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References
1. Introduction

Although all languages mainly play a similar role, there are similarities and differences between them. Albanian language, just like English, is a part of Indo-European family. According to the Albanian linguist E. Çabej (1982, p: 35), “Albanian language is a sister, not a descendant of the Indo-European family”. Although both languages belong to the Indo-European family, in addition to common features in the phonetic, semantic and grammatical system, they naturally differ in varied grammatical aspects, including passive voice. The verbal system, the main grammatical level in both languages is quite rich in tense and mood forms. This system has undergone significant changes as compared to the old Indo-European system. Albanian language being more innovative has changed this system more than English language.

In general terms this thesis is concerned with the same aspect seen from the point of view of two languages; English and Albanian. A comparison is drawn between English’s passive voice and its counterpart in Albanian language. In the first two parts of this paper, an analysis of function and the form of passive voice used in English and in Albanian is set, with the main intention in getting the basic knowledge for the two passives of the two languages. Then, the third part focuses on the usage of passive voice in English, comparing it with Albanian, indicating the similarities and the differences that exist between these two languages.

The concept of passive voice which is introduced in this paper, as a grammatical category of the verb has been one of the problems and in the focus of attention of many linguists, both from morphological aspect – in the level of the parts of speech, and from syntactic aspect – in the level of sentence members (subject, predicator, object etc.). Here in, a few attempts were made to analyse the existing thoughts on the passive voice in both languages.

Generally, verbs are said to be either active or passive in voice, (diathesis). The voice shows the relationship between the subject, the object and the verb. Quirk (1972: 51) defines voice as a “grammatical category that makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in two different ways without changes in the facts reported”. “This grammatical term is used to tell whether the subject of the sentence is acting or receiving the action expressed by the verb” (Germizaj, 2004: 119).
1.1. Research Hypothesis

Although English and Albanian belong to the same parent language, the Indo-European one, naturally have many similarities and differences for different grammatical, phonetic and syntactic categories. The similarities and differences in the morphological level are taken into consideration, in particular passive voice as a linguistic feature of the verbal system for the two languages.

The study is based on the following hypothesis: ‘Though English passive has some slight differences with the Albanian counterpart, yet many common features in terms of the structure and the usage of passive reveal to be equivalent’.

1.2. Research Question

A few questions were set in this study with the main intention of finding the major information related to voice, in particular to passive voice of the two represented languages. Through these questions are required proper answers for the passive's structure and utilisation in both of the languages. Further, other questions are set to quest cases of preference for passive over the active voice and finally some questions seek for the resemblance and variation of passive voice between the two featured languages.

The study is based on the following questions:

- What is voice?
- How is passive formed and what are its types?
- Which are the cases that passive voice is chosen over active voice?
- What are the similarities between English and Albanian passive voice?
- What are the differences between English and Albanian passive voice?

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to show and clarify the form, usage and division of passive voice in both English and Albanian language, and further examine some properties of the passive through a close comparison of two languages in order to find the existing similarities and differences.
between the two. Furthermore, it intends to find out the linguistic and extra-linguistic reasons for choosing passive constructions in different contexts.

1.4. Corpus of the Study

This diploma paper entails a revision of literature and journalist texts written in English and Albanian language. The paper gives a broad framework on the passive voice as a linguistic issue and a grammatical notion present in English and Albanian. The collected material contained helpful information regarding passive voice, usage, form and construction in both of the represented languages.

1.5. Methodology of Work

The main methods used in this paper are the descriptive and comparative method. The initial part of this study was conducted through descriptive method. In this part the major parts regarding passive voice in English and Albanian were clarified, dealing with the verb’s category of voice, exactly speaking, concretely with passive voice and on its manifestation in both languages. The final part of this study was conducted through the comparative method in which the two passives were compared in order to find the differences and similarities that exist between them.

1.6. Literature Review

Although scientific writing has a long history of using passive voice, many professional journals in science and engineering now suggest, or at least obtain, active structures. English passive voice and Albanian passive voice are reviewed separately here due to the differences in two. In this study they will be described and compared with one another to find out the plausible differences and similarities between the two.
2. Verb as a grammatical category

Huddleston (2002: 91) provides a brief definition of a verb saying that “a verb denotes action or a state of being”. In addition, Eckersley (1983: 143) emphasizes the importance of the verb claiming that is present in a sentence in the majority of cases and that its role is essential. According to the British linguists Huddleston and Pullum (2005: 50) the verb functions as an ultimate head of a clause and has an essential role as it “determines what other kind of elements are required or permitted”.

Conrad, Biber and Leech (2002: 15) divide verbs according to their ability to function as following:

- Lexical verbs (e.g.: run, eat, think) functioning only as main verbs.
- Primary verbs (do, be, have) functioning as both auxiliary verbs and main verbs.
- Modal verbs (can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must) functioning only as auxiliary verbs.

However, the issue of verb classification is much more complex. Besides the three major verb categories (lexical verbs, primary verbs, and modal verbs) derived from a function of a verb in a verb phrase, there are many other aspects whose application gives rise to other verb classes. Greenbaum (1996: 79) numbers seven categories as applied to verbs that are: “mood (indicative, imperative, subjunctive), modality (modal auxiliaries), tense (present, past), aspect (perfect, progressive), number (singular, plural), person (first, second, third), and voice (active, passive)”. Thus, verbs as part of speech, except showing an action or a state, they can be classified according to their function. This leads to a classification of verbs in a multitude of grammatical categories.

