### Luciano Canepari & Marco Cerini (2016)

# Arabic Pronunciation & Accents

Geo-social Applications of the Natural Phonetics & Tonetics Method

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### 6. Arabic vowels

6.1. Neutral Arabic has three short and three long vowels, with some remarkable taxophones, due to the influence of certain consonants and of syllable structure. There are more variations for /a(x)/ and less for /u(x)/, while /i(x)/ is in an intermediate position.

There are two 'diphthongs' as well, /ai, au/, which, for practical purposes, are best considered as sequences of |a| + |i, u|, since their actual realizations are obtained precisely by juxtaposing the various taxophones of the three vocalic elements.

fig 6.1. Neutral Arabic vowels: monophthongs.

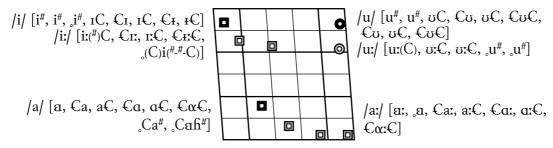
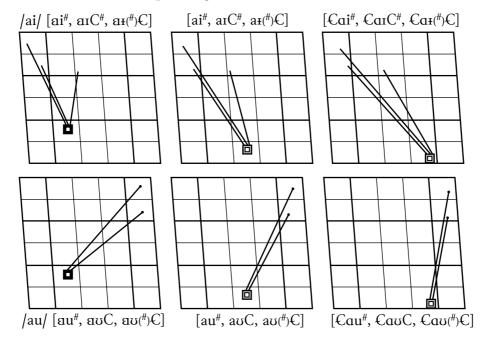
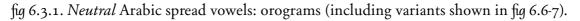


fig 6.2. Neutral Arabic vowels: diphthongs.





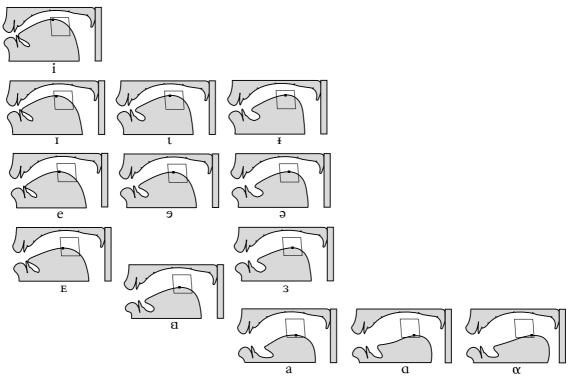
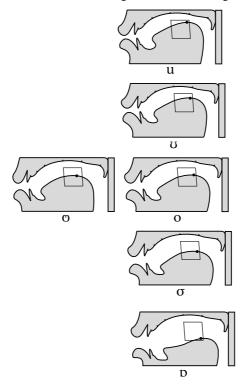


fig 6.3.2. Neutral Arabic rounded vowels: orograms (including variants shown in fig 6.6-8).



The influence of 'modern dialects' on the local pronunciation of supranational Arabic is very strong, even if unintentional. So strong, in fact, that it even occurs in teaching recordings, especially in the case of /ai, au/ but also of the basic vowels. fig 6.4. Neutral Arabic vowels: labiograms (including variants shown in fig 6.6-8).

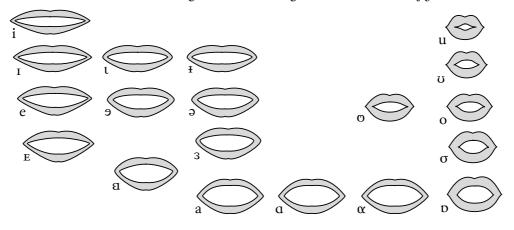
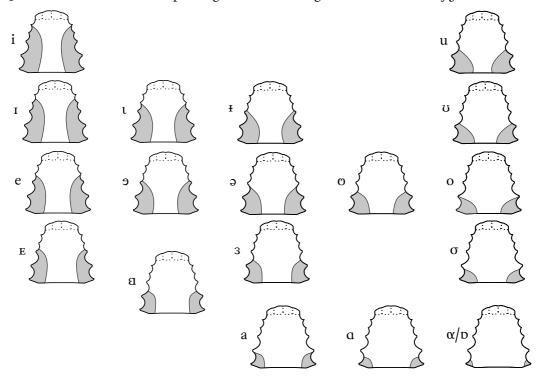


fig 6.5. Neutral Arabic vowels: palatograms (including variants shown in fig 6.6-8).



What we describe here is the actual neutral pronunciation, which does not necessarily correspond to everything one may hear even from educated native speakers.

Nevertheless, the reader who follows exactly the model proposed in this book will certainly achieve a kind of 'neutral' pronunciation (not a regional one), even if –for the vowels– this usage is quite close to that of Levantine Arabic (cf § 15.2).

This is true, in particular, for /ai, au/, seen that elsewhere they are generally realized as monophthongs ([e:, o:] or, at most, as narrow diphthongs, [EI, συ]).

The different variants of Arabic are not mere 'accents' of the same language, but partially different 'dialects', which in turn affect the language itself.

Let us consider, for instance, Gulf Arabic and Egyptian Arabic, while Maghreb Arabic is different still (especially Moroccan Arabic). However, here we will mostly consider 'supranational' (or, somehow, native-like 'international') Arabic pronunciation (although a few major differences will be dealt with, too – cf § 6.7,  $G_{12} \otimes G_{14-15}$ ).

6.2. The unmarked values of /i(:), a(:), u(:)/, the ones that a native speaker would instinctively employ to articulate vocalic segments in isolation, are [i(:), a(:), u(:)] (shown by the black markers in the vocogram of fig 6.1). In addition to them, it is indispensable to properly recognize and reproduce all the taxophones that are listed below.

Another important feature of modern neutral pronunciation is that any  $/V_{:}/$  will be realized as [V] (or  $[V_{\cdot}]$  at the most) in unstressed syllables, unlike classical *Koranic* pronunciation, which dictates instead that vowel length be preserved as scrupulously as possible in every instance.

/i/	1.1 [4] if preceded <i>or</i> followed by /\$, \$, \$, z, q/,
	1.2 [I] if preceded or followed by $/\hbar$ , $\S$ , $\kappa$
	1.3 [I] in checked syllables (with different consonants than in 1.1),
	1.4 [i] in unchecked syllables (except 1.1-2);
	1.5 (in /ai/) as /i/, for 1.1-4;
/iː/	1.6 [ $\mathfrak{t}(\mathfrak{x})$ ] between / $\mathfrak{t}$ , $\mathfrak{d}$ , $\mathfrak{s}$ , $\mathfrak{z}$ , q/ (in (un)checked syllables),
	1.7 [1(1)] if preceded <i>or</i> followed by /t, đ, s, z, q/ (in (un)checked syl- lables),
	1.8 [i(:)] in all other cases (in (un)checked syllables);
$ a(\mathbf{x}) $	2.1 [ $\alpha$ (:)] if preceded <i>and</i> followed by / $\mathfrak{t}$ , $\mathfrak{d}$ , $\mathfrak{s}$ , $z$ , $q$ /,
1 1	2.2 [ $a(x)$ ] if preceded or followed by /t, $d$ , s, z, q/ (and [1]),
	2.3 [a(:)] if preceded or followed by $/\hbar$ , $\S$ , $\kappa$ , $R$ , $\mathfrak{s}'$ ,
	2.4 [a(:)] if preceded <i>and</i> followed by other consonants (including [?, h, fi]),
	2.5 [a] if unstressed and in utterance-final position (except 2.2),
	2.6 [a] for /a(:)/, if unstressed and in utterance-internal word-final position, including monosyllables (except 2.1-3),
	2.7 [a; ah] /a(h) <sup>#</sup> /, for -ah ( $t\bar{a}^2 marb\bar{u}tah$ ['tar? marbu:ta(h)]) in pausal
	position (with no influence as in 2.2-5),
	2.8 (in /ai, au/) as /a/, for 2.2-4;
/u/	3.1 [υ] if preceded ‰ followed by /ŧ, đ, ୫, z, q, ħ, ♀/,
	3.2 [v] in checked syllables,
	3.3 [u] in unchecked syllables (except 3.1),
	3.4 (in /au/) as /u/, for 3.1-3;
/uː/	3.5 [ $\upsilon$ (x)] in syllables checked by / $\mathfrak{t}$ , $\mathfrak{d}$ , $\mathfrak{s}$ , $z$ , $q$ , $\hbar$ , $\mathfrak{s}/$ ,
	3.6 [u(:)] in all other cases.

6.3. According to the distributions just seen, fig 6.1 shows the realizations of the Arabic –short and long– vowels,  $/i(:)/[i(:), i(:), i(:), a(:), a(:), \alpha(:)]$  (and

[D(:)], a conservative *Koranic* variant, cf fig 6.6), /u(:)/[u(:), v(:)].

Here are some examples, which we present in their pausal form, stripped of case endings or any other terminations: *qif* ['qɪf], *qīqān* [qɪ'qɑ:n], *ṣīdī* ['sɪ:di], *ṣadīq* [sɑ'dɪ:q], *bint* ['bɪnt], *fīl* ['fiːl]; *ṣaqī*<sup>s</sup> [sɑ'qɪ:\], *ṣaff* ['sɑf:], *ṭāħa* ['tɑ:ħa], *baʿda* ['ba\da], *rāhin* ['tɑ:ħɪ], *hāđā* ['hɑ:ða], *walad* ['walad], *bāb* ['ba:b]; *sūq* ['so:q], *hunā* ['huna], *ṣūf* ['su:f], *kuṣūm* [kʊ'su:m], *funduq* ['fonduq].

fig 6.2 shows the different realizations of /ai, au/, which result from the combination of [a-, a-, a-] + [-i, -i, -i] or + [-u, -v], according to context. Let us examine a few words, first in pausal form: *bayt* ['bait], *'ayn* ['fain], *qayl* ['qail], *fawz* ['favz], *lawn* ['lavn].

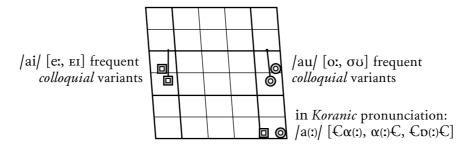
But, with a termination, by virtue of which the (phonetic) syllable containing the diphthong becomes unchecked: *baytun* ['baiton], *<sup>s</sup>ayn-ī* ['saini], *qaylin* ['qailın], *fawzan* ['fauzan], *lawnu-hu* ['launu,hu], *<sup>s</sup>awlādu-kunna* [?au,lardu'konna]. Further examples: *<sup>s</sup>ayna* ['Paina], *<sup>s</sup>awdah* ['sauda; -afi], *muqawwam* [mo'qauwam] <sup>t</sup>[-'qawwam].

It is important to note that the above should be taken with a grain of salt, since even neutral diphthongs show a noticeable degree of elasticity, and nothing prevents us from articulating –say– *qayl* as ['qail] and *qaylin* as ['qailin] (mostly in *mediatic* accents), provided that the *first element* of the diphthong preserves the correct vocalic quality. A similar criterion should be applied to the taxophones of /au/.

6.4. fig 6.6 shows some more peculiar yet frequent realizations of /ai, au/: [eː, EI; oː, συ], which are very widespread outside neutral Arabic. However, one's pronunciation may still be considered neutral, although 'colloquial', even if it uses such variants, provided all other articulations are appropriate.

Therefore, one should not be surprised to hear realizations such as *bayt* ['be:t, 'beɪt], *'ayna* ['Pe:na, 'Pei-], *'aynī* ['Se:ni, 'Sei-], *fawz* ['fo:z, 'foʊz], *lawn* ['lo:n, 'loʊn]. As to *qayl*, ['qe:l, 'qeil] would be possible but rather theoretical, because the very colloquial register associated with [e:, EI; o:, oʊ] would in turn call for a more colloquial realization of /q/ than neutral [q] is, eg [P, g, g], if not its complete loss: ['ge:l, 'geil; 'Peil; 'eil, 'Eil].

fig 6.6. Neutral Arabic vowels: colloquial & Koranic variants.



Finally, fig 6.6 also shows the rounded back realization of |a(x)| between |t, d, s, z, q| (and some other cases). As said, this [D(x)] is more typical of *Koranic* pronunciation: scattered examples of it can be found here and there (and in § 6.3), and

are often associated with solemn assertions, including quotations from holy scriptures.

fig 6.7 shows further vocalic articulations, all of which are in the intermediate area of our vocogram (typically unused in neutral pronunciation, as can be seen in fig 6.1). The same happens for the variants of /ai, au/, as well: *maydān* [mai'da:n, m39-], *?awlād* [?au'la:d, ?30-].

The *white* markers indicate unstressed realizations of /i, a, u/, [9, 3, 0], which are considerably centralized.

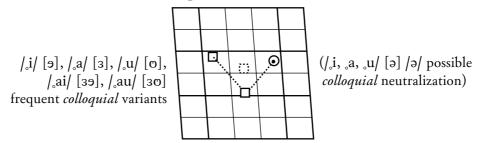
The *broken-line white* marker, in turn, indicates the frequent neutralization of unstressed /i, a, u/, unified into [ə], which is more typical of *quick* and *familiar* speech. Some examples: *siyāž* [si'ja:z, sə-, sə-], *timŧāl* [tɪm'θa:l, təm-, təm-], *salāma* [sa'la:ma, s3-, sə-], *sahwān* [safi'wa:n, s3fi-, səfi-], *suhūla* [su'fiu:la, so-, sə-], *muštaqq* [muʃ'taq:, moʃ-, məʃ-].

