

Preposing and Postposing in English and Arabic: A Contrastive Study

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Abstract: Preposing and postposing are interesting linguistic phenomena that endow English and Arabic fascinating means of expression and variation. They involve a number of devices that bring certain elements into focus by moving them either into sentence initial (preposing) or final (postposing) position. In Arabic, these two phenomena are treated together under one heading known as 'preposing and postposing' which is part of a wider linguistic phenomenon known as 'al-udul'. By shifting certain elements from their normal positions, certain linguistic and aesthetic purposes and benefits are attained. The study aims at shedding some light on the processes involved within these phenomena in both English and Arabic to show how each language deals with (and considers) them, what types of shifts associated with these phenomena in the two languages and which language makes greater uses of 'preposing and postposing' and why. It has been concluded that in spite of the fact that in both languages preposing and postposing are used to present information by applying different word orders in order to highlight different aspects of meaning, the issue of considering and discussing them in English and Arabic differs considerably.

Keywords: Preposing, postposing, word order, norms, shift, violations.

Introduction:

The Problem:

Sentences are arranged according to certain norms prescribed by grammarians to convey the required meanings. The resulting variation in the patterns of the sentences produced after preposing or postposing certain sentence elements may be problematic for both language users and learners in both English and Arabic, especially if they have no (or unclear) idea about such a subject and the purposes and intentions behind shifting sentence elements. The problems that are associated with the subject of 'preposing and postposing' and which are the main interest of this paper include the following

- How and why are the processes of preposing and postposing applied in the two languages?
- How can language users be able to identify the application of such processes and in which contexts?

Aims of the study:

The study aims at achieving the following:

- Presenting the main processes involved within 'preposing and postposing' in both English and Arabic.

- Showing how and why the two languages make use of 'preposing and postposing'.
- Clarifying which language makes greater use of 'preposing and postposing' and why to illustrate points of differences between the two languages.

The hypothesis:

The paper assumes that the phenomenon of 'preposing and postposing' is of great importance in both English and Arabic, and especially in Arabic, as applying them results in magnificent variations in style and ways of expression. It also hypothesizes that Arabic makes greater use of 'preposing and postposing' than English as there are variant ways, optional and obligatory, for moving sentence elements into sentence initial or final position.

Procedures of study:

The procedures followed in writing this paper are:

- Presenting a survey of 'preposing and postposing' in both languages.
- Presenting examples and illustrations to support the discussion about the subject under discussion and to clarify how the two languages consider this topic.
- Comparing the forms and uses of 'preposing and postposing' within the two languages to show the possible types of contexts where they are applied.
- Drawing up some conclusions.

Limits of study:

The present paper limits itself to explaining the main processes involved within the linguistic phenomenon 'preposing and postposing' in both English and Arabic to show points of contrasts, and similarities if there are, between them in relation to the forms used and the intentions achieved by using them. The study mainly focuses on explaining and clarifying the different processes of 'preposing and postposing' within the limits of individual sentences, simple, complex and compound. No longer pieces of discourse have been included to make clear the movements of elements within those limits.

Section One: Preposing and Postposing in English

1.1. Introduction

It is well-known that in traditional grammars, sentences are divided into two main parts: a subject and a predicate. Meyer (2009:98) points out that elements in a clause can be viewed from a different perspective,

"specifically in terms of how their placement in a clause contributes to the flow of information in a text and helps connect one clause with another". Taking this perspective into consideration means the study of the thematic structure of clauses. The study of thematic structure is mainly attributed to the work originally done by the Prague school linguists on functional sentence perspective (FSP).

Meyer (ibid: 98-99) illustrates that the theory of FSP shows why one specific word order is preferred over another. In FSP a clause is divided into the theme and the rheme instead of dividing it into a subject and a predicate. The placement of constituents in the theme and the rheme is affected by a number of factors, specially what is given (or old) and new information in the clause. This means that, in any particular sentence, information that is supposed to be familiar, or given, is usually placed before that which is supposed to be new. One way which helps ensuring that this flow of information is preserved is by using non-canonical constructions (also known as the marked word order), that is, syntactic structures in which the canonical order (or the unmarked order) of elements (for example in English SVO) is rearranged.

1.2 Marked Versus Unmarked Word Order

At the level of syntax, languages can be classified along many dimensions. One common way to classify them is to group them according to the dominant word orders they exhibit. The term 'word order' is often used to "refer to the order of the elements in the clause, elements which are, of course, often each realized by phrases or clauses rather than just one word each: subject, verb, objects, predicatives, and adverbials"(Biber et al. 1999: 898). The most common word order in English is SVO.

