



## A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF THE CLASSICAL ARABIC AND THE GULF COLLOQUIAL ARABIC

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### ABSTRACT

*The Gulf colloquial Arabic is spoken within the Arab countries, situated around the southern coasts of the (Persian) Gulf, such as Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain and Oman. It is considered as one of the major dialects of Arabic. This spoken variety is totally different from the Classical Arabic, both formally and functionally. Formal differences, which include phonological, lexical, and syntactic differences have resulted in the fact that the two varieties, are mutually unintelligible. On the other hand, the two varieties are used in totally different contexts and serve different functions. This study aims to introduce the major differences between the two varieties within the framework of Surface Strategy Taxonomy.*

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

Within Arabic-speaking communities, two language varieties are used side by side. One variety, which usually lacks a writing system, is learned at home and is used at informal situations. In formal circumstance, where a more elaborate and eloquent variety of language is needed e.g. in academic circles, mosques, political speeches and mass media, the Classical Arabic, also referred to as Standard Arabic is used. The two varieties are totally different to such an extent that they are mutually inconceivable. This research aims to find and introduce phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic differences between the Classical Arabic and the Gulf colloquial Arabic, spoken in some Arab countries, situated around the shores of the (Persian) Gulf, within the framework of Surface Strategy Taxonomy.

### 2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In almost all Arab countries, two varieties of the Arabic language are used. One variety is used in informal every-day life, e.g. at home or other informal situations. The other variety is employed in formal situations, such as schools, universities, media, and elsewhere. The formal and the

informal varieties are also referred to as High and Low, respectively and this linguistic situation is referred to as diglossia.

Diglossia is "a sociolinguistic situation where two very different varieties of a language co-occur throughout a speech community (Crystal, 2012). The term diglossia, according to (Spolsky, 1998), "(modeled on the word bilingual, and using Greek rather than Latin forms) was coined originally to label this phenomenon"(p. 63).

Diglossia was first identified as a distinctive phenomenon by Charles Ferguson in 1959:

A relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly coded (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation. (Ferguson, 1959).

In a diglossic situation, "one variety of a language, referred to as High (H) is learned through education, while the other one, referred to as Low (L), is acquired before formal education. The low variety is "rarely written, and may well lack a recognized written form" (Trask, 2007).

A key point here is that the two varieties are in complementary distribution. In other words, they are kept apart functionally, and cannot be interchangeably used. The Low (L) variety, is used at home or in other informal situations, however, to give a lecture at a university or in any formal circumstance, the other variety, referred to as High (H) is used. Trask (2007) describes this situation as:

The L variety is used for ordinary conversation and for the more popular types of entertainment (such as soap operas and commentary on sport events) ...The H variety is used in newspapers and most other publications, for all serious literature, for university lectures, for news broadcast and other formal types of radio and television broadcast, and (usually) for religious purposes"(p. 74).

The best example of diglossia can be found in Arabic-speaking communities. The two varieties are, on the one hand, Classical Arabic (H) and, on the other, the various regional colloquial Arabic dialects (L). The two varieties have co-existed in Arabic-speaking communities, for many centuries.

There has been this view that the spoken varieties of Arabic are corruptions of CA (Classical Arabic) as found in the Quran and are, therefore, less prestigious varieties of Arabic. According to Wardhaugh (2006), "the H variety is the prestige variety; the L variety lacks prestige. In fact, there can be so little prestige attached to the L variety that people may even deny that they know it, although they may be observed to use it far more frequently than the H variety" (p. 90).

For Spolsky (1998, p. 64), "the H language is associated generally with a body of important literature and carries with it the prestige of a great tradition or religion... The L varieties are more localized and show dialectal variation and the tendency to change of unwritten dialects".

It is worth mentioning that the two varieties are so different, phonologically, lexically, syntactically and semantically that learning the L variety does not necessarily mean learning the High one. Children, in the Arabic diglossic society, acquire the low variety at home. Some may simultaneously learn the high variety, usually at school, but many do not learn it at all.

