A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS
OF THE RELATIVES IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC

by

Majeed   Mashta

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IN THE   NAME   OF GOD

THE BENEFICENT

THE MERCIFUL

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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TRANSCRIPTION SYMBOLS[1]

<u>Consonants</u>:

    Stops:

        /b/   Voiced bilabial: /baab/ (door)

        /t/   Voiceless dental: /tuut/ (blackberries)

        /d/   Voiced dental: /duud/ (worms)

        /ṭ/   Voiceless dental velarized: /ṭaara/ (flew)

        /ḍ/   Voiced dental velarized: /madaa/ (passed)

        /d/   Voiceless velar: /samak/ (fish)

        /g/*   Voiced velar: /gaam/ (he stood up)

        /q/   Voiceless post-velar: /qaala/ (said)

        /?/   Voiceless glottal: /maa?/ (water)

    Fricatives:

        /f/   Voiceless labio-dental: /fiil/ (elephant)

        /θ/   Voiceless inter-dental: /θulθ/ (one third)

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[1]This system is adapted from Raja Nasr, <u>The Teaching of English to Arab Students</u> (London: Longmans, Green and Co. Ltd., 1963).

    The examples given here are from Classical Arabic, except those for 'g' and 'c̃' which come from Colloquial Arabic.

*It exists in Colloquial Arabic only.

/d̪/	Voiced inter-dental: /d̪anab/ (tail)
/d̪̣/	Voiced velarized inter-dental: /d̪̣anna/
	(he thought)
/s/	Voiceless alveolar: /suus/ (licorice)
/z/	Voiced alveolar: /zayt/ (oil)
/ṣ/	Voiceless alveopalatal pharyngealized: /ṣiin/
	(China)
/š̄/	Voiceless alveopalatal: /kašafa/ (he
	uncovered)
/x/	Voiceless velar: /xawx/ (plums)
/g/	Voiced velar: /ganam/ (sheep)
/ḥ/	Voiceless pharyngeal: /saaḥil/ (coast)
/9/	Voiced pharyngeal: /ma9ii/ (with me)
/h/	Voiceless glottal: /rahana/ (he mortgaged)

Affricates:

| /c̄/* | Voiceless palatal: /c̄aan/ (was) |
| /j/ | Voiced palatal: /jama9a/ (gathered) |

Nasals:

| /m/ | Voiced bilabial: /samaa?/ (sky) |
| /n/ | Voiced alveolar: /?anaa/ (I) |

Laterals:

/l/   Voiced alveolar: /ʔalam/ (pain)

Flaps:

/r/   Voiced alveolar: /kasara/ (he broke)

Continuants:

/w/   Voiced nonsyllabic bilabial: /lawaa/ (he bent)

/y/   Voiced nonsyllabic palatal: /bayaan/

(statement)

Vowels:

/i/   High front short unrounded: /min/ (from)

/ii/   High front long unrounded: /fiil/ (elephant)

/ee/   Mid front long unrounded: /ween/ (where)

/a/   Mid central short unrounded: /man/ (who)

/aa/   Mid central long unrounded: /maa/ (which)

/oo/   Mid back long rounded: /soot/ (voice)

/u/   High back short rounded: /kun/ (be)

/uu/   High back long rounded: /suuq/ (market)

ABSTRACT

This study is a contrastive analysis of the relatives in English and Arabic - Arabic with its two forms: Classical and Colloquial. By Colloquial Arabic is meant here the dialect of Hilla, Iraq.

The study has a three-fold purpose:

1. To determine the similarities and differences between the relatives in English and Arabic.

2. To predict the points of interference that will arise in teaching the English relatives to Arabic-speaking students.

3. To prepare a model lesson plan for teaching the English relatives to Arabic-speaking students.

The study consists of six chapters. Chapter One is an introduction. Chapter Two sets up the criterion for defining the relatives in English and Arabic. Chapter Three describes the relatives in English and Arabic with examples. Chapter Four presents a contrastive analysis

of the relatives in English and Arabic. A modified transformational approach is adopted for this analysis. Chapter Five gives the results of the contrastive analysis. Chapter Six suggests a model lesson plan for teaching the English relatives to Arabic-speaking students.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It is axiomatic in modern linguistics that a scientific comparison of the target language and the native language of the learner will furnish a basis for better description of the problems that will arise in foreign language learning. Such a comparison would help teachers and textbook writers to predict the mistakes their students will make, to understand the cause of these mistakes, and to be more able to prepare corrective drills that are based on the assumption that "points of diversity constitute a greater learning problem, and, hence, merit greater attention than points of contact."[1]

With respect to syntax, however, such a comparison can be carried out in more than one way. The

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[1]David Foster, "A Model for Drilling Some Points of Grammar," Language Learning, XV, No. 1, (1965), p. 7.