Biber et al. (ibid:899) argue that in spite of the fact that the use of the core elements in the clause are heavily restricted by structure, variation does exist even in the core. What determines the word order of English clauses is the interaction of a number of factors. They add that "in order to study the discourse function of word order and its variations, we need to understand the nature of the normal or unmarked order which may be altered to meet particular requirements of information flow or weight distribution, or to convey a special effect of emphasis". In the following example, given by Meyer (2009:37), (a) has the SVO order and thus it is considered unmarked as it is a representation of the most frequent word order in English and would not need any context to be considered acceptable; while (b) which has the OSV order is considered marked and thus definitely requires a specific context to be considered acceptable:

1.1. a. Dylan likes him.

b. Dylan, he likes.

Such clauses with OSV word order "are often used to promote to penalization- the positioning of the discourse topic in the first position of a clause"(ibid).

The next pages mainly focus on the non-canonical or marked word order, “where core clause elements are shifted from their normal position and put in an unusual one to achieve cohesion, emphasis, or some other stylistic effects”. (Biber, et al. 1999: 899). This is done by making certain variations on the basic clause patterns. They are presented here under two major topics: preposing and postposing. Though some previous studies have clarified the different preposing and postposing processes, these processes have been illustrated here for the sake of the comparison intended to be presented in this paper first and second for showing how the same topic can be explained and illustrated in different ways. It will be noticed that the general framework chosen for presenting these processes is that presented by Brown and Miller (1980) but reference has been made to other terms used to explain these two phenomena in order to show relevance and variation in the terms used.

1.3 Preposing and Postposing:

A number of syntactic processes (or devices) have been used to shift certain sentence elements to positions other than those specified by the language word order principles. These processes have been described differently and given various labels; nevertheless, almost the given labels have certain common features and all appear to describe some specific phenomena.

Brown and Miller (1980: 357) point out that 'theme', 'rheme' and 'end-focus' refer to structural positions within the sentence. They add that the two focal points in English sentences are the beginning and the end and that there is a number of processes within the language that place a constituent either initially or finally. The constituent that is placed initially is the theme, and the processes used to produce marked themes are processes of thematization. They (ibid: 358) argue that there are also other types of processes that produce marked end-focus by moving elements into sentence final position. They are called end-focusing processes.

1.3.1. Preposing Processes

Preposing which involves moving an element from the comment to make it the topic has been explained and illustrated under the title 'fronting' by some linguists like Emonds (1976), Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al (1999). Fronting as explained by them is a wide phenomenon which includes different processes for moving many types of elements from their canonical order. Biber et al. (1999:900) point out that fronting “refers to the initial placement of core elements which are normally found in post-verbal position”. Quirk et al. (1985: 1377) define fronting as " the term we apply to the achievement of marked theme by moving into initial position an item which is otherwise unusual there". Thus, fronting is realized when there is a marked theme not an unmarked one.

The following pages involve a demonstration of the different preposing, or thematization (also called topicalization) processes which can place phrases in sentence-initial position as presented by Brown and Miller (1980). We have chosen this framework as it presents the processes in a systematic manner enabling us to add relevant explanations and processes wherever necessary.

Thematization is the process whereby certain sentence elements are preposed to sentence initial position as the theme leaving the rest of the sentence as rheme (Habeeb. 2007). Muir (1972:97 cited in Habeeb,2007) mentions four sentence elements that can be thematized: the complement, the adjunct, the subject and the predicated theme. Brown and Miller (1980: 363) make reference to four major thematization processes whereby the specified elements can be preposed. The first type is what they call '**subject selection rules**'. Such rules include cases "where any one propositional role within a given propositional structure may be selected as grammatical subject, and the sentence remains an active declarative sentence"(ibid).

1.2 a. Blood flowed in the gutters.

b. **The gutters** flowed with blood

The second type is called '**promotion to subject rules**'. These rules include cases "where a particular propositional role, which in an active declarative sentence would not be grammatical subject, is promoted to subject with some consequent alternation in the verb group (as is the case with the passive) or by the introduction of a pro-verb (like HAVE)"(ibid)

1.3 a. The managing director sacked the strikers.

b. **The strikers** were dismissed by the managing director

The third general type is called '**left movement rules**' which involve the thematization of a specific constituent without any consequent change of the grammatical function. Thus the subject and object functions in the following sentence do not change:

1.4 a. I hate Christmas.

b. Christmas, I hate.