Jabbari (2012; 2013a; 2013b) have compared the Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), and the colloquial Arabic varieties, spoken in Egypt, Iraq and the Levantine region. He has introduced the

drastic phonological, lexical, morphological and syntactic differences, which have brought about a mutual unintelligibility between the standard and colloquial Arabic varieties.

### 3. DATA OF THE STUDY

The data of the study are collected from three colloquial Arabic guides, i.e. The Syntax of Spoken Arabic, by (Brustad, 2000) and Colloquial Arabic of the Gulf and Saudi Arabia, by Holes (2000).

The Standard Arabic data are collected from Classical Arabic grammar books and the news broadcast by the Arab media.

### 4. METHODOLOGY

In order to depict the linguistic differences between the Classical Arabic (CA), and the Gulf Colloquial Arabic (GCA), the Surface Strategy Taxonomy has been used. This taxonomy, "highlights the ways surface structures are altered" Dulay *et al.* (1982).

Classifying linguistic items according to this taxonomy helps analyze linguistic variations, in more details. To achieve this, (1) the collected data were transcribed phonemically, (2) the meanings were given in English, (3) when needed, a rough literal (morpheme-based) translation of the (Arabic) examples into English was added, to help the non-Arab reader follow the discussions, and (4) necessary explanations were provided.

#### 4.1. Pronunciation Key

Arabic shares a number of phonemes with English and some other European languages. Yet, there are some phonemes which are specific to Arabic and some sister languages. The Arabic phonemes are presented in tables (1) to (4).

##### Arabic Vowels

Table-1.

Vowel	IPA	Arabic Letter	Arabic Example	Meaning
Short	/a/	َ	/nahnu/ نَحْنُ	we
	/i/	ِ	/min/ مِنْ	of, from
	/u/	ُ	/ʕurfa/ عُرْفَةٌ	room
	/a:/	ا	/ba:b/ بَابٌ	door
Long	/i:/	ي	/fi:/ فِي	in, at
	/u:/	و	/nu:r/ نُورٌ	light

## Arabic Diphthongs

Table-2.

IPA	Arabic Example	Meaning	English Example
/aj/	ضيف /Daif/	guest	eye
/aw/	يوم /jawm/	day	house

## Consonants not found in English

Table-3.

IPA	Arabic Letter	Arabic Example	Meaning	Phonetic Features
/S/	ص	صباح /Ṣaba:h/	morning	Voiceless alveolar fricative
/D/	ض	ضيف /Dajf/	guest	Voiced alveolar fricative
/T/	ط	طالب /Ṭa:lib/	student	Voiceless dental-alveolar stop
/Z/	ظ	ظرف /Zarf/	envelope	Voiceless dental-alveolar stop
/ʔ/	اِئْتِ	إنا /ʔana/	I	Voiceless glottal stop
/ʕ/	ع	عين /ʕajn/	eye	Voiced pharyngeal fricative
/H/	ح	حبيب /ħabi:b/	friend	Voiceless pharyngeal fricative
/ʁ/	غ	غداً /ʁadan/	tomorrow	Voiced uvular fricative
/x/	خ	خال /xa:l/	uncle	Voiceless uvular fricative
/q/	ق	قريب /qari:b/	relative	Voiceless uvular stop

## Shared Consonants

Table-4.

IPA	Arabic Letter	Arabic Example	Meaning	English Example
/b/	ب	/bahr/	sea	boat
/t/	ت	/tamr/	dates	table
θ//	ث	/θalla:dʒa/	refrigerator	think
/dʒ/	ج	/dʒamal/	camel	John

/ʒ/	ج	/ʒami:l/	beautiful	Genre
h/	ه	/ħa:m/	important	hand
/d/	د	/dars/	lesson	day
/ð/	ذ	/ða:lika/	that	that
/r/	ر	/ru:h/	soul	run
/z/	ز	/zahr/	bloom	zoo
/s/	س	/sajja:ra/	car	say
/ʃ/	ش	/ʃaj/	thing	ship
/f/	ف	/faransa:/	France	France
/k/	ك	/kita:b/	book	key
/g/	--	/gamar/	moon	girl
/l/	ل	/laka/	for you	love
/m/	م	/man/	who	man
/n/	ن	/na:s/	people	nice
/w/	و	/waqt/	time	way
/h/	ه	/ħa:ða:/	this	home
/j/	ي	/jaman/	Yemen	yes

## 5. DATA ANALYSIS

In a diglossic situation "most linguistic items belong to one of the two non-overlapping sets" (Hudson, 1996). These linguistic items include: (1) phonology, (2) lexicon, (3) morphology and (4) syntax.