Such variants must have been in use for centuries, considering some well established renditions of Arabic words, such as *Moham(m)ed* in many Western languages and *Mehmet* in Turkish for neutral *Muħammad* [muħammad], or *Moslem* for *Muslim* ['muslim].

It is also reasonable to assume that the same tendency to merge unstressed vowels is one of the reasons behind the progressive erosion of the rich inflectional system of Classical Arabic, which ultimately leads to the disappearance of most morphological endings in modern 'dialects'.

But for the pronunciation model that we want to promote, it will be advisable to stick to the basics and refrain from excessive... innovations.

fig 6.7. Arabic vowels: unstressed colloquial variants.



6.5. Another feature admitted in everyday pronunciation and in mediatic accents, but generally not in *Koranic* declamation, tends to avoid realizations like [a(:)] in whole (even long) words containing / $\mathfrak{t}$ ,  $\mathfrak{d}$ ,  $\mathfrak{s}$ ,  $\mathfrak{z}$ , q,  $\hbar$ ,  $\mathfrak{s}$ ,  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ ,  $\mathfrak{s}$ ,  $\mathfrak{s}'$ ,  $\mathfrak{$ 

This sort of 'vowel harmony' somehow applies to other vowels as well, and indeed, it would make the pronunciation of Arabic a lot easier, if fully implemented and predictable. Unfortunately, it is neither. Learners of neutral pronunciation should then try their best to reproduce all vocalic taxophones whenever necessary and appropriate.

Though alien to the scopes of this work, it is worth recalling that, based on

some historical evidence, a higher and fronter realization of /a(:)/, possibily even an independent phoneme, is likely to have belonged to the vocalic inventory of Classical Arabic, or at least to the Meccan variety spoken by the Prophet and early followers.

Ancient Arab linguists used the term *'imālah* [?i'ma:la; -afi], 'slanting, tilting', to describe the shift of a *'alif* to the vocalic quality of [ɛ(:)] ('light' *'imālah*) or [e(:)] ('heavy' *'imālah*). Both are still present in some modern 'dialects' –most notably, urban Lebanese– though not necessarily with the same distribution and mechanisms as in Classical Arabic.

Certain *Koranic* recitation ( $ta\check{z}w\bar{i}d$  [taʒ'wi:d]) styles still call for  $im\bar{a}lah$  in a number of instances, which the reciter has to memorize, since even fully vocalized Arabic orthography has no means to indicate either  $im\bar{a}lah$  or its exact opposite, [ $\alpha$ (:), p(:)], unless supplementary  $ta\check{z}w\bar{i}d$  diacritics are employed.

6.6. Arguably, not every single realization given in fig 6.1-7 is really necessary for a good neutral pronunciation of Arabic. Nevertheless, if these realizations are rationed and used in a natural way (speaking fluently), a greater 'spontaneity', similar to that of native speakers, can be attained, again in the framework of colloquial neutral pronunciation.

A systematic and complete *shortening* of unstressed long vowels belongs to *modern* and *international* pronunciation, as observed before. On the contrary, *Koranic* (and in general, 'solemn') pronunciation not only avoids shorthening long vow-

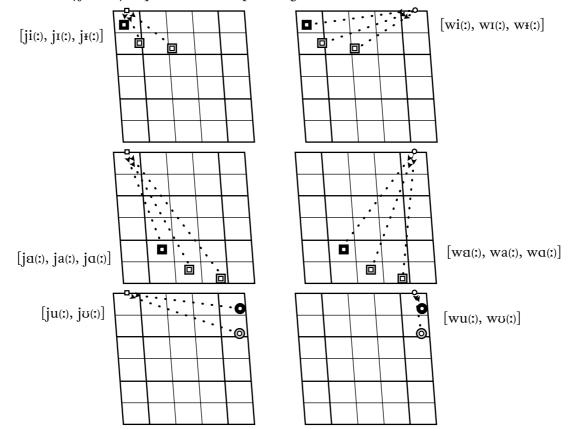


fig 6.8. Arabic /jV, wV/ sequences: not 'diphthongs'.

els, but will often elongate them both for metric purposes and to make certain distinctions more evident.

Our readers are nonetheless advised that whenever homophony might lead to ambiguity, it will be useful to articulate unstressed long vowels at least as half-long, if not long: eg katabna [ka'tabna] 'they (*fem.*) wrote' vs katabnā [ka'tabnar; -na:] 'we wrote'.

For a useful comparison with the diphthongs given in fig 6.2, let us carefully compare fig 6.8, which shows (central) approximant + vocoid sequences. Unfortunately, too many 'experts' still keep on considering them 'falling diphthongs', while they certainly are [CV], not [VV].

### Some hints about geographic variants

6.7. Among the main variations and deviations from the neutral form (cf § 6.3), in certain areas, we find that /a:/ never has the [a:] timbre, in any context (as often happens in Iraq and northern Lebanon).

Furthermore, in an almost general way, in several colloquial variants, the diphthongs /ai, au/ reduce to [e:, EI; o:,  $\sigma \upsilon$ ] (cf fig 6.6), from the Maghreb to the Persian Gulf, except in the Levant. However, the diphthongs are kept, generally, when they are in absolute final position or followed by /j, w/.

Some examples: *bayt* ['bait, 'beit, 'beit], *lawn* ['laun, 'loun, 'loin], *'ayn* ['fain, 'fein, 'fein]; *sayyid* ['saijid], ['sajjid], *mušawwiq* [mu'ʃauwiq] [-aww-], *nayy* ['nai, 'naji, 'naji,], *law* ['lau, 'law, 'laŷ].

Especially in the Maghreb, besides (unstressed) /,i, ,u/, even /,a/ may be dropped (with possible, consequent, stress shifts): ?anta ['Panta, n'ta, n'ta], qalam ['qalam, 'qalm], lisān [li'sa:n, l'sa:n], salām [sa'la:m, s'la:m].

## 8. Arabic consonants

8.0. The consonantal phonemes and taxophones of neutral Arabic are shown in fig 8.0 (including two possible more traditional variants for |z, z| [z]  $^{t}[\eth]$ , [z]  $^{t}[\eth]$ , but without some inferable, or less important, taxophones, as [t, d]).

Also non-assimilated consonant sequences, more typical of slower or more careful speech, will be shown in this chapter, although in  $\mathfrak{G}$  9 their normal patterns will be shown.

fig 8.0. Table of neutral Arabic consonants.

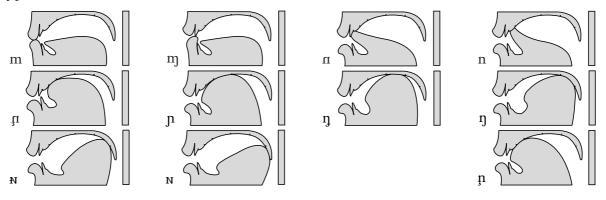
	bilabial	labiodental	dental	uvularized dental	alveolar	uvularized alveolar	prepalatal	postalveo-palalatal protruded	palatal	prevelar	velar	velar rounded	preuvular	uvular	pharyngeal	laryngeal
Ν	m	[ŋ]	[n]		n		[ů]		[ɲ]	[ŋ]	[ŋ]		[N]	[N]		
Κ	[p] b	Ŭ	t d	ŧđ			-		Ū	[ŋ] [ҟ, g]	[ŋ] k [g]		[q]	q		2
KS								(dz)								
Х		f	θð	$(\delta)$										ŧ	i [fi]	
S			S Ζ	<del>s</del> Z				∫ 3	[į j]		[	wγ	]			
J						г л			ĵ			w			£	[h] fi
R R						£ [£]										
Ķ			r ta		1	(1)	r ta		г <i>(</i> 1					kβ		
L			[1]		1	(1)	[ļ]		$[\lambda]$							

### Nasals

A few examples, as usual in pre-pausal form: *mumaŧŧal* [muˈmaθθal], *tamžīd* [tam-'zi:d, -'dʒi:d], *šams* ['ʃams], *Maryam* ['maŧ-jam], *Muħammad* [mu'ħammad], *nimnim*  ['nımnım], žanb ['ʒamb, 'dʒ-], min bāb [mım'ba:b], 'anf ['ʔamf], bint ['bınt], winš ['wınʃ], min maktab-ī [mım'maktabi], min yawm [mıŋ'jaum], min Rūmā [mıғ'ŧu:ma, -n'ŧ-], min Līmā [mıl'li:ma, -n'l-], đank ['ðaŋk], 'anwah ['ʕaŋ-wa, -aɦ], kanq ['µunq], min qūwah [mɨn'qu:wa, -aɦ], 'inqiḍā' [ɟɨnqɨ'ðɑːʔ].

However, *Koranic pronunciation* tends to avoid assimilating /n/ to a following consonant. So, in a forced and rather unnatural way, we would have: ↑['dʒanb, mɪn'baːb, mɪn'maktabi, mɪn'jaʊm, 'ʔanf, 'wɪnʃ, 'ðank; '⊊an-wa, -afi; 'ɣanq; mɪn'qʊ:wa, -afi].

fig 8.1. Arabic consonants: nasals.



### Stops

8.2.1. Arabic has no '/p/' (Proto-Semitic /p/, in fact, became Arabic /f/), but only /b/, which however may be realized as [p] when followed by voiceless consonants:  $b\bar{a}b$  ['ba:b], *laban* ['laban], *ħabs* ['ħaps]. On the other hand, neutral Arabic has no '/g/' either, but has the [g, g] taxophones of /k/ before voiced obstruents: 'akbar ['Pagbaf].

However, Arabic has two voiceless stops in phonemic opposition, velar /k/ [k, k] and uvular /q/ [q, q]. Some examples: *kuskus* ['kʊskʊs], *mikŧaar* [mɪk'θaːɬ], *malik* ['malık], *qadīm* [qɑ'diːm], *'aqdām* [ʔɑq'daːm], *sūq* ['sʊːq], *'Al-Qur'ān* [,ʔɑłqʊɬ'ʔaːn] (*t*[,ʔαłq̂ʊɬ'ʔaːn]), *saqqāṭah* [sɑq'qɑːŧɑ(ĥ)] (*t*[sɑq'qɒːŧɑ(ĥ), -'q̂-]), *qiṭț* ['qɨtː], *qīmah* ['qɪːma, -aĥ].

Arguably, /q/[q, q] enjoys great prestige, even among speakers who do not use it, although very frequently it is replaced with other articulations (as will be seen in § 8.7). Note: *kalb* ['kalb] 'dog' and *qalb* ['qalb] 'heart'.

Furthermore, we have the peculiar diphonic dental pairs /t, d/ [t, d] and / $\mathfrak{t}$ , d/ [ $\mathfrak{t}$ , d] (uvularized). In *mediatic* pronunciation, /t/ and /k/ may be slightly 'aspirated', when at the beginning of a stressed syllable (but we will mark it only here): ['kh, 'th] – [h] is weaker than [h], being a laryngeal *semi*approximant.

Often, /t, d/ are denti-alveolar if final before a pause (but it is not necessary to use [ŧ, d], unless one wants to be very precise: *tadāwul* [taˈdaːwol], *šitā*<sup>2</sup> [ʃi'taːʔ], *hadd* ['ħadː], *baṭāṭis* [bu'ŧɑːŧɪs] (*t*[-'ŧɒː-]), *ḍarț* ['đuŧŧ] (*t*['duŧŧ; 'dɒŧŧ]), *ḍažir* ['duȝtɨ, -dʒ1ɬ].

Although neutral Arabic has no [g], except for assimilation, this contoid occurs in several modern 'dialects' as a variant of either  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{1}{2}$  (that is to say, not both

in the same dialect). Therefore, it is natural that these isolated phonemes may currently be brought to normalization. So, they change their articulations, in order to form a more homogeneous and coherent structural system. Even the shift of /2/ to [2] (instead of the more *Koranic* –and ancient– [dʒ]), or to [9], is a part of this trend. Again, in *Koranic* pronunciation, /ŧ, đ, q/ can certainly be labialized: [ŧ, đ,  $\hat{q}$ ] (in fact, this peculiarity, which in several other languages may be felt to be uneducated or vulgar, is, on the contrary, perceived as better and adapt for religious purposes: *dart* ['d̄p#ŧ], *qalb* ['q̂plb]).

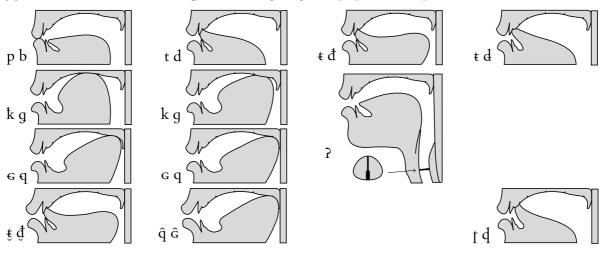


fig 8.2. Arabic consonants: *stops* (including English [t, d], for comparison).

8.2.2. Our last neutral Arabic stop phoneme is /?/[?], the so-called 'glottal stop', represented in written Arabic by the famous *hamzah* ['hamza, -afi], an important diacritic – technically, not a 'letter' of the Arabic alphabet on its own, but a 'true letter' in our transliteration, with its capital shape, as well: ?, ?.

This phoneme may occur in every position, single or geminated, just like any other consonant: <sup>2</sup>*amīn* [?a'mi:n], *sā*<sup>2</sup>*iħ* ['sa:?ıħ], *mā*<sup>2</sup> ['ma:?], *zanna*<sup>2</sup> ['zanna?], *ra*<sup>2</sup>s ['¥a?s], *bad*<sup>2</sup> ['bad?], *sa*<sup>2</sup>*āl* [sa??a:l].