The preposing of other sentence elements, like predicatives and adjuncts, can be considered as part of this rule as preposing them involves moving elements into the left. Concerning preposing predicatives, Biber et al. (1999:902) illustrate that their fronting may be with subject and verb inversion which is, according to them, more common than without inversion. They (ibid: 903) add that there are two special types of predicative fronting: the first "contains proportion clause combinations... marked by pairs of phrases with the, where fronting of the correlative phrases almost always occurs", as in the following example:

1.5 The more general the domain, **the more general, selective, and tentative are [the statements about its style].**

Biber et al. (ibid) point out that "The second special type of predicative fronting, with subject-operator inversion..., frequently affects adjectives premodified by intensifier so introducing a that-comparative clause..., which is not fronted", as shown below:

1.6 **So preoccupied** was [she] at this moment, she was unaware that Diana was standing.

Predicatives may be also preposed like direct objects without inversion and with a single focus on the initial element:

1.7 **Right you are!**

1.8 **They're tiles. Horrible they are! (ibid:904) .**

The fourth type of thematization processes is what is called 'clefting rules'. These rules "involve the distribution of the constituents of some proposition into a copular sentence"(Brown and Miller, 1980:364):

1.9 **a. I am very fond of marzipan.**

b. It's marzipan that I'm very fond of.

c. Marzipan is what I'm fond of.

Cleft sentences are non-canonical constructions associated with specifying and determining the distribution of the topic. The cleft sentence construction with introductory *it* "is useful for fronting an element as topic, and also for putting focus (usually for contrast) on the topic element" (Leech and Svartvik 1973: 163).

What is referred to as '**left dislocation**' can be considered as one of the processes used for preposing elements within sentences. It involves the fronting of an NP from within a clause and its replacement by a presumptive pronoun (Allan 1986:93).

1.10 **My sixth grade teacher, he had a big effect on me.**

1.11 **Spiders, I've always been afraid of them.**

Brown and Miller (ibid: 361) point out that thematizing processes do not actually affect what is known as the 'propositional meaning', that is ' the underlying propositional roles of the various constituents'. Accordingly, the propositional structures of all the above sentences are the same, but they differ in terms of which constituent is thematized. They argue that thematization processes "may add emphases of meaning, or predispose the reader to a particular reading in preference to some other possible reading" (ibid:364).

1.3.2. Postposing Processes:

Postposing is a syntactic phenomenon by means of which a constituent is shifted to the right of the sentence. Brown and Miller (1980) refer to the processes that shift certain constituents to sentence final position as the end-focusing processes. They have considered them as the opposite of the theme-fronting processes illustrated above. As a certain constituent is chosen as theme, some other constituent must be placed in end-focus. Brown and Miller (ibid: 371) suggest four general types of end-focusing rules. The first type includes '**end-focus selection rules**' which are the opposite of the subject selection rules:

1.12 a. **The changes in the income-tax laws** will benefit the lower-paid worker.

b. The lower-paid worker will benefit from **the changes in the income-tax laws**.

The second type is known as '**postponement rules**'. Applying these rules involves changing the grammatical function of a constituent. Thus in the following example, **getting hold of a plumber these days** is the subject in a, but not in b

1.13 a. **Getting hold of a plumber these days** is difficult.

b. It is difficult to **get hold of a plumber these days**

This type of rule is commonly referred to as 'the introductory it-construction' or 'extraposition'. **Extraposition** is a kind of postponement which includes the replacement of the postponed element by a substitute form. The most important type of extraposition is that of a clausal subject, that is a subject is realized by a finite or non-finite clause. The subject is shifted to the end of the sentence, and the normal subject position is filled by the anticipatory pronoun it (Quirk et al. 1985: 1391).

The direct object, in the normal order, precedes an object complement or a final position adverbial. But the object can be postponed to the end for end-weight if it is long in SVOC and SVOA clause types. These can be considered as cases of extraposition. Quirk et al. (ibid: 1395) note the following shifts with this respect:

1.14 (a) Shift from SVO_dC_o order to SVC_oO_d order:

They pronounced guilty **every one of the accused**.

1.15 (b) Shift from SVO_dA to $SVAO_d$: 1.15 I confessed to him **all my worst defects**.

