Relative Clauses: A Contrastive Analysis of Modern Standard Arabic and Turkish

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Relative Clauses: A Contrastive Analysis of Modern Standard Arabic and Turkish

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Abstract
This paper explores the differences and similarities between Turkish and Modern Standard Arabic in the area of Relative Clauses. Turkish is an agglutinative language. Its modals and auxiliaries are bound morphemes suffixed to the predicate, whereas relative pronouns in Modern Standard Arabic are used as separate words. Accordingly, the Turkish relative clause contains one of the following participle suffixes: -(y)an, -dik or (y) ecak corresponding to the following Modern Standard Arabic relative pronouns that are used as separate words: ʔallaði, ʔallaðaani , ʔallaðayni, ʔallaðiina, ʔallati, ʔallattaani ʔallatayni and ʔallaati or ʔallawaati. The paper also attempts to reveal some pedagogical implications which are helpful in teaching Arabic and Turkish as foreign languages.

Keywords: Relative clause in Arabic, Relative clause in Turkish, Contrastive analysis, Restrictive relative clause, non-restrictive relative clause.

الملخص:
هدفت هذه الدراسة التعرف إلى أوجه التشابه والاختلاف بين اللغة العربية الفصحى واللغة التركية في مجال الاسم الموصول (Relative Clauses). تعتبر اللغة التركية لغة التصاقية حيث تضاف لواحق الأفعال المساعدة وصيغ الأفعال (agglutinative language) والصفات والأسماء.

 لذلك يعد ضمير الصلة في اللغة التركية كملحق يضاف إلى الفعل (-(y) ecake, -dik, -(y)an)
بينما يستخدم ضمير الصلة منفصلاً في اللغة العربية: اللذي، اللذان، اللذين، اللتي، اللتين، اللاتي، اللواتي.
Introduction

The interest in contrastive linguistics originated in the US anthropological studies during the Second World War when an urgent need arose for English language teaching and research on immigrant bilingualism. After the Second World War, foreign language learning gained importance and contrastive analysis (CA, henceforth) became the landmark in teaching foreign languages.

Fries (1945:9) stresses the fact that "The most effective materials (for foreign language teaching) are those that are based on a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."

It must be noted that the CA hypothesis existed in strong and weak versions. These two versions are related to the notion of mother language interference. The strong version claims that all errors in target language can be predicted by identifying the differences between the learner's native language and the language being learned, but the weak version claims to have the power to diagnose errors in target language. Wardhaugh (1970:123) also asserts this and states that according to the strong version, all target language errors that occur can be predicted through isolating the differences between mother language and target language while according to the weak version only some of the errors can be identified through these differences. The basic level of the weak version is to use the best linguistic knowledge available to linguists to account for the observed difficulties in second language learning.

Brown (2000:208) points out that "the principal barrier to the second language system is the interference of the first language system with the second language system". James (1980) states that CA involves two steps:

1. Description, that is, a formal description of the language to be learned is made.
2. Comparison, which is concerned with the identification
of areas of differences and similarities, including "prediction" signaling which areas cause errors and difficulties. The Ottoman Turkish language is known today as Turkish. Modern Turkish is spoken by about 80 million people in the Republic of Turkey and by about 300,000 people in Northern Cyprus. Turkish belongs to the Ural-Altaic language family. It is written left-to-right. Its modals and auxiliaries are bound morphemes suffixed to the predicates (verbs/nouns/adjectives) which have final position. Suffixes add to the meaning of the word and/or mark its grammatical function.