In the examples above, /?/ has a semantic value, ie it is either part of the triconsonantal root from which the word derives, as is the case with ?-m-n, z-n-?, r-?-s, b-d-?, and s-?-l; or it is etymologically related to the root, as in  $s\bar{a}?i\hbar$  and  $m\bar{a}$ ?, whose roots actually are  $s-w-\hbar$  and  $m-w-\hbar$ . There are also cases in which ? corresponds to an original y in the root and vice versa.

Unsurprisingly, the relatively unpredictable alternation between ?, w, h, and y is one of the difficulties involved in looking up words in Arabic dictionaries, where entries are not arranged alphabetically, but listed below their basic root.

Besides, Arabic phonotactics dictates that all phonic syllables begin with a consonant, and when there is no consonantal onset, due to etymological or morphological reasons, /?/ is added to somehow 'protect' what otherwise would be a bare vowel (or diphthong): *'ab* ['Pab], *'idānah* [?i'da:na, -afi], *umm* ['Pum:].

An interesting case is  $ru^2 a s \bar{a}^2$  [stu?a'stu?], the plural form of  $ra^2 \bar{\imath}s$ : the former /?/ is clearly etymological, the root being  $r^2 s$ , while the latter is morphological, as it

belongs to the suffix  $-\bar{a}^2$  within the 'broken plural' pattern  $CuCaC\bar{a}^2$ . But at the same time, this final /?/ plays an important morpho-phonetic role, for it makes it possible to attach case endings -u, -i, -a without producing the sequences  $-\bar{a}u$ ,  $-\bar{a}i$ ,  $-\bar{a}a$ , which Arabic phonotactics does not admit as valid diphthongs.

Most typically, we found the 'prosthetic /?/' before the article *al*- in post-pausal position, ie at the beginning of an utterance: '*al-maktab* [?al'maktab]; but '*al-bay-tu wa-l-maktab* [?al'baitu wal'maktab], not \**wa-*'*al-maktab*. (The apheresis of *a*, [Val-]  $\rightarrow$  [Vl-], and of other initial short vowels will be explained below.)

The relative pronouns *`alladī* [?al'laði], *`allatī* [?al'lati] (cf § 9.4.5 for their 'irregular' stress pattern), *`alladīna*, &c, whose first syllable etymologically *is* the definite article, exhibit the same behavior: *maktab-ī*, *`alladī*... ['makta,bi·· ?al'laði·] 'my office, which...' vs *`al-maktabu lladī*... [?al'maktabu] ˌlaði-] 'the office that...'.

Even the word 'Allah' behaves the same, though there is no consensus among scholars, especially Arab academicians, as to whether the first syllable *Al*- corresponds to the definite article (cf Italian *Iddio* [id'di' $\sigma$ ], from *Il Dio*, lit. 'The [only] God'): *?allāh* [?al'ła:fi] vs *li-Llāh* [Iıl'la:(fi)].

8.2.3. If all phonic syllables must begin with a consonant, on the other hand, Arabic phonotactics does not tolerate more than one consonant in that position, except rare cases of loanwords not yet adapted to Arabic phonology. Initial consonant clusters are resolved in various ways, which nevertheless always involve a short vowel: an *epenthetic* 'echo vowel' as in *Țarābulus* [ŧɑ'ŧa:bulus] 'Tripoli'; or, more frequently, a *prosthetic* vowel.

When words with [#CC-] (ie with an initial consonant cluster) occur -in connected speech– after a word ending in a vowel, it is not necessary to add the vowel (nor /?/), therefore the two words are linked.

If, instead, the preceding word ends in a consonant, then, the vowel is added, but /?/ is not. The reader is referred to grammars, where this phenomenon (indicated by a diacritic called *waslah* ['wosla; -afi]) is generally dealt with quite widely.

We can find this in connection with the article, certain verbal forms, the imperative and a dozen nouns. Among these, the most important are: *'ibn* ['?ıbn, -bŋ, -bɨn], *'imru'* ['?ımғu'?], *'ism* ['?ısm, -sm, -sɨm], *'iŧnāni* [?ıθ'nɑ:ni]. Also note: *ra'ay-tu bn-ī* [<code>fa'</code>?ɑitub 'ni:], *bābu l-bayt* ['bɑ:bul 'bɑɪt].

8.2.4. The *a* of the definite article *al*- in fact is a prosthetic vowel, which in postpausal position will –in turn– call for the prosthetic /?/ that we have examined above. (Be noted that in modern 'dialects' and the corresponding regional accents of 'Standard Arabic', the article normally begins with [E, I] or some sort of '[ə]', not necessarily 'protected' by [?].)

The fact remains that whichever vowel is prefixed, the only portion of the definite article that matters is *-l*-, or its assimilated variants when followed by 'solar letters'.

If the preceding word already ends in a vowel –a thematic long vowel or a case ending, for example– the consonant cluster will be directly connected to it *in fluid speech*, and no supplementary prosthetic vowel will be needed anymore. That explains *wa-l-maktab* and similar cases: *fī l-maktabi l-žadīdi lladī fī-hi*... [fɪl'makta,bɪl ja'di:dɪl,laði,fiĥi-] 'in the new office where...' (lit. 'in the office the new which in it...').

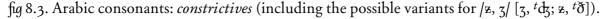
Many other words feature a prosthetic vowel that can be elided, one of the best known being *'ism* ['rism, 'ism] 'name': while 'the name' regularly is *'al-'ism* [ral-'rism] (two prosthetic vowels with two prosthetic /r/!), 'what is your name?' is *mā smu-ka?* [¿'ma:smu,ka·], instead. Hence the famous *incipit: bi-smi Llāhi r-raħmāni r-raħīm* [,bismil'laħif·1faħima:nif fa'ħi:m·1] 'in the name of Allah the clement (and) the merciful'.

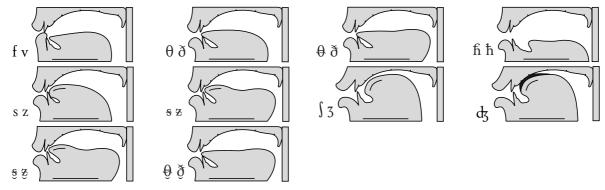
The tendency to rely on the preceding word is so widespread that certain words and morphological markers *genuinely ending in a consonant* will acquire a supplementary vowel –in this case, a *paragogic* vowel– that will make the liaison possible even if the prosthetic vowel could theoretically serve for that purpose. For example, *min maktab-ī* [mɪm'maktabi] 'from my office', but *mina l-maktab* [,minal'maktab] 'from the office'; and *žalasat bint-ī* ['ʒalasat 'binti, 'dʒ-] 'my daughter sat down', but *žalasati l-bint* 'the girl/daughter sat down' [ʒa'lasatıl 'bint, dʒ-], which, by the way, implies a stress re-adjustment.

8.2.5. It is important to note that the *`alif* signalling the presence of a prosthetic /?V-/ remains written –in the Arabic script– even if neither is pronounced, in order to keep the word recognizable, but in that case, the *`alif* should carry a diacritic called *waşlah* –from *waşl* 'connection, liaison'– though this in practice is rarely done. Our Romanization, instead, only spells out what is actually uttered.

### Constrictives (or 'fricatives')

8.3. Among the phonemes belonging to this articulation manner, we find /f/[f]: *farīd* [fa'#i:d], *ifsād* [?ɪf'sa:d]. The corresponding voiced phone [v] only occurs as an assimilatory taxophone of /f/, as in *laf*<sub>2</sub> ['lav<sub>2</sub>, -vð], but not as an independent phoneme. In loanwords adapted to the Arabic phonic inventory, foreign /v/is generally changed to /f/: *Fīktūr* [fik'tu:#] 'Victor', *tilfizyūn* [,tɪlfɪz'ju:n] 'television', *fīdiyū* ['fi:diju] 'video', *Fiyatnām* [fiat'na:m] 'Vietnam', *F(a)lādīmīr* [f(a),ladi-'mi:#] 'Vladimir'; or to /w/, as in *Bahlawī* ['bafilawi] 'Pahlevi', a Persian loanword.





In addition, there are two diphonic pairs, which pose no problems,  $|\theta, \delta; s, z|$ [ $\theta, \delta; s, z$ ]: *talāt* [ $\theta a' l a: \theta$ ], *mađir* ['maðif], *đamm* ['ðam:], *dars* ['dafs], *zār* ['za:f], *kanz* ['kanz].

However, there are two more diphonic pairs, with variations that may pose some phonemic dilemmas. They are |s, z| [s] [z]  $(t[\vartheta])$  and  $/\int$ , z/  $[\int]$  [z]  $(t[\vartheta])$ .

We prefer [z, z] for their voiced members, as they are more modern and more integrated in the phonemic system than their more Koranic variants  $[\eth, dz]$ , which are considered more prestigious (even by those who do not use them). But, since they have a different place or manner of articulation, they would complicate the phonemic system – not slightly, indeed.

However, they can be used – especially in a kind of pronunciation which aims more at a *traditional* than at an *international* accent: *sursur*, -*ūr* ['sʊfsʊf, sʊf'suːf], *rakīs* [fa'kıːs], and *maħẓū*ẓ [maħ'zʊːz, <sup>t</sup>-ðʊð], *ẓāmi*<sup>2</sup> ['zɑːmɪ<sup>2</sup>, <sup>t</sup>'ð-].

Also: <sup>?</sup>*išhād* [?ıʃ'ha:d], <sup>?</sup>*ašyā*<sup>?</sup> [?aʃ'ja:?], *mušawwaš* [mu'ʃawwaʃ, -auwaʃ], <sup>?</sup>*ašadd* [?a'ʃad:], *raššāš* [#aʃ'ʃa:ʃ], <sup>?</sup>*aš-šams* [?aʃ'ʃams], *žamīl* [ʒa'mi:l, dʒa-], <sup>?</sup>*ažma*<sup>s</sup> ['?aʒma<sup>s</sup>, '?adʒ-], *tāž* ['ta:ʒ, -dʒ].

In the *pharyngeal* place of articulation, we find the voiceless constrictive  $/\hbar/[\hbar]$  (currently, the 'corresponding' voiced sound, the famous *Sayin*, is considered to be constrictive, as well, but in neutral pronunciation, it is clearly an approximant, /\$/ [\$], as we will see below, \$ 8.4.2).

Examples: *hubbiyy* ['hub'bij:], *mahtūm* [maħ'tu:m], *muħaḍḍir* [mu'ħuđđɨғ], *fa-riħ* ['faғıħ], *faħħāš* [faħ'ħaːʃ].

Arabic also has a diphonic pair of *uvular constrictive trills*,  $[\kappa, \kappa]$  (as will be seen). Phonemically they might be represented with the official symbols  $/\chi$ ,  $\kappa$ , but it will be more appropriate and convenient to use the same symbols (for the two levels):  $/\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ /  $[\kappa, \kappa]$ .

### Approximants

8.4.1. Let us first consider the least peculiar ones (although there are rather free occurrences). Thus: /j, w/ [j, w], even realized as [i, u], for /Cj<sup>#</sup>, Cw<sup>#</sup>/ (and, possibly, for /<sup>#</sup>jC, <sup>#</sup>wC/, in *colloquial* variants, as no doubt in the different dialects) and /VjjV, VwwV/ [ij, <sup>t</sup>jj; uw, <sup>t</sup>ww], but /ijj<sup>#</sup>, uww<sup>#</sup>/ [ij:, ow:].

Some examples: *yāwir* ['jaːwɪғ], *waṣiyyah* [wu'sɪjja, -aĥ; -ıːj-], *wuṣūl* [wu'suːl], *sayyid* ['sajjɪd, 'saijɪd], *nawwām* [naw'waːm, nau'w-], *nayy* ['najː, 'najː, 'najː, 'najː, *manhiyy* [man'hijː, -'hijː, -'hijː, 'hijː, -'hijː, 'hii], *'abw* ['Pabw, -bw, -bŷ, -bu] (cf *'abu* ['Pabu] /'Pabuː/). The *Koranic* pronunciation prefers [-jj-, -ww-], as in the cases seen above.

A note about the very common ending *-iyyah*: we shall present [-'ɪjja, -aĥ] as typical in our transcriptions, but again, [-'i-] is fine as well, and even well-educated speakers might go as far as [-'i(')a] in fast, colloquial or mediatic pronunciation. Something like [-'i(')aĥ] would be theoretically possible, too, but quite inconsistent with the un-colloquial, conservative [-aĥ].

#### 8. Arabic consonants

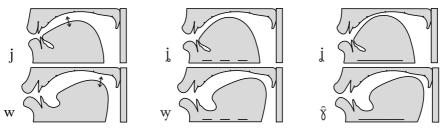
Let us also consider these further examples, which show us the differences between *modern* pronunciation and *traditional* Koranic pronunciation.

In principle, they coincide even with the most important cases where, even in *colloquial* accents and dialects, /ai, au/ do not change into monophthongs ([E:, oː]).

This happens when they are in absolute final position, and when in front of /j, w/ or after /i:, u:/, respectively, or when final, after a consonant.

The following examples show this: kay ['kai] t['kai, 'kaj, 'kaj] (cf kayy ['kai] t['kai;, 'kaj;, 'kaj;]), layyan ['laijan] t['lajjan, 'lajjan, 'lajjan], 'umy ['sumi] t['sumi], 'sumj', 'sumj'], law ['lau] t['law', 'law', 'lay', 'la $\hat{\chi}$ '], dawwar ['dauwaf] t['dauw-, 'daww-], 'adūwah [sa'duwa, -afi] t[-uw-, -u: $\hat{\chi}$ -], sahw ['safu] t['safw', 'safw', 'saf $\hat{\chi}$ ', 'safu]. Let us also consider: 'aššarw [?aʃ\farw, -ar $\hat{\chi}$ , -aru].

fig 8.4.1. Arabic consonants: central *approximants* (& some possible stronger variants: semiconstrictive and constrictive) /j, w/ [j, j, j; w, w,  $\hat{g}$ ].



