

Expressing Relations of Being and Becoming in English and Arabic

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تأريخ القبول: ٢٠٠٨/٧/١٧

تأريخ التقديم: ٢٠٠٨/٦/٤

1. Introduction:

Systemic functional linguistics is concerned with understanding the ways in which language is used for different contexts and situations. The emphasis on language as a system explains the name of Halliday's revised theory (systemics). Halliday (1967: 3) clarifies that the name 'systemic' is not the same as 'systematic'; the term is used because the fundamental concept in the grammar is that of the 'system'. A system is a set of options with an entry condition, that is to say, a set of things of which one must be chosen.

Halliday (1970: 36-38) argues that the ways in which human beings use language – the meanings that we can make with language – are classified into three broad categories or metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual (See also Halliday, 1985: 34; Halliday, 1994: 34; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004 and Eggins, 2004: 111). The Ideational metafunction is concerned with how language captures reality and our experience of the world. It is about the natural world in the broadest sense, and is concerned with clauses as representations. The Interpersonal metafunction is about the social world, especially the relationship between speaker and hearer, and is concerned with clauses as exchanges. The Textual metafunction, however, is about the verbal world,

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especially the flow of information in a text, and is concerned with clauses as messages. It is concerned with the overall organization of the clause, and above it, the text. It is largely concerned with theme and rheme (Bloor and Bloor, 2004: 10-11).

Central to Systemic Functional Grammar (henceforth SFG) is the use of systems, related to the three metafunctions. These systems are Transitivity, Mood and Theme/Rheme. Ideational meanings are realised by the system of Transitivity. This system interprets and represents our experience of the phenomena in the world by describing experiential meanings in terms of processes, participants and circumstances. As for Interpersonal meanings, they are realised by the system of Mood which is the central resource establishing an exchange between the speaker and the hearer by assuming speech roles such as giving or demanding goods and services or information. Thus, the giving of information or goods and services is grammaticalised as declarative, questions as interrogative, and commands as imperatives. On the other hand, Textual meanings are realised by the system of Theme/Rheme. The Theme is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message. The Rheme is the part in which the Theme is developed (Halliday, 1994: 106).

This paper provides a contrastive account of the grammar of relational processes, viz. processes of being and becoming, in English and Arabic. The theoretical framework from which we depart is the systemic-functional model, more specifically, Halliday's Functional Grammar (1985, 1994). The analyses carried out in this paper emerged from the experiential metafunction of transitivity. The problem tackled in this paper is that no attempt has been made to compare between English and Arabic relational processes.

The paper is structured as follows: section 2 deals with the clause as representation. Section 3 presents an overview of relational processes in English within the framework of SFG. Section 4 provides an application to relational processes in Arabic. Section 5 provides a contrastive account of this type of processes in English and Arabic. Section 6 presents the concluding remarks.

2. Clause as Representation: The System of Transitivity:

Halliday posits that our experiences in the world consist of ‘goings-on’, that is, a flow of events that represent our outer activities or social manifestations in daily life and our inner thoughts or forms of interpretation of the world. This function of the clause is related to the ideational metafunction. Halliday (1994: 106) describes this by saying:

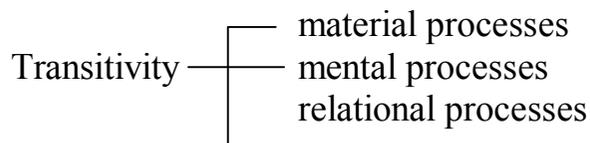
“Language enables human beings to build a mental picture of reality, to make sense of what goes on around them and inside them. Here again, the clause plays a role, because it embodies a general principle for modeling experience – namely, the principle that reality is made up of processes”.

Halliday also affirms that the experiential meaning is realised in the system of Transitivity within a wide range of choices available in the system of any language. Thus, we use language to represent our experience of the processes, persons, objects, abstractions, and relations of the world around us and inside us (Halliday, 1978: 145). Transitivity is one of the major strands of meaning in the clauses of all human languages. It defines the range of types of process that is possible to be expressed through the language concerned.