Arabic is a Semitic language which is widely used in the Arab countries as a first language. Arabic is a diglossic language. It is divided into three major forms: Classical Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic, and colloquial. Khalil Arabic (2010: 4) divides Arabic into three major varieties. Classical Arabic which is the language of the holy Quran and accorded an elevated status in contrast with the colloquial dialects spoken in different countries of the Arab world. In addition to these two varieties, there is Modern Standard Arabic which is used in publications, media, and in academic institutions. Al-Saidat and Al-Momani (2010: 397) remark that modern standard Arabic is derived from classical Arabic. It is the language of literature, media, education, formal speech, etc. They also add that colloquial Arabic is a collective term for the spoken varieties of Arabic used throughout the Arab World, which differs from modern standard Arabic. It includes a number of national and regional varieties and constitutes the everyday spoken language. Modern standard Arabic has the same structure: lexicon and pronunciation but these elements vary locally as dialects. Dialects vary from one region to another and this is due to geographical continuum and sociolinguistic variables such as urban, rural and Bedouin.

The present paper focuses on the differences and similarities between Turkish and Modern Standard Arabic in the area of Relative Clauses which are used in grammatical description to characterize pronouns used to introduce a modifying adjectival clause within a noun phrase and by extension to the clause as a whole as the following examples show:
Modern standard Arabic:
raʔjtu ?albinta ?allati katabat ?aldarsa
saw +I+ the girl+ who + wrote +
the lesson
I saw the girl who wrote the
lesson
Turkish:
şiiri okuyan bayan /síiri oc:küjaŋ
baɛjaŋ/
poem+ read+ subject relative
(y)an+ woman.
The woman who reads the poem.
As the examples stated above
show, Turkish is an agglutinative
language. Its relative pronouns
are bound morphemes suffixed to
the verb, whereas Arabic relative
pronouns are used as free
function words.

**Sound Inventories of Arabic and Turkish**
The Turkish alphabet is listed as
follows: a, b, c, ç, d, e, f, g, ğ, h,
l, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, ö, p, r, s, ş, t,
u, ü, v, y, z. The punctuation
system is the same as that of the
English language. Moreover, the
Turkish alphabet contains 29
upppercase and 29 lowercase
letters.
The Standard Arabic
sounds are listed at the end of the
paper (see Appendix 2). Unlike
Turkish, Arabic is written from
right to left. The Arabic alphabet
contains twenty-eight letters.
Punctuation marks are also the
same as those of Turkish. Unlike
Turkish, however, Arabic has
one form for the letters while
Turkish has two forms
(upppercase and lowercase
letters). Turkish has a total of
twenty-one consonants, whereas
Arabic has twenty-eight ones.
Tables 1 and 2 display the
phonetic nature of consonants in
both languages.
Table 1: Turkish consonant phonemes (Adapted from Göksel and Kerslake, 2006: 3-6; see Appendix No.1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of articulation</th>
<th>Manner of Articulation</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Palato-alveolar</th>
<th>Alveopalatal</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stops VI</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricatives VI</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>γ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricates VI</td>
<td>tʃ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>dʒ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasals</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laterals</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximants</td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arabic has twenty-eight consonants and differs from Turkish consonants in terms of their place of articulation as table 2 displays:

Table 2: Arabic consonant Phonemes (Adapted from Khalil, 2010:12, for more information see appendix 2: Arabic consonants)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L</th>
<th>LD</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>Ph</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>k</td>
<td>q</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affr.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dʒ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fric.</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>δ, θ, s, z, $s^\prime$</td>
<td>$f^\prime$</td>
<td>x, γ</td>
<td>h, $\tilde{\eta}$</td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquids</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trill</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Key: L: labial; LD: labiodental; I: Interdental; D: Dental; A: Alveolar, P: Palatal; V: Velar; U: Uvular; Ph:Pharyngeal; G:Glottal; Affr.: Affricate; Fric: Fricative

Turkish has 8 vowels with two positions of tongue height; high and low as it is shown in table 3.