Leech and Svartvik (1973:168) illustrate that the same thing can be true for a noun phrase object used before a particle as in the second part of phrasal verbs like make up, give away, let down. The following example clarifies this case:

1.16 a. He gave **all his books** away.

b. He gave away **all his books**.

But personal pronoun objects cannot be moved to the end like this:

1.17 a. He gave **them** away

but not b. * He gave away **them**.

They (ibid) mention another case which includes the indirect object. In normal order, an indirect object precedes the direct one, but the indirect object can be postponed by changing it into a prepositional phrase. Once again, the movement is used to obtain a different end-focus as in the following:

1.18 a. The twins told **their mother** all their secrets.

b. The twins told all their secrets to **their mother**.

where a. above answers the implied question What did the twins tell their mother? but b. answers the implied question Who did they tell their secrets to? (ibid)

The third type of rules is called '**right movement rules**', also known as right- dislocation. These rules 'involve moving a particular constituent to the end of a sentence, but do not change its grammatical function'(Brown and Miller,1980:372). It mainly operates on subject constituent and a pronoun copy is left behind.

1.19 a. **Your mother** has gone out shopping.

b. She's gone out shopping, **your mother**.

Finally, the last type of rules includes **pseudo-cleft sentences**. These can be considered as rules producing an end-focus, as they are considered as rules producing a theme. The pseudo-cleft sentence "is another device whereby, like the cleft sentence proper, the construction can make explicit the division between given and new parts of the communication" (Quirk et al. 1985: 1387). Habeeb (2007) points out that the pseudo-cleft sentence is also called a wh-cleft as a wh-relative pronoun is used in a nominal clause functioning as subject, object, complement or adverbial. It has the normal sentence word order SVC with a nominal relative clause as subject or complement. Note the following sentences which can be considered as synonym as the focus on rest:

1.20 a. It's a good rest that you need most.

b. A good rest is that you need most.

The pseudo-cleft sentence for such sentences mainly occurs with a wh-clause subject:

c. What you need most is a good rest. (ibid: 1388).

2. Section Two: Preposing and Postposing in Arabic

2.1. Introduction:

In Arabic al-'udūl (shift) is an important and interesting linguistic phenomenon which identifies the aspects of violating the actual language constructions governed by grammar to achieve certain rhetorical benefits and purposes. Preposing and postposing are both considered and listed under this heading and usually treated together under one title 'preposing and postposing'. In this section, we shall mainly focus on

the different types of sentence elements that may (or must) be preposed or postposed with reference to the reasons calling for such movements. The variation in sentence structure caused by moving elements into initial or final position is one of the important techniques that “can be seen to operate within the language to mark aspects of information structure concerned with the features of “givenness,” “newness,” “incompleteness” and “unexpectedness.”” (Ingham, 2010 in Owens and Elgibali (ed.) :112)

2.2. Types of Sentences in Arabic:

Sentence elements are arranged in certain specific order to produce grammatical sentences that convey the required meaning, and any change in the order of these elements is done either for adding a new meaning or for achieving certain rhetorical benefits. In Arabic, sentences are of two main types: nominal and verbal. Nominal sentences (also called equational sentences) consist of two parts: a subject (or topic) and a predicate (or comment). The subject is referred to as ‘mubtada’ and the predicate as ‘khabar’. Ryding (2005:59) points out that equational sentences “typically begin with a noun phrase or pronoun and are completed by a comment on that noun phrase or pronoun. The comment or predicate may take the form of different classes of words and phrases: nouns, predicate adjectives, pronouns, or prepositional phrases”. The verbal sentences, on the other hand, have a verb as their nucleus and a number of dependents. The arrangement of the main elements of the verbal sentence is VSO (with the possibility of adding other elements after the subject):

2.1 درس أحمد الدرس VSO (Ahmed studied the lesson)

This illustrates that the common canonical word order in Arabic is VS(O), but this does not mean that there are no other alternative orders allowed in the Arabic language. On the contrary, alternative orders do exist and they are used to mark the distribution of information within the parts of a sentence and to indicate certain rhetorical benefits.