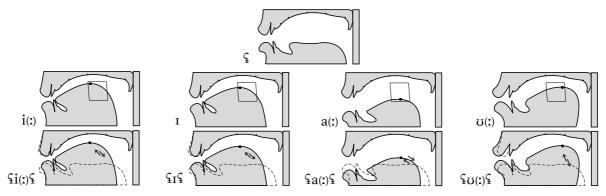
8.4.2. As we said above (§ 8.3), the Arabic phoneme  $|\S|$  [§] is an approximant (and generally, in *mediatic* pronunciation, it is laryngealized as well, [§], which is fairly easy to detect by its lower intrinsic tonality and creaky voice).

But plain [ $\S$ ] is sufficient for a good (and neutral) pronunciation, provided it does not become a simple vowel like [ $\Lambda$ ,  $\pi$ ], although short, non-syllabic, [4,  $\overline{4}$ ] might be acceptable (corresponding to creaky-voiced full vocoids [ $\Lambda$ ,  $\pi$ ] in mediatic accents and 'dialects').

Examples: *'ayn* ['\fain], *'ala* ['\faila], *ma'i* ['ma\fi], *ma'a* ['ma\fa], *ba'da* ['ba\fa], *bi'tu* ['bi\fu], *na'na'*, *-nā'* ['na\faifi

As a useful device for reflection and comparison, fig 8.4.2 shows the orograms

fig 8.4.2. Arabic consonants: the voiced pharyngeal approximant  $[\S]$  (not a constrictive!) and its interplay in contact with different vocoids.



of  $[\S]$  and the vocoids it can be in contact with. In these sequences, it is important not to think that some full vocoidal phones can somehow compensate for the occurrence of a real  $[\S]$  (as seen above).

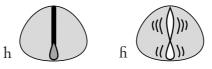
It is occasionally possible to hear some peculiar *regional*—non-neutral— variants, as a laryngeal*ized* stop,  $[\hat{\xi}]$ , or else a pharyngeal*ized* laryngeal contoid, [?], eg: ['na $\hat{\xi}$ -na $\hat{\xi}$ , na $\hat{\xi}$ 'na: $\hat{\xi}$ , 'na $\hat{\ell}$ na $\hat{\chi}$ , na $\hat{\ell}$ 'na: $\hat{\chi}$ ].

8.4.3. Our last Arabic approximant phoneme is a true laryngeal phone,  $/\hbar/[\hbar, h]$ , and has a very free occurrence (cf fig 8.4.3). The lenis voiced [ $\hbar$ ] is the variant that we shall present as most typical in our transcriptions, for both simplicity and consistency; furthermore, [ $\hbar$ ] is a better choice for non-native learners to keep  $/\hbar/$  distinct from  $/\hbar/$ . Our readers, however, must be aware that  $/\hbar/$  may switch to the lenis voiceless [ $\hbar$ ] when near a pause or a voiceless consonant, or when geminate.

Examples: <sup>2</sup>*ittižāh* [,<sup>2</sup>Itti'ʒaːĥ, -h; -dʒ-], *muhtar* ['mʊɦtaғ, -h-], *hāđihi* ['ɦaːðiɦi, h-], *mahbūl* [maɦ'buːl], <sup>2</sup>*inhizām* [,<sup>2</sup>Inɦi'zaːm], *hafnāf* [ɦaf'naːf, h-], *hiya* ['ɦija, h-], *karh* ['kaғɦ, -h], *bih* ['bɪɦ, -h], *qahwah* ['qɑɦ-wa], *wahhāž* [waɓ'ɦaːʒ, -h'h-; -dʒ].

As many examples have shown so far, our Romanization represents  $t\bar{a}^2 marb\bar{u}$ *tah* simply as *h*, since the cases in which there might be confusion with  $\hbar$  are negligible. So we simply write *al-madīnah* [*alma*'di:na, -afi], if the word is to be pronounced as such; but non-pre-pausal forms would restore the etymological *-t-: al--madīnatu* [*alma*'di:na,tu], *madīnat-ī* [ma'di:na,ti], *madīnatu-hu* [madi'natu,fu], and so on.

fig 8.4.3. A rabic consonants: the laryngeal voiced approximant /h/[h] (not a constrictive!) and its voicelss taxophone [h].



8.4.4. Besides, before diacritical dots were added to the basic 'skeleton' of early Arabic orthography (*rasm*), there was no visible difference between a 'real', ety-mological  $h\bar{a}^2$  and a  $h\bar{a}^2$  used as the pre-pausal variant of the (mostly feminine) marker *-t*-, so a sequence like *m-k-t-b-h* would legitimately stand for *maktabu-hu* [mak'tabu,fu] 'his office' and *maktabah* ['makta,ba, -afi] 'a library' alike (to mention only one of the translations possible for each word).

Context and good command of the grammar will help to sort out most doubts. Plus, Latin-alphabet transliterations will usually spell out all vowels, another potent means of disambiguation, as the couplet *maktabu-hu* : *maktabah* clearly demonstrates.

At the end of the day, our Romanization simply reflects how words are to be articulated in a certain context, so we shall spell *cal-madīnah* if pronounced [,2al-ma'di:na, -ah] in isolation (post-pausal *cal-* and pre-pausal *-ah*), but *cal-madīnatu* [,2alma'di:na,tu] if one wants to articulate the entire word, which may well sound too affected but certainly is not at all wrong.

8.4.5. If a more precise transliteration for  $t\bar{a}^2$  marbūțah were really requested, something like a hyphenated -h (eg <sup>2</sup>al-madīna-h) would do fine without having to resort to yet another special glyph.

Be noted that *-ah* is pronounced [a, ah] primarily, but [a(h), a(h)] if preceded by any consonant which is capable of modifying timbres. It is to be noted that a realization with [h] represents a very careful, Koranic pronunciation, while the normal realization of *-ah*<sup>#</sup> is [a]: *hazzah* 'movement' ['hazza, -ah] but: *hazza* '(he) shook' is only ['hazza].

Thus, in sentences, any *-ah* (*tā<sup>?</sup> marbūṭah*), not followed by a pause, is [a]: *muš-kilah mīkānīkiyyah fī sayyārat-ī* ['mʊʃki<sub>i</sub>la mɪ<sub>k</sub>anɪ'kɪjja ˌfisaj'jaːғa,ti]. When actually followed by a pause, it is [a]: *muškilah* ['mʊʃki<sub>i</sub>la].

Finally, as a useful device for reflection and comparison, fig 8.4.2 shows the orograms of  $[\S]$  and the vocoids it can be in contact with. In these sequences, it is important not to think that some vocoidal phones can somehow compensate for the non-occurrence of a real  $[\S]$ .

### Trills

8.5.1. Arabic *r* is typically realized as an apical voiced *uvularized* trill,  $[\sharp]$ , in stressed syllables, and generally as a tap,  $[\sharp]$ , in unstressed syllables (cf fig 8.5). In *mediatic* pronunciation, it can also be more simply *velarized*:  $[\sharp, \pounds]$ , on the other hand, together with further more 'emphatic' coarticulations, such as true (pre)pharyngealization,  $[\pounds, \sharp; \sharp, \pounds]$ , more suitable in *Koranic* recitation. Accordingly, we have chosen to phonemicize this Arabic rhotic as '/ɬ/', rather than simply '/t/'.

However, it is important to stress that  $/\frac{1}{r}$  does *not* belong to the 'emphatic' group, and in fact, ancient Arab grammarians and elocution masters would clearly advise against articulating  $r\bar{a}$ ? with too much  $tafk\bar{\imath}m$  'heaviness, thickness', the traditional term for '(consonantal) emphasis'.

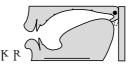
On the contrary, it is quite common that any uvular/velar component disappears when  $/\frac{1}{r}$  comes in contact with [i(:), I] and no timbre-changing consonant is present:  $r\bar{r}m$  ['ri:m], birr ['bIr:], but  $r\bar{r}q$  [' $\frac{1}{r}$ :q], qirr ['qI $\frac{1}{r}$ ]. It is possible to hear the alveolar approximant [z], mainly for final r, but this pronunciation is more *mediatic* and not recommendable.

8.5.2. For simplicity and consistency, we shall stick to [#, #] everywhere: *ribq* ['#IPq], *marbū*<sup>s</sup> [ma#bu:\$], *mariħ* ['ma#Iħ], *mirrīħ* [mI#'#i:ħ], *mirāħ* [mi'#a:ħ], *furfur*, -*ūr* ['fu#fu#, fu#'fu#].

As seen, the vowel quality of |a(x)| in contact with |x| cannot be any fronter than

fig 8.5. Arabic consonants: trills.





[a(:)]. That is why many Arabic speakers have little trouble distinguishing the typical American realizations of  $/\alpha$ , v/,  $[\alpha, \Lambda]$ , in a couplet like *Sam* : *sum*, which they may easily be re-interpreted as '*sam*' ['sam] and '*sam*' ['sam]. More problematic would be the distinction between *ram* and *rum*, which would be likely merged into [' $\pi$ am], since neutral Arabic phonotactis would not allow [' $\pi$ am] for *ram*.

8.5.3. As already said, Arabic has a diphonic pair of uvular *constrictive trills*, /κ, <sub>R</sub>/ [κ, <sub>R</sub>] (cf fig 8.5): *bakšīš* [baκ'ʃiːʃ], *kawk* ['κaυκ], *fakkārī* [faκ'κa:ɨi], *gadan* ['κadan], *sagīr* [su'riːɬ], *bālig* ['ba:lɪκ], *mašgūl* [maʒ'κu:l] <sup>m</sup>[-ʃ'κ-], *tawaggul* [ta'waĸu].

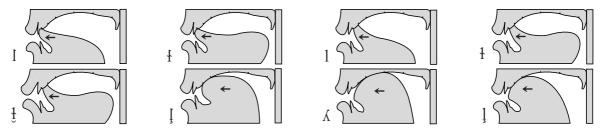
### Laterals

8.6. There is one lateral phoneme in Arabic, /l/ [l] and [I, [, ], 1] (the last taxophone occurs in contact with /t, d, s, z, q/; it also occurs as a phonostyleme (ie a kind of stylistic phoneme), too, in the word  $2all\bar{a}h$  [2altach] 'Allah' (with /-fi/ being frequently dropped), even when used in connected speech and compound words:  $2in \bar{s}\bar{a}^2a Ll\bar{a}h$  [21ft] 'a: 2altach] 'if God will',  $2\bar{a}yatu Ll\bar{a}h$  [2altach' ta:fi, 2altach' ta:fi, 2altach' ta:fi] (and frequently [2aljatot' ta:fi] as a compound word) 'sign of God, ayatollah', 'Abdullah [15abdot' ta:fi] 'Abdullah, Abdallah'.

That is not the case with -*i Llāh* /-il'la:ĥ/ sequences: *bi-smi Llāh* [,bɪsmɪl'la:ĥ] 'in the name of God', *'al-ħamdu li-Llāh* [?al'ħamdu lɪl'la:ĥ] 'praise to God'.

For coarticulation, [[] is followed by [ $\int$ , z/dz], []], by [j], [l] by /t, d; s, z;  $\theta$ ,  $\partial$ /: *mutala<sup>2</sup>li<sup>2</sup>* [,muta'la<sup>2</sup>li<sup>2</sup>], *talbīs* [tal'bi:s], *layl* ['laɪl], *talž* [' $\theta$ alz, -dz], *malyān* [mal-'ja:n], *zallāqah* [zal'la:qa(ħ)], *talqīħ* [tal'qı:ħ]. For the typical complete assimilation of /l/ in the article *'al*, cf § 9.1.1.

fig 8.6. Arabic consonants: *laterals* (and []] for comparison).



### Some hints about geographic variants

8.7. Very often,  $|\theta, \tilde{\partial}|$  are pronounced like /t, d/, mainly in big cities in North Africa (where /s, z/ are frequently semigrooved, [ $\Sigma, \alpha$ ], cf fig 8.7), or like /s, z/ as well, particularly in the Middle East. In each one of these cases, a phonemic distinction is lost.

In Iraq, |z| is  $[\tilde{\sigma}]$ , as in traditional and *Koranic* pronunciations; elsewhere it is

often realized as [z], as in Egypt and Syria, but it may even be confused with /t, d/, above all in the Maghreb.

The grapheme  $\tilde{z}\bar{\imath}m$ , /z/[z], has very many geographical, social, and religious, variants. The normal [z] prevails in the Middle East and in North Africa, while [dz] (typical of *Koranic* reading) is used in Jordan, Saudi Arabia (typical of the Bedouins) and Iraq.

But in some areas, as in Egypt (Cairo), Sudan and Oman, we find [g, g]; elsewhere, even [gj], as in Luxor (southern Egypt), and [j], are used.

By the way, there are good reasons to believe that the original articulation of  $\tilde{z}\bar{i}m$  actually laid somewhere in between [g] and [j], considering the scattered but inequivocal occurrences of (Proto)-Semitic loans in other languages, most notably  $\tilde{z}amal$  'camel', cf Hebrew gamal, Greek  $\varkappa \eta \mu \eta \lambda o \varsigma$ , Latin camēlum.