Table 3: Turkish vowel phonemes (Adapted from Göksel and Kerslake, 2006:9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Non-high(mid and low)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rounded</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Front</td>
<td>ü</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Back</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arabic has a triangular vowel system that consists of three pairs of short and long vowel phonemes as stated in table 4:

Table 4: Arabic vowels (Adapted from Khalil, 2010:20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>ii</td>
<td>aa</td>
<td>uu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vowel Harmony in Turkish

Vowel harmony is a phonological process which determines what vowel will appear in all but the first syllable of a word. If the vowels in the root are formed in the back of the mouth a/æ/, undotted i /ɛ/, o/ɔ:/, u /ʊ/ as in araba /æɾæbæ/ (car), we add – lar (plural suffix) to make arabalær (cars). If the vowels are made in the front of the mouth (e /ɛ/ , i /ɪ/ , ö /ɵʊ/ , ü /y/ ), we add – ler to ev / ev/ (house) to make evler (houses).
Likewise bankalar/ bänkælær/ (banks) but otobüsler / ɔːtɔːbysler / (buses). The Turkish language is an agglutinative language, which means that it attaches its grammatical information to the end of a root-word according to the vowel harmony rule. A suffix is sometimes preceded by a buffer letter such as "y" for smooth pronunciation. It is used between two vowels as follows:

\[ \text{Gitmeyiz /gıtmejız/} \]

Go + negative suffix (-me) + buffer sound (-y) + personal suffix stands for (we)(-iz)
(We do not go.)

As a result of vowel harmony, only the following sequences are permissible in native Turkish words:

- ‘a’ can only be followed by ‘a’ or ‘ı’
- Back Vowels
  - ‘ı’ can only be followed by ‘a’ or ‘ı’
  - ‘o’ can only be followed by ‘a’ or ‘u’
  - ‘u’ can only be followed by ‘a’ or ‘u’
- Front Vowels
  - ‘e’ can only be followed by ‘e’ or ‘i’
  - ‘i’ can only be followed by ‘e’ or ‘i’
  - ‘ö’ can only be followed by ‘e’ or ‘ü’

‘ü’ can only be followed by ‘e’ or ‘ü’
(Göksel and Kerslake, 2006:21)

**Relative Clauses in Turkish:**

Relative clauses are adjectival constructions that modify the noun phrase. The relative clause contains one of the participle suffixes - (y) an , - dik or (y) acak corresponding to the Arabic relative pronouns ʔallaði (masaline singular), ʔallaðaani (masculine dual- nom ), ʔallaðayni (masculine dual – acc/ gen), ʔallaðiina (masculine plural), ʔallati (feminine singular) , ʔallattaani (feminine dual/nom.) ʔallatayni (feminine dual-acc/gen) and ʔallaati or (ʔallawaati) (feminine plural).

Unlike Arabic, Turkish relative clauses precede the noun phrases they modify as the following example shows:

1- kitabı verdiğim öğrenci geldi / kitæbə verdimə öğrenciz geldi/ the book + give + relative pronoun (dik)(whome) +( personal suffix (-m) (I) + student + come +past suffix (di)

The student whom I gave the book came

As the example stated above, the relative clause (kitabı verdiğim) ( I gave the book ) precedes the noun phrase (öğrenci)(student ). If the suffix
is followed by a vowel, it will be transferred to – diğ /-diy/ 

Turkish relative clauses are divided into subject relatives and object relatives. Morphological marking of subject relatives is (– y) an / (-j) æn/ or ecek /ecek/ whereas morphological marking of object relatives is – dik /dık/. The (-an)/ æn/ relative clause suffix applied to the verb has two allomorphs (-an) / æn/ and (–en) /en/, whereas (-dik /dık/has four allomorphs (-dik,-dik,-duk,-dük). The – acak /ædʒæk/ has two allomorphs – acak /ædʒæk/ and ecek /edʒek/ as the following examples show:

A- an /æn/ (-en) /en/
1- geçen hafta beni görən adamlar. / getʃən hæftæ teledæ beni gøren ædæmlær / last +week +hotel+ in (-da)+ me+ see+ subject relative pronoun (-en) + man+ plural suffix –lar
The men who saw me in the hotel last week.
2- Başında şapka olan kız /bæʃændæ şæpkæ:λæn kæz/ head+ possessive suffix ( her) (-in)+on(-da) + hat + has +relative pronoun (-an)+ girl
The girl who has a hat on her head.

