

New interpretations, however, mean new names, if any, given to objects and concepts, so that humanity may carry on and on with its eternal, name giving message as has so far been achieved.

Progress, however, is not always homogeneous. There is always one or the other field receiving more attention, as may be noted from the recent marvelous strides along the line of sciences. Not much so does it seem in the field of language in point of new root words, where no noticeable progress has been brought about in connection with the essential or non-essential attributes of man, the human personality being still in need of further exploration.

The question remains to know whether or not such new words can be found and coined. If other fields of learning, such as philosophy, psychology, psychiatry, logic, etc... are getting new words into their vernacular, does that mean that we can be optimistic in our expectations? Or, are such words mere associations with already existing key words, not to mention word compounding and grouping and the possibility of clause making. Clauses, it should be noted, are highly prized and can come to the rescue here as elsewhere, as any idea

can be clothed in enunciative form. Nevertheless, it remains for the future generations to decide whether or not Kant's Critique of Pure Reason can be reversed.

Kant must have been, as we still are, short of words to bear on, and even explore, the depths of our reasoning powers. It could well have been possible for him to stand by pure reasoning had there been words enough to describe the inner vicissitudes of the human mind. For all such purposes the word still remains the most convenient vehicle of thought and the most expressive symbol of the universality of the human mind and consciousness, as words denote almost the same ideas in all languages.

In the normal run of affairs, as well as in the critical moments of life, in peace and in war, the word has always a message to give. Had it not been for the free will of man, which is the only way for the full functioning of mental powers, the word could well have rid the human mind of any jungle rooted attraction or inclination to violence and aggression and restored a better and duly rationalised behaviour in favour of a normal peaceful life. New words might have been coined in replacement of non-neutral words that are creative of

reciprocal rights and obligations. i.e. words requiring an object in the syntactic sense involving third persons rights, or relative words of the same nature, i.e. involving third persons. Ex: I stole a watch, I broke a table, he is happier and richer than you. But that does not bring a solution to our problem.

Results, and final results on that account, have to be achieved along the line and on the basis of personal convictions, otherwise the achievement is not one of a final result but of determination. Life and language however are exponents of indeterminacy it should be remembered.

The question lies before us as to whether or not humanity can achieve peace and avoid war on the basis of personal and moral convictions and by making use of the word. The answer is definitely yes, if we do not run amiss of the new interpretation that language places on life, in subordinating the relative to the absolute, or the individual to the class.

Any countable in the grammatical sense is a replaceable item and as such is merely a number, as any proper Noun. In this big and creative univers of ours, number is tantamount to the individual as may be seen later in this book. Immortality runs through this numbership by the perpetuation of the thoughts and ideas of individuals through language, which is the only means for the onward transmission of the heritage of thought.



THE WORD

« In the beginning was the Word».

ST. JOHN. I. I.

« Persecuté, proscrit, chassé de son asile, Pour avoir appelé les choses par leur nom, Un pauvre philosophe errait de ville en ville».

FLORIAN, FABL. 4.15.

"The wise man rubbed off a ring, and Lo, a mighty giant appeared and fell prostrate to the ground, "What is it that my Lord orders", said he, "Fetch me here a pompous place with gardens and orchards surrounding it", replied the wise man".

ARABIAN NIGHTS

The word is a formidable power. It can help perpetuate life or destroy it. In the terminology of linguistic science, it is representative symbolization. The word table is not the physical thing itself, but a token of it. Yet, mighty as the word may be, it is only a symbolic reproduction of an external reality. This representation is called speech activity and stems from the power in man to associate things together.

In learning a word two things are involved: the object itself and the word representing it. Objects usually get into our minds as mental pictures, which later develop into ideas based on a relative understanding of the properties and characteristics of the object concerned. This idea takes an outer form in the name given to that object. Thus we get a circle of associated variants: the object yielding to a mental picture, the mental picture ceding to an idea, the idea materializing in the word. Hence the word, a highly prized convenience for an easy transition from the object to the idea and vice versa.

We have to note, however, that in symbolizing an object, the word becomes associated with two realities: a physical external reality that is the object itself, and a conceptual reality that is the idea of the object in the mind. This does not mean however that physical objects are the only things that call for representation by symbolization. The attributes, on the other hand, those inner aspects of the form, which is the physical object, admit also of having a name to designate them, i. e. to formu-

late a concept of them in the mind. As a matter of fact, learning of any object cannot take place without understanding these attributes. This understanding, however, is the result of the mental process of causing them to be isolated from their media so that a name may be given to them. This process is the reverse of the other one whereby we give a name for a physical object. The abstract object materializes in the name given to it, i. e. in the word, which gives us the idea of it. Here the word may be construed to have creative force in contrast to the word denoting a physical object, which has declarative force only.

Of all factors and causes, the word is the one that accounts most for the rapid growth of the youth of to-day mentally and socially in contrast to a youth the same age a generation ago. The use of the word is getting more frequent and extensive on account of the radio, television, shows and other social activities and entertainments.

A dictionary, being a book that deals with words exclusively, is a great store of knowledge for those who like to explore themselves and the universe surrounding them and get a general information of all existing phenomena. All konwledge, bearing on physical and abstract facts, is included in this great book, and the education that one gets out of it is so inclusive that a tangible and real grasp of fife dawns effectively on one's mind. This is the magic of the word and this is the wizardly ring of the Arabian Nights.

In finding names for these external realities, our first linguist was guided by two objectives running parallel to the aim he had in mind, one of which was to make a classification of the universe on the basis of the class. Hence a generic name. The other was to find a way whereby one individual or member of that class can be identified. Hence a singular name. The order governing the first classification is the universal mind, whereas the noun with the singular reference is the crollary of the individual mind.

The quotation in French from Florian may illustrate this parallelism briefly. Our poor philosopher was persecuted and put to exile. Yet his enjoyment of a certain measure of peace of mind even there was disrupted on account of his having designated things by their name. He might have well escaped this second tragic fate had he shifted from the personal to the universal mind, so

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II. Although the word is an objective reality, inadmissible of approval or denial, in contrast to the sentence which is otherwise on account of its containing a personal element which is the judgment contained in predication, the speaker or writer can undo this word limitation by choosing the word that best represents the ideas or feelings in mind. The choice of the word here is a personal matter that helps to contribute to the clarity of the idea contained in the sentence. This is the function of style which is a convenient means for setting off the fixed constructions of the language. The word here incorporates highly condensed ideas and is in this sense a modern linguistic unit of thought always capable of receiving further senses and connotations. The style is therefore more of the function of the thoughts and feelings of the writer as expressed in his words rather than of the sentence with an elegant setting.

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shall now make breif reference to the old traditional classification according to which the word is said to be divided into Parts of Speech, and on which there is no unanimous agreement. In Arabic, we have three such parts of speech, in English we have eight, in French we have nine, the addition being the Article. This difference in the classification of the word is a formal one and entails no difference in the nature of the word. It only indicates a change in function. That classification, however, may rightly lead to a new one according to which the word as a symbol for thought communication may be any one of the following categories:

1. Naming words.

- 2. Indicating words.
- 3. Predicating words.

The first category refers to an object, individual, class, or to a mass, or to something abstract, i.e. an attribute considered isolatedly. The second category points with a gesture or as with a gesture to an object of the first category. The third category predicates of an object of the first category on its own or as referred to or represented by an indicating word. Let us now take these 3 categories and discuss them one by one.

- 1. The Naming Word. Traditionally speaking, a naming word is the Noun that denotes an inidvidual, a group, a class, a mass, an abstract, a countable or non-countable, something generic or singular, relative or absolute, definite or indefinite. Hence the two grand divisions; the noun with general or singular reference, and the concrete or the abstract noun. Naming words fall under the following classes:
- A) Proper Nouns. These are identifying nouns. They denote the individual, the being. Analytically speaking, they form no part of the language, and are not included in the lexicon, though there are special dictionaries

for them and each people or nation have their own proper names. Logically speaking, they have the force of the number. In the process of word symbolization, when the first linguist was undertaking the great and big task of denomination of objects, individual name giving was a secondary assignment. The first one was the universe as a whole, i. e. the finding of a generic noun. The two minds, the universal or absolute, and the personal or individual, ran parallel here.

Proper Nouns have singular reference and are concrete, as identification connot be formless.

B) Class Nouns. This was the main task. Every individual was grouped under the class to which it belonged, and a general name was given to that class. Where no two objects were found to be similar on the basis of common characteristics and properties capable of grouping them under a class, the name so given was not on that account a proper noun, since a proper noun has distinguishing force within a class. Such unique nouns denote objects within the range of universal or natural phenomena, or falling under a seasonal or tempral division. Such nouns are: the earth, the sun, the moon, the month, the week, the day, the night, etc... Nouns denoting the

seasons can be considered as unique on account of the underlying idea of time division, but within the seasonal range they are relatively proper. So are the days of the week.

Class nouns are based on a system of interrelated sub-divisions, so that the bigger the division is, the more it gains in extension, and the smaller it is the more it gains in comprehension. Bird includes more numbers than eagle, but eagle has special properties characterizing and specializing it from birds in general. Class nouns, therefore, denote all kinds of genera, sub-genera, species, families, orders, groups, etc... all capable of being counted. Hence the name countable, to differentiate them from the next category which does not admit of a count.

Class nouns have general reference, but they can be converted into singular nouns: This man, your boy, the uncle of John, the man whom we met, etc...

Another grand division of nouns, is the differentiation between the Concrete and the Abstract. But before we undergo this transition, we come across a mid-way class that bridges the gap between two realities, the form and the essence. By form is meant identified form, i. e.

individuality, by essence we mean the attributes that make up the individual. This transition takes place in the Mass Noun.