Following on the thrust of Halliday's idea, Transitivity system is constituted by the following factors:

- (i) Processes in the verbal complex of clauses. The grammar distinguishes between the outer experience, the processes of the external world, and inner experience, the processes of consciousness. The grammatical categories are those of Material Processes and Mental Processes. The third process is to relate one fragment of experience to another. It is called the Relational Process (Halliday, 1994: 107).
- (ii) Participants involved in the processes and realised by nominal groups of clauses. The participants can be further described in terms of various participants roles such as Actor, Agent, Goal, Carrier, Sayer, etc.
- (iii) Circumstances associated with the processes in adverbial groups or prepositional phrases. Often there will be circumstances attendant on the process, the process happens at some special time or in some special place or for some special reason (Berry 1975: 149).

In English grammar, we can make choices between different types of process, between different types of participant, between different types of circumstance and between different numbers of participants and circumstances. These choices are known as the Transitivity system (Berry, 1975: 150). There is a system of three terms: material, mental and relational:



(after Berry, 1975: 150)

Material processes* or processes of doing are actions carried out by participants called Agents. They may or may not affect other participants (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 183).

1. *John hit Layla yesterday.*

2. *Jack runs.*

As shown above, in (1) there are two participants, while in (2) there is only one.

Mental processes, however, are processes of perception (see, hear), of cognition (know, understand), and of affection (like, fear) (Downing and Locke, 2002: 125).

3. *I saw the accident.*

4. *He knows the answer.*

5. *She likes desserts.*

In (3), the process is of perception, while it is of cognition in (4), and of affection in (5).

In the following section, we shall explore the relational processes and the particular kinds of participant roles that are systematically associated with them.

3. Relational Processes in English – Processes of Being and Becoming:

Relational processes express the notion of being something or somewhere. Halliday (1994: 119) argues that in relational clauses, there are two parts to the 'being': something is being said to 'be' something else. That is to say, a relation is being set up between two separate entities.

Within the theoretical framework provided by SFG, relational processes are of three types: attributive, possessive and circumstantial. Each type can be of two types: Attributive and Identifying, depending on Halliday (1985, 1994). In

* There are other subsidiary types of processes such as behavioural, verbal and existential processes which are not going to be tackled here (cf. Halliday, 1994: 138-144).

Attributive processes, “an attribute is ascribed to some entity”, whereas in Identifying processes “one entity identifies another” (Halliday, 1994: 119).

3.1 Attributive Relational Processes:

These processes are of two types: intensive attributive processes and intensive identifying ones which will be dealt with in the following sections:

3.1.1 Intensive Attributive Processes:

These processes ascribe or attribute a quality, called Attribute to an entity, the Carrier (Halliday, 1994: 120):

6. *John is a poet.*

7. *Huda is a good player.*

John	is	a poet
Huda	is	a good player
Carrier	Process verb	Attribute

Fig. (1): Examples of Intensive Attributive Processes

The examples given above show that the nominal group functioning as Attribute is indefinite and can be realised by an adjective.

3.1.2 Intensive Identifying Processes:

In intensive identifying processes, something, the Identified, has an identity, the Identifier assigned to it. What this means is that one entity is being used to identify another (Halliday, 1994: 122). Examples in figure (2):

8. *Jack is the player.*

9. *Nada is my sister*

10..

Jack	is	the player
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Nada	is	my sister
Identified	Intensive verb	Identifier

Fig. (2): Examples of Intensive Identifying Clauses

The difference between the intensive attributive processes and intensive identifying ones is reflected in structure in the following:

- (a) Only the identifying type is reversible, whereas the attributive type is not. Thus, 'John is a poet' cannot be switched around, i.e. we cannot say 'a poet is John' (Halliday, 1994: 120).
- (b) Only the attributive type can be realised by an adjective.
- (c) Nominal groups (NGs) functioning as Attributive are indefinite (a poet), while NGs which realise identifiers are definite (the player).

It should be noted, however, that with stative verbs such as be, seem, and keep, the attribute is seen as existing at the same time as the process described by the verb and is called the current Attribute (Downing and Locke, 2002: 132):

11. *The Child kept quiet.*

12. *She looks tired.*

On the other hand, with dynamic verbs such as become, turn, get, and grow, the Attribute exists as the result of the process and can be termed 'the resulting Attribute':

13. *She became happy.*

14. *The leaves turned yellow in the autumn.*

3.2 Possessive Relational Processes:

The possessive relational processes could be of two types: Possessive attributive processes and possessive identifying ones:

3.2.1 Possessive Attributive Processes:

In the Possessive attributive type, the relationship is one of ownership; that is to say, the Carrier possesses the Attribute

(Halliday, 1994: 132). The verb is (be) and the Attribute is realised by a genitive pronoun or by an 's genitive¹:

14.	The book	is	mine
15.	The car	is	Jack's
	Carrier	Process Intensive verb	Attribute Possession

Fig. (3): Examples of Possession as Attribute

However, if the relationship of possession is encoded as a process, different verbs can be used. With verbs 'have, own, and possess', the Carrier is the possessor and the Attribute is the possessed. With 'be and belong', the Carrier is the possessed and the Attribute the possessor (ibid.: 133).