B- (-dik,-dik,-duk,dük). /k/ is transferred to ğ if the suffix is followed by a vowel.
1- kitabı verdiğim çocuk geldi / kÎtæbo verdiğim tʃο: dʒuk geldi/ book+ give+ relative pronoun ( -dik)+ personal suffix I (-im) + boy + come+ past suffix(- di)
The boy whom I gave the book to came.
2- okuduğum kitap çok güzel /ɔ:ku’duyum kɪtæp tʃɔ: k gyzel/ read+ relative pronoun –duk + personal suffix I ( - um) +book + very+ good
The book which I read was very good.
3- Dün gece karanlıktı gördüğünüz adam / dyn gedʒe kærænlktæ gɔrd yýynych ædæm/
last+ night+ dark+ in(-ta)+ see+ relative pronoun ( -dük)+ you- /nüz/+ man
The man whom you saw in the dark last night.
4- sana yazdığım mektubu bugün postaya attım / sænæ jæzdæɡɔm mektubu bugyn po:stæjæ ætæm/
you+ to(-a)+ write+ relative pronoun – dik + letter + today + post+ by(-a)+ send+ past suffix (–ti) + personal suffix I(-m)
I sent the letter which I wrote to you by post today.

C- acak (-ecek)
1- saat beşte kalkacak uçağa yetişebilirsin /sæet beʃte kælkædʒæk /Utʃæyæ jetʃebilirsin/
The man who will come to our house is twenty-four years old.

**Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Relative clauses in Turkish**

There are two types of relative clauses in terms of how they define the referent of the noun phrase. Such types are called restrictive (defining) and non-restrictive (non-defining) relative clauses.

**A- Restrictive Relative clauses in Turkish**

Restrictive relative clauses refer to the semantic relationship of a modifying structure to its accompanying head word. When used, restrictive clauses are recognized in the linguistic identity of the head which is dependent on the accompanying modification (Crystal, 1991:300) as the following example shows:

 yaprakları dökülen ağaçlar / yaprarın dökülen ağaçlar / leaf+ plural suffix(-lar) + lose+ relative pronoun(-en)+tree+ plural suffix (-lar) 

trees that lose their leaves

The relative clause in the sentence stated above limits the reference of tree, therefore; it is considered a restrictive one because it modifies the noun phrase (tree)

**B- Non-Restrictive Relative clause**

Unlike restrictive clauses, the non-restrictive relative clauses are those whose linguistic identity of the head is not based on a particular modification because it is inessential in as far as its former clauses are manipulated. For this reason, non-restrictive clauses, as their name suggests, are out of the restriction of the next modification (ibid) as the following example shows:

 kitabını alan öğrenci geldi / kitabını alan öğrenci geldi/ 

(Who took the book) adds extra
information to the referent (öğrenci) (student)

Gögsel and Kerslake (2006:389) state that “the typical usage of a relative clause with a participle suffix is restrictive as the following example shows:

sevdiğim ağaçlar /sevdimim ağaçlar/ like + participle suffix (-dik) + personal suffix (I) + tree + plural suffix (-lar)

The above sentence is more likely to be translated as “the tree (that) I like” rather than “the tree which I like so much.”

In the spoken language, a proper noun of a relative clause is not usually in need of identification as follows:

kenanın evleneceği Ayşe, İşte bu Ayşe /kenänin evlendüğün büyük ağac, İşte büyük ağac/ kenan+ possessive suffix (-in) + marry + relative pronoun (ecek) + Ayshe + this+ Ayshe

This is Ayshe that Kenan is going to marry (Gögsel and Kerslake, 2006:389)

In Turkish, the non-restrictive usage of relative clauses is common in the written language. The problem of ambiguity is raised at the stage of determining tense formation in Turkish relative clauses. For example, past and present tenses are marked by the same morpheme –

(y) an / (j) än/ within Turkish relative clauses. Accordingly, tense ambiguity is inevitable, as the following examples show:

1- Benim otele gelen bayan otuz bir yaşında / benım otele gelen bayanın otuz bir yaşında/my+ hotel+ to(-e)+ come+ relative pronoun(-en)(present) + lady+ thirty+ one+ old.