2.1. Forms of the verb

Following there are three different types of verbs defined by Eckersley (1960: 143) through which sentence structure, and particularly passive sentences are constructed.

- “Finites and Non-Finites Verbs”
- Regular and Irregular Verbs
- Transitive and Intransitive Verbs”
Thus, finite verbs through which a particular sentence is constructed show tense person and number. Non-finite in the other hand do not show tense person, or number. Regular verbs form their different tenses according to an established pattern. Irregular verbs do not follow the normal rules. A transitive verb in the other hand is one that is used with an object that refers to the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb. Intransitive verbs are the contrary of the transitive they do not take any object.

2.2 Voice

2.3 Passive voice in English

Verbs additionally to showing time by their tense can show whether the subject is performing the action or having the action preformed on it. This quality of a verb is known as voice (Forlin, 1982: 209).

The category of voice belongs to the linguistic features that can be found in majority of languages and is defined variously in the literature. Huddleston (2002: 1427) defines voice as “a system where the contrasting forms differ in the way semantic roles are aligned with systematic functions”, this way according to their systematic properties sentences are proclaimed as active or passive.

As reported by Huddleston and Pullum “the general terms active and passive are based on the semantic role of the subject in clauses expressing action. In clauses describing some deliberate action the subject is normally aligned with the active participant (the actor) in the active voice, but with the passive participant (the patient) in the passive voice” (Huddleston and Pullum (2005: 240)

According to Quirk et al.(1972: 256) the difference between an active and passive verb phrase is that while the passive verb phrase includes a form of the auxiliary be (or get) which is followed by the past participle of the main verb (e.g. is kissed), the active verb phrase is defined as one which does not contain this construction (e.g. kisses).

Azar B. S.(2002: 208) claims that active voice can be formed by almost all verbs while with the construction of passive voice the choice is limited, allowing thus only transitive verbs (verbs that can be followed by an object) to formulate the passive in English. No usage of intransitive verbs (such as happen, sleep, come, seen) is allowed in forming the English passive.
In addition Eckersley (1960: 219) makes a clear distinction between the two types of voice in English the active and passive voice. “If the person or thing denoted by the subject of the sentence is the doer of the action, then that form of the verb is the active voice” e.g.:

1. ‘The boy kicked the ball’.

“If the person or thing denoted by the subject of the sentence is the receiver or sufferer of the action, then that form of the verb is the passive voice” e.g.:

2. ‘The ball was kicked by the boy’.

From the above mentioned examples in active and passive voice a clear distinction is made. In the example: “The boy kicked the ball.” The boy (subject) is the doer, the one who acts (kicked) upon the ball (object). While in the second sentence: “The ball was kicked by the boy”, there is a transformation from active to passive. The object of the active now becomes the subject of the passive to which a preposition by- is added to turn it into the passive form.

2.4 Tense in the passive

There is not an exact parallel of time when it comes to active and passive, Jespersen (2006: 199) postulates, this chiefly because “the passive is formed by means of the second participle, which, frequently has no reference to time, though it is often a perfect participle”.

The following table by Eckersley (1960: 202) makes a clear distinction of time through active and passive voice used in English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Active Voice</th>
<th>Passive voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present Simple</td>
<td>Mr Brown teaches this class.</td>
<td>This class is taught by Mr Brown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Continuous</td>
<td>Mr Brown is teaching this class.</td>
<td>This class is being taught by Mr Brown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Perfect</td>
<td>Mr Brown has taught this class.</td>
<td>This class has been taught by Mr Brown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Simple</td>
<td>Mr Brown taught this class.</td>
<td>This class was taught by Mr Brown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Continuous</td>
<td>Mr Brown was teaching this class.</td>
<td>This class was being taught by Mr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Perfect</td>
<td>Mr Brown had taught this class.</td>
<td>This class had been taught by Mr Brown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Simple</td>
<td>Mr Brown will teach this class.</td>
<td>This class will be taught by Mr Brown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Continuous</td>
<td>Mr Brown will be teaching this class.</td>
<td>This class will be taught by Mr Brown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>Mr Brown will have taught this class.</td>
<td>This class will have been taught by Mr Brown.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: The Perfect Continuous Tenses are not used passively.

Table 1. Voice through tenses (Eckersley, 1960: 202)

The table above shows a clear distinction between active and passive voice in English language. Through the examples mentioned it can be seen that passive voice can be used in most of the tenses. To change the tense of the passive requires a change of the verb ‘be’ while the main verbs in the passive always remain in the past participle form. Also aby- agent is added to these example when transformed in the passive.

2.5 Formation of the passive

As it has been mentioned earlier, voice has two forms of expression, thus the active and passive form, all of this depending on whether the subject is the doer or is the receiver of the action. Quirk et al. (1960: 147) argues that in most of the cases English passive is formed by the auxiliary verb –be and past participle of the verb (-edparticiple). However, in some passives the auxiliary verb –be is substituted with –get, which Quirk defines as get-passives. The transformation from active to passive involves a change in position of the subject and the object where the active subject becomes the passive agent and the active object becomes the passive subject and the addition of the preposition -by which is introduced before the agent.