Therefore, a word like  $\dot{z}ab$  /'za:b/ will be ['za:b] in the Levant (Lebanon, Palestine, and Syria) and in Africa (except Egypt and Sudan, as we have just said). But it will be ['dza:b] in the Arabian Peninsula, the Persian Gulf, Jordan, Iraq, and among the rural and the nomadic peoples in Morocco.

As pointed out before, /q/[q] is often realized as [?], above all in Cairo and other big cities; but it becomes [ $\S$ ; k, k] as well (or even [g, g], as in Libya), particularly in central-southern Egypt, in rural areas of Morocco, and among Saudi-Arabia Bedouins (who often, typically, change /k/ into [tʃ], in their dialects). For instance, *qalb* /'qalb/ may be: ['qalb; '(?)alb, ' $\S$ alb, '\$alb, '\$alb, '\$alb, '\$alb, '\$alb.

In the Levant,  $/^{#}$ ?/ is generally quite weak, therefore we could transcribe it as [?] (instead of [?]). In the Maghreb, /?/ may not even be present at all.

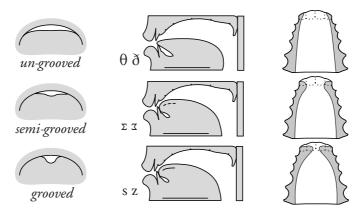


fig 8.7. Comparison between grooved, semigrooved and ungrooved (or slit) dental consonants.

### 9. Arabic structures

### Taxophonics

9.0. In this chapter, we will deal with assimilation, quantity, and some typical reductions of colloquial speech, still within neutral pronunciation (although with some geographical variants).

### Assimilation of the definite article

9.1.1. The consonantal coda of the definite article (a)l - /(a)l + C/undergoes full assimilation, [(a)C + C], when followed by any of the so-called 'solar consonants', *`al-hurūfu š-šamsiyyah* [*Palho'sufo'sija; -ah]: /t, d; t, d; d; d, d, s, z, f, z; s, z; n, f, l/* (we have to include */z/*, in *modern* pronunciation – see below). Arguably, */#l/* does not trigger any real assimilation, being just a mere taxophonic juxtapositon.

The term *šamsiyy* 'solar', although frequently passed for something philosophical or poetic, is simply a practical (but highly disputable) classification expedient, since the Arabic word for 'sun' triggers assimilation: *`aš-šams* [?aʃʃams]. However, its antonym, 'moon', does not: *`al-qamar* [?al'qamaf]; and that is why all other consonants are traditionally called 'lunar letters' (*`al-ħurūfu l-qamariyyah* [,?alħo-'fu:fuł qama'fija; -aĥ]).

The assimilation is mandatory and knows no exception. The official orthography always spells out the  $l\bar{a}m$  of the article even if assimilation occurs. However, we have decided not to do so in our transliterations and transcriptions, according to the general principle of phonemic realism that our Romanization scheme intends to follow.

Examples: <sup>2</sup>at-tāžir, <sup>2</sup>ad-dars, <sup>2</sup>aṭ-ṭālib, <sup>2</sup>aḍ-ḍayf, <sup>2</sup>aŧ-ŧamar, <sup>2</sup>ađ-đahab, <sup>2</sup>as-sūq, <sup>2</sup>az--zawž, <sup>2</sup>aš-šabāb, <sup>2</sup>až-žamāl (see below), <sup>2</sup>aṣ-ṣābūn, <sup>2</sup>aẓ-ẓuhr, <sup>2</sup>an-nūr, <sup>2</sup>ar-ražul [?at'ta:ʒıŧ, ?ad'daŧs, ?aŧ'ŧa:lıb, ?ađ'đaıf, ?aθ'θamaŧ, ?að'ðahab, ?as'sʋ:q, ?az'zaʋʒ, ,?a∭a-'ba:b, ,?aʒʒa'ma:l, ,?a₅₅a'bu:n, ?az'zʋhŧ, ?an'nu:ŧ, ?aŧ'ŧaʒʋl].

9.1.2. Conservative speakers and scholars will consider it improper to apply this assimilation mechanism to  $\tilde{z}\bar{\imath}m/3/$ , based on particular considerations that might certainly be historically sound, but do not take into account the phonemic

situation of the language as it is spoken today.

In fact, the assimilation of the article became a basic feature of Arabic phonology in very remote times, when the pronunciation of  $\underline{z}\overline{i}m$  was rather closer to [g] (as in today's typical Egyptian pronunciation), or [gj] (as a southern Egyptian variant), than to [d<sub>3</sub>, 3].

Consequently, just like modern /-lk-, -lq-/, the ancestral /-lg-/ remained unassimilated. That explains the inconsistent behavior of speakers with such minimal pairs as *`aš-šamāl vs `až-žamāl*, that many realize as [,?a],ʒa'ma:l], the sole supposedly 'correct' form, by virtue of which the so widespread and legitimate realization [,?aʒʒa'ma:l] should be... rejected.

9.1.3. However, [,2a33a'ma:l] is exactly what a large number of educated and proficient speakers of Modern Standard Arabic perceive as the most natural articulation, the one that suits best their instinctive propensity for an internally consistent language.

In a logical – and phonological – way, serious publications (free from traditional 'grammatical' bias in a strictly phonic matter) certainly give [-33-] as perfectly legitimate, more than [- $d_3d_3$ -] or mediatic [-gg-] (thus, with the not recommendable addition of *t*[,2ad3d3a'ma:l], and *m*[,2ag3a'ma:l]).

In fact, structurally, /3/ perfectly corresponds to  $/\int/$ . And it seems rather odd having to defend its rightful nature (in spite of traditional outdated beliefs), because this mechanism is so deeply rooted in the instinctive linguistic feeling of native speakers.

This certainly consolidates the correctness of our choice to posit /3/ rather than  $/d_3/$  as the more convenient structural phoneme, forming a diphonic pair with  $/\frac{5}{2}$ . By the same token, we have preferred a more realistic Romanization az-z... instead of al-z...

9.1.4. Here are some examples with their full transcriptions (not to forget that this substantially is a phonetics book):

<sup>2</sup>aš-šams [?aʃˈʃams], <sup>2</sup>ar-raqs [?as<code>#saqs</code>] <sup>t</sup>[-<code>!saqs</code>], <sup>2</sup>at-tutun [?at'tuton], <sup>2</sup>az-zalal [?az-'zalal], <sup>2</sup>ad-dīq [?ad'dī:q], <sup>2</sup>až-žamal [?az'ʒamal] (and <sup>t</sup>[?al̥ˈdʒa-], <sup>m</sup>[?adʒ'dʒa-, ?alˈga-; ?agˈga-]); but, of course: <sup>2</sup>al-baħr [?alˈbaħ<code>s</code>, -aħ<code>s</code>], <sup>2</sup>al-kušk [?alˈkuʃk], <sup>2</sup>al-walad [?alˈwalad].

### Other assimilation phenomena

9.1.5. In fluid neutral speech (but not in mediatic accents), *voice assimilation* is quite common, with voiced obstruents becoming voiceless, before voiceless consonants, and vice versa: <sup>2</sup>*ižtama*<sup>s</sup>a [21]/tamasa], <sup>2</sup>*ašdaq* [213/tamasa].

Other cases of assimilation involving place % manner of articulation are possible, as we will show below, according to the 'strength' criterion that we will see in § 9.1.9-15.

#### 9. Arabic structures

However, we must say, various publications do not always agree on a single 'strength criterion'. For example, let us re-examine *'ižtama'a* [?15/tamasa], form vIII of the verb *žamasa* ['3amasa]: the 'stronger' phone apparently is the [t] of the *-ta*-infix, which devoices *ž*. However, the following form-vIII verbs show a different behavior –frequently, reciprocal assimilation– which is even recorded by the official orthography: *'izdāna* [?12'da:na], *'iddasā* ['?1dda:a], *'iddasa*].

9.1.6. And, likewise, with 'emphatic' consonants: *'iṣṭabara* [ʔɨs'tabaғa], *'iḍṭaraba* [ʔɨt'tabaғa], *'iṭṭalama* [ʔɨt'talama], *'iṭṭalaʿa* [ʔɨt'talasa].

9.1.7. Another kind of assimilation that is usually recommended in neutral pronunciation, though not indicated by the official spelling, is the full assimilation of  $|d, \delta; t, d, z|$  to the |t| that is present in the perfective terminations *-tu*, *-ta*, *-ti*, *-tumā*, *-tum*, and *-tunna*; for example, *wažadtu* and *?akadta* should be rendered as [wa'ʒattu, ?a'ĸatta].

However, as the recordings enclosed with language courses prove, such assimilation is not always automatic with  $/\delta$ , z/, which –being constrictives– are easier to be kept distinct from the following dental stop /t/; and in the case of /t, dt/, a compromise like [tt] is possible, instead of [tt] (see below).

There are also assimilation phenomena that are mainly dictated by *Koranic* recitation practices, such as in the case of the indefinite case endings *-un*, *-in*, *-an* followed by a word starting with /l, m,  $f: n^{\#}l$ ,  $n^{\#}l$ ,  $n^{\#}f \rightarrow /l^{\#}l$ ,  $m^{\#}m$ ,  $f^{\#}f$ . Other cases of assimilation occur in normal speech, instead, but are somehow more extreme and less obvious to categorize, eg *qad sami*<sup>c</sup>a [qus'sumi,fa], *lam yurid šay*<sup>c</sup>an ['lam 'jufi] 'faifan], *ib*<sup>c</sup>a# dālika ['Pibfað 'ða:li,ka], *ihfaz žāraka* ['Piħfaz 'za:fa,ka].

Frankly, it seems disputable whether foreign learners should really memorize all the possible combinations and employ them in daily conversation, when even native speakers are never consistent in doing so. On the other hand, one should be aware that neutral Arabic words may be subject to more or less pervasive assimilation, and non-native speakers should be able to deal with that to improve their listening skills.

9.1.8. As far as active use of the language is concerned, we believe that the best advice we can put forward is: always apply assimilation to the article, where required by current use (more than by ancient rules), not only in those cases that are explicitly recorded in writing, but also, as said in § 9.1.9-12, in spite of different possible behavior in neutral, mediatic, and traditional accents – including pragmatic usages (as shown there).

### Outline of current assimilation types

9.1.9. *Phonation type*: the first obstruent assimilates to the second *obstruent* of whichever kind (but not to *approximants*, /j, w;  $\varsigma$ ; fh/, nor to *sonants*, /m, n; l; f/,

where we have: [CC] (but  $/Ch/ \rightarrow [Ch]$ , as shown below), and [CC<sup>#</sup>, CC<sup>#</sup>]). In addition, let us also consider the following 'stylistic' differences.

Obstruents + obstruents:  $/C_{C} \rightarrow [C_{C}]$ ,  $[C_{C}]$  (careful),  $[C_{C}]$  (slow & mediatic), obstruents + obstruents:  $/C_{C} \rightarrow [C_{C}]$ ,  $[C_{C}]$  (careful),  $[C_{C}]$  (slow & mediatic). Some contexts (and variants):  $/dt/ \rightarrow [tt] m[dd], /s_{R} \rightarrow [z_{R}] m[s_{R}], /s_{T} \rightarrow [s_{T}], /s_{T} \rightarrow [s_{T}], /s_{T} \rightarrow [s_{T}],$ 

 $/[\mathbf{F}] \rightarrow [\mathbf{T}] m[[\mathbf{F}], /[\mathbf{F}] \rightarrow [[\mathbf{F}], /\mathbf{T}] \rightarrow [\mathbf{T}] m[\mathbf{T}] m[\mathbf{T}] m[\mathbf{T}] m[\mathbf{T}] m[[\mathbf{T}], \mathbf{T}] m[[\mathbf{T}], \mathbf{T}] m[[\mathbf{T}], \mathbf{T}] m[[\mathbf{T}], \mathbf{T}] m[\mathbf{T}] m[\mathbf{T}$ 

9.1.10. *Place/manner of articulation* (for /n, l/): the first element assimilates to the second.  $/nC/ \rightarrow [n=C]$  (homorganic nasals in <sup>n</sup>, but *semi*nasals in <sup>m</sup>, and *non*-homorganic in <sup>q</sup>).

Some contexts (and variants):

 $\begin{array}{l} /nj/ \rightarrow [nj] \ ^{m}[nj] \ ^{q}[nj], /nw/ \rightarrow [\eta w] \ ^{m}[\eta w] \ ^{q}[nw], /nl/ \rightarrow [ll] \ ^{m}[nl] \ ^{q}[nl, ll], \\ /n\mathfrak{f}/ \rightarrow [\mathfrak{s}\mathfrak{f}] \ ^{m}[n\mathfrak{f}] \ ^{q}[n\mathfrak{f}, \mathfrak{s}\mathfrak{f}], /nt/ \rightarrow [nt] \ ^{m}[\mathfrak{a}t], /nd/ \rightarrow [nd] \ ^{m}[\mathfrak{a}d], \\ /ln/ \rightarrow [nn] \ ^{m}[n] \ ^{q}[ln, nn], /l\mathfrak{f}/ \rightarrow [\mathfrak{s}\mathfrak{f}] \ ^{m}[l\mathfrak{f}] \ ^{q}[l\mathfrak{f}, \mathfrak{s}\mathfrak{f}]. \end{array}$ 

9.1.11. *Place/manner of articulation* (for coronals): the simpler element (/t, d;  $\theta$ ,  $\delta$ ; s, z;  $\int$ , z/) assimilates to the more compex (/ $\mathfrak{t}$ ,  $\mathfrak{d}$ ;  $\mathfrak{s}$ , z/), or, in some cases, to the second one.