C) Mass Nouns. Mass Nouns are concrete unspecified uncountables denoting mainly a material such as clay, meat, lead, existing anywhere in the universe without a change in form nature or properties. A mass noun cannot be interpreted as a class noun on account of lack of individuality in its substance, though it has form and can be portioned out.

Reference here is general, but with determinatives it becomes singular.

D) Abstract Nouns. Unlike the Proper and Common nouns which denote living beings or lifeless things at various levels of identification: John, this man, the big man, such a man as ..., man in general, every man, all men, etc... and unlike the Mass Noun which denotes a material as a whole or in part, as in lead liquifies under heat, lead is available here, the lead we sold, abstract nouns denote an abstraction of the state, quality or action that is otherwise concrete and general.

Happiness as a state denotes something abstract

and singular, i.e. cannot be attached to an individual. If it does to one it becomes the property, the belonging of that one and hence of all. The other word that can denote this non-isolated state of being happy is the word happy itself. So happy is concrete and general, while happiness is singular and abstract.

What is abstract in the abstract noun is the isolated quality, state, or action which is isolated from the medium in which it functions, as may be seen from the example happiness and happy. An attribute cannot be conceived other than being seated in the individual. But both the attribute and the individual can undergo opposed processes of denaturalization, where the isolation of the first leads to an abstraction, giving the abstract noun, and that of the second to mystification, giving another abstract noun. But while in the first place we raise the attribute to the power of self-existence, which is unnatural, in the second place we depersonalize the individual, which is also unnatural. These processes indicate, however, that the attribute is tantamount to a depersonalized individual and the individual to an isolated attribute. Hence the transition from the concrete into the abstract.

This double viewing of the same thing, i. e. loo-

king at it from two different aspects is a common phenomenon of the language. We meet it on more than one ground: a) The general and the singular noun. Ex: man, happy-John, happiness. b) The being and the attribute, or the naming of the object and the predicating of it, as in man and happy.

Abstract nouns denote various ideas, such as states, qualities, conditions, actions and facts, with various meanings of abstraction. Ex: 1.) Happiness, beauty, accuracy, democracy knighthood, cruelty, work, love, arrival, observation. 2) beauty, beautifulness, attraction, attractiveness, devotion, devotedness.

Arabic is very rich here, with each and every verb having a corresponding abstract noun, a Masdar, which in English is the cognate object of the verb concerned. In English, however, as in Arabic the same idea can be denoted by the substantival, the adjectival and the verbal form, but not always so. Ex: Beautify, beauty, beautifulness; hasten, hasty (hastiness obsolete) haste; generous, generousness, generosity. The idea in this last example has no verbal form, but is implied in the adjectival or substantival form. The difference here between verb and adjective is that certain ideas which denote

quality as a result of a spontaneous and gradual action undertaken by the person in whom they reside can best be represented in the statal, descriptive form of the adjective than in the actional, verbal form. Hence many such intransitive verbs denoting colour, deformity or quality eitheir becoming obsolete or propped up with a suffix in replacement of the original verb stem. Ex: blacken, darken, beautify.

The abstract idea may also be denoted by the neutral adjective form, i.e. the adjective preceded by the definite article: the beautiful, that which is beautiful. This form is a singularization of a general and concrete term. Hence the possible transition from the concrete into the abstract. Names thus include all that a language contains. Of all the parts of speech nouns are the most extensive and inclusive. A language is essentially a compendium of names in which things and ideas are identified, or conceptualized each according to its nature; things in the form and ideas in the mind. Otherwise things become confused and ideas become hallucinations.

2. Indicating Words: A name is a definite representative symbol of an external reality. Both the object and the

word representing it are interchageable on that account. Not so with indicating words which have no definite representation on their own of external realities.

Thought is sometimes conveyed in a vague manner by the word. Such indefinite words border on the line of pronouns, inasmuch as they lack in specified identification force. They are pronouns in that they do not truly name but point out to some living being or lifeless thing. They are also nouns in that they name, though vaguely, so that a pronoun may replace them. Ex: Somebody came. Give me something. What is it that you want? They also express manner, which has predicative force. Ex: He is somewhat pleased — somehow happy. As indicating words, we have the following:

The gesture: The gesture is a usage common to all language. Of old it had special importance in oration and was considered the rival of the word and its stand.by interpreter. Now it merely serves to point out something. Its need is especially felt when individuals of a class noun are singularized. This conversion of a generic noun into singular is so important in the communication of thought that words with a special status are introduced in the language.

Such words are known under the name of determinatives. Ex: This, that, such, etc.... A different status of gesture words is found in adverbs. Ex: here, there, now, and then.

The pronoun: Pronouns traditionally speeking, are also supposed to be noun substitutes. But that needs some clarification. Of the three persons, the first and the second can hardly be substituted by a noun in the sentence. There is ground to believe that the status of the first and second pronouns is different from the third. The third is descriptive in referring to a mental concept, the object denoted by the noun, but the first two have the force of a gesture, without being in association with any concept. Their function is to actualize the object indicated and give it personal direct force, independent of any conceptual association. Under the pronoun, we have the following categories:

- a) Personal pronouns.
- b) Indefinite pronouns.

As noted earlier, indicating words have two opposed functions. One is to convey an indefinite communication, so that instead of the name we use a vague word to ex-

press a vague idea which is not possible with nouns. The other is the other way round, i. e. to make an indefinite reference definite. Class nouns are indefinite as individuals, but with a determinative, they become identified.

Indefinite constructions here are of two types; the independent, indefinite indicating word, such as the interrogatives: who came? what did he say?, and the dependent indefinite indicating word, such as: I wonder who came first.

But with the determinatives, we have another type of indicating words that have attributive or appositional force and accompany a proper or a class noun to identify it, as in: John who....., the men who....., he was such a man as or that..... These constructions are highly prized in that they can serve as a restrictive clause identifying any individual to which they refer. Words for this purpose may not always be available, but the.... who or which or the such ... as or such ... that clause is inexhaustible. Their usefulness is still the more felt on account of their being abridged to a prepositional phrase: The book on the table.

Independent interrogatives here have the force of

an indefinite abridged statement: In «Who came?», we have a short-cut statement equivalent to «I ask you to tell me... who... This last who is indefinite, whereas the independent one is interrogative, but both of them fall under the category of an indefinite communication of thought.

On the other hand, we have personal pronouns that are used in connection with an indefinite idea, such as: they tell us, we have to avoid falling in errors. In French, indefinite on is used in this sense. In Arabic the third and the first personal plural pronouns are used with indefinite force as in English.

There is however an independent indefinite pronoun in use that is not an interrogative. It is the who in: Who comes earlier, gets a prize, or he who... The difference between this and the interrogative who is that the interrogative has positive reference. Whereas the indefinite has negative reference: Who came? somebody. Who meets you is welcome i. e. none so far.

Another category of indicating words, i. e. words that limit the application of the class noun to a specified number of its individuals, is found in such pronouns as denote number, whether in a definite or indefinite way. Ex: Take only 4. Only some came. None are ready. All succeeded without exception. Much has been achieved, so that no more can be excepted. Little did he realize how great that sacrifice was.

Indicating words are a necessary addition not only to class nouns to identify them, but also to proper nouns in connection with more than one person having the same name: It was the other John who . . . That John, not this one.

of naming words. Naming words point to the identified form, to the being, to the individual, or to such depersonalized individuals, i. e. to the attributes as an abstraction. Predicating words refer to the attributes themselves, as merged in the individual, i. e. to the inside of the individual. Naming words are passive, absolute and descriptive; predicating words are effective and relative, and, on that account, enunciative of a judgment. Naming words refer to themselves, as they are self-determined. Predicating word do not refer to themselves and are therefore determinats. On the other hand naming or predicating words agree in having ad-

juncts to modify their meaning.

Predicating words fall under the following categories:

Adjectives: Certain adjectives of the descriptive type Α. denote a resultant developed state or quality undertaken gradually, spontansously and innerly by the individual concerned. Verbs denoting the same idea differ from them in nature and aspect, according as the idea is achieved as a whole, or is being in the process of formation, or is something habitual or renewable. Adjectives, in general, partake of the nature of a noun, otherwise they can not modify it as an adjunct or predicate of it. In a noun, we find two features: one the being, the individual itself, and the other the common attributes attached to it or to its class. Adjectives which are limiting refer to the individual itself, whereas descriptive adjectives refer to the individual on a point of attribute, i. e. to the comprehensiveness of the idea denoted by the individual. Varying as these two types of adjectives may be in the nature of reference, they agree in being both indicating words, having the function of pointing out the individual on the basis of either the identity or the particular attributes that distinguish it from others. Such adjectives, theoretically speaking, can constitute a special class noun represented by the noun they modify; a big man—big men are ...

Adjectives modify or attach to nouns in three ways;

As adherent adjectives: a big man,

As appositives: the man, big in body and mind, or that man, strong and resourceful.

As predicatives: this man is strong.

In the first instance the relation between the noun and the adherent adjective is that of a principal to an adjunct, with the latter becoming a neutralized logical part of the noun incapable of taking on object of its own, unlike a predicative or an appositive. Ex. a cruel man—that man is cruel to animals—a man cruel to animals.

In the second instance, an appositive has the force of a restrictive clause.

The difference, however, between the adjective serving as an adjunct and the adjective serving as a predicative is not only in the completeness or incompleteness of meaning, but also that in the predicative relation the adjective is a personal outside element not forming a logical part of the noun, as in the adjunct relation. Hence the rank being equal in the predicate relation between subject and predicate. Otherwise a pause does not fit to indicate that the meaning is complete.

B) Another type of predicating words is the verb, which is a very active part in sentence formation and the sole purpose and function of which is to predicate.

Verbs, like adjectives, cannot stand alone and must form part of a group of words or of a sentence, but nouns can stand in isolation on account of their self-de termined force, stemming from individual or class identity. Hence the rank of the noun being superior than that of the verb or adjective on absolute levels, but not in the sentence.