3.  *John kissed Mary* (Active)
4.  *Mary was kissed by John* (Passive)
This can better be explained by the following formula of passive formation from active voice:

\[
\text{NP}^1 \text{ V (active)} \rightarrow \text{NP}^2 \text{ V (passive) by NP}^1
\]

Börjars and Burridge (2010: 652-653) propose a scheme for a better understanding of this transformation.

[Diagram]

Passive voice is used in both cases “when one wants to highlight the object, and when one wants to put less emphasis on the subject - or omit it altogether”.

Quirk further suggests that even though the structure of these sentences changes during the rearranges their meaning remains the same. Thus as in the example “John kissed Mary” and “Mary was kissed by John” in both of the voices John is the one preforming the action.

Huddleston and Pullum (2005: 240-242) explain that many clauses which do not describe actions can be assigned to active or passive categories, as are the following clauses.

5. *Everyone saw the accident.* (Active)
6. *The accident was seen by everyone.* (Passive)

‘Seeing’ isn’t action, but the syntactic relation between the members of these pairs can be classified as active and passive pairs.

Active clause differs in construction from the passive counterpart as follow:

- The subject of the active (*Everyone*) appears in the passive as complement of the preposition *by* in a PP functioning as a complement.
- The direct object of the active appears as subject of the passive.
- The passive has auxiliary *be* carrying the tense inflection and taking as compliment a subject-less non-finite clause with a head (*seen*) in past participle form.
• The auxiliary *be* of the passive clause takes on the inflection properties of the verb of the corresponding active, except that any person and number features are determined by agreement with passive subject.

Active transformation to passive includes a simple process of placing the subject of the active in the position of an object in the passive clause and the opposite with constructing active clauses from the passive ones.

2.6. Types of the passive

Passive voice can be divided in various groups based on some construction criteria. Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1442) describe the distinction “based on the presence or absence of a *by*-phrase.” This way they divide passive voice into short and long passive.

2.6.1. Short and long passive

7. *His plan was rejected.* (Short)

8. *His plan was rejected by the board.* (Long)

According to Huddleston (2002: 1442) there are quite a few differences between short and long passives in English language, the most emphasized one is that the short passives lacks internalised compliment while with the long passives it is present. Short passives have no exact active counterpart because there is an absent internalized compliment.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1442) point out that the active clause will “encode some information about the subject that is not explicitly encoded in a short passive even if part or all of it is implied or suggested.” Thus active clauses and short passive clauses are not fully equivalent.

As reported by Conrad, Biber and Leech (2002: 44) what distinguishes short passives from long ones is that short passive clauses omit any mention of the agent noun phrase. This construction is used when the identity of the agent noun phrase is obvious, or when the exact identity of the agent noun phrase is not known or not important.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1442) report about the long passive with its preposition *by*-that, marked as internalised complement that has the exact active counterpart. However its active equivalent is presented in different order.
As stated by Conrad, Biber and Leech (2002: 45) there are “three discourse factors through which long passive verbs are associated:

a. To present given information before new information.
b. To place ‘heavier’ (lengthier) elements at the end of the clause.
c. To mark the first element of the clause as the topic of the discourse”.

Passives in English grammar are divided into short and long. The short passive is one of a dozen ways of reporting and commenting on events and situations without specifying an actor. Long passive is passive with the agent which highlights or draws attention to the actor(s). The passive without an agent and the passive with an agent often have, in a way, opposite functions: the former hides the actor(s), while the latter brings them into the spotlight.

2.6.2. Di-transitive passive

Depending on the number of the objects that a clause can have the latter are divided into: intransitive clause (no objects), mono-transitive clause (one object), di-transitive clause (two objects, direct and in-direct object). A di-transitive verb takes two objects, a direct object and an indirect one. The position of the subject in a passive sentence can take both the direct and indirect object. Only the direct object was originally used to form the passive, but through time it changed and the indirect object is now more frequently used as a subject of the passive (Quirk et al. 1972: 36-37).

Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1432) identify two passive counterparts depending on whether the direct or indirect object takes the subject position. Thus these two linguists differ between the first passive and second passive. The version with indirect passive as a subject is called first passive, while the one with the direct object in the position of the subject is the second passive.

Active: First passive:

9. My father gave me this watch. → I was given this watch by my father.

Active Second Passive

10. My father gave me this watch. → This watch was given to me by my father.
The first passive is more frequently used in English, while the second passive is hardly found in American English, and in British English is only accepted in a limited range of cases. Thus, a di-transitive clause is usually formed by di-transitive verbs which are defined as verbs that take both direct objects and indirect objects.

2.6.3. *Be*-passive, *get*-passive and bare passives

The majority of passives considered so far have an auxiliary *be*; they are called be-passives. English also has another type of passive that is formed with *get* instead of *be* as illustrated in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BE-PASSIVE</th>
<th>GET-PASSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. Pat <em>was</em> bitten by a snake.</td>
<td>Pat <em>got</em> bitten by a snake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. They <em>weren’t</em> charged until later.</td>
<td>They <em>didn’t</em> get charged until later.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. She <em>was</em> elected mayor in 1990.</td>
<td>She <em>got</em> elected mayor in 1990.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While *be* is an auxiliary verb and *get* is not, with negative and interrogatives it requires a dummy auxiliary *do* as seen in one of the above mentioned examples.