In the forthcoming sections, some Phonological, lexical and morphological and syntactic alterations between CA (Classical Arabic) and GCA (Gulf Colloquial Arabic) will be introduced and analyzed, in detail.

### 5.1. Phonological Differences

H and L share one single phonological system, in which the L phonology represents the basic system and the deviant characteristics of the H phonology<sup>1</sup> from a subsystem or parasystem. (Dittmar, 2000). In other words, "the L system will often appear to be the more basic]...[there is quite a difference between Classical Arabic and the colloquial varieties Wardhaugh (2006).

### 5.1.1. Consonant Alteration

Some consonants in CA tend to change in GCA. Examples are as follows:

	<u>CA</u>	<u>GCA</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
	<u>/k/</u>	<u>/tʃ/</u>	
(1)	/kalb/	/tʃalb/	dog
(2)	/kam/	/tʃam/	how much, how many
(3)	/kabir/	/tʃibir/	big, old
(4)	/sikki:n/	/sitʃʃi:n/	knife
(5)	/samak/	/simitʃ/	fish
	<u>/ɟ/</u>	<u>/j/</u>	
(6)	/ɟa:hil/	/ja:hil/	ignorant, child
(7)	/ɟa: /	/ja:/	He came
(8)	/ɟadi:d/	/jidi:d /	camel
(9)	/ maɟlis/	/ majlis /	sitting room
(10)	/ masɟid/	/ masjid /	mosque
	<u>/ɣ/</u>	<u>/q/</u>	
(11)	/ɣasal /	/qasal/	He washed
(12)	/muɣanni /	/muqanni:/	singer
	<u>CA</u>	<u>GCA</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
	<u>/ q /</u>	<u>/ɣ/</u>	
(13)	/taqaddum/	/taɣaddum/	progress
(14)	/qur <sup>1</sup> a:n/	/ɣur <sup>1</sup> a:n/	The Koran
	<u>/q/</u>	<u>/g/</u>	
(15)	/qabl/	/gabil/	ago
(16)	/qabr/	/gabr/	grave
(17)	/qamar/	/gamar/	moon
(18)	/qari:b/	/gari:b /	near
(19)	/maɣqu:l/	/ maɣqu:l /	reasonable
	<u>/θ/</u>	<u>/f/</u>	
(20)	/θala:θa/	/fala:fa/	three

	/ð/	/d/	
(21)	/ha:ði/	/ha:di/	This (fem.)

### 5.1.2. Two-way variation between /D/ and /Z/.

There may be a two-way variation between /D/ and /Z/, in GCA. The phoneme /D/ may be used for both /D/ and /Z/ by some speakers, while /Z/ may be used for both /Z/ and /D/ by others:

(22)	/Darab/	/Darab/	He hit
		/Zarab/	

(23)	/Zuhr/	/Zuhr/	noon
		/Duhr/	

### 5.1.3. Three-way variation between /q/, /ɟ/ and /g/

In a few words, a three-way variation between the above-mentioned consonants is possible:

(24)	/qadi:m/	/qadi:m/	old, ancient
		/ɟadi:m/	
		/gadi:m/	

(25)	/muqa:bil/	/muqa:bil/	opposite
		/muɟa:bil/	
		/muga:bil/	

### 5.1.4. Vowel Alteration

The vowel /a/ may change to /i/ in short CV syllables:

	<u>CA</u>	<u>GCA</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
	/a/	/i/	
(26)	/taHakka/	/tiHakka/	He spoke
(27)	/darassat/	/darrisat/	She taught
(28)	/sabab/	/sibab/	reason, cause
(27)	/kataba/	/kitaba/	He wrote