Some contexts (and variants):

 $\begin{array}{l} |tC, dC; sC, zC| \rightarrow [tC, dC; sC, zC], |Ct, Cd; Cs, Cz| \rightarrow [Ct, Cd; Cs, Cz] \\ |tt| \rightarrow [tt], |td| \rightarrow [dd], |tt| \rightarrow [tt], |dt| \rightarrow [tt], |tz| \rightarrow [dz] \ ^{m}[zz], |tz| \rightarrow [dz], \\ |ts| \rightarrow [ts], |tz| \rightarrow [dz], |kz| \rightarrow [gz], |sJ, sJ| \rightarrow [JJ] \ ^{m}[ss, JJ], |sC| \rightarrow [sC], \\ |zJ, zJ| \rightarrow [JJ] \ ^{m}[ss, JJ], |zs| \rightarrow [ss], |zs| \rightarrow [ss], |zz| \rightarrow [zz], |zC| \rightarrow [zC], \\ |Js| \rightarrow [ss], |Js| \rightarrow [ss]. \end{array}$ 

9.1.12. *Place/manner of articulation* (for back consonants): the simpler element  $(/\hbar/ [\hbar, h])$  can assimilate to the more compex  $(/\hbar; \S; q; \mu, \mu/)$ , or, in some cases, to the first one.

Some contexts (and variants):  $|kq| \rightarrow [kk], |qk| \rightarrow [qq] m[kk, qq], |\kappah| \rightarrow [\kappa], |\kappah| \rightarrow [\kappah] m[\kappa, \kappa]$  $|\hat{sh}, \hat{sh}, \hat{h}\hat{s}, \hat{hh}, \hat{hh}, \hat{h}\hat{s}| \rightarrow [\hbar\hbar].$ 

9.1.13. Here are some of the most frequent combinations, for practice: *ribħin lī* ['4ɪpħil 'li:], *mubtallun* [mop'tallon], *ħabsun* ['ħapson], *ʾabqa* ['ʔapqa], *ʾiŧbāt* [ʔið-'ba:t], *mužtama<sup>s</sup>* ['moʃtaˌma£], *maħbūb* [maħ'bu:b], *maħẓūẓ* [maħ'zʊ:z], *makzan* ['mapzan], *madkal* ['matĸal], *masžid* ['maʒzɪd] (*t*['mazdʒɪd]), and:

mašgūl [maʒ'kuːl] <sup>m</sup>[-ʃk-], <sup>a</sup>sga [Pazka], maqbūl [mag'buːl], <sup>a</sup>zfara [Pasfasa], magšūš [mak'ʃuːʃ], <sup>a</sup>gfala [Pakfala], tabta<sup>s</sup>idu [tap'tasıdu], tuṣbiħu ['tuzbiħu], <sup>a</sup>kbar [Pagbas] <sup>m</sup>[-ģb-], naqdan ['nagdan] <sup>m</sup>[-ç'd-].

Others: ta<sup>2</sup>bīn [ta<sup>2</sup>bin], ma<sup>2</sup>tūr [ma<sup>2</sup>θu:#], bi<sup>2</sup>run [bi2fson], mitrās [mit'sa:s], mat-<sup>s</sup>ūb [mat'su:b], <sup>2</sup>atlafa [Pat-lafa], <sup>2</sup>atqal ['aθqat], <sup>2</sup>atna ['Paθna], mažrūħ [maz'su:ħ], mažnūn [maz'nu:n], taħsīn [taħ'si:n], maktūm [mag'tu:m], and: makfa ['makfa], madrasah ['mad-fasa; -ah], 'adlā ['Pad-la], mazbah ['mazbah], maz<sup>c</sup>ūr [maz'fu:f], muznib ['muznib], martabah ['maftaba; -ah], qirdun ['qifdun], maryam ['maf-jam], mazrū<sup>c</sup> [maz'fu:f], muzmin ['muzmin], tazhu ['tazhu].

9.1.14. Others: *musri*<sup>s</sup> ['mʊsfif], *miswāk* [mɪs'waːk], *mašta* ['maʃta], *mašwi* ['maʃ-wi], *misbāh* [mɪz'baːh], *maṣra*<sup>s</sup> ['mɑsfafa], <sup>?</sup>adža<sup>s</sup>a ['ʔɑðʒa<sub>i</sub>fa], <sup>?</sup>adšafa ['ʔɑðfa<sub>i</sub>fa], madwi ['mɑð-wi], maqtal ['mɑqtal], matbūk [mɑt'buːk], mat<sup>s</sup>ūn [mɑt'fuːn], or:

<sup>2</sup>aţyab ['Paŧ-jab], <sup>2</sup>azlama ['Pazla<sub>m</sub>a], maznūn [maz<sup>i</sup>nu:n], furșa ['fuŧsa], <sup>2</sup>ardun ['Paŧđun], kurţūn [kust<sup>i</sup>tu:n], malħūz [malħuz], <sup>2</sup>alṣaqa ['aɬsa,qa], țal<sup>°</sup>a ['tał\$a], ma<sup>°</sup>žūn [ma§'zu:n], ma<sup>°</sup>rūf [ma§'tu:f], <sup>2</sup>a<sup>°</sup>māl [Pa§'ma:l], <sup>2</sup>aglā ['PaŖ-la], and:

*miftāh* [mɪf'ta:ħ], <sup>2</sup>*afraza* [?af-ғa;za], *mafkūk* [maf'ku:k], *mawdi*<sup>s</sup> ['mauð±§], *maw-kib* ['maukıb], *maqha* ['maqha], *maktab* ['maktab], *maksūr* [mak'su:#], *makwā* ['mak-wa], *mal*<sup>2</sup>*ān* [mal'?a:n], *mal*<sup>2</sup>*ūn* [mal'?u:n], <sup>2</sup>*alyan* ['?aʎ-jan].

Further: <sup>2</sup>*amti*<sup>5</sup>*a* [Pamtı<sub>1</sub>sa], <sup>2</sup>*amṭara* [Pamŧq<sub>i</sub>sa], <sup>2</sup>*imkān* [Pım'ka:n], <sup>2</sup>*intafa*<sup>5</sup>*a* [Pın'tafa<sub>i</sub>sa], <sup>2</sup>*inmā*<sup>2</sup> [Pım'ma:P], <sup>2</sup>*inʿakafa* [Pın'saka<sub>f</sub>a], <sup>2</sup>*ihtamma* [Pıh'tamma], *mahmūn* [maĥ-'mu:n], <sup>2</sup>*ahwā* [Paĥ-wa], <sup>2</sup>*awhama* [Pauĥa<sub>i</sub>ma], and:

yay'asu ['jai?asu], 'ayqana ['?aiqa,na], 'aynama ['?aina,ma], 'ahlan ['?ahlan], naħnu ['naħnu], wa-Llāh! [wałta:(ĥ)], ṭaqṭaqa ['taqta,qa], 'aq'aqa ['taqta,qa], mukk ['muk:], fiqh ['fiqh].

9.1.15. In addition: *șifr* ['sɪfɛ́, -fɛ́], *naml* ['naml, -ml], *mahmā* [mafi'ma:], *mawž* ['maʊʒ], *sižn* ['sɪʒn, -ʒn], *fahrastu-hu* [fafi'sastu,fu], *`in šā'a Llāh* [?ɪnʃa?ał'ła:fi] (collo-quially, [,?ɪnʃał'ła:fi], *'uqāwimu* [?ʊ'qa:wi,mu], *lužžatu-hā* [lʊʒ'ʒatu,fia], *'aṭruqu* [?aŧśʊ,qʊ], and:

<sup>2</sup>imām [?i'ma:m], yamšī ['jamji], lāħiq ['la:ħiq], lā<sup>s</sup>ib ['la:\$ib], tis<sup>s</sup>a ['tıs\$a], sab<sup>s</sup>ūn [sab'\$u:n], ħizb ['ħızb, -b<sup>3</sup>], kubz ['kubz, -z<sup>3</sup>], hiya ['hia] <sup>t</sup>['hija], Sūriyyah [su'\$ijja; -aĥ], <sup>2</sup>awwal ['?auwal, -ww-], huwa ['hua] <sup>t</sup>['huwa], ħallāq [ħal'ħc:q].

Also: <sup>?</sup>*a<sup>c</sup>hadu* [?aħħa<sub>i</sub>du], <sup>?</sup>*irži<sup>c</sup>*, *ħabīb-ī* ['ıғʒıħ <sub>L</sub>ħa'bi:bi<sub>J</sub>], <sup>?</sup>*iftaħ <sup>c</sup>aynay-ka* [?ıftaħ ħai'naika], <sup>?</sup>*iftaħ hadiyyata-ka* [?ıftaħ ħadıj'jata,ka].

### Vowel and consonant quantity

9.2.1. In Arabic, the quantity of both vowels and consonants is distinctive. In our phonemic transcription and transliteration, the *consonant* quantity is shown by *gemination*: /CC/, CC. In phonetic transcription, the same notation [CC] is fully appropriate between vowels, for it helps to parse phono-syllables correctly: <sup>2</sup>aš-šattu [?ass]attu [?ass]attu].

In fact, one should expect a slight, but perceptible, difference between stressed and unstressed syllables, *at least in a tune*, such as [?aʃʃɑŧ:tu, -trt-], but that is not really necessary except in very precise, 'hyper-phonetic' transcriptions, describing very careful speech.

Elsewhere, it is better to resort to simple *lengthening*, [C:]: <sup>2</sup>*aš-šatt* [?aʃʃɑŧ:<sup>#</sup>]. However, that really applies only to words in pure pre-pausal form, which is the exception, not the rule, in Arabic. Unless we want to point out that a certain word was pronounced that way in a specific recording, or *must* be pronounced that way for whatever reason, it will be more convenient to stick to '[CC]' everywhere. In this way, we can safely transcribe *'arabiyy* as [<code>safa'bijj]</code>, implying that [-<code>ijj-]</code> is the basis for [<code>?alsafa'bijju</code>, <code>safa'bijja,tan</code>, <code>safabij'ju:n(a)] &c - plus, of course, [<code>safa'bij:, -ij:</code>] and even [<code>safa'bi:</code>], as we have seen previously (cf § 8.4.1).</code>

Vowel length is represented the same way in both phonemic and phonetic transcriptions: '/V:/ [V:]'. Again, it is predictable that in a protune, [V:] may reduce to [V·] (or even lose its lengthening at all, [V], in very fast speech). As said before (cf § 6.2), unstressed long vowels are [V·] only in very formal % *Koranic* pronunciation, otherwise they are generally shortened to [V].

9.2.2. In *very colloquial* speech, unstressed /i, u/ tend to reduce to some sort of [ə]-like vocoid (cf fig 6.7), or to drop entirely, provided this does not lead to the formation of a three-consonant cluster: *kitāb* [ki'ta:b, kə'ta:b; k'ta:b]; cf *`al-kitāb* [,?al-ki'ta:b, ,?alkə'ta:b], but not \*[?alk'ta:b].

On the other hand, again in *non-formal* Arabic, terminations are often dropped even in *connected* speech. In that case, two word-final consonants may happen to be followed by a word-initial consonant; and since three-consonant cluster are not allowed, a short vowel is inserted: generally, /i/ or the colloquial [ə].

Furthermore, *long vowels* tend to shorten a little in stressed checked syllables (but less than in unstressed syllables):  $a_s \cdot s \bar{u} q^u$  [?as'sv:qv, ?as'sv:q#].

### Reduction or elision of morphological markers

9.3.1. The 'codified' reduction or loss of case endings, verbal terminations, and other morphological markers has occurred in Classical Arabic since pre-Islamic times, and it still is scrupolously applied in reciting religious texts, and above all, poetry.

*Koranic* orthography itself, from which modern orthography derives, is based on the principle that words should be spelt out in their *pre-pausal* form, riskily leaving the reader the task of adding the required terminations when reading aloud.

That means that, in theory, one may pronounce all word-final morphological markers in every instance: it is *not* a mistake! Nonetheless, such practice is neither requested nor encouraged when aiming at the best possible pronunciation.

As said, all of that was and is 'codified' according to a complex of morpho-syntactic rules rather than phonology and phonetics *per se*, and therefore, our readers are advised to consult their grammar handbooks and teachers for a detailed account of those rules.

9.3.2. In *modern*, *colloquial* pronunciation, things are rather different: the more colloquial/informal the register is, the more frequent reductions and elisions will be. Very often, that is not due to any 'codified' pattern, but rather to the understand-able difficulties that contemporary Arabic speakers themselves encounter in dealing with incredibly and absurdly complex grammar rules.

#### 9. Arabic structures

As a matter of fact, those rules have already been considerably simplified, following some of the current behavior found in the modern 'dialects'.

There is even a 'modernist' trend that considers such simplified, 'de-inflected' version of Arabic as the sole credible compromise between the written-only literary language and the spoken-only 'dialects'.

We would be the first to welcome the adoption of a less heavily inflected *lingua franca* as the new official 'standard' Arabic, since pronunciation, too, would become much easier to teach and learn (to say nothing about its own rightful 'dignity').

Unfortunately, such option has proven unfeasible so far: first and foremost, due to the puristic conservatorism that associates Classical Arabic with Islam; but also because of some structural constraints of the language itself, which make people consider final markers still relevant in too many cases.

Therefore, against our own propensity for consistency and predictability (and simplification, as well), we should be forced to recommend our readers to do their best to speak Arabic with all required inflections.