16.	Jack	has	a book
	Carrier Possessor	Process Possession verb	Attribute Possessed

Fig. (4): Example of Possession as a Process

3.2.2 Possessive Identifying Processes:

Possessive identifying processes express the possession in the form of a relationship between the Identified and the Identifier. The relationship of possession may be expressed either as a feature of participants or as a feature of process (Halliday, 1994: 133). In the possession as participants, the identified signifies the thing possessed, the identifier signifies the property of the possessor. In the following example, the identified is token and the identifier is value:

18.	The car	is	Peter's
	Identified Possessed	Process Intensive	Identifier Possessor

* Possession can also be realized in English by of-genitive, which will not be tackled in this paper.

Token	verb	Value
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Fig. (5): An Example of Possession as Participants

In the possession as process, possession is encoded as a process, realised by the verb 'own'. Note that 'Peter', here, is value and 'the car' is token:

19.

Peter's	is	the car
Identified	Process	Identifier
Value		Token

20.

Peter	owns	the car
Identified	Process	Identifier
Token	Possession	Value

Fig. (6): Examples of Possession as Process

It is worth noting that (18) is active and decoding, while (19) is passive and encoding. In addition, (20) is the active clause of (21) below:

21.

The car	is owned by	Peter
Identified	Process of	Identified
Value	Possession	Token

Fig. (7): An Example of Passive Possessive Identifying Clause

3.3 Circumstantial Relational Processes:

In the circumstantial attributive processes, the Attribute is a circumstantial element ascribed to some entity, the Carrier:

22.

John	is	at home
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23.

The bank	is	round the corner
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Carrier	Intensive Process	Attribute
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Fig. (8): Examples of Attributive Circumstantial Process

However, the circumstantial identifying processes have a circumstance taking the form of a relationship of time, place, etc. between the identified and the identifier:

24.

Today	is	the fifth
Identified	Process	Identifier
Token	Intensive verb	Value

Fig. (9): An Example of Identifying Circumstantial Active and Decoding

25.

The fifth	is	today
Identified	Process	Identifier
Value	Intensive verb	Token

Fig. (10): An Example of Identifying Circumstantial Passive and Encoding

The reason why identifying processes have the variable of regarding the functions of the participants is that these processes not only have an entity which identifies another, but what the identifier can be is either the **token** by which it is represented (active and decoding), or the **value** which it represents (passive and encoding)(Halliday, 1994:124).

It is also important to remark that there is a difference between attributive and identifying modes. In the attributive mode, the Carrier and the Attribute are not reversible, while in the identifying one, the identified and the identifier can be reversed. See the following examples:

26. *The book is on the shelf.* (attributive)

27. *Tomorrow is Sunday.* (Identifying)

Examples such as (26) are not reversible and can be considered as attributive circumstantial processes. However, (27) is reversible and can be considered as an identifying circumstantial process.

Furthermore, the semantic difference between the attributive and identifying mode which is less clear in the circumstantial type than in the intensive type is that the attributive process designates a class (the class of things), while the identifying process identifies the thing (Halliday, 1994: 132). Let us consider:

28. *The cat is on the mat.*

29. *The best place is on the mat.*

In (28), the process is attributive circumstantial which designates the class of things. In (29), however, the process is identifying circumstantial which identifies the thing that is identified by being on the mat.

4. Relational Processes in Arabic:

4.1 Intensive Attributive Processes:

In Arabic, these processes can be brought out in nominal sentences. The nominal sentences have no verb whatsoever (Makhzumi, 1966: 144). Such sentences have two parts: subject and predicate. The subject (inchoative) is the Carrier, and the predicate (enunciative) is the Attribute:

30. *علي طالب* (Ali is a student.)

31. *ندى جميلة* (Nada is beautiful).

طالب	علي
جميلة	ندى
Attribute	Carrier

Fig. (11): Examples of Arabic Intensive Attributive Processes

As shown above, the attribute could be either an indefinite noun or an adjective.