### 5.1.5. Vowel Deletion

The vowels /i/ and /u/ are often dropped in initial unstressed CV syllables. This results in the formation of initial consonant cluster s, which are not allowed in Standard Arabic.<sup>ii</sup>

(28)	/Simaḡna:/	/Smaḡna:/	We heard
(29)	/niru:H/	/nru:H/	We go
(30)	/tiHakka/	/tHakka/	He spoke
(31)	/muHammad/	/mHammad/	Mohammad (Proper noun)

### 5.1.6. Vowel Addition

A short vowel (usually /i/) may be added at the beginning of an initial consonant cluster made as a result of the vowel deletion (explained in 6.1.5.), to make them easier to pronounce.

<u>GA</u>			<u>Meaning</u>
(32)	/Sma?na:/	→ /iSma?na:/	We heard
(33)	/nru:H/	→ /iniru:H/	We go
(34)	/tHakka/	→ /itHakka/	He spoke

### 5.1.7. Multiple Processes

Some words may undergo a number of phonological changes such as vowel alteration, vowel deletion and vowel addition:

<u>GA</u>				<u>Meaning</u>	
	vowel alteration	vowel deletion	vowel addition		
(35)	/kabi:r/	→ /kibi:r/	→ /kbi:r/	→ /ikbi:r/	big

### 5.1.8. VC to CV Alteration

<u>GA</u>		<u>Meaning</u>
(36)	/ilkabi:r/ → /likibi:r/	The big one.

### 5.1.9. Consonant Cluster Reduction

If three consonants occur consecutively as a result of juxtaposition of two morphemes, the cluster is often reduced by dropping one consonant, or by inserting a vowel.

<u>GA</u>			<u>Meaning</u>	
	cvc-cvc	cvc-cvc	cvc-cv-cvc	
(37)	/ʃind#hum/	→ /ʃid#hum/	or /ʃin#da-hum/	They have.
(38)	/gilt#lik/	→ /git#lik/	or /gil#ti#lik/	I told you.

### 5.1.10 Syllable Reduction

In a number of verbs, clusters arise as a result of the dropping of an unstressed /i/. In such cases, the cluster is reduced. Then the /i/ dropping is applied again:

<u>GA</u>				<u>Meaning</u>	
	cv-cvc-cv-cvc	cv-cvc-ccvc	cv-cvc-cvc	ccvc-cvc	
(39)	/ji#dar#ris#u:n/	→ /ji#dar#rsu:n/	→ /ji#dar#su:n/	→ /jdar#su:n/	They teach

### 5.1.11 Alternative Syllable Structures

Words with syllable structures CV-CV-C(V) , CVC-CVC and CVC-C(V) may become CCV-CV(C):



<u>GA</u>		<u>Meaning</u>
	cv-cv-c(v)                  ccv-c(v)	
(40)	/Ha#Ta#b(a)                  /HTi#ba/	A piece of wood
	cvc-cvc                  ccv-cv(c)	
(41)	/kit#bat/                  /kti#bat/	She wrote.
<u>GA</u>		<u>Meaning</u>
(42)	cvc-c(v)                  ccv-cv(c)	
	/rug#ba/                  /rgu#ba/	neck
	/nax#la/                  /nxa#la/	palm-tree

### 5.1.12 Stress Variations

Three-syllable words starting with a CVC- syllable may freely carry the primary stress either on the first or the second syllable:

<u>GA</u>		<u>Meaning</u>
	<b>cvc-cv-cv</b> cvc- <b>cv-cv</b>	
(43)	/' <b>mad</b> #ra#sa/                  /mad#' <b>ra</b> #sa/	school
	<b>cvc-cv-cvc</b> cvc- <b>cv-cvc</b>	
(44)	/' <b>sim</b> #fa#tah/                  /sim#' <b>fa</b> #tah/	She heard him.
(45)	<b>cvc-cvc-cv</b> cvc- <b>cvc-cv</b>	
	/' <b>is</b> #maH#li/                  /'is#' <b>maH</b> #li/	Excuse me!