In discussing the importance of learning grammar, ابن الاثير (V.1/ 41) points out that learning or mastering ilm al-nahuu (علم النحو) for ilm al-bayaan (علم البيان) is very essential. He states that learning grammar is the first thing one must master for everyone speaking Arabic to ensure that language prescribed rules are not violated. He adds that sometimes such rules are violated and the resulting forms cannot be understood without certain limits that identify them. In such cases, one form may refer to different meanings. He (ibid:42) elaborates by stating that a subject or an object, for example, cannot be identified without a sign, thus when preposing the object on the subject, there must be a sign clarifying the identity of each; if there is no such sign, then there would be the problem of identifying them as saying:

2.2 ضرب زيد عمرو (Amruu hit Zaid)

where Zaid is intended to be the receiver of the action. If it is not put in the accusative form and Amru in the nominative form indicated by harakat al'aerab (حركات الإعراب), it would not be possible to understand the identity of each or what is intended. Thus, it has become necessary to arrange words in certain specific orders and associate them with suitable markers (حركات) to ensure the grammaticality of the sentences produced. According to such rules, it has become possible for al-mubtada to come before al-khabar, and the verb before the subject and the object, and the modified before the adjective ...and so on.

2.3 'Preposing and Postposing':

In a section about 'preposing and postposing', الجرجاني (D. 471) الاعجاز (106 : دلائل الإعجاز) points out that preposing and postposing have many advantages and gorgeousness aims. He illustrates that "the listener of a piece of literary work involving preposing or postposing can feel and like the beauty and fascination found in such a piece". الزركشي (V 3: 233) points out that 'preposing and postposing' (considered as a single phenomenon) is "one of the styles of rhetoric which the Arabs used to indicate their mastery of eloquence and their control of speech and it has a better position in the heart and a sweeter taste".

In relation to this topic, الميداني (1993: 237) explains that "a sentence in the Arabic language has an original system which must be noticed when arranging its elements, and a number of likely minor possibilities which help to prepose what must in origin be postponed for certain rhetoric and aesthetic purposes". He adds that as a result, "the rhetorician seeking for lofty literature has to restrict himself with the system of arranging sentence elements, and does not appeal to the likely minor possibilities except for rhetoric or aesthetic reasons which require him to do that" (ibid).

تركي (2004: 568) clarifies the reason that makes writers appeal to preposing or postposing certain sentence elements. He states that "... as researchers see, the existence of harakat al'aerab gives words the feature of being capable of preposing and postposing". So, preposing and postposing certain sentence elements are normally appealed to in the Arabic language to attain certain benefits. In the following pages, we are going to clarify how the origin (or the canonical word order) is set and how it can be varied by shifting elements into sentence initial or final position. Arabic grammarians tend to explain the two processes together as certain elements may be preposed in certain cases or postponed in others. The movements of sentence elements are very interesting as will be noticed though they are somehow confusing as there are many interrelated cases for moving these elements.

2.4. Types of 'Preposing and Postposing':

2.4.1. Preposing and Postposing Al-Mubtada and Al-Khabar:

In nominal sentences, the origin is preposing al-mubtada and postposing al-khabar because "the latter is a description in meaning for al- mubtada, so it deserves postposing like the description, and it is possible to prepose it if that does not lead to an ambiguity or the like ..." (ابن عقيل: V1: 227).

Concerning the preposing of al-khabar on al-mubtada, ابن عقيل (ibid: 232) illustrates that al-khabar is divided with respect to its preposing or postposing on al-mubtada into three parts: one where preposing and postposing are possible, another where al-kabar must be postponed, and the last where al-khabar must be preposed. The first part includes cases like the following:

2.3 a زيد قائم (Mubtada (M) Khabar (K)) (Zaid (is) stood)

b. قائم زيد (K M)

b. indicates that *Zaid* himself is stood and nobody else, while **a.** indicates that one is free to prove the standing or negate it as saying: *sitting, hitting or anything else* (ibid).

Concerning the cases where al-khabar must be postponed, ابن عقيل (V 1: 232- 238) refers to five such cases. They are summarized below:

1. Al-mubtada and al-khabar must be both definite or indefinite. In such a case, it is acceptable to consider both of them as mubtada as in:

2.4 زيد اخوك (Zaid (is) your brother)

2. Al-kabar is a verb with an implicit pronoun referring to al-mubtada as in:

2.5 زيد قام (Zaid stood)

Here the verb and its implicit subject together constitute khabar for al-mubtada, and it is not possible to prepose the verb. So, it cannot be said زيد قام where '*Zaid*' is to be considered a postponed mubtada and the verb is a preposed khabar, but '*Zaid*' becomes a subject for the verb if it is postponed. As such, the construction will not be a nominal sentence but a verbal one consisting of a verb and a subject.