It should be noted here that in such processes, the predicate may come before the subject, i.e. we can say (طالبٌ)

(علي) or (جميلة ندى). This process is called “predicate fronting” in which the predicate precedes the subject (Al-Asterabathi, 1979: 1/93).

One of the reasons behind the predicate fronting is to make a special mention of something or somebody which is called in Arabic التخصيص. Thus, if the hearer has no idea about the whole clause, the speaker may say an example as (30). But if the hearer thinks that ‘Ali is a doctor’, the speaker will say:

32. طالبٌ علي (A student (is) Ali.)

In addition, (30) is an assertion, while (32) is used to eliminate any doubt. Thus, if the hearer thinks that ‘Ali is a doctor or an engineer’, the speaker will say ‘طالبٌ علي’ to remove the hearer’s doubt, i.e. ‘Ali is a student and nothing else’ (Al-Alwi, 1914: 2/31; Zamakhshari, 1948: 3/226; Al-Zajjaji, 1959: 1/101).

Furthermore, in Arabic, there are certain verbs which are called الأفعال الناقصة (incomplete verbs) because they require an attribute to complete the sense (Wright, 1971: 100). Examples of such verbs are كان (was), صار (to become), etc. The verb (صار) means to change from a state to another. The subject is called أسم صار and the predicate خبر صار. The sequence of the three is صار, subject, and predicate as in:

33. صار محمدٌ غنياً (Mohammed became rich.)

By saying (33), we state that the attribute (غنياً) is the result of the process, a change of a previous state (Ibn Ya’eesh, 1/103; Al-Ashmuni, 1: 226-227; Al-Asterabathi, 1979: 2/321). Thus, it can be considered as the Resulting Attribute.

4.2 Intensive Identifying Processes:

These processes identify something to somebody and they appear in nominal sentences. The subject (inchoative) is the Identified and the predicate (enunciative) is the Identifier:

34.	الكاتب	زيد
35.	أخي	زيد

Identifier	Identified
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Fig. (12): Examples of Arabic Intensive Identifying Processes

In (34), the speaker restricts the profession of writing to Zeid only, i.e. (Zeid is the writer, not the doctor or the painter). This process is called القصر (restriction) (Al-Alwi, 1914: 2/23). A legitimate question, however, could be raised about the difference between (34) above and (زيد كاتب) (Zeid is a writer) which affirms the act of writing without denying it for others.

On the other hand, in (35), the hearer knows Zeid but he does not know that he is my brother. So, I identify Zeid to him. Again, there is a difference between (35) and (أخي زيد) (My brother is Zeid). In (أخي زيد), the hearer knows that the speaker has a brother and he also knows Zeid but he ignores that Zeid is the speaker's brother. The speaker, then, tells the hearer that his brother is Zeid, i.e. the speaker will say to the hearer (أخي زيد). So, (35) is an answer to a question (Who is Zeid?) and (أخي زيد) is an answer to (Who is your brother?) (Al-Samare'ee, 1985: 1/182).

4.3 Possessive Relational Processes:

In the possessive relational processes, the relationship is of possession between the Carrier and the Attribute. This relation may be expressed with no verb. Instead, the particle لـ may be attached to the Carrier:

36.

علي	لـ	الدار
Attribute		Carrier

 (The house is Ali's)

Fig. (13): An Example of Possessive Process in Arabic

As shown above, the Carrier علي (Ali) possesses the attribute الدار (the house). There is no process intensive verb whatsoever. The particle لـ is attached to the Carrier (Beeston, 1968: 99).

It is to be noted, here, that the particle ـِ can be attached to Arabic possessive pronouns such as $\text{ي، نا، ك، نا، ي، كُن، كُمْ، كُما، كِ، كَ، نا، ي}$ (Aziz, 1989: 143). Consider:

37. الكتاب لي (The book is mine.)
 الكتاب لنا (The book is ours.)

Furthermore, the verbs يملك (possess) and يعود (belong) with the particle ـِ may be used to express the process of possession:

38. يملك علي داراً (Ali possesses a house.)
 39. يعود الدار لعلي (The house belongs to Ali.)

38.

داراً	علي	يملك
Attribute Possessed	Carrier Possessor	Process Verb

39.