9.3.3. Thus, whenever a doubt arises, it may be wise to introduce a short pause so that pre-pausal uninflected forms can (legitimately) be used; but remember: this 'trick' should be used only as *extrema ratio* and never within sequences that logically should be pronounced as a whole, such as *'al-madīnatu l-kabīrah* [Jalma'di'na<sub>i</sub>tol ka-'bi:fa(ĥ)] (noun + adjective), *bintu ž-žār* ['bintoʒ 'ʒa:f, -[ 'ʒ-] (status constructus), *dakala l-walad* ['daĸalal 'walad] (verb + subject), *wažadtu-hu* (verb + object suffix; note also: [wa'ʒattu,ĥu]), *fī l-funduq* [fɪl'fonduq] (preposition + noun).

*Verbs* and *pronouns* are more likely to maintain their endings, which often have distinctive and pragmatic values.

Some of the following examples have legitimate colloquial variants with dropped vowels: *hādā kitāb* ['ha'ða ki'ta:b, 'ha:ðak 'ta:b], *'al-ħibru ṭayyib* [?al'ħıb-ɛʊ 'ɛɑɪjıb, *t*'ɛɑijɪb], *katabtu bi-hi* [ka'taptu,biĥi, k'taptub,ĥi], *kāna fī l-bayt* ['karna fıl'baɪt], *ra'ay-tu l-bayt* [ɛa'ʔaitul 'baɪt].

9.3.4. As far as 'pre-pausal forms' are concerned, let us see some illustrative examples, keeping in mind that this is an 'orthological' phenomenon that people use to pronounce words *in tunes*, including preceding words, semantically and syntactically linked (to the exclusion of grammemes).

This category includes final short vowels (with or without indefinite suffixes *-un*, *-in*, *-an*): *kataba* ['kataba, 'katab], *yaktubu* ['jaktubu, 'jaktub], *li²an yaktuba* ['liʔaŋ 'jaktuba, 'jaktub], *fī madārisa* [ˌfima'da:fisa, -fis], *fī baytin* [fi'baitin, -'bait]; *baytun* ['baiton, 'bait], *munđu zamanin wažīzin* ['munðu 'zamanıŋ wa'ziz(ın)].

As seen, 'nunated' endings *-un*, *-in* can be completely elided in pre-pausal form, while accusative indefinite (and adverbial) ending *-an* is supposed to become */a:/* [-a], at least in traditional pronunciation:  ${}^{2}a^{5}t\bar{a}hu$   ${}^{5}i\bar{s}r\bar{i}na$   $din\bar{a}r\bar{a}$  [2a\$'to:fo \$15'ti:na di'na:-fa<sup>#</sup>] –  $din\bar{a}r\bar{a}$  actually being the pre-pausal form of  $din\bar{a}ran$ , accusative singular indefinite of  $din\bar{a}r$ . Worth noticing are reduplicated adverbs such as  $kat\bar{i}ran$   $kat\bar{i}r\bar{a}$  [ka' $\theta$ ::fa<sup>#</sup>].

However, luckily, this rule is increasingly perceived as too conservative, and in everyday speech, one may encounter full preservation of *-an* or systematic reduction to  $-\bar{a}$  everywhere, depending on the speakers' degree of cultural and linguistic proficiency, as well as on their dialectal habits.

Full elision is uncommon, because unlike *-un*, *-in*, which can only be indicated in Arabic spelling by means of diacritics or are left unmarked, the presence of *-an* is signaled by a final *?alif*, whose orthographic conspicuousness is a potent 'reminder' to the speakers, at least when they are forced to read aloud written texts.

9.3.5. Nothing more is to be said about  $t\bar{a}^{2}$  marbūṭah except for its behavior when preceded not by the usual /a/, but by /a:/, ie -āt- plus the appropriate case endings. Many Arabic speakers are inconsistent in their pre-pausal form rendition, and in fact, the theoretical -āh /-'a:(fi)/ is much less common than what is really heard more often, ie -āt, eg ħayāt [ħa'ja:t] 'life', zakāt [za'ka:t] 'ritual alms'.

There are but a handful of such instances, and their rarity probably is the main reason why that habit has lastly prevailed over the rule. It is also possible that some sort of analogy with the homophonic plural ending  $-\bar{a}t$ , and the presence of stress (unlike unstressed -ah), may have played a role, too, in influencing native speakers' preferences.

9.3.6. In addition, *colloquially*, very often /?/ is not maintained when it occurs within words or at the end of words. So, it is dropped or changed into /j, w/, or else it may lengthen a possible preceding vowel:  $mi^2ah$  ['mi?a, -afi, 'mi-, 'mij-, 'mii-],  $ya^2kudu$  ['ja?ku,ðu, 'ja:ku,ðu, 'jaku-],  $ra^2s$  ['#a?s, '#a:s],  $sama^2$  [sa'ma:?, sa'ma:].

When two *hamzas* occur in contiguous syllables, the first one is certainly maintained:  $\tilde{z}a^2a^2a\tilde{z}alu$ -hum ['zar?a (?)a'zalu,hum, -(?)a'zalhum].

In /Cj, Cw, Cf, Cl/ sequences (and, more logically, /Cm, Cn/), the Arabic syllabification is heterosyllabic, /C<sup>#</sup>j, C<sup>#</sup>w, C<sup>#</sup>r, C<sup>#</sup>l/: *mitrās* [mɪt'sa:s], <sup>2</sup>atlafa ['Pat-lafa], *madrasah* ['mad-fa,sa; -afi], <sup>2</sup>adlā ['Pad-la], Maryam ['maf-jam], *musri<sup>s</sup>* ['mʊs-fɪf], *miswāk* [mɪs'wa:k], *mašwi* ['maʃ-wi], <sup>2</sup>afraza ['Paf-fa,za], *makwā* ['mak-wa], <sup>2</sup>alyan ['Paʎ-jan], <sup>2</sup>ahwā ['Pafi-wa].

9.3.7. In final position, after consonants, the sonants (/m, n,  $\mathfrak{s}$ , l/) may be realized in different ways, according to how accurately one speaks. From a *phonemic* point of view, they are just consonants, but *-phonetically*- they may be normally voiced (or devoiced, mainly in front of a voiceless consonant), or intense ('syllabic'), or even with a short epenthetic vowel (like [I,  $\mathfrak{s}$ ], [<sup>I</sup>,  $\mathfrak{s}$ ] – colloquially or mediatically also [ $\mathfrak{d}$ ,  $\mathfrak{d}$ ], as even voiced obstruents can do).

Thus: qism ['qısm, -sm, -səm, -sım], ladn ['ladn, -dn, -dən, -dın], fatn ['fatn, -tn, -tən, -tın], duhn ['duhn, -hn, -hn, -hən, -hın], badr ['badı, -dı, -dəı, -dıı], Misr ['mısı, -sı, -sı, -sı, -sıı], fatl ['fatı], -tı, -təl, -tıl], ratl ['tatı], -tı], -təl, -tıl], -təl, -tul], -tatl.

We strongly suggest to avoid epenthetic vowels in international pronunciation and resort to intense consonants, instead, but only when that is really indispensable to articulate an otherwise difficult sequence to pronounce. 9.3.8. Here are some examples of typical Arabic *taxophonics: ta<sup>2</sup>bīn* [taʔˈbi:n], *ma²-tūr* [maʔˈθu:s], *mat<sup>c</sup>ūb* ['matsub], *<sup>2</sup>atqal* ['βaθqul], *madkal* ['matsul], *mađ<sup>c</sup>ūr* [mað-'su:s], *tazhu* ['tazhu], *masžid* ['mazzıd], *mašta* ['maʃta], *mašgūl* [maz'pu:l] <sup>m</sup>[-ʃ'pu:l].

And: maṣra<sup>c</sup> ['mɑs+ɛas], <sup>2</sup>adža<sup>c</sup>a ['Pɑðʒa,sa], <sup>2</sup>ad<sup>c</sup>afa ['Pɑðsa,fa], <sup>2</sup>azlama ['Pɑzla,ma], ma<sup>c</sup>žūn [mas'zu:n], ma<sup>c</sup>rūf [mas'+u:f], <sup>2</sup>a<sup>c</sup>māl [Pas'mɛ:l], magšūš [maµ'ʃu:ʃ] <sup>m</sup>[-p'ʃu:ʃ], maqhā ['mɑqha], mal<sup>2</sup>ān [mɛl'Pɛ:n], yay<sup>2</sup>asu ['jɛiPa,su], <sup>2</sup>awhama ['Pɛuha,ma].

### Stress

9.4.1. Theoretically, the perfect rendition of short and long vowels, as well as of single and geminated consonants would suffice to make one's pronunciation of Arabic fully intelligible, irrespective of stress.

However, for pronunciation to be considered as truly neutral, it is required that stress falls on the appropriate syllable, too. This does not mean that this 'rule' is always respected in mediatic and regional accents. As a matter of fact, stress in not distictive in Arabic. Thus, it is not really important, communicatively.

In fact, in mediatic and regional accents, stress is often on a different syllable than predicted by rules.

The neutral rule is simple: the stressed is on the first 'heavy syllable' encountered *counting from the end of the word*. An Arabic syllable is considered to be 'heavy' if its nucleus is either:

(*a*) a long vowel or a diphthong followed by *at least one consonant*, even if that consonant, in fact, belongs to the following syllable – in symbols: /V:C<sup>#</sup>, VVC<sup>#</sup>; V:<sup>#</sup>C, VV<sup>#</sup>C/; or:

(*b*) a short vowel followed by *two consonants*, again, even if the second consonant belongs to the following syllable – in symbols: /VCC; VC<sup>#</sup>C/.

9.4.2. Therefore, a word like *kitābun* is to be parsed as *ki-tā-bun* from a purely phono-syllabic point of view, but as *'ki-tāb-un'* in order to detect syllable heaviness, which leads to /ki'ta:bun/. The same parsing applies to the compound *kitāb-ī* /ki'ta:bir/.

According to (b), we have kattaba ['katta,ba] but kattabtu [kat'taptu] and kattabtu-kunna [kat,taptu'kunna], because, as said, the stress pattern will always re--arrange itself counting from the last syllable backwards.

If none of the last three syllables is heavy, the stress will fall on the third last, eg *kataba* ['kata<sub>i</sub>ba], and never any earlier than that, as for example in the compound word *kataba-hu* [ka'taba<sub>i</sub>hu].

9.4.3. For a detailed list of all the possible combinations, let us refer to the list below: the symbol |\$| stands for 'light' syllables, ie  $/(C)V^{\#}$ ,  $(C)VV^{\#}$ ,  $(C)VV^{\#}$ ,  $(C)VC^{\#}$ , while /\$| indicates 'heavy' syllables, ie  $/(C)V:C^{\#}$ ,  $(C)VVC^{\#}$ ;  $(C)VV^{\#}C$ ,  $(C)VV^{\#}C/C$ .

Finally, /\$/ indicates either a light or heavy syllable –indifferently– with no direct influence on stress assignment:

2 syllables: /'\$\$, '\$\$, \$'\$/, 3 syllables: /'\$\$\$, '\$\$\$, \$'\$\$, \$'\$\$, 4 syllables: /\$'\$\$\$, \$'\$\$\$, \$'\$\$\$, \$\$'\$\$, 5 syllables: /\$\$'\$\$\$, \$\$'\$\$\$, \$\$'\$\$\$, \$\$'\$\$\$, 6 syllables: /\$\$'\$\$\$, \$\$\$'\$\$\$, \$\$\$'\$\$\$, \$\$\$'\$\$\$, 5 syllables: /\$\$'\$\$\$, \$\$\$'\$\$\$, 5 syllables: /\$\$'\$\$\$, 5 syllables: /\$\$

9.4.4. As said, all the stress patterns given belong to *modern neutral pronunciation*. A dialectal peculiarity found in Lebanon (which should not be followed) puts a final stress on words ending in  $/V_{*}^{\#}$ ,  $VV^{\#}/$  (which, in neutral pronunciation, are not 'heavy' enough to bear a stress): *min-humā* ['mınfiu<sub>m</sub>ma] (and  $\downarrow$ [,mınfiu'mar]).

An Egyptian peculiarity consists in having a form like *katabatā* as [ka'taba,ta] pronounced [,kata'bata] (in Cairo) or ['kata,bata] (in Northern Egypt – but [ka,taba'ta:] in Lebanon), and so on.

9.4.5. Prefixes, such as the definite article, the conjunction *wa*-, and monosyllabic prepositions (like *bi*-, *fa*-, *la*-, *li*-, which are hyphenated) do not influence the application of the *stress rule*: *yadun*, *<sup>2</sup>al-yadu*, *wa-l-yadu*, *bi-l-yadi* – all stressed on ['ja-]: ['jadun, <sup>2</sup>al-jadu, wal'jadu, bil'jadi].

That also explains why the relative pronouns *`alladī* and *`allatī* are pronounced [?al'laði, ?al'lati], not \*[?allaði, ?allati], since as said, *`al-* is nothing but the definite article. Arguably, friendlier and morphono*logical* spellings would be *`al-ladī*, *`al-latī*.

An apparent exception to the rule arises when a monosyllabic prefix forms a compound with full pronouns or pronominal suffixes, eg wa-huwa ['wafiua] <sup>t</sup>['wafiu,wa], bi-hi ['bifii], bi-ka ['bika], fī-hi ['fi:fii], li-humā ['lifiu,ma], la-kumā ['laku,ma]. Here, a friendlier spelling, on the contrary, could be with no dash. Let us compare: <sup>s</sup>alay-kum [\$a'laikom] and maʿa-kunna [,ma§a'konna], with their heavy second last syllables.

As far as *secondary stress* in polysyllabic words is concerned, it tends to occur more or less on alternate syllables, but sometimes preferring the heaviest ones.