C) A Particle and its governed noun. Similarly, to a gesture or pronoun, a particle is a colourless sign with indicating force, pointing out to a place or to a certain period or duration of time. This local or temporal meaning of the particle, however, lost in certain cases its original concrete indication by extensive or transferred use and developed mental as-

sociations, both of which indications can stand in the predicate relation, provided a copula introduces the prepositional phrase. In some languages, as in Arabic, the copula is not needed formally, but the subordination of the particle and its governed noun is nevertheless felt, so that the construction is elliptical.

It is important to note that a noun in the particle governed relation sometimes loses its notional force as a word denoting an object and gets adverbial force. Ex: He is sleeping at home or in the house. But in a non - adverbial relation this notional force is maintained. Ex: He shot at the target, where target has the same notional force as in the target is high. This transformation from the notional into the adverbial sense is the result of a local or temporal association of the noun in the prepositional phrase with the govering verb, adjective, participle or noun, so that there is such a transformation only when the noun in the prepositional phrase is indirectly effected by the governing verb adjective participle or noun. In other respects the sense of the noun in the prepositional phrase remains notional. Ex: A man in the street, he slept in the room, he ate with a spoon, he spoke to me, the soldiers revolted on the general, he is amorous of her.

Predicating words will be dealt with in more detail in the following chapter on predication, but meanwhile the following facts have to be pointed out in connection with naming, indicating and predicating words:

Transition from one category into the other is possible with or without a change in form.

1) Without a change in form:

Ex: a marble statue, a love story, drinking water, assembly hall.

2) With a change in form:

Ex: The good, the beautiful (in both senses the concrete and the abstract), the ups and downs of life.

Before closing down this chapter we should like to point out that a word can be simple or compound, with various forms of compounding or syntactic grouping. The following examples will serve to illustrate this fact.

Simple words: man, good, beat, under, etc....

Compounds or group-words. The thought formation here is logically similar to that of a sentence, in there being

a basic element and a modifier. Hans Marchand in his book on «English Word Formation» describes this relation as a determinant/Determinatum relation.

- A. Nouns: rainbow bow, being the basic element and rain the modifier.
 - a) raincoat, tinware, airmail, airport; kingemperor, boy friend, girl friend, woodsman, payday, dance floor, waste basket, business administration, steel production, writing table, camping center, drinking water, mental hospital, patients or sick room, poor house, summer residence, gold watch, French-teacher and French teacher, the hyphen to differentiate between the teacher teaching, not being, French, boy-lover and boy lover one who loves boys and a young or youthful lover; rattlesnake, wash-house, stop-watch; house-keeping; house holder, caretaker, night-walker; earthquake, sunrise, sunset; money maker.

The above examples indicate various relations of adjunct to principal, subject to verb, verb to object, also a genitive or adverbial relation, with the basic element in all of them being the noun. b) The following examples, having a noun, an adjective, a participle, or a verb as a basic element, differ from the examples in the first paragraph in that the compounding structure is elliptical with ellipsis of the thing designated by the compound, This thing may be a personal or impersonal agent, or an act, the common factor being the association of ideas involved.

Ex: pickpocket, cut-throat, eutwater; stopgap, standby, knockdown, blackout, shutdown, lock-out, hunchback, flatneck, whitebeard, madbrain, a five-seat carrier, a four-week leave.

B. Adjectives: In the following examples we have, for the second or basic word, a noun, an adjective or a participle, the adjunct being a noun or an adjective.

Ex: praiseworthy, noteworthy, heaven-high, world-wide, snow-white, milkwhite, watertight, stonedead, brand - new, waterproof; ice and icy-cold, red - ripe red-hot, luke - warm; sea-roving, ocean - going, earth-wandering, night-blooming; heart-breaking, God - fearing, life - giving, lion - hunting, figure-making: easygoing, far-reaching, wide-spreading, ill-judging; sun-

baked, heart-felt, spellbound, hand-made government owned, factory packed; short-lived, high-born, cleanout, well-behaved, fresh oiled, new found.

C) Verbs: Compounding here stems from figurative senses for the the sake of emphasis. Ex: outbid, outrun, outstetch, outwit; override, overestimate, overhear, overwhelm, overset, overshine, underestimate, undersign, underwrite, undergo, underrate.

D) Phrases and Clauses:

Syntactic groups in phrasal or clause form are common: a matter-of-fact man, a go-os-you-please sort of way, the most stay-at-home man, a pay-as-you-go policy, an ever-to-be remembered occasion, that never to be forgotten look.

E) Another type of compounding is that one productive of a special grouping of words the meaning of which is maintained only in the joint form. This type occurs mainly with verbs and participles. Ex: Blacklist, stage-manage, spoonfeed, earmark, honeymoon, pickpocket, lipstick, whitecap' thunderstrike, hero-worship, upgrade, fingerprint, play-act: highly-bred, well-behaved, still-bnrn, highly-prized.

The importance of the word as a unit of thought communication is indefinitely enriched by compounding, so that we can now look to any extension of the senses of a word to be made possible. Thus the word becomes functionally on abridged sentence. Hence a reversal of the first linguistic utterances where the thought was conveyed in block or mass word form.

In point of fact a word is sometimes opposed to a clause in discribing the manner, degree or intensity of a quality, state oraction. But there are cases where the, reverse occurs so, that we bring in a clause to describe effectively a noun or the manner or intensity of a quality, state or action.

Ex: He is such a man that.....

He is so big that.....

He acted so well that....

He made such an attempt as....

Such men are always remembered who.....

Such men as you always appreciate are....

In a true sense, the word is the apanage of the individual stylist in a quest for a true expression of thought and feeling.

Word and style go hand in hand, so that where fixed constructions place a bar, the wizardly ring of the word upsets this limitation in the simple or compound form of the word as well as in the figurative or transferred use.



PREDICATION

In this chapter, the following points will be considered:

- A) Junction and predication.
- B) The two terms of predication.
- C) Certain logical facts.
- D) Aristotle's 10 predicables.
- E) The sentence:
 - 1. The nominal type.
 - 2. The verbal type.
 - 3. A blending of both.
- F) Adverbial elements.
- G) The clause.
- A. Junction and predication. Formally, Junction is a dependent, closed addition; whereas predication is an information followed by a stop. Logically, there is little difference between the two, the meaning in both of them being almost synonymous. In a big man and the man is big, one thing is certain,

notwithstanding the difference in form, which is the fact that the man is big.

To draw a conclusion, therefore, that any junction can turn into a predication with a copula and a full stop is not correct; nor that any predication is convertible into junction, A word standing as adjunct can predicate, but the verb cannot become an adjunct, as it always has the same rank as a principal — the subject — in a sentence. The following examples will illustrate this fact.

a) A perfect success — His success is perfect.

A beautiful site — The site is beautiful.

Cold water — Water is cold here.

These linguistic researches — These researches are linguistic.

A burning hot soup — This soup is burning hot.

A perfect good temper — His temper is perfectly good.

Exterme old age — His age is extremely old.

Such great men — Such men are great.

So great a man — Such a man is great.

The strong government — This government is strong.

The yonder hill — The hill is yonder.

b) Drinking water — This water is for drinking.

Patients room

— This room is for patients.

Camping site

— This site is for camping.

An utter fool

— The relation is adverbial, expressing a degree, utter attaching to the idea underlying the word fool, here used substantively.

A bronze statue

- This status is of bronze.

Language discussions

- These discussions are on language.

Some water

— This water is not much.

The then government

— This relation is adverbial, then being subjunct. Such relation is possible where the principle has verbal force, or where a verb underlies its meaning or is associated with it: the government that was acting then.

Not: The then hill

But: The then king.

The then administrator.

The then secretary.

c) Transferred use of the word with an emotional bearning:

A born poet

 The poet is born, in the sence of the ability to be a poet. Her married life — When she was married.

A secret car — This car is for secret use.

These doubtful curls — These curls are doubtful, but judgment here is off the point and only too formal to convey the idea intended which is more in the nature of an exclamatory, rather than a declarative, sentence.

The above examples show that junction may admit of more flexibility in the association of ideas than does predication which calls for more formality. The then ruler is possible, but not the then man, on account of the verbal idea underlying ruler but not man.

So is a way out, but not a river out, though an outriver is admissible with adverbial sense.

Junction of the limiting adjective type cannot admit of predication, as the principal word receives no attributive specification. Ex: This man, some water. But, in this man is big, we have logically two things: one is the subject man and the other the implied predicate man. In Arabic the junction, this man, that boy is regarded as appositional.

Over and above the preceding distinguishing features of junction and predication, the following points require close attention:

1. Junction is an external reality in connection with a principal, the extension and comprehensiveness of which is modified on that account. In a big man, a class of big men may be logically set up: Big men are.....

In the predicate relation, the addition is a subjective, personal element introduced by the opinion enunciated by the speaker, which is subject to approval or denial. It is what another person judges to be true or to be the information to be conveyed.

2. An adherent attributive adjective or participle cannot take an object to modify its comprehensiveness as does the adjective or participle in the predicate relation: A cruel man, but-a man cruel to animals. This is due to the position of the adjunct being closed within the limits of the principal. In the appositional relation, however, the adjunct can become transitive on account of its liberated position: A man, kind and loving to all Although this last construction has the

force of a restrictive clause, yet it is not inducive to sub. predication because of such a logical abridgment of a restrictive clause as much as to the free position of the appositive.

3. A third difference between junction and predication is that the first is one term, while the second is made up of two terms. This difference equally applies to apposition which is one-termed. So is the attributive relative construction in the relative clause with its antecedent. This point leads us to the second item in this chapter, namely:

B. The two terms of predication.

As noted earlier, predication in its primitive function is the communication of a piece of information, followed by a stop. In a sentence the predicate is always the second term.

Ex: We have one term only in the following:a big man, a man of high education, the man standing over there, the man I met yesterday.