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1442) the auxiliary *be* is more frequently used than *get*. The main differences that exist between the two are:

- Get-passives tend to be avoided in formal style.
- Get-passives are only found with dynamic verbs.
- Get-passives are more useful to an agentive interpretation of the subject.
- Get-passives are characteristically used in clause involving adversity or benefit.

As stated by Eastwood (1994: 143) get-passive is much more limited than be-passive and finds its usage mainly in informal speech. Get-passive mainly expresses actions and changes not states. It often refers to something happening accidently or unexpectedly which is not common in major or planned actions as in the following examples:

14. *The vase got broken when he moved*
15. *NOT Wembley Stadium got built in 1923.*
Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1442) emphasize the fact that *get*-passives are restricted to dynamic verbs only and in most of the cases they cannot be replaced by a *be*-passive as in the following examples:

16. *I got a t-shirt for my birthday.*

Similarly the *be*-passive cannot be replaced in some cases because it may cause ambiguity as in the following example:

17. *The village was surrounded by troops from the first Battalion.*

18. *The village got surrounded by troops from the first Battalion.*

*Get*-passive is preferred over *be* in situations when “subject-referent” has an agentive role in the situation. Take for example the pair:

19. *Jill was/got arrested.*

In this sentence *be*-passive is either used to report an event where *Jill* simply had a patient role or a situation when she provoked the police into arresting her. Get-passive is more likely to be used in such cases where the actor (*Jill*) was careless to let the action happen.

Another type of passive identified by Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1430) is called bare passive. Bare passives usually occur without a subject as in the following examples:

20. *All things considered, we’re lucky not to have been sued for a lot more.*

21. *My house wrecked by a tornado is something I don’t ever want to see.*

Hence English language does not provide with only one form of the passive (the *be*-passive), but passive can be formed with –got or could be idle all depending on the writer’s choice and writing style. While *be*-passives occur in most of the cases with a passive construction, *get*-passive mainly finds usage in sentences that the action is done accidentally or unknowingly. In the other hand bare-passives are, in theory, ungrammatical, but in practice people use them a lot.

2.6.4. Verbal passives and adjectival passives

The distinction between adjectival and adverbial passives has become a familiar one in generative studies. Some linguistics among them Bresnan (1982: 179) has suggested that all passive participles are in fact adjectives. Wasow (1977: 289) in the other hand was the first to distinguish systematically between two kinds of passives, one that exhibits adjectival properties—the adjectival passive—and one that exhibits verbal properties—the verbal passive. The process that
derives an adjectival passive participle from the base verb is usually assumed to effect the following changes:

a) Affixation of the passive morpheme -ed
b) Change of category: [+ V,-N] → [+ V,+N]

c) Suppression of the external role of the base verb
d) Externalization of an internal role of the base verb
e) Absorption of Case


According to Siegel (1973: 625-626) adjectival passive participle and verbal passive participle are morphologically the same (in English) and the semantic distinction between them is subtle, certain morphological and syntactic environments clearly distinguish between the two participles. The first diagnostic environment for adjectival passives is the morphological one. The prefix un- is a surface realisation of the same negative that underlines not-. Negative un- attaches to a fair number of participles, as in unopened, unshaved, unmarked, and untouched. In addition, negative attaches to adjectives- unfriendly, unhappy, - but not to verbs. Thus passive participles that are prefixed with un- are categorically adjectival and not verbal Siegel concludes. In English a number of verbs that select adjectival but not verbal complements maintain another context. Such verbs are seem, remain, sound, look. The third context is related to verbs’ modifiers. Only adjectives and not verbs may occur as prenominal modifiers. Thus any passive participle found in prenominal position is adjectival not verbal. Adjectival and verbal passives represent two types of passives that differ from one another. Among the most emphasized differences explained in the above are that adjectival passives can be distinguished from verbal passives as the first takes modifiers while the later does not. Furthermore, only adjectival passives can be prefixed with un- or be replaced with seem, look or remain, whereas these verbs cannot be applied with verbal passives.

2.6.5. Prepositional Passives

Prepositional passives are formed from prepositional verbs. Prepositional verbs consist of a lexical verb followed by a preposition.

22. Kim planted the tree. → The tree was planted by Kim.
23. *Kim looked after the tree. → The tree was looked after by Kim.
24. *Kim sat under the tree. → The tree was sat under by Kim.

As noted by Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1433), prepositional passives (PP) can be divided into two classes, depending on the syntactic function of the PP. In Type I prepositional passives, the PP is a complement whose prepositional head is idiomatically selected by the verb, as in (23); in Type II prepositional passives as in (24), the preposition is not part of a verbal idiom. The linguistic literature on prepositional passives confirms that the prepositional passive is much more restricted than the ordinary passive, which applies quite systematically to all transitive verbs, with a handful of lexical exceptions. Whether a given verb + PP combination will give rise to an acceptable prepositional passive depends on various, poorly understood syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic factors. Context, usage and frequency effects, and lexical idiosyncrasies also play a crucial role. Huddleston and Pullum further argue that a high degree of “cohesion” between the verb and the “stranded” preposition is a necessary condition for the well-formed prepositional passive.

Another thing that should be taken into consideration is the differentiation of prepositional verbs with regard to their concrete or abstract meaning. Quirk et al (1972: 655) emphasize that only abstract, figurative use of prepositional passives allows the passive formation.