Words with CV-CVC-CV(C) syllabic structure, may freely carry the primary stress on their first or second syllables when a prepositional phrase (PP) or a pronoun (Pr.), starting with a consonant is suffixed:

<u>GA</u>		<u>Meaning</u>
	<b>cv-cvc-cv</b> cv- <b>cvc-cv</b>	
(46)	/' <b>ma</b> :#lat#ha/                  /ma: #' <b>lat</b> # <u>ha</u> /	Belonging to her.
	Pr.	
(47)	<b>cv-cvc-cvc</b> <b>cv-cvc-cvc</b>	
	/' <b>ja</b> :#fat#kum/                  /ja: #' <b>fat</b> # <u>kum</u> /	She saw you.
	Pr.	
(48)	/' <b>ga</b> :#lat#lik/                  /ga: #' <b>lat</b> # <u>lik</u> /	She said to you.
	PP	

### 5.2. Morphological Differences

"The grammar of the L variety is generally simpler. For instance, fewer distinctions in the L varieties are marked by the use of grammatical suffixes" (Spolsky, 1998). In other words, "L has fewer grammatical (morphological) categories and a reduced system of inflection; H has a greater grammatical (morphological) complexity (Dittmar, 2000).

### 5.2.1. Suffix Deletion

Verb suffices, pronouns or case markers tend to be deleted.

	<u>CA</u>	<u>GCA</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
(49)	/Darab-a/ wrote-3 <sup>rd</sup> Sing-.Mas.	/ Darab-∅/ wrote-3 <sup>rd</sup> Sing-.∅	He hit
(50)	/zamil-u-hu/ friend-NOM-his	/zamil-u-∅/ friend-NOM- ∅	His friend
(51)	/xa:l-u-ha:/ uncle-NOM-her	/xa:l-u-∅/ uncle-NOM- ∅	Her (maternal) uncle
(52)	<sup>l</sup> al-mofallem- <b>u</b> -fi-l-madrasa- <b>ti</b> / the-teacher-NOM-at-the-school-GEN	<sup>l</sup> al-mofallem-∅-fi-l-madrasa-∅/ the-teacher-∅-at-the-school-∅	The teacher is at school.
(53)	<sup>l</sup> arid- <b>u</b> mafɔɖzu:n- <b>a</b> <sup>l</sup> asna:n- <b>in</b> / I- want- <b>suff.</b> paste- <b>ACC</b> teeth- <b>GEN</b>	<sup>l</sup> arid-∅ mafɔɖzu:n-∅ <sup>l</sup> asna:n-∅/ I- want-∅ paste-∅ teeth-∅	I want a tooth paste.

### 5.3. Lexical Differences

In a diglossic situation, "There are also major differences in the vocabulary of the two varieties" (Spolsky, 1998). There may be "distinctly different pairs of words, i.e., doublets, in the H and L varieties to refer to very common objects and concepts. Since the domain of the two varieties do not intersect, there will be an L word for use in L situations and an H word for use in H situations with no possibility of transferring the one to the other" (Wardhaugh, 2006). In other words, the "H and L have, in the main, a complementary lexicon. It is a particular characteristic of the diglossic situation that pairs are used situation-specifically with the same meaning in the H variety and the L variety" (Dittmar, 2000). This lexical complementary distribution includes all parts of speech. Some examples are:

#### 5.3.1. Adjectives

	<u>CA</u>	<u>GCA</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
(54)	/qali:l/	/fwaj/	little
(55)	/kaøi:r/	/wa:jið/	much
(56)	/ɖgajjið /	/xu/	good
(57)	/bilmadɖɖa:n//	/bila:f/	free of charge

#### 5.3.2. Adverbs

(57)	/mu <sup>l</sup> axxaran/	/ja:j/	recently
(58)	<sup>l</sup> al-xa:riɖɖ/	/barra/	outside
(59)	/mubakkiran/	/min waqt/	early

(60)	/al'a:n/	/alHi:n/	now
(61)	/Haqqan/	/walla:h/	really
(62)	/bisurfa/	/zita:t/	quickly
(63)	/ams/	/il-ba:Ha/	yesterday
(64)	/xadan/	/bukra /	tomorrow