3. If al-khabar is restricted with *إنما* 'inama' or *إلا* 'illa' as in:

2.6 إنما زيد قائم

4. If al-mubtada is preceded by "لام الابداء" lam al-ibtida' as in:

2.7 لزيد قائم

5. If al-mubtada has the priority in speech as interrogation nouns as in:

2.8 من لي منجدا

where 'من' is muftada and 'لي' is khabar, and 'منجدا' is manner.

These five cases are considered as the normal positions for these two elements ابن عقيل (ibid) completes listing the cases where al-khabar must be preposed. They include the following cases as explained and illustrated by him:

- 1- If al-muftada is an inconvenient indefinite noun (نكرة غير مفيدة), al-khabar, which may be an adverb or a prepositional phrase, must be preposed, like:

2.9 في الدار امرأة (In the house (is) a woman)

- 2- If al-muftada includes a pronoun referring to something in al-khabar, like

2.10 في الدار صاحبها (In the house (is) its owner)

- 3- like: If al-khabar has the priority in speech, as in the case of interrogation

2.11 أين زيد؟ (Where (is) Zaid?)

where Zaid is a postponed muftada and 'أين' is a preposed khabar.

- 4- If al- muftada is restricted, as in:

2.12 إنما في الدار زيد (ibid: 240- 243)

Although, such cases are considered as the norms that grammarians set concerning the arrangement of the two elements of the nominal sentence, they are considered as important cases of preposing and postposing as the use of certain words or the forms of the two main elements of the nominal sentence require applying them.

2.4.2. Cases of 'Preposing and Postposing' the Verb and its Dependents:

As illustrated the verbal sentence mainly consists of a verb as its nucleus and starting point and a number of dependents including the subject, object, adverbials and other elements. It will be noticed that these elements exchange their places in a variety of ways and each movement is done for a certain intention. Though the following sections have been divided into separate topics depending on what is preposed or postponed, it will be clear that the movements of verbs, subjects and objects are really interrelated.

2.4.2.1 Cases of Preposing the Subject (on its operator):

Grammarians stipulate that the subject must follow its operator (the verb), and it is incorrect to prepose it. After considering a number of views concerning the preposing of the subject if it keeps its function as a subject or attributed another function relying on its position in the sentence after preposing, السامرائي

(2000: 46) suggests that this issue must be investigated in another way. He illustrates that “one must look at the semantic differences between the two expressions, that is before and after preposing”. السامرائي argues that the origin in the sentence whose head is a verb (known in Arabic as ‘al-musnad’ المسند) is that the verb is to be preposed, and if the subject (known as ‘al-musnad ilayhi’ المسند اليه) is preposed, one must look at the reason for that. In the following sentence the origin is:

2.13 a حضر سعد (VS) (Saad came) So if it is said:

b. سعد حضر (SV)

one must find out the reasons for preposing the subject. السامرائي (ibid) explains that “the difference between the two expressions is that if one starts the sentence with the verb, this indicates that the addressee does not have anything in his mind about the matter, and if you prepose the subject, then that preposing must be for a certain purpose”.

2.4.2.2 Cases of 'Preposing and Postposing' the Verb:

In certain other cases, the point of focus and attention is the verb of a sentence and its effect other than anything else, like who did it, so, in such a case, the verb is preposed. For example:

2.14 a. قتل زيدَ الخارجيَّ (VSO) (Zaid killed the outsider)

but if the receiver of the action is more important than the doer of the action, then the object is preposed because people are more interested in knowing who was killed. So, it is said:

b. قَتَلَ الخارجيَّ زيدٌ (VOS)

but in other instances where the attention is on the doer of the verb rather than whom it falls on, it is said

c. قَتَلَ زيدٌ رجلاً (VSO) (Zaid killed a man) (108: دلائل الاعجاز، الجرجاني)

السكاكي (D. (626): 101) considers the same matter but in a different way. He states that the issue of considering 'preposing and postposing' with the verb is of three types: “the first is the occurrence of a certain meaning between the verb and its subject” as in:

2.15 a. أنت عرفت. (You knew) b. أنا عرفت. (I knew)

“The second includes the occurrence of a meaning relation between the verb and another element other than the subject” (ibid), as in the following instance where the relation is between the verb and its object which is preposed on it:

2.16 درهما أعطيت (I gave a dirham)

“The third is the occurrence of a meaning relation between the verb and what is connected to it” (ibid) as in the following example where the relation is between the verb and both its subject and object:

2.17 a عرف عمراً زيداً (VOS)

b. عرف زيد عمراً (VSO) (Zaid knew Amr).