علي	ـِ	الدار	يعود
Attribute Possessor		Carrier Possessed	Process Verb

Fig. (14): Examples of Possession as a Process in Arabic

4.4 Circumstantial Processes:

In Arabic, the circumstantial processes can be realised by الجمل الظرفية (adverbial clauses). In such processes, the adverbial clauses may be either realised by an adverb or a prepositional phrase (Al-Makhzumi, 1966: 86):

40. الحفلة مساءً (The party is in the evening.)
 41. سارة في الدار (Sarah is at home.)

In terms of circumstantial attributive processes, the attribute is a circumstantial element realised by a prepositional phrase as shown below:

42.

في المكتبة	عمر	(Omar is in the library)
Attribute	Carrier	

Fig. (15): An Example of Arabic Circumstantial Attributive Process

However, in circumstantial identifying processes, there is a relationship of time and place between the identified (a circumstantial element) and the identifier:

43.

الثلاثاء	اليوم
Identifier	Identified

Fig. (16): An Example of Arabic Circumstantial Identifying Process

It is to be noted that in both the attributive and identifying processes, the circumstantial element can be reversed with the subject, i.e. in the attributive process the attribute can be reversed with the carrier; and in the identifying process, the identified also can be reversed with the identifier:

44.a. زكي في المستشفى (Zeki is in the hospital.)

b. في المستشفى زكي (In the hospital is Zeiki.)

45.a. اليوم الثلاثاء (Today is Tuesday.)

b. الثلاثاء اليوم (Tuesday is today.)

In (44a) above, the speaker tells the hearer that Zeki is in the hospital. However, in (44b) the speaker wants to emphasize that Zeki is in the hospital and not somewhere else (Al-Makhzumi, 1966: 87). Similarly, in (45a), the speaker states a sentence, but if he wants to emphasize that today is Tuesday and not Sunday or Wednesday, he will use (45b). This is due to the fact that Arabic is one of the inflectional languages in which the word-order is not very much important.

5. Comparison:

- (1) In both English and Arabic, the intensive attributive processes ascribe a quality which is called Attribute to an entity, the Carrier.
- (2) The Arabic intensive attributive processes differ from those of English nominal ones in that Arabic has no process

verbs like those found in English. See examples (46) and (47) below:

46. *Bill is thirteen.*

47. *كريمٌ جندي* (*Karim is a soldier.*)

(3) In both English and Arabic intensive attributive processes, the Attribute can be realised by an indefinite noun or an adjective:

48.a. *Ted is a student.*

b. *The child is quiet.*

49.a. *منى ممرضة* (*Muna is a nurse.*)

b. *منى حزينة* (*Muna is sad.*)

(4) Arabic intensive attributive processes differ from English ones in that only the Arabic processes are reversible, while the English ones are not.

50.a. *Mr. Jones is a typist.*

*b. *A typist is Mr. Jones.*

51.a. *صفا طفلة* (*Safa is a child.*)

b. *طفلة صفا*

As shown above, we cannot say a sentence like (50b) in English. But both (51a) and (51b) are acceptable in Arabic. One of the reasons is that when the speaker tells the hearer something he does not know, the speaker will say (51a), but when the speaker wants to emphasize Safa's childness, he will say (51b).

(5) In both English and Arabic intensive identifying processes, the identified has an identity that the identifier is assigned to.

(6) Similar to English intensive identifying processes, the Arabic ones are reversible. Consider examples (52) and (53) below:

52.a. *Jane is the player.*

b. *The player is Jane.*

53.a. *نور الشاعرة* (*Noor is the poetess.*)

b. الشاعرة نور (The poetess is Noor.)

- (7) In English and Arabic intensive identifying processes, the identifier can be realised by a definite noun. See examples (52) and (53) above.
- (8) In both English and Arabic, there is a resulting attribute as a result of the process verb (become) in English and (صار) (become) in Arabic.

54. The atmosphere over dinner became relaxed.

55. صار الدار مريحاً (The house became comfortable.)

- (9) English possessive attributive processes differ from those in Arabic in that the English attribute is realised by 's genitive. In Arabic, however, the particle ل is attached to the carrier.

56. The car is Mary's.

57. الكتاب لمحمد (The book is Mohammed's.)

- (10) Similar to English possessive attributive processes in which the attribute can be realised by a genitive pronoun, the Arabic attribute can be realised by a possessive pronoun:

58. The pen is his.

59. المفاتيح لي (The keys are mine.)