But in a «big man visited us yesterday» we have two terms. This two-term construction is based on a proper measure of association of ideas in the absence of which predication is not possible. In word compounding we noted that a determinant/determinatum relation made it possible for two or more words to form a new word on the basis of the new idea resulting from such a combination. The situation in predication is similar. We can say: He is big, ... my brother, ... a man, ... played,... in danger,... at home, but we cannot say he is at 10'00, because time requires a full verb. This will be discussed with full detail in the nominal sentence.

The intrinsic or logical relation, therefore, between a subject and its predicate is that of specification, the subject being the determined part and the predicate, the determining factor, the one making the idea effective, such as the word flying in the compound flying saucer. This is a necessary corollary of predication, where a certain indefiniteness accompanies the predicated word, the subject. This may help to explain why the noun is best suited to stand in front position as the subject of the sentence, for a noun represents a self - determined living being or lifeless thing, on the basis of the individuality or class affiliation, not to mention the abstract nouns which represent actions, states or qualities in the abstract or, seeing them otherwise, a depersonalized individuality. The full and highly specialized idea involved in such a

word as the noun makes the noun capable of calling for specification. Hence a certain measure of indefiniteness, caused by the noun being relegated in the context to the order of a relative determination. A noun is the only word that can stand in isolation and yet give full, absolute meaning: John is tantamount to all the possible Johns existing in this one John, i. e. John the big, the rich, the ugly, the strong, etc.... So is association of ideas in man standing alone. The first is absolute self-determination, and the second is absolute class determination. In John or man at the outset of a sentence we have, however, a different situation requiring specification. Hence a certain measure of indefiniteness brought about by the situation.

It should be noted however that not only is the noun the one word to be predicated of. The situation is sometimes reversed, so that we can predicate logically of the verb. If I knew that somebody played and asked who it was, and the answer came: « John played », the real predication is couched not in played, but in John. Compare the meaning in: John did not play but stayed at home all the day, and it is John who played, not Alice, where the attention is directed to the subject on account of the playing being certain.

Verbs can start the sentence in Arabic, but that does not change their status as predicating words.

Interrogative sentences in general can be regarded as declarative or emotive, the first in content, as an expression of will but the second in form. Who came? is tantamount to «I ask you to tell me who came».

Another form of indefiniteness is associated with the subject word itself, as in who, or he who, kills a snake, gets a prize, or, «If one kills a snake, one gets a prize ». The meaning is definite in: If he kills a snake, he gets a prize. In the above two examples, where the subject is vaguely expressed, the important word is the verb, not the subject which is a mere sign for the verb to function. One of the differences between a nominal and verbal sentence in certain cases is the strong and preponderant position expressed in the idea denoted by the verb, as will be seen later. Verbs vaguely expressed with who or one are convertible into personal, agent nouns. Hence a new class noun determined by the doer of the action denoted by verb, another type of self-determined nouns. Ex: The snake killer gets a prize, or snake killers get a prize each.

This easy and handy transition from verb to noun

with the verb overshadowing the noun illustrates why in some Indo-European and Semitic languages both verb and subject merged out in one word, with the suffixed pronoun as agent appearing later only to yield ground to the noun as a seperate word. In Arabic the verb has great flexibility in accepting the merged form, the single form and the form with ellipsis of the pronoun in the nominative. Ex: DARABTO — DARABA ZEIDON — ZEIDON DARABA.

C. Certain logical facts on NUMBER AND TIME.

Analitically speaking, number in language is equivalent to a Proper Noun in that it refers to an individual not a class. Number denotes one or more out of many. Where the object involved is uncountable, the alternative is amount, or quantity in the non-specified sense.

Amount, therefore, is number in mass. It is a variable of number with uncountables. The fact that quantity as an attribute has a limited number of words in the language to express the idea of amount. i. e. number in mass, in contrast to other attributes which express quality, state or action. may be shown by the following list of words:

NOUNS, ADJECTIVES AND VERBS: Abundance, mass, portion, aggregate, immensity, plurality, majority, unity, share accumulation, legion, abound, abundant, portion out, aggregate, unite, share, accumulate.

In figurative and transferred uses: Avalanche, line, handful, mouthful, queue.

In negative senses: Dot, point, particle, handful, a little.

Pronouns and Adverbs: Some, much, little, all, enough, somewhat, somehow, about.

Not only the list of the foregoing words but also number itself is very limited in representative symbolization, the reason being the application of these words to the identified object itself, rather than to the attribute. in other words, number and amount are respectively associated with the proper, class, mass or abstract nouns themselves or with attributes in connection with the degree or intensity of that attribute.

Of the two realities out of which an individual, is made up, the ego and the attribute, it is self-consciousness that characterizes the individual. This idea is symbolized in the language by the «I» of the first personal

pronoun. An attribute, on the other hand, is an activity or a state undertaken or lived by that individual. This self-consiousness expressed itself first in physical form but in due course the form became replaced by the concept, a phenomenon not unfamiliar in language, where the concrete force of certain words lose ground in favour of figurative and other senses, as with the locative and temperal particles on the one hand, and the copula on the other hand. Hence the inception of full self-consciousness.

Time in its natural sense is a corollary of the attribute, but number or amount as a number substitute attaches to the individual.

Of all the attributes, actions express best the close relation between attribute and time, for no action can take plane except at a certain point of time or during a certain period of time. Action properly speaking is a launching out in time of a certain occurence. Yet clean-cut as this fact may seem number and time are twin aspects of the same and one thing, another common feature in language as may be seen elsewhere.

Time not only marks out the occurence - the inception, duration and end - of an action, but also its cumulation or more strictly speaking its repetition. Any hapbe counted up, with the count here being equivalent to the number, which expresses individual, repeated occurences, not indentity. So time and number meet here in a very peculiar way. Arabic makes use of this time-action idea in a suffixed cognate object, which on account of its new concrete force denotes time and the occurence of the action together. This conversion of the action noun into a countable is not mainly due to the suffix, as modality may be expressed with this suffixed form, only with a change in pronunciation: DARABAHO DARBATALASSADI.

In only one instance, however, is the idea of amount, as a modified form of number, capable of being attached to the attribute. And that is known as the quantification of the predicate: That was all that I had to say.

The following examples will serve to show this close relation between time and attribute on the one hand, and number and the identified object on the other hand.

Ex: He was man, or more of a man — but not a man — at the outbreak of war. He is man now. In

both these examples man denotes the aggregate of attributes seated in man.

He was happy at that time, Not: he was at that time, unless was is a full verb. In the first ex. 'at that time' attaches to happy. i. e. to attribute, not to the capula was.

He was at home — in the house. Not: he was at 10:00; but he was there at 10:00, 10:00 here attaching to there not to was.

He played at noon. He is playing now. He was elected last year.

The above examples show that a substantive used attributively, an adjective, a participle, an adverb of place, a prepositional phrase denoting a place, or a situation, as in he was in danger, or a full verb introduces time in predication.

The same rule holds true when the subject is an abstract noun, in which case it can admit of time on its own provided that the abstract noun denotes an action or a state that can be associated with time:

Arrival of the plane is due at 10:00, or arrival is at 10:00. Not harted is, but fasting is next month'. Here the abstract noun is associated with a period or point of time.

The same rule still holds in the adherent attributive relation: A 10:00 drive — Not a 10:00 man. But a 10:00 minute or minute's happiness in an adverbial sense.

As noted earlier, time may attach to the concrete of abstract noun through the underlying implied or non-existent verb: The then government, secretary, competition, king, but not the then train, atmosphere, block of stairs.

Now that time and number attach each to a different category, it becomes necessary to understand how the individual and the attribute represent two different phenomena.

The individual is an identified form incorporating an aggregate of attributes proper to it or to its class. The attribute is a state, quality or action seated and expressed in that individual. The individual cannot exist alone without the attribute, else it becomes a mystification. On the other hand, the attribute does not function alone. Else it becomes an abstraction. But if the individual involved is a component of just one attribute, there is no point in individualizing it and giving it an outer form. It is no use saying X played if all X's life and existence consisted in playing, i. e. if playing was the only attribute proper

to it. So, what makes individuality is the diversification and multiplication of attributes, so that the individual in which these attributes are seated can be referred to as a being, an external reality in connection with any one of these attributes in function. Hence the inception of the identity.

D. Aristotle's 10 predicables:

In the past people were concerned with what could serve as a predicative on the ground that the relation between the 2 terms of predication was governed by logical principles.

Naming and predicating words always stood parallel to each other within that logical band. Lengthy discussions and deep researches into the nature of the word led to what is known as the Predicables.

Aristotle founded a school which cathegorized predicating words under their logical consequences, so that any predicating word may come under one of the following categories:

The examples opposite the predicables are especially supplied to point out the meaning intended.

- Substance: A bird is an animal. Man is a moral being. Lead is a metal. The common olive is a tree.
- Quantity: This sea is immense. Fish abound in this
 river. That is enough. That was all I wanted to
 know. They were a handful of men.
- Quality: He is cruel. She is pretty. Sugar dissolves in water. Heat liquifies solids.
- 4. Relation: He is the cousin of John. He is my brother. He is bigger than you.
- 5. Space: This table is round, but that is rectangular.

 The stars are high.
- 6. Situation: He is a merchant. She is a lady. He is in the house. He is in love with her. He is in debt.
- 7. Possession: This bird is in-toed. This is our house.

 I own a garden.
- 8. Action: He played, danced etc.....
- 9. Suffering: He was bleeding to death before you could rescue him. He died this morning.
- 10. Time as pointed out earlier is an under attribute of the individual. Time attaches to the subject word through the intermediary of: a capula plus adjecti-

ve, a copula plus a noun used attributively, a full verb, a copula plus an adverb of place, a copula plus a prepositional phrase denoting a place or a situation.