25. The problem was gone into.

Thus the choice between two types of prepositional passives depends mainly from the function of prepositional phrase, hereupon whether is used idiomatically or not. Also in comparison with other types of passive, the prepositional passive is seldom used.

3. Verbs in Albanian language

Verb in Albanian language is rich in forms through which expresses different meanings such as diathesis (voice), manner, tense, and person.

3.1. Transitive and non-transitive verbs
Differently from other grammatical categories of verb (person, number, tense, mood) diathesis does not include all types of verbs. This way verbs that do not express some action but express state do not take diathesis, such verbs are: *jam* (to be), *kam* (to have), *di* (to know), *rrë* (to stay) etc. another group of verbs that cannot take objects are: *shkoj* (to leave), *eci* (to walk), *vrapoj* (to run), *udhëtoj* (to travel) etc. this group includes also verbs like *vdes* (to die), *bie* (to fall). This way depending on whether a verb takes a direct object or indirect object, verbs are divided into transitive and non-transitive (Topalli, 2011: 206-207).

Kostollari (1976: 100) claims that the direct object that the transitive verbstake is expressed by a noun or pronoun in accusative without preposition, e.g.: *hapdrëtaren* (open the window), *shkrualjëletër* (write a letter), *tejkalaljplanin* (surpass the plan) etc.

In the other hand, non-transitive verbs in Albanian language are those verbs that cannot take a direct object, such as: *dal* (go), *eci* (walk), *fle* (sleep), *rrë* (live), *vrapoj* (run) etc.

The definition of a transitive or non-transitive verb in most of the cases depends on its lexical meaning e.g.:

Transitive: Non-transitive

*E fjetamendjen* (“Put my mind to sleep”- I took a rest) *Fjetashumë* (Slept too much)

*Humbalësin* (Lost the key) *Humbanëgjumë* (Got lost in sleep)

*Kalojkalasën* (Pass the class) *Kalojrrugës* (Cross the road)

*Thërrashokët* (Call friends) *Thërras fort* (Outcry)

Memushaj (2014: 231) suggests that instead of using the terms transitivity or non-transitivity of the verbs to use the term valence of verbs. This term refers to verb’s ability to have a subject, direct or indirect object. This way if a verb cannot take any of the elements mentioned that verb is known as zero-valence verb; when the verb can take the subject only is known as one-valence verb; when it takes subject and direct object is known as two-valence verb and when it takes subject, direct and indirect object that verb is known as a three-valence verb.

Thus, transitivity and non-transitivity of verbs are two of the many classifications a verb can have. A transitive verb turns out to be always an action verb plus there must be an object to receive that action. By contrast, intransitive verbs do not require an object.

19
4. Diathesis in Albanian Language

Since the ancient times, diathesis has been analyzed in linguistic theories as a morphological category of the verb. Not all of the world’s languages share the same diathesis’s compartment. Thus, while most of the languages distinguish diathesis in two types: active and passive, it could be noticed that other languages mention active, passive and middle verbs.

Topalli (2011: 206-207) claims that the traditional Albanian papers define diathesis or voice as a morphological category that expresses relations between the verb (the traditional predicator) and the subject. There has been made a division between active and non-active voice. Non-active voice verbs are further divided into: passive, reflexive and middle voice.

Voice

```
Active  Non-active

Passive  Reflexive  Middle
```

Demiraj (2002: 270) provides the following definition of diathesis/voice: “Diathesis is a grammatical category, which expresses the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the subject (overt or implied) of the sentence. The relation between the subject and the predicator are morphologically expressed by two forms that oppose each-other, which are called the active form and then non-active form of the verb”.

The following examples show a clear distinction between active and passive voice in Albanian language:

27. *Mom washes the curtains twice a month.*
28. *The curtains are washed twice a month by mom.*
Two distinct conjugational paradigms, active vs. non-active voice are illustrated below for the simple present.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numri:</th>
<th>Veta:</th>
<th>Active (Veprore)</th>
<th>Non-Active (Jo-veprore)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unëthaj</td>
<td>I dry (stuff)’tha-h-em</td>
<td>‘I get/becomedry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NjejësThittha-n</td>
<td>tha-hesh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ai, Ajotha-n</td>
<td>tha-het</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Netha-jmëtha-hemi
ShumësJutha-nitha-heni
Ata, Atotha-jnëtha-hen

Kallulli (1996: 264) suggests that the above mentioned verbs are transformed from the active voice to the passive voice through endings.

Demiraj (2002: 271-272) claims that verb is in active diathesis when it has an active form and denotes an action that is done by the subject itself.

29. I closed the door and went upstairs running(Mbyllaportëndhe un ngjitashkallëvemvrap).

30. They turned their back to each other and were looking at Tirana (Ata i kthyenshpinnëjëritjetritdhepovështroninTiranën).

Each of the above mentioned examples has a subject that is preforming some kind of action, in this way they are expressed in active voice.

In the other hand verbs belonging to the passive voice have passive forms which denote actions that the subject of the sentence receives, whereas the agent could be linguistically expressed or not.

31. Some were killed and some were safe (Cau vranë e cashpëtuan).

32. When they pass this way again, they will get burn and will get broken(Prapëpëtëkalojnëkëtej, do tèdigjen e do tëthyhen).