Lastly, here are some examples: *rasūl* [<code>fa'su:l</code>], *safanž* [<code>sa'fanz]</code>, *murāsil* [mu'fa:sɪl], *tarassul* [<code>ta'fassul]</code>, *<sup>s</sup>āṣimah* ['<code>fa:sfi</code>ma; -aĥ], *mutafawwiq* [<code>imuta'fauwiq] t[-'fawwiq], *mufāraqah* [mu'fa:fa,qa(ĥ)], *madrasah* ['mad-fa,sa; -aĥ], *darak-ī* ['dafa,ki], *muktalifah* [muy'tali,fa; -aĥ], *<sup>s</sup>ažalu-hum* [?a'ʒalu,ĥum], *kataba-hu* [ka'taba,ĥu].</code>

9.4.6. We give further useful examples: *ramat* ['samat], *ramat-hu* [sa'mathu], *`a-had* ['?aħad], *`aħadu-hum* [?aħadu,ħum], *šadda* ['ʃadda], *šadda-hu* ['ʃadda,ħu], *`arḍā* ['?asđa], *`arḍā-hu* [?asťða:ħu], *katabti* [ka'tapti], *katabti-hi* [ka'tapti,ħi], *muhallima-hu* [mu'ħallima,ħu].

And: <sup>2</sup>istalqā [21s'tałqa], <sup>2</sup>istalqā-hu [,21stał'qa:hu], kātabā ['ka:ta,ba], kātabā-hu [,kata'ba:hu], katabatā and kātabatā [ka'taba,ta], katabatā-hu [ka,taba'ta:hu], kātabatā-hu [ka,taba'ta:hu], šažarat ['ʃaʒa,sat], šažaratun [ʃa'ʒasa,ton].

9.4.7. Here are more examples (some longer): <sup>2</sup>adwiyatu-hu [ˌ2adwi'jatuˌhu], murtabița [mʊɛ'tabɨ,ŧɑ], murtabițatun [ˌmʊɛta'bɨŧɑˌtʊn], šažaratu-hu [.ʃaʒa'ŧatuˌhu].

And: šažaratu-humā [,jazafa'tuhu,ma], <sup>2</sup>adwiyatu-humā [,2adwija'tuhu,ma], muta-

*žanniba* [,muta'ʒanni,ba], *mutažannibatun* [mu,taʒan'niba,tʊn], *mutaqātila* [,muta-'qɑ:ti,la].

Further examples: 'anā [Pana], 'abadan [Paba,dan], ṭāwūṣ [ŧɑˈwʊːs], sižžādāt [,sɪʒʒaˈdaːt], kātib [ˈka:tɪb], kitāb [kiˈtɑːb], ħāwlala [ˈħa·ula,la], baqāya [bɑˈqɑːja], 'akalūha [,Pakaˈluːɦa], 'ihtimāmu-hunna [,Pihti,mamuˈhonna], 'istiqbālātu-hunna [PiˌstɨGba,latu-'honna]. Let us end with madrasah [ˈmad-sasa; -aĥ], madrasatun [mad'sasa,ton].

### 14. International Arabic pronunciation

14.1. The *international* accent of Arabic, of course, is a kind of simplification, which tends to substitute the more peculiar phones with some more natural and widespread in different languages.

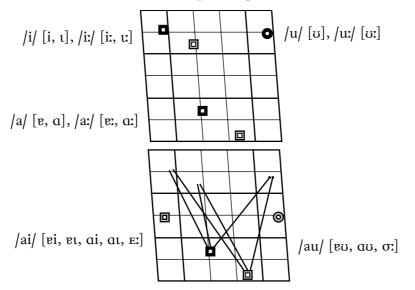
However, it is decidedly more precise than most desciptions found in specific books and articles, as the scanty and rather misleading one in the *Handbook of the International Phonetic Association*, 51-54 (with non-neutral sound files, neither for the segments, nor for the narrative text).

International Arabic exhibits a certain reduction in the number of vowel and consonat taxophones, as well. As regards the realizations of /a(:)/, only two phones are sufficient, in stressed or unstressed syllables: [v(:)], for 2.3-7, and [a(:)], for 2.1-3 (cf § 6.2). Thus, there is a slight overlap for 2.3, variably resolved by single speakers.

The *vowel* realizations belonging to this kind of 'international' pronunciation (both monophthongs and diphthongs) are shown in fig 14.1. This 'clearer' pronunciation generally uses: [i(x), t(x); v(x), a(x); v(x)].

It may also have  $[E:, \sigma:]$  for /ai, au/, but not in the contexts seen in § 6.2. Of course,  $[9, 3, \sigma]$  are not necessary (and, least of all, [9], all seen in § 6.4, cf fig 6.7).

fig 14.1. International Arabic: vowels and diphthongs.



14.2. As for the *consonants*, this international Arabic pronunciation tends to use those of the neutral accent, with its more important taxophones, as well.

However, for the following consonants, it can certainly use some more natural and widespread contoids.

Thus,  $|\mathfrak{t}, \mathfrak{d}|$  may be velarized,  $[\mathfrak{t}, \mathfrak{d}]$ , or even labialized,  $[\mathfrak{t}, \mathfrak{d}]$ . So, they can have a sort of duller timbre, which may be sufficiently different from plain  $[\mathfrak{t}, \mathfrak{d}]$ .

The same is true of /s, z/, which may be velarized, [s, z], or labialized,  $[\hat{s}, \hat{z}]$ , to result somewhat different from [s, z].

The possible, more complicated, variant  $|\mathbf{z}|$  [ð] is not strictly necessary, not even as [ð], or [ð]. However, [ð] should be kept, being a phoneme, as well as [ $\theta$ ].

The phoneme  $/\int [\int]$  should actually be  $[\int]$ , although  $[\int]$  would not be odd. The same for /z/[z, z] (or  $[d_z, d_z]$ , as a personal choice).

Initial [?] may be dropped, while all others have to be pronounced, at least as [?] (which is less strong than [?]).

14.3. As for /ħ/, it is sufficient to distinguish it from both /h/ and / $\kappa$ /. Thus, /ħ/ can be realized as a stronger *h*, that is a phonetically more prominent contoid: either as [h], a velar approximant, or as a velar semiconstrictive, [ $\mu$ ].

Another possibility might be [h], whose lip rounding can be sufficient to differentiate it from a plain [h].

If these requirements are fulfilled, /h/[h, h] can safely enough be uttered as a plain [h] (but it would be better if realized as [h], as in neutral pronunciation, in the expected contexts).

On the other hand, for  $/\kappa/[\kappa]$ , a uvular  $[\chi]$  can be sufficient (although with no trill effect). Also  $/\kappa/[\kappa]$  can, then, be realized as a normal uvular  $[\kappa]$  (again, with no trill effect).

The important thing is to succeed in keeping them sufficiently different, so that no phoneme is lost.

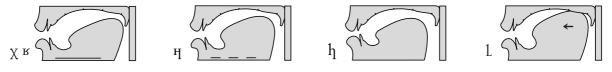
Arguably, the phoneme  $|\xi|$  [ $\xi$ ] is the most difficult contoid of the Arabic language. Nevertheless, it cannot be either dropped or realized as a voiceless contoid. Nor should it become a kind of an *a* vowel.

Thus, it must be exercised with particular care, either as a true pharyngeal [\$] or as a prepharyngeal [\$] approximant – always voiced.

Of course, rather than changing [ $\S$ ] into a vocoid like [ $\Lambda$ ], it might be simpler, and perhaps a little better, to drop it and replace it by using creaky voice on some of the voiced phones around it: either vowels or consonants, with some possible lengthening.

So, we could have: *ʿala* ['Sala; 'aļa], *maʿi* ['maSi; 'maṣi], *biʿtu* ['bɪStu; 'bṣtu], *maʿ* ['maS; 'maṣi], *rabī*<sup>c</sup> [ra'bi:S; -'bṣi:], *rubʿ* ['rʊbS; 'rʊ̯b].

fig 14.2. International Arabic: different consonants.



14.4. As for  $/\frac{\epsilon}{[f, f]}$ , a simple [r], or [r], can be sufficient. Perhaps, it can be made a little duller, by adding lip rounding,  $[\hat{r}, \hat{r}]$ , or some velarization, [f, f].

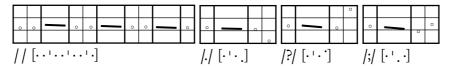
Lastly, [1] could be velarized, [1], or realized as a velar lateral, [1]. However, [1] should in no way be changed into either of these two: [1, 1]! Let us add the orograms of the few new (and simpler) contoids, shown in fig 14.2.

However, in our international transcriptions, we leave [t, d; s, z; t], instead of [t, d; s, z; t].

14.5. As for *stress*, what has been said in § 9.4.1-7, can safely be followed, trying to be consistent. However, in Arabic, stress is not distinctive, at all. In addition, there are different 'rules' in different places (cf § 9.4.4), and native speakers themselves can not be very consistent, indeed. Thus, stress is no real problem.

The most recommendable *intonation* patterns, for international Arabic, are given in fig 14.3.

fig 14.3. International Arabic: intonation.



### The North Wind and the Sun

14.6. As an example of this international Arabic accent, there follows a normalized transcription of the text given in § 11.2.3.

Kānat rīhu š-šamāl tatažādalu wa-š-šams fī <sup>2</sup>ayyin min-humā kānat <sup>2</sup>aqwā mina l-<sup>2</sup>ukrā, wa-<sup>2</sup>idan bi-musāfirin yaṭla<sup>s</sup>u mutalaffi<sup>s</sup>un bi-<sup>s</sup>abā<sup>2</sup>atin samīkah. Fa-ttafaqatā <sup>s</sup>alā i<sup>s</sup>tibāri s-sābiqi fī <sup>2</sup>ižbāri l-musāfir <sup>s</sup>alā kal<sup>s</sup>i <sup>s</sup>abā<sup>2</sup>ati-hi <sup>2</sup>al-<sup>2</sup>aqwā.

Paṣafat rīhu š-šamāl bi-<sup>2</sup>aqṣā mā <sup>2</sup>istaṭā<sup>2</sup>at min qūwah. Wa-lākin kullamā <sup>2</sup>izdāda l-<sup>c</sup>aṣf, <sup>2</sup>izdāda l-musāfiru tadaŧŧuran bi-<sup>c</sup>abā<sup>2</sup>ati-hi, <sup>2</sup>ilā <sup>2</sup>an <sup>2</sup>usqiṭa fī yadi r-rīh, fa-takallat <sup>c</sup>an muhāwalati-hā. Ba<sup>c</sup>da <sup>2</sup>iđin saṭa<sup>c</sup>ati š-šamsu bi-dif<sup>2</sup>i-hā, fa-mā kāna mina l-musāfiri <sup>2</sup>illā <sup>2</sup>an kala<sup>c</sup>a <sup>c</sup>abā<sup>2</sup>ata-hu <sup>c</sup>alā t-taww. Wa-hākađā <sup>2</sup>udṭurrat rīhu š-šamāl <sup>2</sup>ilā l-<sup>2</sup>i<sup>c</sup>tirāf bi-<sup>2</sup>anna š-šamsa kānat hiya l-<sup>2</sup>aqwā.

Hal kānati l-qissatu žamīlah? Hal turīdu 'an nuraddida-hā?

['ke:net· 'ri:hvʃ ʃe'me:l·¦ ,tete'dze:de,lv weʃ'ʃems.'| fi'?eijım 'mınhv,me·| 'ke:net '?aqwe· ,mın?el'?vyre·.] we'?ið bimv'se:fırın·| ı'jaŧłasv ,mute'leffı,som· ,bise'be:?etin se'mi:keh·.]| ,fette'faqa,te.'| 'Sele Sıti'be:rıs 'se:biqı·| ,fi?ıdz'be:rıl mv'se:fır·| 'Sele 'XelSı ,Sebe'?etihi·¦ ?el'?aq-we·.||

'Sasafet' 'ri:hu) je'me:l·|| bi'aq-sa 'me:/ `rista'ta:?et mın'qu:we·|| we'le:kıŋ· l'kulleme `riz'de:del 'Sasf' || `riz'de:del mu'se:furu te'deθθu,rem· biSebe'?etihi.'| l'.'pile ?en'usqui-ta· fi'jedu 'ri:h·.|| hete'Xellet 'Sem mu'hewe'leti,he·|| beS'de?i,din·| sa'taSeti) 'jemsu bi-'dıf?i,he·| sawag' jeter'nu'. l'.'selet 'teuw'. l'.' 'we 'he:ke;ðe ?u‡'‡urret· 'rı:huʃ ʃe'me:l.·l '?ilel ,?ıSti're:f· bi'?enneʃ 'ʃemse·l 'ke:net· 'hiel '?aq-we·.||

'hel tʊˈri:dʊ· 'Pen nʊred'dideˌhe·'||]. زاده المعادية المعادية المعادية المعادية (hel ˈkeːnetɪł ˈqɪssatʊ

### 15. Some national/local phonopses (& map)

15.1. We will provide the phonopses of four main Arabic national koinés, for their neutral accent: the Levant, the Gulf, Egypt, Morocco (adding Algerian Kabyle Berber, for interesting comparisons, and Maltese, as well).

Arguably, each of these accents certainly also presents some more marked and popular accents *and* language, or dialect. In fact, their structure changes not only phonically (also with different phonemes), but even more as far as their grammar and vocabulary are concerned.

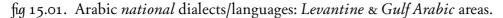




fig 15.02. Arabic national dialects/languages: Northern Africa areas (including Malta, European).