### 5.3.3. Prepositions

(65)	/mafa/	/wijja/	with
(66)	/li/	/min fa:n/	for
(67)	/bi-daxil/	/juwwa/	inside
(68)	/ila:/	/hagg/	to, towards

### 5.3.4. Interrogative Pronouns

(69)	/fajna/	/wajn/	where
(70)	/li-man/	/illi:/	whose
(71)	/ma:ða://	/wajf/ /finhu/	what
(72)	/kajfa/	/flawn/	how
(73)	/man/	/illi/	who

### 5.3.5. Pronouns and Demonstratives

	<u>CA</u>	<u>GCA</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
(74)	/ha:ða:/	/ha:(ða)/	this (mas.)
(75)	/ha:ðihi:/	/ha:(ði)/	this (fem.)
(76)	/ha: <sup>1</sup> ula: <sup>1</sup> /	/(ha:)ðajla:k/	these (mas., fem.)
(77)	/ða:li:ka/	/(ha:)ða:k/	that(mas.)
(78)	/tilka/	/(ha:)ði:tʃ/	that (fem.)
(79)	/ <sup>1</sup> ana/	/tʃa:n/	I
(80)	/nahnu/	/'ihna/	we

### 5.3.6. Nouns

(81)	/Tifl/	/ja:hil/	kid
(82)	/ <sup>1</sup> ar-ruz//	/ʃajf/	rice
(83)	/ <sup>1</sup> asad/	/sibiʃ/	lion
(84)	/sa:riq/	/ba:ʒig/	thief
(85)	/fa:kiha/	/majwa/	fruit
(86)	/sa:Ha/	/dawwa:r/	square
(87)	/rawatib/	/mafa:f/	salary
(88)	/Hiða: <sup>1</sup> /	/dʒu:ti/	shoes
(89)	/minDada/	/majz/	table

### 5.3.7. Borrowed Words

According to Wardhaugh (2006), "The L variety shows a tendency to borrow learned words from the H variety, particularly when speakers try to use the L variety in more formal ways"(p. 91). It should be born in mind that any borrowed word may have undergone phonological and/or semantic change.

(90)	/sajjara u/	/tiksi/	taxi, cab
(91)	/Ha:su:ba/	/kambju:tar/	computer
(92)	/dʒawa:z/	/lajsan/	license
(93)	/ <sup>l</sup> al-waraqat-ul-naqdijja/	/nu:t/	bank note
(94)	/Hisa:b/	/ <sup>l</sup> il-kawnts/	account
(95)	/Sakk/	/ʃajk/	check (bank)
(96)	/maSraf/	/bank/	bank
(97)	/maTTa:T/	/blastik/	plastic
(98)	/ma:kena/	/ma:ʃi:n/	machine
(99)	/ʃaqb/	/pantʃar/	puncture
(100)	/ʃa:mi/	/obrajtir/	operator
(101)	/barqi:ja/	/teleyra:f/	telegraph, telegram
(102)	/ <sup>l</sup> ami:n/	/sikirtir/	secretary
(103)	/mukajjef-ol-hawa: <sup>l</sup> /	/kandifan/	air-conditioner
(104)	/qa:ru:ra/	/buTil/	bottle
	<b><u>CA</u></b>	<b><u>GCA</u></b>	<b><u>Meaning</u></b>
(105)	/ha:tif/	/tilifu:n/	telephone
(106)	/ʃurTi/	/pu:li:s/	policeman
(107)	/durra:dʒa/	/sajkal/	bicycle
(108)	/sira:dʒ/	/lajt/	light

## 5.4 .Syntactic Differences

### 5.4.1. Different Word Order

- (109) /dʒinsi:ja(tu) abuuji saʃu:dijja/ /<sup>l</sup>abuuji dʒinsi:jatah saʃu:dijja/  
 nationality my father Saudi my father nationality Saudi  
 My father's nationality is Saudi Arabian
- (110) /Saba:h ba:kir/ /bukra is-sibh/ Early in the morning.  
 morning early eraly the-morning
- (111) /qara<sup>l</sup>a-l-walad-u kutub/ /<sup>l</sup>il-walad qara<sup>l</sup>a kutub/ The kid read books.  
 read the- kid books the- kid read books

## 5.5.Total Differences

The afore-said partial differences, when accumulated, make the two varieties totally different at the levels of phrase and sentences. The following examples manifest this drastic difference.