Verbs that belong to the reflexive voice category have their passive forms and denote an action that the subject performs and receives as well. In relation to the reflexive voice category, there is a sub-classification where the subject of the sentence represents the person acting on itself, and
the verb is inherently reflexive, e.g. *krihem* (comb myself), *lahem* (wash myself), *vishem* (dress myself).

33. I would never mistake him for someone else, no matter that all were dressed similarly, with coveralls and boots” (Kurrës`mund ta ngatërrojaatë me ndonjëtjetër, sadoqëtëgjithë*ishinveshurnjësoj*, me kominoshedheqizme).

Verbs belonging to the middle (medium) voice are in passive form and denote an action performed by the subject. The medium voice category comprises a group of verbs which denote movement such as: *hidhem* (jump), *kthehem* (turn), *përpiqem* (try), *rrotullohem* (turn over).

34. When he received the news, he *tried to get up* and grab the weapons and gave orders to get his horse ready (Kurmorilajmin, *u pépoqtëngrihej* e têkaptearmëtdhedhaurdhërt`igatitninkalin).

Some verbs denoting physiological actions such as: *gëzohem* (rejoice) *hidhërohem* (grieve) *mërzitem* (get bored) *kollem* (cough) example and some verbs that denote changes in physical, physiological, psychological state of the subject, such as: *plakem* (get old), *rritem* (grow), *tkurrem* (shrink).

35. He was not *bored* by hearing events from the life of a man poured into the bronze (Ai nukmërzitej duke dëgjuarngjarjengajeta e njeriuttëderdhurnëbronx).

36. He *shrunk, clamped* and stretched his hands toward his wounds to stop the blood (*U tkurr, u mblodhkruspulldhezgjatiduartdrejtplagëvepërtëndaluargjakun*).

Kallulli (1999: 444) claims that Albanian language possesses a class of lexically non-active verbs, which are verbs that do not have active forms. Typically, rising verbs in Albanian are lexically non-active.

Non-active Active

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kreno-hem ‘I am proud’</th>
<th>→</th>
<th>* kreno-j</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>zoto-hem ‘I swear’</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>*zoto-j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pendo-hem ‘I regret’</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>*pendo-j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dergj-em ‘I linger’</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>*dergj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dridhto-hem ‘I shiver’</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>*drithto-j</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Topalli (2011: 201) claims that the category of diathesis has been notable since ancient times in the Indo-European languages where despite active voice, verbs had their special forms on
passive voice, too. While active voice was quite common, passive voice appeared later on. The latter differed from active voice because of the possession of different endings which were not the same for all languages of this family. In Albanian language the grammatical category of diathesis is formed through three different tools: helping verbs, endings and the clitic-\textit{u}. Each of the tools above mentioned conjugate according to verb’s mood, number, person, and tense. Verbs in present, imperfect, future and future perfect of indicative, subjunctive and conditional mood are conjugated with the following endings: \textit{em/hem}, \textit{esh/hesh}, \textit{et/het}, \textit{emi/hemi}, \textit{eni/heni}, \textit{en/hen}, \textit{esha/-hesha}, \textit{eshe/-heshe}, \textit{ej (-esh)/ -hej(-hesh)}, \textit{eshim/-heshit}, \textit{eshit/-heshit}, \textit{eshin/-heshin}. Some other verbs in present, imperfect, past, non-finite, and future perfect take the clitic-\textit{u} based on their corresponding moods. The helping verb \textit{–jam} conjugates all verbs in past and future tenses. In the following page there is a more detailed explanation for the three mentioned tools.

Albanian language provides the same grammatical rules as English language in formation of the passive. The subject (person or thing) is the doer of an action in a sentence, that sentence is in active voice. While the opposite the subject (person or thing) being a receiver of an action, that sentence is considered to be in passive voice.

4.1 Passive construction

According to Kostollari (1976: 170) passive construction is called this way because its base is a passive verb e.g.: “Tirana was \textit{liberated} on November 17\textsuperscript{th} 1944” (Tirana \textit{u çlirua} me 17 nëtor 1944) this example shows that the action in the sentence is not performed by the subject. A characteristic of these kinds of formations is that the doer is not mentioned for different reasons or because it is a well-known fact for the reader: “My old traces in the garden \textit{were covered}” (covered by the snow), (Gjurmët e mijatëvjetranëkopshthi
\textit{sinmbuluar}) or when the speaker does not know or does not want to tell who the doer is: “And the lamp of the corner was left broken and he could recall that it \textit{was broken} on the same day that Elsa left” (Dhellampa e qosheskishtembetur e thyerdheatij i kujtohejqëajo \textit{ishtethyero}
\textit{poatënatëqëqëkishtetikur Elsa}).

When the speaker wants to emphasize the doer, active construction is used: “Tirana was \textit{liberated} by national liberation army on November 17\textsuperscript{th} 1944” (Tiranë\textit{ñ e çliroiUshtriaNacionalÇlirimtaremë} 17 nëtor 1944).
Today’s written language, journals, technical and scientific literature mainly are formed with passive constructions whose subject is expressed with a noun or a pronoun with the preposition from and by, e.g.: “Years passed and this uncle was not recalled from mother at all” (Shkuanvitetdhekëxhaxhas’ukujtafare prejnënës). Kostallari further suggests that these sentences and others like those do not belong to the Albanian syntactic structure but they reflect the effect that foreign languages had on Albanian language. Albanian language favors active formation over the passive one and the latter example is more likely to be found in Albanian texts in the following active construction: “Years passed, and this uncle mother did not recalled at all” (Shkuanvitetdhekëtëxhaxhanëna se kujtoj fare).