The woman who comes to my hotel is thirty-one years old (present)

2- Benim otele gelen bayan otuz bir yaşında / benım otele gelen bayanın otuz bir yaşında/The woman that came to my hotel is thirty-one years old (past)

The ambiguity is resolved by the context.

Relative clauses in Modern standard Arabic:
The relative clause is an adverbial subordinate clause which postmodifies the referent. The relative clause is considered as an independent adverbial clause linked to the antecedent noun by a relative pronoun. In Arabic, the relative pronoun agrees with the antecedent noun phrase in number, gender and case and with the resumptive pronoun in number and gender. The resumptive pronoun refers to an element or structure which repeats or recapitulates the
meaning of a prior element. Accordingly, we have eight different forms of the relative pronoun as the following table shows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number and case</th>
<th>Masc.</th>
<th>Fem.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td>ḥallaḏii</td>
<td>ṭallati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Du . Nom</td>
<td>ḥallaḏaani</td>
<td>ṭallataani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Du . Gen/Acc</td>
<td>ḥallaṯayni</td>
<td>ṭallatayni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>ḥallaḏiina</td>
<td>ṭallaati/ ṭalawaati/ ṭalaaʔi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following examples show the agreement with the antecedent noun phrase in number, gender and case

1- **Singular masculine**

řaahdtu ṭalaliba ḥallaḏii darasa ṭaldarsa
saw +the
student +who +studied +the lesson
I saw the student who studied the lesson.

2- **Singular feminine**

raʔaytu alfatata ṭallati darasat ṭaldarsa
saw + the girl +who + studied + the lesson
I saw the girl who studied the lesson.

3- **Dual nom. masculine**

ʔalwaladaani ḥallaḏaani kasaraa ḥalnaafidata
the boy + dual suffix (-an) + who + broke + the window
The two boys who broke the window.

4- **Dual nom. feminine**

raʔaytu ʔalfataataani ṭallaṭaani
kasarata ʔaltawilata
saw + the girl + dual nom. suffix (-ani) + who + broke + the table
I saw the two girls who broke the table.

5- **Dual gen/ acc. masculine**

ʔalwaladajni ḥallaḏajni kasara ṭalawilata
the boy + dual acc. masculine suffix (-ajni) + who + broke + the table
the two boys who broke the table

6- **Dual gen/ acc. feminine**

raʔajtu ʔalfataatajni ḥallaṭajni
kasarataa attawilata
saw + I + the girl + dual acc. feminine suffix (-ajni) + who + broke + the table
I saw the two girls who broke the table.

7- **Plural masculine**

ʔalʔawlaadu ḥallaḏiina kasaru attawilata
the boys + who + broke + the table
the boys who broke the table
8- plural feminine
ʔalbanatu ᵐʔallaaṭi or ᵐʔallawaṭi kasarna attawilata
The girls +who +broke +the +table
The girls who broke the table.

Types of relative clauses
Unlike Turkish, Arabic has two types of relative clauses based on the grammatical definiteness of the head noun phase:

1. Syndectic relative clause:
In a complex sentence with a syndectic relative clause, the head noun phrase must be definite and a relative pronoun is always present.
raʔajtu ᵐʔattaliba ᵐʔalaʤii kasara ᵐʔalnafiʤata.
saw + personal pronoun I (-tu) + definite article (?al) + student + who + broke + definite article (?al) + window
I saw the student who broke the window.
The relative pronoun ( ᵐʔalaʤii) (Who) which refers to the definite head noun phrase (ʔattaliba)(student) links the relative clause to the main clause.
Khalil (2010 :292) states that the relative pronoun may be used substantively as a head noun phrase. That is, the main clause has no head noun phrase. This is called headless relative clause as the following example shows:
ðahaba ᵐʔallaʤii darrastuhu went + relative pronoun (whom) + taught + object personal pronoun (him) (-hu)
The one whom I taught went.
(ʔalʤii darastahu ) is a headless relative clause in which the relative pronoun replaces the noun phrase position.