- (11) In English possessive attributive processes, with verbs such as 'have', and in Arabic clauses with verbs such as يملك (possess), the carrier is the possessor and the attribute is the possessed. See examples (60) and (61):

60. Susan has a farm.

carrier attribute
possessor possessed

61. يملك سيفٌ ساعة (Saif has a watch.)

- (12) Similar to English possessive attributive processes with the verb belong, the carrier is the possessed and the attribute is the possessor in the Arabic processes with the verb يعود ل:

62. The hat belongs to Tom.

63. يعود القفاز لمريم (The glove belongs to Mariam.)

(13) Similar to English circumstantial attributive processes, the Arabic attribute is a circumstantial element realized by a prepositional phrase as illustrated below:

64. She is at the party.

65. زيد في الحديقة

(14) Unlike English circumstantial attributive processes, Arabic ones have no process intensive verbs. Thus, in (64), the intensive verb is 'be', whereas (65) is a nominal sentence.

(15) In both English and Arabic circumstantial identifying processes, there is a relationship of time and place between the identified and the identifier. Let us consider the examples below:

66. Tomorrow is Friday.

67. اليوم الأحد (Today is Sunday.)

identifier identified

(16) Unlike English circumstantial processes, Arabic carrier and attribute are reversible. In consequence, (68b) is acceptable, while (69b) is not:

68.a سها في المطبخ (Suha is in the kitchen.)

b. في المطبخ سها

69.a. Jack is in prison.

b. In prison is Jack.

(17) In both English and Arabic circumstantial identifying modes, the identifier and the identified are reversible. Hence, we can either say (Tomorrow is Friday) or (Friday is tomorrow). Similarly, in Arabic, both (اليوم الأحد) or (الأحد اليوم) are common.

6. Conclusions:

This paper is an attempt to prove that the Hallidayan analytical approach can be applied to Arabic process types within the grammar of transitivity. The three kinds of relations:

intensive, possessive and circumstantial can be applied to the Arabic processes with certain points of similarity and difference. These points can be listed as follows:

1. The attribute in English and Arabic intensive attributive processes is simply a quality related to the carrier.
2. The process intensive verb is a central element in English clauses, but not necessarily in Arabic nominal clauses in which the process verb cannot be found whatsoever.
3. The carrier in both English and Arabic process intensive types is similarly realised.
4. All the Arabic relational process types are reversible which is not the case for the English ones. This is due to the flexibility of the word order of Arabic language which is one of the inflectional languages in which the word-order is not very much important, i.e. if we change the word-order of the Arabic clause, the relations of the elements will not change.
5. The identifier of the English and Arabic relational identifying processes is similarly realised.
6. The resulting attribute can be found in English and Arabic clauses, more specifically with the verbs 'become' in English and صار (become) in Arabic.
7. The use of the particles such as لـ is very common in Arabic relational possessive processes, which cannot be found in English.
8. The attribute is differently realised in English and Arabic possessive attributive processes. In English, the attribute is realised by 's genitive and the possessive pronoun, while in Arabic the particle لـ and the possessive pronouns realise the attribute.
9. Verbs play a role in changing the process of possession in English and Arabic possessive attributive processes. With verbs such as have in English and يملك (possess) in Arabic, the attribute is the possessed and the carrier is the possessor.

However, with verbs such as belong and يعود لـ, the attribute is the possessor and the carrier is the possessed.

10. Arabic relational circumstantial attributive processes are similar to English ones in which the attribute is realised by a prepositional phrase.

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التعبير عن الصيغ العلائقية في اللغتين الإنكليزية والعربية

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ملخص

يسلط البحث الضوء على نحو الصيغ العلائقية في اللغتين الإنكليزية والعربية، وتزود الدراسة سرداً مقارناً بتلك الصيغ، أي صيغ الكينونة والصيرورة ضمن إطار النحو الوظيفي النظامي الذي تبناه هاليداي (١٩٨٥ - ١٩٩٤) ، إذ الغرض من البحث هو معرفة أن كان بالإمكان تطبيق منهج هاليداي على اللغة العربية أو لا، وتظهر النتائج بأن أنواعاً من الصيغ العلائقية الثلاث يمكن أن تنطبق إلى حد ما على الجمل العربية، ويستنتج البحث بأن جميع الصيغ العلائقية حتى صيغ الكينونة العربية معكوسة، وهذه الحالة غير موجودة في الجمل الإنكليزية .