Like wise its counterpart, Albanian passive voice includes the same rules in constructing the passive. It also shares the same characteristics with English passive when it comes to mentioning the agent in that particular sentence.

4.2 Passive conjugation

As mentioned earlier on this paper verbal forms of passive conjugation are mutual for passive, reflexive and middle voice in Albanian language. Topalli (2011: 208) claims that this conjugation is realized by employing three different linguistic means:

1. with special formants suffixed to the verbal stem (endings)
2. with the pre-verbal reflexiveclitic-\textit{u}
3. with the helping verb

4.2.1 Endings

Endings are the most useful tool through which passive voice in Albanian language is formed. Through endings the passive voice of present, imperfect, future and future perfect tense of indicative, subjunctive and conditional mood are formed.


Present tense of the verb \textit{hap} (open):
The same endings are used with passive conjugation of verbs in present and future tense in subjunctive mood e.g.: do tëlaj: të la-hem, të la-hesh etc.

Imperfect tense endings are: -esh/hesha, -eshe/heshe, -ej (esh)/hej(hesh), -eshim/heshit, -eshit/heshit, -eshin/heshin. Allomorphs with –h- (hesha, heshe etc.).

e.g.:

Numri Veta
hap (open)

Unë hap-esha
Ti hap-eshe
Njejës Ai, Aj hap-et
(hap-esh)
Ne hap-eshin
Shumës Ju hap-eshit
Ata, At hap-en

The same endings are used with passive conjugation of verbs in imperfect and future perfect in subjunctive mood e.g.: do tëlaja: të la-ja, të la-hesa, të la-heshe etc.

While English language uses past participle (-ed) for forming the passive, Albanian language forms the passive through different endings. These endings vary in form based on verb’s tense and mood.

4.2.2 The Clitic-u

With the clitic-u is formed the passive voice of verbs in past simple with the indicative mood, verbs in present and imperfect tense with the admiration mood, verbs in present tense
with optative and imperative mood, non-finite verbs of the type përtëlarë e me tëëlarë future form kampërtëlarë and also future perfect and present simple tense of conditional mood kishapërtëlarë.

With past simple the clitic-u is usually placed before the verb as in the following examples: u lava, u lave, u lamë, u latë, u lanë etc.

With the third person singular the clitic-u precedes verbs that end with ie.g.: (ai) hap-i: u hap.

Verbs ending with oor e, with an exception of the verb tëble-j other verbs ending with vowels: o or e change their vowels to ua or ye in passive voice e.g.: (ai) shkro-i: u shkrua, kthe-u: u kthye etc.

Other verbs ending with these consonants: l, ll, r, rr, as in vjel-vola, sjell-solla, nxjerr-nxorra, marr-mora in third person singular do not change their vowel o to ue e.g.: (ai) vol-i: u vol, soll-i: u solla etc.

While the above mentioned verbs in English language are transformed from the active voice to the passive voice by using be or get, Albanian language provides this transformation by a different tool respectively with the clitic –u.

4.2.3 Helping verb jam (to be)

Passive construction with the helping verb jam (to be) occurs with all the verbs in past tense which appear in active construction with the other helping verb kam (to have). In such cases the helping verb -jam conjugates according to its mood, number, person, and tense while it’s attached participle remains unchanged.

Passive construction with the helping verb jam occurs with past and future tenses with their forms in indicative mood e.g.: jam (je, është) larë; qeshë (qe) larë; do tëjem (do tëjesh, do tëjetë) larë etc. (Demiraj, 2002: 301-305).

While passive in English uses be- or get- with the past participle form of the verb, Albanian passive constructs through special formants suffixed to the verbal stem (endings), the ciltic –u and the helping verb –jam.

5. Voice usage
While active voice was considered for a long time as more common than passive in English language, nowadays passive voice in English is quite frequently used. The active and passive forms are not freely interchangeable. Therefore it’s not correct to equate the active with the passive as if one could be used freely or the other. Basically, the choice of form, active or passive, would depend on what the speaker/writer wishes to communicate. If the main intention is to say that it was Columbus who discovered America, the focus lays on Columbus and ‘Columbus’ becomes the subject of the sentence as illustrated below:

37. Columbus discovered America. (Active voice)

If, on the other hand, the focus lays on the discovery of America, the event of the discovery rather than the identity of the discoverer takes the initial position:

38. America was discovered by Columbus. (Passive voice)

As regards its use, some scholars, notably Orwell agree that the passive voice tends to be eliminated in written prose because it provokes the feeling of “confusion and wordiness”. Using the passive in prose may be a symptom of a poor style and is not approved, whereas the active is a symbol of the writer’s writing skills. In his essay ‘Politics and the English Language’ he proposed the principle ‘Never use passive where you can use the active.’ However as it has been pointed out, Orwell (like other commentators who opposed the passive) have ended up using it freely: for instance when in the same essay he says that in certain poor styles ‘the passive voice is whenever possible used in preference to the active’.