2. Asyndectic relative clause:
An asyndectic relative clause is used when the antecedent noun phrase is indefinite. The relative pronoun cannot be used and the resumptive pronoun cannot be deleted as follows:
qaraʔtu kitaban katabahu ᵐʔaliyyun.
read + personal pronoun (I) (-tu) + book + wrote + personal pronoun (he) (-hu) + Ali
I read a book (which was) written by Ali.
Hamdallah and Tushyeh (1998:141) state that the resumptive pronoun may be present or absent in some sentence as follows:
ʔl kitaabu ᵐʔalʤii qaraʔtu (hu)
the book +which +read +I + resumptive pronoun (optional)(-hu)
The book which I read
or
The book which I read (it)
The pronominal suffix it (-hu) is optional in the above sentence.

Comparison and contrast between Arabic and Turkish.
Turkish is a head final language where the modifier always precedes the modified. This feature affects the word order of the sentence which can be described as an SOV whereas modern standard Arabic is VSO. From the above discussion of relative clauses in modern standard Arabic and Turkish, we can conclude the following major points:

1. Unlike Arabic, Turkish relative clauses are pre-nominal, that is, the relative clause precedes the head noun of the noun phrase as the following example shows:
   
   her gün otelda gördüğüm kız / her gün otelda gördüğüm kız / her every+ day +hotel +see +relative pronoun (~dük)(whom)+personal suffix (I)(- üm) +girl  

   The girl whom I see at the hotel everyday

   Whereas the position of the relative clause is postnominal in Arabic, we use the clause after the head noun as the following example:

   ?alfataatu alati ?u?ahiduha kula jawm fii ?alfunduq  

   the girl +who +saw +implied pronoun (I) +every +day +in +the hotel  

   The girl whom I see at the hotel everyday


   Whereas in Turkish we use (~ecek, ~en , ~ dik) as suffixes attached to the verb as stated above regardless gender, number and case.

3. A major difference between Turkish and modern standard Arabic is the use of a personal pronoun in relative clauses. The pronoun is called resumptive pronoun (the returning pronoun) which agrees with the relativized noun phrase in number, gender and case. The resumptive pronoun appears when the relativized position is subject. When a headless relative clause has coordinate noun phrases, a returning pronoun appears as the following examples show:

   a. haraba ?ala?i huwa wa ?axi la yattafiqan  

   escape + relative pronoun (who) + resumptive pronoun (he) + and + my brother + never + agree.  

   The one whom my brother and he never agree.
b. Al darsa ʔalaðii hadˤartu mufiidun.
definite article (the) + lesson + relative pronoun (which) + attended + resumptive pronoun (it) (-u) + useful.
The lesson which I attended is useful.
Resumptive pronouns do not appear in Turkish.
4. Arabic relative clauses are more complicated than Turkish.
   Turkish has only three forms of relative pronouns, Arabic has eight forms which are inflected to number, gender and case.
5. Due to the fact that Turkish is an agglutinative language, relative clauses are indicated by affixation. Turkish relative pronouns are used as suffixes and they cannot be separated from the verbs like (-an) but Arabic relative pronouns are used as separate words like (ʔalaðii).