It is clear that preposing or postposing the verb is done to express certain meaning relations between the verb and its dependents.

2.4.2.3 Cases of ‘Preposing and Postposing’ the Object:

One of the common rules of grammar prescribed by grammarians is that the subject is connected to its verb because it is part of it, then comes the object. This thing may be reversed, the object may come before both the subject and the verb. ابن جني (D. 392) V.2: 382 points out that “preposing and postposing’ can be of two types: one is what measurement accepts, and the other is what obligation facilitates”. For him, preposing the object on the subject once, and on the verb another time is part of the first type as in:

2.18 a. ضرب زيداً عمرو (VOS) b. زيداً ضرب عمرو (OVS) (Amr hit Zaid)

The preposing of the object on both the verb and the subject includes examples like:

2.19 a. ضربت زيداً (VSO) b. زيداً ضربت (OVS) (I hit Zaid)

where *b.* indicates the specification that ‘Zaid’ was hit and nobody else, and this is different from *a.* because if the verb is preposed, it will be possible to associate it with any type of object as saying:

c. ضربت خالداً أو بكراً أو غيرهم (VSO) (I hit Khalid or Bakir or anyone else) (ibid).

الميداني (1993: 114- 115) points out that there are four cases for such preposing. They are summarized below with examples:

1. The object is to be a conditional noun like:

2.20 أئيمهم تكريم أكرم (OVS, SV) (Anyone you award, I shall award).

2. The object is to be an interrogative noun as in

2.21 ما فعلت؟ (O (an interrogative word) VS) (What did you do?)

3. The object is to be the word “كم” or “كأين” as in

2.22 كم كتابا ملكت؟ (OVS) (How many books did you have?)

4. The object occurs in the answer of “*amma*” as in:

2.23 {فأما اليتيم فلا تقهر* وأما السائل فلا تنهر}

(Therefore, do not mistreat the orphan. Nor rebuff the seeker.)

The object here must be preposed to separate between 'amma' and its answer, and if there is something separating between them, then it must not be preposed, as in:

2.24 فأما اليوم فافعل ما بدا لك (amma adv. V S O..) (Today, do whatever you like)

As noticed, preposing the object is usually done because necessity requires such preposing or the forms of the used objects impose preposing.

2.4.2.4 Cases of 'Preposing and Postposing' Two Objects:

السامرائي (2002 V.2: 86-87) refers to a number of cases of preposing with one or two objects showing the position of the preposed object. The cases of such preposing are many. They are briefly mentioned below as explained by him:

- 1- The first object is preposed on the second as in

2.25 a. منح خالد دارا سعيدا (VSO₁O₂) (Khalid gave Said a house)

- 2- The two objects are preposed and the subject is postponed as in:

b. منح سعيدا دارا خالد (VO₂O₁S)

c. منح دارا سعيدا خالد (VO₁O₂S)

- 3- One of the objects is preposed on the subject, and the other is postponed as in

d. منح سعيدا خالد دارا (VO₂SO₁) e. منح دارا خالد سعيدا (VO₁SO₂)

- 4- The two objects are preposed on both the verb and the subject as in:

f. منح دارا سعيدا خالد (O₂O₁VS)

- 5- One of the objects is preposed on the verb and the other is postponed on the verb and the subject as in

g. منح خالد سعيدا (O₁VSO₂) h. منح خالد دارا (O₂VSO₁)

- 6- One of the objects is to be preposed on the verb and the other is preposed on the subject as in

i. منح سعيدا دارا خالد (O₂VO₁S) j. منح دارا سعيدا خالد (O₁VO₂S)

These are the norms which grammarians put in relation to arranging sentence elements concerning the verb, subject and objects.

3. Contrastive Analysis:

Some points of contrast have been detected between the two languages in relation to the topic discussed throughout this paper. They can be summarized as follows:

- 1- In English, preposing and postposing are treated as two separate linguistic phenomena which have been discussed and considered within different processes. As it has been noticed, the use or application of one of them is quite irrelevant to the application of the other though the motives for applying them remain the same in most cases. In Arabic, on the other hand, the two are treated under one topic 'preposing and postposing' and treated jointly, sometimes optionally and sometimes obligatorily. In other words, they are explained in terms of whether they may or must be applied in relation to the meaning relations intended to be expressed.
- 2- In English, processes used to move sentence elements initially or finally have been given different names and labels depending on the type of movement and its implication. In Arabic, no such names or labels have been given to the processes associated with moving sentence elements initially or finally. Instead, Arabic grammarians tend to refer to the elements moved in relation to each other. This is due to the fact such shifts are sometimes considered as part of the language norms used to produce variations in sentence structures or to attain certain meaning relations and this allows Arabic writers to vary the ways of their expressions and communication.
- 3- It has been noted that in Arabic, more possibilities concerning the movement of sentence elements initially or finally exist as we have noted that the same element, the object for instance, may occupy certain positions in certain cases or it must occupy others in certain other cases in relation to other constituents surrounding it. In English, the object is also movable, but it does not have the variety of positions occupied by its equivalent in Arabic. So, it can be said that in Arabic, 'preposing and postposing', considered as one phenomenon, is one of the widely used linguistic phenomena that distinguish the Arabic language from other languages and ascribe it the variety and beauty in expression and uniqueness.
- 4- In Arabic the main verb is one of the essential elements that has a serious role in the processes of preposing and postposing. It has different and serious relations with the subject and the object of the sentence, and thus it can be shifted from its own normal position to attain certain purposes. In English, the verb is not widely shifted within the limits of the single sentence, except in the case of inversion which involves preposing certain types of verbs or operators preceded by certain coordinators or adverbials to fulfill certain requirements.
- 5- Both in English and Arabic, preposing and postposing have a great and serious influence on the determination of topics and comments and on the distribution of information. They specify the placement of both old and new information and accordingly new information is put in focus. So, applying them makes it easy for language users and learners to identify the piece of information that is newer and thus more important.

Conclusions:

It can be concluded that preposing and postposing are quite interesting and important linguistic phenomena in both English and Arabic. They are among many other processes that are applied to attain variation in expression and communication. Though many differences can be noticed between the two languages in this respect, they still have something in common. This includes the shift of elements either into initial or final position to attain certain intentions, but what is quite obvious is that Arabic overweighs English with respect to the application of these phenomena and the benefits and purposes behind such application.

It has been noted that thematic structure and information structure are greatly affected by the operations involved within these two linguistic phenomena as they influence the specification of both the topic and comment and the distribution of information: old vs. new due to the movements of sentence elements either into the initial or final sentence position in relation to the main verb which is considered as the nucleus or some other elements as in the nominal sentences used in the Arabic language. .

Having an idea about the processes leading to preposing or postposing certain linguistic elements and the writer's intentions calling for such movements heavily helps understand the reasons making writers appeal to such a style in writing. The issue of 'preposing and postposing' in both English and Arabic is a very wide and branched area of study which cannot be comprehensively covered in such a simple study. The survey presented in the preceding few pages, though brief, has revealed some important and interesting facts about these phenomena in the two languages .

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التقديم والتأخير في اللغتين الإنكليزية والعربية: دراسة مقارنة

الملخص: التقديم والتأخير من الظواهر اللغوية المثيرة للاهتمام والتي توفر للفتين الإنكليزية والعربية وسائل رائعة للتعبير والتنوع. تتضمن هاتين الظاهرتين عدداً من الوسائل التي تنقل عناصر معينة من الجملة إلى مواضع التشديد من خلال نقلها إما إلى بداية أو نهاية الجملة. في اللغة العربية، يتم التعامل مع هاتين الظاهرتين سوية تحت عنوان واحد يعرف باسم "التقديم والتأخير" وهو جزء من ظاهرة لغوية أوسع تعرف باسم "العدول". من خلال نقل بعض العناصر من مواضعها المعتادة، يتم تحقيق بعض الأغراض والفوائد اللغوية والجمالية. تهدف الدراسة إلى تسليط الضوء على العمليات التي تنطوي عليها هذه الظواهر باللغتين الإنكليزية والعربية لتوضيح كيف تتعامل كل لغة مع هاتين الظاهرتين وأنواع التحولات المرتبطة بهما بكلتا اللغتين وأي اللغتين تستخدم ظاهرتي التقديم والتأخير أكثر من الأخرى ولماذا. وقد تم التوصل إلى أنه وبالرغم من حقيقة أن في كلتا اللغتين يتم استخدام التقديم والتأخير لعرض المعلومات باستخدام أنظمة مختلفة لترتيب الكلمات من أجل تسليط الضوء على جوانب مختلفة من المعنى، فإن مسألة اعتبارهما باللغتين الإنكليزية والعربية تختلف إلى حد كبير.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التقديم، التأخير، نظام الكلمات، الأنماط، التحويل، الإخلال.