However, Webster dictionary of English usage (1989: 721), lists three situations in which the passive has generally been regarded as useful:

1. When the receiver of the action is more important than the doer, as in ‘The child was stuck by the car’.
2. When the doer is unknown as in ‘The store was robbed last night’, is too well known to require mention as in ‘The post was distributed on time’.
3. In scientific writing, because it helps establish a tone of detachment and impersonality.

McArthur (1992: 755) postulates that passive voice is used in contemporary English not only in comparison with Albanian language, but also in comparison with the earlier stages of English language itself: there is a growing tendency to make the person or thing spoken of the subject of the verb in the passive voice.
Some languages have a clear preference for the passive voice over the active voice. In some other languages both voices are equally well developed. Other languages still have no passive voice at all. On this issue, based on the descriptive analyses of this study it can be said that the default voice for Albanian and English is the active voice. Nevertheless, passive is much more used in English as compared to Albanian, particularly in scientific and technical English, where the very nature of the communication act involves drawing the reader’s attention to the bearer or patient of the action rather than the doer of the action.

6. Findings based on the Contrastive Analysis between English and Albanian Passive Voice

Although English and Albanian belong to the Indo-European family, still many similarities and differences have been found out. Based on the descriptive analysis of the examples that have been presented in the previous sections regarding passive voice, its formation, usage, resemblance and variation between the respective languages it turns out that:

- In both languages a special morphological marking appears on the verb. Same rules are applied for changing a verb from active to passive. The active clause that has an object is converted into the passive and the direct object of that active clause becomes the subject of the passive clause. The helping verb ‘to be’ and the main verb of the active voice change into the past participle form when turned into the passive.
- Both English and Albanian passive use the transitive verb for forming the passive. Also in both languages the standard of the verb whether transitive or non-transitive portrays the grammatical subject of the verb as preforming the act.
- While both of the languages use a prepositional phrase expressing the agent (“by the…”), the same rules are also used in omitting it in many of the cases. Thus, by-phrases in passive voice are optional for both of the languages.
- In English, as well as in Albanian, passive voice has the same function and meaning.
- The passive transformation is based in English language no less than Albanian language, on the use of the verb “to be” in the respective tense, mood and aspect, followed by the past participle of the main verb.
Differences:

- The passive voice is more frequently used in English language than in Albanian language.
- While English voice is divided into active and passive only, Albanian language is divided into: active, passive, middle and reflexive voice as well.
- As far as the passive word order in English is concerned, it follows the general fixed word formation, with the agent always appearing after the passive verb form. In the other hand Albanian language is described as a free word order language, with the agent appearing before and after the passive verb.

This diploma paper highlights active and passive voice meanings that are two different versions of expressing the same basic idea and the difference being only in the choice of the subject. It was found out that even though both, English and Albanian languages belong to Indo-European family of languages they still differ in some points. Each of them has got its own authenticity. Considering the grammatical category of voice a conclusion was reached that they share similarities but also differences. In addition this paper can be considered as a reference material for a deeper understanding of passive voice of both languages. The study of differences and similarities between various languages helps readers understand the necessary strategies to overcome the difficulties in learning foreign languages.

This paper provides evidence which partially support our hypothesis that passive voice in English share similar features with their Albanian counterparts considering the structure and the usage of the resulting grammatical category.

8. Conclusion
This diploma paper provides clear definitions of voice category for English and Albanian language. In both languages voice shares the same meaning and function. Thus, voice is a grammatical category that makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in two different ways without changes in the facts reported.

In this paper, a description of different types of passive was made with the results that have shown that some types of the passive appear in scientific text more frequently than in other texts. The attempt was to clarify a great deal of confusion in the literature on what a passive is, and what counts as a passive in English and Albanian languages. In consequence, passive voice in
English language is divided into different types as follow: short and long passive; di-transitive passive; be-passive, get-passive and bare passive; verbal passive and adjectival passive; prepositional passive. In Albanian language passive voice distinguishes only based on its tool of formation. The tools through which passive voice in Albanian is formed are: endings, the helping verb \textit{jam}, and the clitic \textit{–u}.

The active voice in both languages is more frequently used than the passive. However, there are a few cases in which passive voice is preferred over the active voice. The situations in which passive is used over active are: when the receiver of the action is more important than the doer, when the doer is unknown or too well-known to require mention, and in scientific writings, as it helps establish a tone of detachment and impersonality.

In this comparative study of English and Albanian passive voice a discussion of differences and similarities between structure and meaning was made. While these two languages share many things in common as stated in findings, the differences between them are inevitable. Although English and Albanian belong to the Indo-European family of languages, many common and distinctive points, both in terms of the usage and the construction can be numbered. The most emphasized similarities of the passive voice for both languages are:

- Both English and Albanian substitute the position of the subject with that of the object;
- Both languages use past participle in forming of the main verb in passive;
- Both languages only add “by phrase” when necessary;
- Both English and Albanian passive need to use the transitive verb.

The most emphasized differences between the passive voices for both of the languages are:

- Passive voice is used more in English than in Albanian;
- Albanian language has a middle and reflexive voice;
- Different from English, Albanian is described as a free word order language.

It can be concluded that the similarities between the languages taken in consideration are significantly greater than the differences, which makes the categories of voice in Albanian to be very close to that of English language.
References