**General Pedagogical Implications**
Contrastive analysis is an essential part of language learning and teaching. Teachers should regard similarities and differences between two languages or more as signals of progress and diagnosis of problems. Accordingly, teachers, syllabi designers and test developers should make use of contrastive analysis studies to acquire new insights.
Turkish is classified as being one of head languages in which the head parameter is that principle used especially in relation to universal grammar which concerns the position of heads within phrases. It asserts that a language has the heads on the same side in all phrases. Thus, languages are categorized either as head-first languages where a verb in the verb phrase is to the left of the noun phrase as in English or head-last languages in which the heads appear on the right as in Japanese(Crystal, 1991:163).
This characteristic affects the word order of the sentence which can be described as an SOV where the verb is positioned at the end but Arabic is an VSO. Turkish is an agglutinative language. Its relative pronouns are used as suffixes and they cannot be separated from the verbs which have final position, but relative pronouns in Arabic are used as separate words.
Turkish learners face difficulties while learning relative clauses in Arabic because they suffix the Arabic relative pronouns.
Teachers of Turkish who teach Arab learners should place greater emphasis on the
differences between Arabic and Turkish in the area of relative clauses in order to avoid the problems which appear in learning Arabic. As Lado makes clear in Ellis “the teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students may know what the real problems are and can provide for teaching them, the origins of contrastive analysis, therefore, were pedagogic” (1985:23)

Relative clauses in Turkish are morphological because the suffixes of relative pronouns are added to the verb, whereas they are syntactic in Arabic because relative pronouns are added as separate words. Accordingly, teachers of Arabic for Turkish learners ought to focus on this issue. If there is a lack of knowledge on the form of relative clauses, the teacher should make a review and give examples.

Teachers of Arabic who teach Turkish should place greater emphasis on the areas of interference between Turkish and Arabic. They should be aware of mother language interference which hinders learning Turkish relative clauses. Turkish differs from Arabic in the sense that we can use resumptive pronoun in Arabic. Accordingly, Turkish learners produce such sentences ʔahbabtu ʔalджamiʔatu ʔallaati bunijat mabani liked +I (-tu) +the university +relative pronoun (which) +built +buildings in place of ʔahbabtu ʔalджamiʔatu ʔallaati bunijat mabaniha liked +I (-tu) +the university +relative pronoun (which) +built +buildings +resumptive pronoun (-ha) (its)

I liked the university whose buildings have been built.

Using different methods based on the distinction between two languages and creating solutions to the problems that students face while learning a language different from their mother tongue shape the classroom learning efficiently and affect the student’s positivity.

On the basis of the previously mentioned discussion, the researchers are recommended to conduct empirical studies on this issue by constructing two tests to be given to Turkish speakers learning Arabic as a foreign language and/or Arabic speakers learning Turkish as a foreign language with relative clauses as the focus of each test. The analysis of the results will be
helpful in foreign language learning.

**Conclusion**
Contrastive linguistics is concerned with comparing two or more languages for the purpose of identifying similarities and differences in areas of phonology, morphology, lexicography and syntax.

This paper has attempted to compare Turkish and Modern Standard Arabic in terms of describing the similarities and differences between them in the area of relative clauses. The paper has clarified the following major points:

1. Turkish is an agglutinative language. Its relative pronouns are used as bound morphemes suffixed to the verb whereas Modern Standard Arabic relative pronouns are used as separate words.

2. Turkish relative clauses contain one of these principal suffixes (-y) an, - dik or (y) - ecak corresponding to modern standard Arabic relative pronouns, which are \( \text{ʔallaði} \) (masculine singular), \( \text{ʔallaðaani} \) (masculine dual-nom), \( \text{ʔallaðayni} \) (masculine dual-acc./gen), \( \text{ʔallaðiina} \) (masculine plural), \( \text{ʔallaati} \) (feminine singular), \( \text{ʔallattaani} \) (feminine dual-nom) \( \text{ʔallatayni} \) (feminine, dual-acc., gen) and \( \text{ʔallaati} \) or \( \text{ʔallawaati} \) (feminine plural).

3. Unlike Turkish, the relative pronoun in Modern Standard Arabic is determined by gender, number and case.

4. Unlike Arabic, Turkish relative clauses are pre-nominal, that is the clause precedes the head noun whereas the Modern Standard Arabic is post-nominal, that is the relative clause is used after the head noun.

**References**


Fries, C. C.: *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, University of Michigan, Michigan, 1945.