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immediate constituent analysis is perhaps the most
well-known approach. In both languages under study,
sentences and structures are divided into smaller
immediate constituents relevant to the analysis. A
second approach, which is rather complementary to the
immediate constituent analysis, is Lado's: the two
structures are compared, pattern by pattern, in terms
of form, meaning and distribution.[2] A third approach
however, and a much more recent one , is the transforma-
tional approach which has rejected the above two ap-
proaches categorically, and has proposed a new technique
that would account for relations between sentences and
the derivation of certain structures from others.[3] This
transformational approach assumes that "learning should
commence at the sentence level,"[4] and that the sentences
in the native and the target languages should be com-
pared on the basis of transformational equivalence.[5]

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[2]Robert Lado, _Linguistics Across Cultures_(Ann
Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1964), pp. 51-74.

[3]Noam Chomsky, _Syntactic Structures_ (The Hague;
Mouton & Co., 1964), p. 6.

[4]William Dingwall, "Transformational Generative
Grammar and Contrastive Analysis," _Language Learning_
XIV, No.3 and 4, (1964), p. 152.

[5]_Ibid._

It is for this reason, therefore, that the transformational approach has been adopted in this study. Relatives and the sentences in which relatives occur will be analyzed, not by taking them as whole entities by themselves, but only by considering the process through which they are derived from other sentences.

By adopting this approach, the study will compare the relatives in English with the relatives in Classical and Colloquial Arabic. The reason for taking into account both Classical and Colloquial Arabic is that it has been shown that in teaching the English grammatical patterns to Arabic-speaking students, the interference comes from both Classical and Colloquial Arabic.[6]

Throughout this study, the following terms are used:

Relative Sentence: A relative sentence is a sentence that includes at least one relative.

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[6]In her "Study of the Interference of Classical and Colloquial Arabic as a Cause of Written Grammatical Mistakes in English" (unpublished Master's dissertation, American University of Beirut, 1966), K. El-Witri found out that 11.1% of these mistakes are caused by the interference of Classical Arabic and that 10.96% of the mistakes are caused by the interference of Colloquial Arabic. The difference was not significant.

<u>Clause</u>: A clause is that part of the sentence that consists of a subject and a predicate, and that has its own syntactical function within a larger pattern. The underlined structures are all clauses:

English: I know the boy <u>who wrote the letter</u>.

Classical Arabic: /?anaa ?a9rifu lwalada <u>lladii kataba rrisaala</u>/

Colloquial Arabic: /?aani ?a9rifi lwaladi <u>llii kitabi rrisaala</u>/

With respect to English, the predicate of a clause may have its verb in the form of an infinitive:

The problem is <u>where to start</u>.

With respect to Arabic, the predicate of a clause may have its verb in the form Ø. This applies to the verbs in the present tense only:

Classical Arabic: /?anaa laa ?a9rifu <u>man hunaak</u>/

Colloquial Arabic: /?aani maa ?a9rif <u>minu hnaak</u>/

A clause may function either as a noun clause, an adjectival clause, or an adverbial clause.

English: Noun Clause: Subject: <u>Whoever comes</u> is welcome.

Object : He said <u>that he was ready</u>.

Subject Complement: He wasn't <u>what you expected him to be</u>.

Adjectival Clause: I went to the place <u>where the</u>
<u>accident happened.</u>

Adverbial Clause :   I met him <u>where the accident</u>
<u>happened.</u>

Classical Arabic: Noun Clause: Subject: /jaa?a <u>man kataba</u>
<u>rrisaala/</u>

Object :   /ra?aytu <u>man kataba</u>
<u>rrisaala/</u>

Subject Complement:/haadaa
<u>lladii kataba</u>
<u>rrisaala/</u>

Genitive: /haadaa kitaabu <u>man</u>
<u>kataba rrisaala/</u>

Vocative: /yaa <u>man kataba</u>
<u>rrisaala/</u>

Adjectival Clause: /ra?aytu rrajula
<u>lladii kataba rrisaala/</u>

Adverbial Clause :   /ra?aytu rrajula
<u>ba9da ?an kataba</u>
<u>rrisaala/</u>

Colloquial Arabic: Noun Clause: Subject: /?ija <u>llii kitabi</u>
<u>rrisaala/</u>