In this respect the following facts need special attention:

a) The two grand divisions of the noun into: (1) Generic and Singular, and (2) Concrete and Abstract, are independent and cumulative, so that each noun belongs to both of them:

John is sungular and concrete.

Man is general and concrete.

Love is singular and abstract.

Happiness is singular and abstract.

Happy is general and concrete.

Love - in I love - is general and concrete.

- b) A general noun can predicate of a singular noun, or of a less general noun, «A Man» can predicate of John, but not vice versa, «a moral being» can predicate of man.
- c) An abstract noun predicating of another abstract noun is tantamount to a difinition, but with a con-

crete subject, the sense is figurative: John is love and devotion.

- d) Extension and comprehensiveness are characteristics proper to all nouns. In eagle, bird and animal we have 2 animals of the same genus, but differing in the number of individuals of each species and the properties that characterize each such species in contrast to the more general properties available in the genus as a whole. So comprehensiveness and extension go hand in hand in differentiating the sub-divisions of a class noun.
- e) The sentence: The function of a sentence stems from the two terms composing it, i. e. the subject and the predicate. Traditionally speaking, the division of a sentence into declarative and emotive belongs to the nature of the predicate word, according to which a sentence either (1) conveys a statement of fact, or (2) expresses or evokes a feeling. But with relation to the subject, a sentence has a different aspect of intrinsic values and functions depending on the extension of the noun or the number of individuals denoted by it. Under this aspect a sentence has two different inner functions:
 - a) The first is to convey an information on a

particular occasion, or on a renewable or habitual state or action. This sentence stems from the indivinual mind which regards the universe as composed of minute separate entities, each answerable for itself: John played an hour ago. John plays in the morning. John is happy. This sentence is termed as the individual, occasion sentence or as the individual stand-by sentence.

b) The second is to convey a general information, having abiding value, bearing on something common to all the individuals of a class, or on something in connection with natural, seasonal, universal or other phenomena, or in connection with the attributes as abstractions. Such a sentence is good for all peoples, situations and times.

Ex: Man is a moral being. Love is beauty. Success is ambition coupled with action. This is the class or eternal sentence. i.e. the generic universal sentence, or the singular, abstract, eternal sentence.

The differentiation in the function of the sentence on the basis of the subject and the predicate calls for a pause.

Statements of factor feeling are vehicles channelling thought as an attributive element, i.e. in the function of pre-

dicarion. So the individual becomes self-conscious on account of this association of thought with an action or state. Thus, generally speaking, we have 3 different realities:

- (1) The thought conveyed.
- (2) The subject word, an individual.
- (3) The predicate, an action or state.

Hence the inception of self-consciousness as a result of the association of these elements in conveying a single fact.

In terms of this self-consciousness the individual has an active function, namely to undertake an activity or undergo a feeling, whereas the attribute is the embodiment of that action or feeling. Hence the subordination of the attribute to the individual. But this subordination, however, neutralizes in the mystification of the individual, or the abstraction of the attribute.

That being the case, with both the individual and the attribute being inextinguishable, the first on account of the class, i. e. the race, which perpetuates itself unless a catastrophy takes place, and the second on account of its absolute abstractedness, love or hatred being indefinitely meted out to every individual within the class to which such attributes apply, it remains to know whether such self-consciousness is the apanage of the individual only or also of the class.

Basing on this concrete self-consciousness as being the individual's reckoning of one's own attributes, class consciouness is an acknowledgment of the abstract personality of the class on the ground of such attributes.

In language, this double consciousness is expressed as an external reality in the occasion or eternal sentences.

Considering that these two types of sentence stem from self or class consciousness, we may note the following facts:

a) In certain sentences of class consciousness where no personal, individual decision is involved a judgment has the force of a pure attribute: Men will always love women.

Here we have a transition in consciousness from the concrete into the abstract, similar to the older and simpler one we have already noted in the concrete and abstract nouns; the concrete here being self-consciousness, and the abstract class consciousness.

- b) This complex transision is another aspect of the respective abstraction and mystification of attributes and individuals whereby a denaturalized reality is caused to exist as a concept.
- c) In contrast to an occasion sentence, an eternal sentence on account of its class reference, is an unvoidable adaptation for replenishing the human mind as and when circumstances arise beyond the normal run of affairs.
- d) An eternal sentence has, therefore, the force of a record, keeping individual biographies and events on site for onward generations and is in a sence the projected totality of the experiences of the class, and as such an indispensable element of thought.

• • •

As to the form of the predicate, sentences come under three categories: —

1. The nominal sentence,

- 2. The verbal sentence,
- 3. A blending of both.
- 1. The nominal sentence is mainly one of absolute or relative identification. It is so called because the predicate word is usually a noun, pronoun, adjective or a prepositional phrase. The form of the sentence is: Subject + copula + predicate word (predicative) + complement (if any).

In Arabic, the form is appositional, i.e. copulailess, a construction not unfamiliar in Old English.

Copulas have introductory force. Sometimes they are followed by certain prepositions, namely; as, for, to, and to be, to make the meaning clearer and teser: Ex. He appeared as a hero. He was regarded as defeated. They took him for a traitor. His temperature dropped to normal. He took her to wife. He appeared to be exceedingly happy.

The first copula that made its appearance in all languages, is the verb of existence in its weakened sense. Other verbs were introduced later as and when they began to lose their concrete force and become a mere sign for the predicate word to be introduced by them. Accor-

ding to G. O. Curme, English now has 60 such copulas with various shades of meaning more or less centering around the idea of transformation. Arabic has only 19, used in all forms and tenses of the verb other than the present tense. Both Arabic and English recognise in some copulas the old concrete force: English: To be or not to be. Arabic: Kana-at-tamma i. e. verb to be as a full verb meaning to behall, happen or take place.

The Predicative as a Noun: Here a balance is maintained between subject and predicate, with the predicative being a mere repetition in one way or an other of the idea denoted by the subject. The predicate word either identifies the subject or defines it. In the first case both the subject and the predicate are singular and concrete, in the second the predicate is always general or more general than the subject, or both the subject and the predicate are singular and abstract.

Examples on identification (in answer to Who?

I am John.

This man is John. (Man a general term made singular through the gesture this, a determinative)

John is my uncle

John is the man of whom you spoke.

It is John. (In answer to who was it, at the instance of one who said «Somebody was here»

Definition. (In answer to What?)

John is a man — not vice - versa. (John is singular, man is general)

An eagle is a bird — not vice — versa, (Both term are general but one is more general, which, of course, is the predicate.)

Lead is a metal. (A mass noun set up in a class noun)

Fish is a food. (Plural food-stuffs)

John is a singer,

She is a lady.

He is master of the situation. (Noun used attributively).

He is a master. (with a compliment... of English, of ships, etc..)

John is somebody, nobody, (vague predication, bordering on the line of a pronoun).

Love is hapiness.

She is sweetness and sociability. (figuratively)
Believing is seeing — To believe is to see.

B. The Predicate as a Personal or Relative Pronoun

In the case of the personal pronoun, the subject is merely a gesture or a weakened pronominal it expressing the idea of a situation.

EX: This is he.

That is you.

It was they who come first.

In the case of the relative pronouns as and which, reference of course goes to the idea expressed in a fore-going word:

She is pretty, which you have never been.

Brave, as he may be, he cannot score a victory here.

By extention, the adverb so and situation it are used here as predicatives:—

Ex. He is a great man, and always looks it.

He is poor, and so am I.

C. The Predicate Word as a Genetive

In the predicative genetive, we have the following relations:

a) Possession: Yonder book is mine.

This is my work.

This table is the Chairman's.

b) Origin This painting in his work.

This statue is of marble.

In this is a great achievement of his, & It is that brilliant idea of yours that paved the way for victory, we have a double genetive standing in the attributive relation to a predicative. The common usage of this double genetive is in the subject relation to express praise or censure. But in the second of the two examples as above, the real subject is made formally a predicate for the sake of emphasis, whereas the first example expresses no notional idea differentiating subject from predicate, the gesture serving merely as a colourless sign to draw attention.

c) Characteristic.

Ex: This is a woman's love.

A child's language.

He is of a high education.

We are (of) the same age.

He is a man of action.

I am of your opinion.

d) The Predicate Word as an Adjective or a Participle denoting a state, quality, or condition.

The sentence here is one of description.

Ideas expressed in this type of sentence can also be expressed with a verb denoting transformation into a new state, especially that of colour, whenever a verbal form is available with the same or with a prefixed or suffixed stem of that adjective. Arabic is very rich in such verbs denoting colour, charm or deformity. Due to their free position as indicated earlier, the predicate, adjective or participle may take an object or complement to specialize its meaning:

Ex: He is cruel (to animals).

He was defeated.

The sun is rising, or risen.

He is amorous of her.

He is usually oblivious of his commitments.

He looks his best.

He looks his calmest.

She looks as the prettiest of them all.

He is his happiest.

He seems very happy.

This book is interesting to read.

This river is dangerous to swim in.

C. The Predicate Word as an adverb or a prepositional phrase denoting various relations.

Ex: My father is out.

My work is over.

My friend is at home.

The house is on fire.

The country is at war.

She is in love.

Time as indicated earlier in this chapter is alien to this construction, unless a word intervenes, other than the copula, to bridge the gap between the subject and predicate.

The following formulas show the construction with time in this type of sentences.

S plus Cop. Plus Noun (used attributively) plus Time.

S « « « Adj. or Part. plus Time.

S « « Adv. of place plus Time.

S « « w prepositional phrase denoting place or situation plus Time.

S plus copula plus infinitive plus time.

These sentences have a special status in Arabic, where they are known as JOUMAL ZARFIAA, with ellip-

sis of the predicate, the present participle of verb to be, to which the prepositional phrase is subordinated.

D. The Predicate Word as Infinitive or Gerund.

Ex: 1. Believing is seeing.