Appendix 1
THE TURKISH ALPHABET AND WRITING CONVENTIONS
Adapted from Göksel and Kerslake (2006, p.xxii)

The list below provides a rough guide to the pronunciation of the 22 consonants and 8 vowels in Turkish.

**Letter** | **Pronunciation**
--- | ---
A, a | pronounced as *u* in ‘cup’
B, b | *b* as in ‘bit’
C, c | *j* as in ‘jam’
Ç, ç | *ch* as in ‘chip’
D, d | *d* as in ‘deep’
E, e | *e* as in ‘ten’
F, f | *f* as in ‘fit’ or ‘full’
G, g | *g* as in ‘get’ or ‘gull’
ğ | either lengthens the sound of the vowel preceding it or is silent between two vowels
H, h | *h* as in ‘hope’; pronounced also in word medial and final positions and sometimes silent between two vowels
I, i | pronounced as *a* in ‘among’, ‘alone’
İ | a shorter form of *ee* as in ‘beet’ or *i* as in ‘bit’
J, j | *s* as in ‘leisure’
K, k | *k* as in ‘kept’, ‘cure’ and ‘calf’
L, l | *l* as in ‘lamp’, ‘bull’ or ‘lurid’
M, m | *m* as in ‘milk’
N, n | *n* as in ‘no’
O, o | *o* as in ‘off’
Ö, ö | resembles the sound which is produced when *e* as in ‘bet’ is pronounced with the lips rounded, as in the German sound ‘ö’
P, p | *p* as in ‘pin’
R, r | produced with the tip of the tongue touching the alveolar
S, s | *s* as in ‘hiss’
Ş, ş | *sh* as in ‘sheep’
T, t | *t* as in ‘time’
U, u | *u* as in ‘cute’ or *put’
Ü, ü | resembles the sound which is produced when *i* as in ‘bit’ is pronounced with the lips rounded, as in the German sound ‘ü’
V, v | *v* as in ‘very’
Appendix 2

IPA Arabic Sounds (1996)

1. Consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Letter(s)</th>
<th>nearest English equivalent</th>
<th>Trans.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>ب</td>
<td>bee</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dˤ</td>
<td>ض</td>
<td>deed</td>
<td>ḍ, d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dʒ</td>
<td>[1] ج</td>
<td>joy/good/beige</td>
<td>ġ, j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dˤ</td>
<td>ظ</td>
<td>thus</td>
<td>ḏ, dh, z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>ف</td>
<td>(Northwest Africa ئ)</td>
<td>z, z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>[2] [4] گ</td>
<td>good (not DIN 31635 standard)</td>
<td>g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>ه</td>
<td>No equivalent</td>
<td>ḥ, h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>ی</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>ك</td>
<td>skin</td>
<td>k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>ل</td>
<td>leaf</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lˤ</td>
<td>In الله only</td>
<td>bell</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>م</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>ن</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>θ</td>
<td>[3] ث, ث, s</td>
<td>thing</td>
<td>т, th, s</td>
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2. Vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Narrow</th>
<th>Broad</th>
<th>Letter(s)</th>
<th>Nearest English Equivalent</th>
<th>Trans.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[13]</td>
<td>[13]</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>pat</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[6]</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>pan</td>
<td>ā, a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[6]</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>par</td>
<td>ā, a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[5]</td>
<td>ë</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>ah, a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[16]</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>pet</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[17]</td>
<td>ë</td>
<td>pay</td>
<td>ē, ei, ai, ēh, eh, eih, aih</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[18]</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>sit</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>see</td>
<td>ī, i, ee</td>
</tr>
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</table>
3. Marginal Sounds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Letter(s)</th>
<th>English Examples</th>
<th>Trans.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>ء⁰ [20]</td>
<td>spin</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tf</td>
<td>تش⁰ [20]</td>
<td>church</td>
<td>č, tsh, tch, ch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>ف⁰ [20]</td>
<td>vine</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z</td>
<td>ة⁰ [20] or ة⁰ [20]</td>
<td>beige</td>
<td>ż, j</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>