### 5.5.1. Some very productive expressions in the Gulf Colloquial Arabic:

- (112) /ma: <sup>l</sup>ismuk/ /ʃismik/ What is your name?  
 (113) /kajf-a Ha:l-uk/ /kajf il Ha:l/, /ʃlawnak/ How are you?

- (114) /dʒajjid dʒiddan/ /fawg in-naxal/  
 good very above-the-palm-tree  
 Very good (In answer to How are you?)
- (115) /<sup>l</sup>ahlan/ /ja: hala/ Welcome!
- (116) /<sup>l</sup>ardʒu <sup>l</sup>al-maʃðira/ /<sup>l</sup>ismaH li:/ Excuse me!
- (117) /<sup>l</sup>aHsanta/ /ja: sala:m/ Bravo!  
 O' peace

### 5.5.2. Totally Different Sentences

- (118) /<sup>l</sup>ila <sup>l</sup>ajn <sup>l</sup>nta rajiH/ /wajn taru:H/ Where are you going?
- (119) /ðahabtu il-al –mihna// /ruHt if-fugul/ I went to work.
- (120) /ju:dʒad huna: kutubun kaθi:ra/  
 /fi: kutub wa:jid ihni/ There are a lot of books here.
- (121) /la: <sup>l</sup>adri:/ /ma: baʃrif/ I don't know.
- (122) /ma <sup>l</sup>ismu <sup>l</sup>abij-k / /<sup>l</sup>abu:k ʃinhu: <sup>l</sup>isim / What is your father's name?

#### CA

#### GCA

#### Meaning

- (123) /<sup>l</sup>ana faqadtu sajja:rati:/ /sajja:rati: ða:ʔat/ I lost my car.
- (124) /fi: ajji madi:na taskunu/ /wajn sa:kin <sup>l</sup>ant/ In what city do you stay?
- (125) /ma: huwa fu:lta:dʒ-ul-kahruba<sup>l</sup> huna:/  
 /<sup>l</sup>il-kahruba:<sup>l</sup> ihna: ʧam fult/  
 What is the electricity voltage here?
- (126) /hal <sup>l</sup>astaTi:<sup>l</sup>u <sup>l</sup>irsa:la ba<sup>l</sup>Da-l-nuqu:di <sup>l</sup>ila: bila:d-i/  
 /<sup>l</sup>agdar <sup>l</sup>adiz <sup>l</sup>iflu:s l-ahli:/  
 Can I send money to my country?
- (127) /kajfa <sup>l</sup>astaTi:fu-ul-<sup>l</sup>istifa:da min <sup>l</sup>al-Ha:su:ba/  
 /<sup>l</sup>iflawn <sup>l</sup>agdar <sup>l</sup>astifid min kimbi:ju;tir /  
 How can I use the computer?

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

The data of the study manifest a good number of differences between the Classic Arabic and the Gulf Colloquial Arabic. These differences were found on the levels of phonology, morphology, lexicon and syntax. Phonological alterations included vowel and consonant alteration, vowel deletion, and syllable reduction. Lexical differences were mainly a lexical complementary distribution between CA and GCA. Morphological alterations included suffix deletion in GCA Arabic. Word order alterations were the most significant Syntactic difference.

## 7. SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDIES

The present study was a synthetic-qualitative piece of research. Narrower analytic-quantitative studies on diglossia are recommended.

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## Notes

- i- Standard Arabic, lacks consonants /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /g/, /v/ and /p/, however, the first three sounds, are not ruled out in different colloquial varieties of Arabic. Different colloquial Arabic varieties may use /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /g/ and /p/ but not /v/.
- ii- Syllable structure in Classical Arabic is CV(C)(C). It means that: (a) any syllable necessarily starts with a consonant, (b) the initial consonant is necessarily followed by a vowel, i.e. consonant clusters are not allowed syllable initially, and (c) the (nucleus) vowel can be followed by 0 up to 2 consonants.

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