- 2. To believe is to see.
- 3. He seems to have found a way out.
- 4. You are to meet him at the airport. You are to meet him to-morrow. The mighty waves of the sea are to sweep their bodies.
- 5. You are here to meet him at the airport.
- 6. You are expected to put in a report.

The infinitive is a highly prized word, due to the various functions it can assume in a sentence; Ex: Subject as above, predicate as above, Object: He can come, He likes to play, You have to do this, He was made to run an errand. Complement: This book is good to read

He is a man to trust.

That is a house to sell.

Objective predicate:

I saw him leave the road alone.

I expected Rose to salute me after so long a separation.

They elected him to be a president.

In the 4th, example as above, the infinitive has modal force derived from the copula be in its primitive existential sense, but it indicates here a planned, not natural, existence, which explains an interesting feature of this construction, the infinitive immediately following the copula as a predicative. Not so with the infinitive of purpose, as example 5 & 6 are intended to show, where modality becomes purpose with the introduction of an intervening word between copula and the infinitive of purpose with the intervening word itself being the predicative. It remains to know whether this change in the meaning of the infinitive requires a change in status. It looks as though the change in meaning is in favour of the change in status. You are to go now and you are here to go pose two infinitives with different ranks, the first being a predicative and the second a subjunct to the nonexistent verb underlying the idea contained in the adverb of place. This subordination is better shown in: You are free to go to-day.

2. The Verbal Sentence: Predication often con-

tains minute details one of which is foremost in the mind of the speaker, so that the real piece of information is that item on which the whole sentence hinges. It is therefore essential to distinguish between the formal terms of predication and the word or group of words carrying the fullest weight:

Ex: Nominal sentence: She was madly amorous of him, or she was madly amorous of him not of you. With still more emphasic. It is of you and not of him that....

Verbal: I sang so well that.... the expression of such details, stems from the ideas associated with the verb in point of manner, purpose, cause, result, attendant circumstances, etc.... This subordinated element, essential as it may be, cannot be included in the simple sentence of one predication. So, apart from the word of fullest weight, carrying the minute details, full predication cannot often be included in one simple sentence. Hence the clause, as will be seen later.

The distinction between a nominal and a verbal sentence is a matter of logical sequence.

In many languages, as in English, the nominal sentence is not classified as a category standing by itself;

the copula being a verb, the sentence remains verbal on that account. But it is verbal in the form only, as the nominal sentence has special functions to perform which the verbal cannot do.

A nominal sentence identifies, defines or describes the subject as an external reality, but a verbal sentence indicates an action or a state actively developed by the subject. If we can use a psychological term here, we can say that a nominal sentence is extrovert in its bearing, whereas a verbal sentence is introvert.

This fact can best be illustrated in the nominal sentence with an adjective or a participle as a predicate word:

She is beautiful.

He is red.

The milk is sour.

The adjective in the above examples presents the thought with a final result in contrast to the verb — intransitive on that account — which expresses the idea as an inner, spontaneous development, gradually taking place in association with the active subject:

His face reddened.

The milk soured.

A permanent, opaque result is often expressed with the substantive form, as in give me a sour, which means a drink of whisky with lemon added.

The two above-mentioned verbal sentences have a transparent bearing in that they indicate verbal graduated development. This transition from a state into another is frequently expressed in sentences where the idea of transformation prevails.

Predication with a verb has a special logical bearing. It indicates, the idea of an occassian in that, it actualize passive results by turning them into active events.

To make this clear we shall give again the example of the milk doured and the milk is sour. Nouns or adjective, which partake of the nature of a noun are phenomena de facto of results. Anything raised to the status of a noun indicates an achieved result: John, Man, Singer, beauty, etc... So are adjectives: high, big, splendid, etc. These words denote a final state. In this sense they are similar to the eternal sentence as they are in themselves expressive of eternal facts.

Verbs on the other hand indicate occasional occurences or happenings, and are on that account capable of occasioning eternal facts which is a very important fact to bear in mind. He played indicates one instance of playing. But playing denotes an eternal fact. Hence an achieved result. So is he plays which indicates the renewability or continuity of the action. The verb is therefore the necessary vehicle for the occassional sentence. This indicates why a verb cannot stand as adjunct because of its different nature from that of a noun, the latter being a passive absolute descriptive reality. In another word a verb makes occassional what is otherwise eternal.

A verb traditionally speaking requires a doer of the action where action is involved. This definition is no less true and practical than the other definition of the personal pronoun as being a noun substitute. In such examples as I slept, I was leaning against the wall, waters poured in, passions were beating in her heart, the noun is merely a seat for the verb to operate. The following examples will indicate that clearly:

Active: I slept, it rained yesterday.

Passive: the bed was slept in.

Active with passive force: these books sell very well, the fish is roasting in the oven.

Arabic knows of such constructions where an in-

transitive verb admits of the passive voice in the following cases:

- a) With a cognate object (al-masdar)
- An adverb or a prepositional phrase denoting a place.
- An adverb or a prepositional phrase denoting time.

The first case as above is the commonest as the action noun of the idea denoted by the verb is always available in the (al-masdar) as the cognate object.

The relation between verb and and subject is usually one of the following:

- a. The subject undergoes in itself the process of the action or state denoted by the verb: sugar dissolves in water. The army lay in wait for the enemy.
- b. The subject carries out a neutral action: I slept,
 I ate, I like to give.
- c. The subject carries out an action which passes over to the object: I shot a bird, hit the target.
- d. The subject assumes the object relation with the verb. Example, I was beaten.
- e. The subject causes an action to take place: I dis-

solved sugar in water, I swam the horse across the river. I made him write a letter.

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The verb/subject relation however is not sufficient to convey the meaning of the sentence where the action denoted by the verb requires a specification of result, which is usually indicated by the object. The complete meaning of the verb and of the sentence lies therefore in this subject / verb / object relation.

The following will illustrate this point.

- a. The action denoted by the verb may produce an effect on the object itself or on something associated with it, the first called the real object, the second a metonymic object: I broke a window, I broke my leg. I wiped off the dust (real object). I wiped off the table (metonymic object): i. e. an accompanyment of the real object.
- b. The action may produce a result which is the object itself: I built a house. I wept tears on leaving home.

- c. The action may bear on an object only to specialize the idea donoted by the verb: I heard a voice.

 I saw a man. I read a letter. I guessed a riddle. I admired her beauty.
- d. The action produced may be the cognate object:

 he fought a splendid fight. He played a nice play.

 By extension: They played cards.
- e. The action may go back on the subject or mutually be reciprocated by the subject and the object:

 He dressed (himself). They met (each other). They kissed and parted.
- f. The action may require an oblique object introduced by a preposition to determine its meaning: He threw a stone at me, to me. He ate a spoon, or with a spoon. He apologized to me for his misconduct. He lectured on his late adventures.

The subject /verb/ object relation now made complete, a verb may fall under one of the following sense groups:

A. Verbs with full meaning

a. Verbs denoting a physical action: Beat, hit, break, build, wipe.

- b. Verbs denoting a physical perception usually expressed with the five senses: See, hear, feel, taste, etc....
- c. Verbs denoting a mental perception: Think, suggest, feel, imagine, consider, suppose, decide, plan, etc....
- d. Verbs denoting a state, i.e. action-less verbs requiring a subject to serve as a seat for the verb to function: Lie down, sleep, (the bed wasn't slept in last night), clear up (the sky is clearing up).
- e. Verbs denoting a transformation into a new state with a neutral or causative effect: Ex. soured, worsened, dissolved, smoothened, reddened, blackened, frightened, liquify, beautify.

Some of these verbs have the original verb stem now obsolete on account of the corresponding adjective with expresses the same idea with a copula. But this verb stem is not altogether extinct. A new suffixed form is frequently in use either to indicate the inner undergoing process of the action denoted by the verb or the idea of causation, such as, sugar dissolved in water, in contrast to, I dissolved sugar in water; dark, darkened.

f. Declarative verbs: Write, say, report, advice, expect, wish, urge.

- g. Verbs expressing movements: Run, walk, leave, sail for, accelerate, stri, flow, go come, approach, depart, pass, creep, gallop, swim, actuate.
- h. Verbs expressing sounds: Shrieks, cries, etc.
- i. The verb of existance: to be.

B. Verbs with function

- a. temporal auxiliaries do, shall, will have,
- b. modal auxiliaries can, may, must should, ought, ...
- c. inchoatives and effective begin, start, stop, cease,...
- d. « idiomatic » verbs. ex. I can or <u>cannot afford</u> to pay.
- e. copulas: is, seems, etc....

The action denoted by the verb becomes effective either instantaneously or within a certain period of time so that a knowledge of the nature of the action is necessary in this respect.

The verb as a word means 2 things:

- 1. The action as denoted by the verb: an absolute fact.
- 2. The effective occurrence of that action:

The following paragraph will illustrate that.

A verb, as stated earlier, differs from a noun or an adjective in that it is subordinated to time limitation. Not so with nouns, or adjectives which denote absolute or relative ideas or facts in the final state. Where such verbs denote happenings, not associated with a special time, as in the present tense, the action of the verb indicates the possible continuity or renewability of that action at a given time. Arabic refers to the persent tense on that account as the one tense similar to the agent noun - AL - MOUDARIH. By time limitation is not meant the natural, but the effective time which means the actual performance of the action. In this respect some actions become instataneously effective, as in «he handed me a book, but others require a more or less limited duration of time, as in » the iron rod is cooling down.

This special feature of the verb is referred to in the language as the aspect of the verb, according to which the action denoted by a verb may be regarded as being fully achieved as a whole, or duratively. In the first case, the action is expressed in the effective form of the verb, in the second, in the continuous form. Ex: He signed a new contract with his employees - a past tense to indicate

that the action took place intantaneously as a whole, as the continuous tense cannot apply here. The hot iron rod is cooling down - Cooling takes place gradually, so a past tense does not apply in this sense, but, in the hot iron cooled down, we have an effective aspect indicating that cooling down, though taking place gradually, has now finally been completed as a whole.

