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, ʔallati, ʔallattaani ʔallatayni and ʔallati 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 الفصحي واللغة التركية في مجال الاسم الموصول (Relative Clauses). تعتبر اللغة التركية لغة التصاقية (agglutinative language) حيث تضاف لواحق الأفعال المساعدة وصيغ الأفعال إلى الأفعال 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: الالاتي، اللواتي، اللاني، اللاتين، اللائي، اللواتي، اللائي، اللائي.
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:
raʔjuʔalbintaʔallati katabatʔaldarsa
saw +I+ the girl+ who + wrote +
the lesson
I saw the girl who wrote the
esson

Turkish:
şiiri okuyan bayan /sûri ɔ:kujæn
bæjæn/
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
uppercase 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
(uppercase 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>Palatoalveolar</th>
<th>Alveopalatal</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stops</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricatives</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>𝟫</td>
<td>𝗮</td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricates</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>tʃ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vd</td>
<td>dʒ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasals</td>
<td></td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laterals</td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</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></td>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td>t, tˤ</td>
<td></td>
<td>d, dˤ</td>
<td></td>
<td>k</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affr.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dʒ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fric.</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>טייל, θ, θ, s, z, sˤ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x, γ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nasal | m | n | j
--- | --- | --- | ---
Glides | w | | |

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 /ə/, o/ ō: /, u / ū / as in araba / æræbæ/ (car), we add – lar (plural suffix) to make arabalär (cars). If the vowels are made in the front of the mouth (e /e /, i /ɪ /, ö / əʊ /, ü / ū /), we add – ler to ev / ev/ (house) to make evler (houses).
Likewise bankalar / bænkælær / (banks) but otobüsler / (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: Gitmeyiz / gitmejız / 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’
‘ı’ can only be followed by ‘e’ or ‘ı’
‘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 (masuline 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 verdim öğrenci geldi / kitæbə verdim ərendʒi 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 verdim) (I gave the book) precedes the noun phrase (öğrenci)(student). If the suffix
is followed by a vowel, it will be transferred to – diğ /-diɣ/.

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 /dik/.

The (-an)/æn/ relative clause suffix applied to the verb has two allomorphs (-an) /æn/ and (-en) /en/, whereas (-dik /dik/) has four allomorphs (-dik,-dık,-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 otelda beni görən adamlar. /getʃen hæftæ ðælædæ beni şoʊren 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 /bæʃəndæ şæpkæ ɔ:læn 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,-dık,-duk,dük). /k/ is transferred to ğ if the suffix is followed by a vowel.

1- kitabı verdim çocuł geldi / kɪtæbə verdiɣım ʃʃɔ: 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 /ʃ:kuðyʊm kɪtæp tʃɔ:k gyzel/ read+ relative pronoun –dük + personal suffix I (um) + book + very+ good
The book which I read was very good.
3- Dün gece karanlıkta gördüğünüz adam / dyn gedʒə kærænlktæ şoɚd yʃyɔyz 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 jæzådʒɪm mektubu bugyn pɔ:stæjæ ætəm/
you+ to(-a)+ write+ relative pronoun – dük + letter + today + post+ by(-a)+ send+ past suffix (–tɪ)+ 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 Utʃæɣæ jetʃebilirsin/
clock+ five+ at(-e) + fly+ relative pronoun (-acak)+ plane+ in (-a)+ arrive+ can(- bil)+ present suffix(- ir)+ personal suffix (you) (-sin)
you can arrive at the plane which flies at five o’clock.
2- Bizim eve gelecek olan adam yirmi dört yaşında / bizim eve gelediğimiz olan adamın yaşımı dört yaşındadır / our + house+ to (-e) come+ relative pronoun+ future suffix (-ecék) + Be+ man+ twenty four + old
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 / yaprakları dökülen ağaçları / leaves+ 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 öğrencisi geldi / kitabını alan öğrencisi geldi / book+ take+ relative pronoun(-an)+ student+ came+ past suffix(di)
The student who took the book came.
The relative clause (kitabını alan) (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 ağalar /sevdı̱yım æyağt[lar]/
like+ participle suffix (-dik)+personal suffix (I) +(- im) +
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, işte bu Ayşe /kenæn evlendʒeɪ il æjʃe, íʃte bu æjʃe/
kenan+ possessive suffix (-in) +
marry+ relative pronoun (ecek)+
Ayyshe + 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) æn/ within Turkish relative clauses. Accordingly, tense ambiguity is inevitable, as the following examples show:

1- Benim otele gelen bayan otuz bir yaşında / ben ñım ö:tele gelen bæjæn ö:tuz b trà jæʃfændæ /
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 / ben ñım ö:tele gelen bæjæn ö:tuz b trà jæʃfændæ
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 5: Relative pronouns in Arabic (Adapted from Al-Saidat and Al-Momani, 2010:226)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number and case</th>
<th>Masc.</th>
<th>Fem.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td>ʔallaʔii</td>
<td>ʔallati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Du . Nom</td>
<td>ʔallaʔaani</td>
<td>ʔallataani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Du . Gen/Acc</td>
<td>ʔallaʔayni</td>
<td>ʔallatayni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>ʔallaʔiina</td>
<td>ʔallaʔi/ ʔallawaʔi/ ʔallaʔi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**1- Singular masculine**

`saw+the student+who+studied+the lesson`  
I saw the student who studied the lesson.

**2- Singular feminine**

`saw+ the girl +who +studied +the lesson`  
I saw the girl who studied the lesson.

**3- Dual nom. masculine**

`the boy+dual suffix(-ani) +who +broke +the window`  
The two boys who broke the window.

**4- Dual nom. feminine**

`saw +I+the girl +dual acc. feminine suffix (-ajni ) +who + broke + the table`  
I saw the two girls who broke the table.

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

`the boy + dual acc. masculine suffix (-ajni) + who +broke + the table`  
The two boys who broke the table.

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

`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**

`the boys + who +broke +the table`  
The boys who broke the table.
8- plural feminine
ʔalbanatu ʔallaati or ʔallawaati
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 ʔattaliba ʔalaðii kasara
ʔalnafidata.
saw + personal pronoun I (-tu) +
definite article (ʔal) + student +
who + broke + definite article (ʔal) + window
I saw the student who broke the
window.
The relative pronoun ( ʔalaðii)
(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:
δahaba ʔallaðii darrastuhu

went + relative pronoun (whom)
+ taught + object personal
pronoun (him) (-hu)
The one whom I taught went.
(ʔalðii 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
ʔaliyyun.
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 ʔalðii 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 gyn ɔ:teldæ gördyym kɔz/ 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:

   ئ alfataatu ئ alati ئ ajahiduha kula jawm fii ئ alfundoq
   the girl +who +saw +implied pronoun (I) +every +day +in +the hotel
   The girl whom I see at the hotel everyday

2. The relative pronoun in Modern Standard Arabic is determined by gender, number and case. Accordingly, we have eight different shapes of the relative pronouns: ئ allaði, ئ allaðaani (؟allaðayni), ئ allaðiina, ئ allați, ئ allaattaani (؟allatayni) and ئ allaati or ئ allawati.

Whereas in Turkish we use (-cek, -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 ئ alaði huwa wa ئ 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) +
atended + 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
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

\[ \text{ahbabtu ?al} \text{d} \text{am} \text{i} \text{?atu ?allaati bunijat mabani liked +I (-tu) +the university +relative pronoun (which) +built +buildings in place of} \]

\[ \text{ahbabtu ?al} \text{d} \text{am} \text{i} \text{?atu ?allaati bunijat mabani} \text{ha} \text{ liked +I (-tu) +the university +relative pronoun (which) +built +buildings +resumptive pronoun (-ha) (its)} \]

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 ?allaði (masculine singular), ?allaðaani (masculine dual-nom), ?allaðayni (masculine dual-acc./gen) , ?allaðiina (masculine plural), , ?allaati (feminine singular), ?allattaani (feminine dual-nom) ?allatayni (feminine, dual-acc, gen) and ?allaati or ?allawaati (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**

Al-Saidat, Emad and Islam Al-Momani:


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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A, a</td>
<td>pronounced as ı in ‘cup’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B, b</td>
<td>pronounced as in ‘bit’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C, c</td>
<td>j as in ‘jam’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ç, ç</td>
<td>ch as in ‘chip’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D, d</td>
<td>d as in ‘deep’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E, e</td>
<td>e as in ‘ten’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F, f</td>
<td>f as in ‘fit’ or ‘full’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G, g</td>
<td>pronounced as ‘get’ or ‘gull’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ğ</td>
<td>either lengthens the sound of the vowel preceding it or is silent between two vowels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H, h</td>
<td>h as in ‘hope’; pronounced also in word medial and final positions and sometimes silent between two vowels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I, i</td>
<td>pronounced as a in ‘among’, ‘alone’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İ, i</td>
<td>a shorter form of ee as in ‘beet’ or i as in ‘bit’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J, j</td>
<td>s as in ‘leisure’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K, k</td>
<td>k as in ‘kept’, ‘cure’ and ‘calf’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L, l</td>
<td>l as in ‘lamp’, ‘bull’ or ‘lurid’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M, m</td>
<td>m as in ‘milk’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N, n</td>
<td>n as in ‘no’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O, o</td>
<td>o as in ‘off’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ö, ö</td>
<td>resembles the sound which is produced when e as in ‘bet’ is pronounced with the lips rounded, as in the German sound ‘ö’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P, p</td>
<td>p as in ‘pin’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R, r</td>
<td>produced with the tip of the tongue touching the alveolar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S, s</td>
<td>s as in ‘hiss’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ş, ş</td>
<td>sh as in ‘sheep’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T, t</td>
<td>t as in ‘time’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U, u</td>
<td>u as in ‘cute’ or ‘put’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ü, ü</td>
<td>resembles the sound which is produced when i as in ‘bit’ is pronounced with the lips rounded, as in the German sound ‘ü’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V, v</td>
<td>v as in ‘very’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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>dark</td>
<td>ᵃ, d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dʒ</td>
<td>ج</td>
<td>joy/good/beige</td>
<td>ǧ, j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ð</td>
<td>ذ</td>
<td>this</td>
<td>ḏ, ḍh, ḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ðˤ</td>
<td>ظ</td>
<td>thus</td>
<td>ẓ, z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>ف</td>
<td>fool</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g²</td>
<td>گ</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>گ (not DIN 31635 standard)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>ه</td>
<td>he</td>
<td>ḥ, h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>ي</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>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>ð</td>
<td>ث</td>
<td>thing</td>
<td>ḑ, th, s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>letter</td>
<td>description</td>
<td>nearest English equivalent</td>
<td>Trans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>scar</td>
<td>q, k</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>trilled like in Italian</td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trilled like in Italian</td>
<td>dark tap/trill (Egyptian Arabic)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>š</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>š, s</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>š</td>
<td>see</td>
<td>š, sh, ch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>stick</td>
<td>t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>star</td>
<td>t, t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ť</td>
<td>loch</td>
<td>ţ, kh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>between a light <em>go</em> and <em>ahold</em></td>
<td>g, gh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z</td>
<td>No equivalent</td>
<td>'، '، '؟</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z</td>
<td>uh-(؟)oh</td>
<td>'، '؟</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>narrow (MSA only)</th>
<th>broad</th>
<th>Letter(s)</th>
<th>nearest English equivalent</th>
<th>Trans.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| æ, æː             | a     | a, ى or 
| æː               | a:    | or ى | pat                        | a, a   |
| a                 | A     | a         | pan                        | a      |
| æ, æː             | æ:    | ى or ى | park                       | æ, a   |
| æː               | æ:    | ى         | par                        | ah, a  |
| e                 | A     | ى         | cut                        | e      |
| e, e:             | e:    | ى or ى | pet                        | ē, ei, ai, ēh, eh, eih, aih |
| e:                | e:    | ى or ى | pay                        |        |
| ï, ïː             | ï, ïː | ï or ï (in Egyptian Arabic) | sit                        | i      |
| ïː                | ïː    | ï or ï   | sit                        | ï, i, ee |
### 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>پ ۵[20]</td>
<td>spin</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tf</td>
<td>تش ۵[20]</td>
<td>church</td>
<td>č, tsh, tch, ch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>ف ۵[20]</td>
<td>vine</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ž</td>
<td>ژ ۵[20] or غ ۵[20]</td>
<td>beige</td>
<td>ž, j</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**o** [16]

**oː** [17]

( in Egyptian Arabic)

**o** [19]

U

**u**

**uː**

( in Egyptian Arabic)

more o

more ĕ, o

soot u, ou

soon ĕ, u, ou, oo