He built a new house. A past tense is used, though the duration of the verb is long.

In he is just building a house or he is building a house, or a house is being built or a house is building, we view the action in its starting or continuous stage, continuous meaning here the action at its peak.

On the other hand attention is sometimes called to the action being started or stopped. To mark that an action is just starting we use such inchoatives, as to commence, to begin, to start, followed by a dependent infinitive or a gerund, but to mark the end of the action we use other verbs, such as stopped or ceased followed again by a dependent infinitive or gerund. The verb of action alone without such inchoatives or effectives cannot convey this meaning which is recognized in all languages: He started to play. He began to laugh. He ceased to cry.

He broke out assaulting his enemies. He burst out weeping. He stopped writing. But he stopped to write gives a different meaning, which is due to the construction being different, the infinitive denoting a result, whereas the participle denotes the idea of attendant circumstances.

The idea of the action of the verb approaching an end may be denoted with such constructions as: he is on the verge of or he is about to

Other verbs may be used to indicate continuity of action: He remained talking. He continued to grow olives in his garden. He laughed on and on. Last night he slept on and off on account of severe pain. Here off denotes discontinuity.

In such verbs that denote action as a whole we cannot announce the beginning of the action nor its continuity: Not he started to sign a contract, or he is signing a contract, but he started to dance, or he is dancing.

It was already stated that predication is judgement, i. e. what the speaker decides to be true or the information to be conveyed. Such a decision may stem from the world of facts or from mental conception and feelings.

In the latter case the speaker is deemed to subordinate his decision to such conceptions and feelings: Hence the subjunctive mood, subjunction meaning subordination. This is tantamount to ihe speaker adapting his decision to his own feelings or to the feelings he wishes to evoke in the person to whom he speaks. Such conceptions ond feelings express a great variety of ideas including hopes, fears, doubts, obligations probabilities, possibilities, plans, arrangements, development of circumstances, hesitations, wishes, etc.... not to mention the expression of an opinion or a request in a polite and modest manner, which is always gaining ground in cultured communities: I expect he might get a chance. I wonder if he could meet you today. He should do it. He ought to go now. He must apologixe for his insolence, You are to sustain your losses. I should like to point out. Could you pass me the ruler please.

Predication with a verb may be in anyone of the following constructions:

a. A verb predicating alone or with an adverbial modifier, a subjunct: Ex. He eats. He slept well last night. Sugar dissolves in water. He loves to give.
 This book sells well — with descriptive force, the

expression this book sold well last year being reckoned as bad usage for lack of descriptive force - Horses swim in water. Planes fly high up in the air. He behaved well. She dressed elegantly for the party.

b. A verb plus object:

He behaved (himself) well.
 She dressed (himself) well,
 He absented (himself) from duty.

In all the above examples the reflexive pronoun is felt often to be redundant and the verb is thus used alone, except for the verb rest which is gaining ground with the reflexive pronoun: Ex. I rested myself up the mountains for a couple of days.

- (2) he hit the target, killed a man.
- (3) With a causative sense: He dissolved sugar in water, He swam the horse across the river, He flew his plane.
- (4) With an objective predicate: They elected him a chairman.
- (5) A prepositional phrase alone as object: He shot at the target. We laughed at him (he was laughed at).

It should be noted that there is often in a sentence more than one object so that the following may be required to explain this point.

- a) An object of the person together with an object of the thing, ex. He gave John a book. He sent John a letter where the real or accusative object is the thing and the person is a dative object.
- b) An accusative object and a prepositional object, Ex:

 He declared war on his enemies. He gave a lecture
 on philosophy. He accused him of a crime. He suspected him of treason, asked him for help.
- c) The accusative objects following each other, Ex: I asked him his address. The rich man envied the miller his luck. I took her a drive.
- d) an object followed by a compliment as at 4 above:
 Ex. They named him president. He heard him talking. He had a new suit made. He found him a true friend. He boiled the eggs hard. We consider him a mere child. We regarded him as a great man. He sent him at liberty. He led them to victory. He turned water into wine. He heard him talk.
- e) An object plus infinitive. Ex. Let him come in. I

asked him to do it. I want you to come. He pressed him to do it.

An interesting feature in the English verb is its ability to express different senses without a change of form, which in Arabic is always otherwise: (a) An intransitive verb becoming transitive with a causative sense: The horse is resting. I rested the horse. The horse is swimming, I swam it. He is sitting on the saddle, he sat the saddle on the horse, but with the old form, he set a trap for the lion. I ran out a message for him. Sugar dissolves in water. We dissolved sugar in water. The boat sank, the waves sank the boat. He flew in the morning, he flew his plane. He rose to glory, he rose olives in his garden. He stood up, he stood his gun against the rocks: (b) A transitive verb with passive force: This cloth feels soft. I beat the boy. Waves beating in her heart, or winds beating against the rock. Passions mounting up to his head. The fish is roasting in the oven. This horse is hard to mount. (c) An intransitive verb becoming transitive: I sprang to victory. He sprang motions at the house for deliberation. He is starving for food. He starved himself to buy a social-status car: (d) A transitive verb becoming intransitive: Ex. He likes to give. He loves to kill. These are encouraging words, Here we have the verb used absolutely.

Some verbs however require a thing or a person as object, others require a verbal noun, i.e. an infinitive or a gerund, or a clause, so that a special attention should be taken here to supply the right object word: Ex. I insisted that.... or I insist on taking a job where an object of the person is inadmissible. So is agree. I ask you to do me a favour. I wish him happiness.

Arabic as hinted earlier is very rich in verb stem changes with each new form differentiated in sense. Each of these forms has its own verbal action noun, al-masdar, the cognate object of the verb involved.

Adverbial elements:

An adverb is a subjunct and on that account is distinguishable from the object on the following points:

- a) An adverb is not essential in making the abstract and singular action nouns concrete and general, which is the function of the subject or object.
- b) The prepositional object maintains the notional force in the governed noun. Not so with the prepositional adverbial phrase.

A very simple way of differentiating between one

sense and the other is the use of the preposition itself.

A local preposition with a concrete force requires an adverb. But used figuratively, it requires an object.

Ex: He went to the village. He went to him for help. He slept in the house - I trust in you. He left for Europe - I am waiting for you. In he ate a spoon and he ate with a spoon, with requires an instrumental object. But in he wrote a letter with care, the prepositional phrase is adverbial, with being used in this sense to denote an adverb of manner with nouns. He beat him violently - with violence.

c) An adverbial prepositional phrase indicates manner or intensity, which cannot be expressed by the object in the preposititional phrase. Manner or intensity is a looking into the verb or adjective, or participle or noon, whereas the noun standing as object of a preposition indicates a looking outside from such verb, adjective, participle or noun.

He sang beautifully. He killed a bird. He is very cruel. He is cruel to animals. Manner here corresponds to a descriptive adjective with a noun: loud voice, he spoke loud (ly)...

An adverb can be expressed with a word or with an adverbial prepositional phrase or a clause, and with different meanings associated with time, place manner, degree, cause, result, purpose, approximation, intensity, desirability, extent, condition, exception, etc...

Ex: To sing in the morning, at home, daily, twice a week.

To sing beautifully.

To sing as required.

To sing in harmony with a concert.

To sing whenever the band . . .

To sing at the request of the audience.

To sing to please one's admirers.

To sing for personal pleasure.

To sing with hands tied up.

He is exceedingly tall.

He is so tall that I......

He is so tall as to

He is tall beyond measures

A to the prepositional object phrase, the following prepositions have special meanings:

- A) To: To make a dative object.
 - a) an idea came to me, He wrote to me.

b) By extensive use:

He spoke for me.

He acted on my behalf.

He apologized to her for me.

He was kind to him.

His love to animals.

c) Dative of sentence:

To me, or as to me, this is a great opportunity.

For her, this is the most she could expect.

B) Of: Making a Genetive object.

I suspected him of treason.

I freed him of a great burden.

We got rid of him.

He spoke of his adventures.

He approved of the scheme.

Verbs do not admit of quantity.

She was forgetful of her big date with him.

C) With: Making an instrumental object or an object of association.

He struck him with a stick.

He went with him.

D) For:

I asked for his help.

I asked for him to come.

I am eager for a letter from her.

You have a craving for music.

He attended a hearing for a trial on treason.

I am here for the rehearsal.

In the second example « for » introduces the subject of the infinitive.

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On the analogy of the cognate object the following construction is gaining ground:

We use the verbs make, take, have, get in a weakened sense followed by the verb stem of the action noun.

Ex:

He sat there getting a nice read of her letter.

After dinner we had a quiet talk.

He made a try to avoid failure.

He took a chance.

He had a nice smoke.

He got a look.

A BLENDING OF THE NOMINAL, DESCRIPTIVE AND THE VERBAL, EFFECTIVE OR STATAL SENTENCE.

Blending here means a double predication of the verb and one of the possible categories mentioned in the nominal sentence, the latter standing as in apposition to the idea contained in the verb:

Gx. Tired and defeated, he went home.

He cheered the spectators from the car, or standing in the car.

As a soldier, he cannot be easily defeated.

I left the house ruined, or in ruins.

She put on her socks, with the wrong side out.

He left for home with a broken leg.

In peace or in war he is always ready to help his friends.

Having finished my work, I retired.

On finishing my work, I retired.

This blending has drawn in to great advantage the absolute participial and the absolute nominal construction:

Ex: Judging from what he said, we can now make up our mind.

Things beings worse, he ran bankrupt.

My claim for damages being admitted, I made up for losses sustained.

The rain pouring like torrents, I set out for the so long expected excursion.

Arabic knows of this construction with reference to both the subject and the predicate. The name under which it is known is AL-HAL, best compared in English to the adverbial subordinate clause of attendant circumstances.

THE CLAUSE

A condensed thought cannot often be contained in just one word or sentence, so a group of words or a clause is needed to express such involved ideas fully.

Syntactically speaking a clause has the status of a simple word where one such word can be substituted for it. Otherwise it stands fully juxtaposed to the whole idea contained in the other sentence which is referred to here as a clause.

A clause, therefore, has 2 functions:

1. As a word standing as:

a) Subject:

Ex: It is certain that you can succeed.

It is doubtful that.....

That we came late is not relevant.

Who comes first gets a prize.

b) Predicate:

Ex: This is what I wanted to know. They made him what he is now.

c) Object:

Ex: Tell me what you think of me.

There and then I felt I was utterly defeated. He is guilty of whatever disloyalty you may expect him to fall into.

This is like what we were talking about.

I inquired whern he came from.

d) Adjunct:

Ex: The man who.....

The question whether.....

The thought that.....

The status of the above word-substitute clauses is that of subordination to the main clause containing the modified or the governing word, in the case of the subordinate clause being an adjunct or object; or to the other term of predication, in the case of one of them being subject or predicate, both of which form a simple logical sentence.

2) As an additional item of predication, related

not to a word contained in another clause, but to the whole of that clause.

a) The addition may stand in a coordinated or other equal rank relation to the other clause, both of which form a compound sentence.

Ex: He came home at midnight and left early next day.

Both he and my brother succeeded.

Neither he nor they accepted the offer.

Are you ready or not?

He is high educated, so everybody loves him.

He is strong but coward.

b) The addition may stand in a subordinated adverbial relation to a principal clause, both of which make a complex sentence.

Ex: This is where I met you.

I left before you came.

He acted as he was instructed.

You do not behave as you speak.

We may succeed or lose in this undertaking according as we sell in cash or on credit.

As I was coming out of the room, I saw you salute her.

In case it rains nobody will go.

If it clears up we shall go out.

If I were rich I would indulge in no vanities.

He does nothing but play.

For all he is I cannot trust him.

He looks better now than before.

He swam better than you.

He looks better than he feels.

He is more satisfied than happy.

He was so wounded that he died a few hours later.

The more money he makes, the more he wants.

So far as I can see, there is no hope for him.

I am happy that you are here.

I was defeated only because you turned me down.

However disappointed he may be he never looks gloomy.

I am going to meet you to-day, so that we can make our arrangements together.

I went early to school, so that I did not miss the lecture.

I went early to school, so that I may not, or would not, miss the lecture.

I went to see him, so that I may get his approval first. He is so big that I cannot defeat him.

The clause may be otherwise expressed by the infinitive, gerund or participial construction, a feature

common to all languages. It may also be abridged to a prepositional phrase.

Where in the infinitive construction, the subject of the dependent infinitive is not that of the main clause, we introduce for to govern the subject of the infinitive.

The following examples illustrate the preceding two paragraphs:

I should be glad to go with you.

I should be glad for you to go.

He went in the morning to listen to the song birds. Seeing him ahead I quickened my pace.

On approaching him I smelled of his stinking odour.

I called on him early to-day for receiving his reply.

I went out early for the hunt of lions.

« « « to hunt lions.

« « so early as to hunt lions.

EPILOGUE

And God said, Let there be light: and there was light. Gen. 1: 3.

Before closing down, the following points stand foremost in the auther's mind:

- In the form, the two phenomena that make life a reality are:
 - A. EVENTS.
 - B. STATES.

Events are happenings at the moment and through out the whole period of their occurrence. Thereafter they cease to exist or they become states.

Existence is the continuity of such events and states.

- 2) In the substance, 3 major realities underlie these phenomena:
 - A) IDENTIED OR MASS OBJECTS, as absolute realities.
 - B) ATTRIBUTES, as other absolute realies.

C) MIND, as a relative reality.

Mind as a third reality is the conception of external or internal realities here recognized as facts. It is not mere self-consciousness, which is the individual reckoning of one's own attributes. It correlates facts together, i. e. takes cognizance of other external and internal realities. Mind is different therefore from A and B above in that it has no existence of its own, nor can it be conceived in the abstract.

- 3) In language, mind is expressed in two different categories of thought:
 - A) A statement of description.
 - B) A statement of action.

The difference here between a word and a statement is that the former applies to the objects and attributes proper, whereas the statement applies to the third reality, namely the mind. If the quotation, in the beginning was the word, applies to the domain of objects and attributes, the observe of it, namely in the beginning was action, applies to the mind. By statement is meant predication.

a) The Descriptive Statement.

Any event or state is measured out by time, so

realities and time can synchronically concur. In language that is not physically possible, so we have recourse to description:

Man is a moral being. — A descriptive state

Lead is a metal. — « « «

I am playing.

— An action actually carrying
oh, action and utterance
concurring descriptively.

I played yesterday. - Action achieved.

I shall play to-morrow. — Action to take, or not to take, place.

I did not play. - No action

I do not play in the morning. — « «

Where are you going to play?— A question tantamount to an indefinite reference to an event.

That was done. — Action concluded.

That can be done. — A conception.

Long live our Alma Mater — A desire for the continuity of a state.

I hope he may come — A conception.

If it rains, we shall not go. - A conditional event.

If I were richer, I would donate. A hypothetical condition.

If I were here, that wouldn't

have happened — A contrary to fact condition.

Brave as he is, he cannot score a victory here. — A statement of fact.

Brave as he might be, he would not score a victory here. — A conception.

b) The Statemt of Action

Here too the linguistic expression cannot concur with the synchronic performance of the event:

Come here. — A statement requiring post execution.

Would you do me this favour — A post execution polite statement.

You must go. — An order.

I have to do it. - An obligation.

You are to meet me to-morrow. — An arrangement.

etc....

In only one instance can event and utterance take place actionally not descriptvely at one time, and that is where the order carries in itself the automatic force of execution, as in: « Let there be light. », a situation that may be concieved in the mind or supernaturally effected.

A feature of the descriptive statement is that it represents an external event or state: I played yesterday is a description of what actually happened yesterday. But there are cases where such a statement may have only a pure linguistic value: the utterance lacking in physical occurrence. Such a statement is desubstantiated of its content and as such represents a mere intellectual predication, warranted not by a fact but by a person. This type of statement shows a very interesting situation with respect to persons and facts, i. e. to mind as a relative reality and absolute eternal facts, i. e. events or stases.

- 4) Descriptively or actionally, mind is an active force in nature, capable of causing events to take place. These events may be self-reverting, affecting only the person involved, in which case we have only the two realities, objects and attributes, in function. Or they may involve third persons, in which case a third reality, namely the mind, must concur.
- 5) Men in general conceive of facts in two ways: absolutely and relatively. Eve on tasting of the banned tree was a relativist in contrast to Adam, who, as an absolutist, remained satisfied with looking at that tree and admiring its beauty. Civilization as it stands to-day could have started at the moment that such a decision might have been taken, though another type of civilization could have developed in line with Adam's thinking, i. e. a civilization of description rather than of action.

In this present civilization of ours, rights and obligations bind up together persons and facts in one consolidated affinity. Should this consolidation be warranted by external realitie the right / obligation relation would have cause for survival, otherwise person prevails over fact, a situation that gives ground to conflict.

- 6) An acute conflict is sometimes more of a disbalanced person/fact situation than of a disproportioned right/obligation relation. It is imperative, therefore, that no solution be adopted ignoring these factors. This fact, may apply to world peace negotiations, though here state sovereignty is substituted for the person. Experiences taken from history show that exchange of commodities sometimes may take place in spite of hostile activities. Does this mean that it is easier to agree on facts than between persons? Not always so undoubtedly.
- 8) One thing, however, is certain, which is that an agreement on a point is a decision taken at one's option and choice. It is therefore an act of the will. The nature of an agreement is therefore actional not descriptive. Let there be peace may describe a solution for the avoidance of war in that it displays the acceptance of self compliance with such an order as a result of absorptive, absolute thinking.

9) Humanity can yet aspire of a bigger and brighter day in taking cognizance of the abstract class consciousness, where the relative, individual mind is subordinated to the universal mind, in a major quest for the immortality of the human race.

THE END

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ALEPPO, S. A. R.

DECEMBER 12, 1966

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ERRATA

Page	Line	Incorrect	Correct
5	1 st, last par	assoult	assault
6	2 nd, 2nd par	gestures	gesture
8	1 st	word	Word
13	10 th, 2nd par	statial	statal
13	6 th, 3 rd »	desastrous	disartrous
25	3 rd from the la	st tempral	temporal
35	2 nd from the la	ast determinats	determinants
36	6 th line	spontansously	spontaneously
37	13 th	logieal	logical
38	7 th from the la	st similarly	similarly
41	6 th	Kingemperor	King-emperor
42	1 st. 2 nd par	out-water	cut - water
43	7 th.	clean - out	clean - cut
43	10 th.	a go-os-you	as - you
43	last line	still-burn	still-born
44	10 th.	the, reverse occurs	the reverse
		so,	occurs, so
48	15 th.	principle	principal
57	8 th.	temperal	temporal
59	4 th.from last	harted	hatred
60	4 th.	of	or
61	6 th. from last	cathegorized	categorized

64	11 th.	è	É	
66	1 th.	dicarion	dication	
67	6 th.	individual's	individual	
69	9 th.	copulai -	copula -	
71	7 th.	term	terms	
74	10th	the predicate, ad-	the predicate ad-	
80	7th.	in	with	
80	11th.	actualize	actualizes	
80	14th.	adjedtive	adjectives	
85	9th. from	n last with expresses	which expresses	
86nd		stri	strive	
.86	4th	shrieks, cries	shrieke, cry	
86	6th	effective	effectives	
95	7thfrom	last noon	noun	

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