Object :   /?aani šifti <u>llii</u>
<u>kitabi rrisaala/</u>

Subject Complement: /haadaa
llii kitabi rrisaala/

Genitive: /haada ktaabi llii
kitabi rrisaala/

Vocative: /ya llii ktabiti
rrisaala/

Adjectival Clause: /?aani šifti rrajjaali
llii kitabi rrisaala/

Adverbial Clause : /?aani šifti rrajjaal
wara maa kitabi
rrisaala/

Phrase: A phrase is that part of the sentence that has
its own syntactical function within a larger
pattern.

A phrase does not consist of a subject plus predicate
construction as a clause does. A phrase may be either
a noun, an adjective, an adverb, or a verb phrase. It
may consist of one or more words. The underlined struc-
tures are all phrases:

English: I went to school.
Classical Arabic: /?anaa dahabtu ?ila lmadrassa/
Colloquial Arabic: /?aani riḥit li-lmadrassa/

CHAPTER II

WHAT A RELATIVE IS[1]

The purpose of this chapter is to define the relatives in the three languages under study - English, Classical Arabic and Colloquial Arabic. In order to do this, a number of definitions of the relatives in English and Classical Arabic are examined and discussed. Since no definition for the relatives in Colloquial Arabic could be cited in the literature reviewed, the writer will provide a workable definition based on his own dialect of Hilla, Iraq.

What a Relative in English Is

For the present study, the various definitions collected from different grammar books will be divided into two sets: those definitions that are based, or partially based, on semantic criteria, and those definitions that are based on structural criteria.

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[1]The word 'relative' is used in this study to cover both the English relative pronoun and the Arabic ?ismu lmawsuul.

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1- The first set of definitions includes those definitions that are established mainly in terms of meaning.

To begin with, Thomson and Martinet have defined relatives as follows: "Relative pronouns describe the preceding noun in such a way as to distinguish it from other nouns of the same class."[2]

The term "other nouns of the same class" here can be interpreted in two ways. If it meant all the other nouns expressed in the sentence, then this statement is certainly not true, since the "preceding noun", in the following sentence, for example, may be the only noun in the sentence.

Where is the boy who just came in?

If by "other nouns of the same class" is meant all other nouns of the same class whether expressed or not in the sentence, then again this statement is not true. In such a sentence as,

John, who had a bad tooth, went to the dentist.

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[2]A. Thomson and A. Martinet, _A Practical English Grammar for Foreign Students_ (London: Oxford University Press, 1965), p. 37.

the preceding noun is a proper noun and does not need to be distinguished by a relative clause. The relative clause here "who had a bad tooth" adds to the meaning of the antecedent, but it does not define it, and, consequently, it does not distinguish it from other nouns.

The following definition, however, does not rely on meaning as much as the previous one: "Relative pronouns are helpful in joining statements that would otherwise have to be written in separate babyish sentences."[3]

Relatives, then 'join' statements. But the definition here does not tell us what kind of connection relatives make. The conjunction 'and' for example, in a sentence like:

She sat in the room and ate her food.

does join two "statements that would otherwise have to be written [perhaps!] in separate babyish sentences," and yet, it is not a relative. The definition, besides, indicates that relatives join statements only. As the definition reads, both the parts of the sentence should always be statements. This, in fact, is true for the

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[3]C. Addington, English Grammar for High Schools (Beirut: Khayats, 1958), p. 115.

joined clause only, but not for the main clause. In the
following two sentences, for example, the main clause is
a command and an interrogative respectively:

Give me the book which is on the table.
Where is the book which I bought yesterday?

A definition of the relatives, then, should be
more specific in defining, at least, the kind of connec-
tion a relative performs: "These [the relatives] are
genuine conjunctions in that they link the clause in
which they stand to the principal proposition."[4]

The definition, here, does not tell what the
term 'genuine conjunctions' means. As for the second
part of the definition, it does not help differentiate
relatives from many other non-relatives. The word 'although',
for instance, in a sentence like:

He went out although it was raining.

does "link the clause in which it stands to the prin-
cipal proposition," and yet, it is not a relative.

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[4]George Curme, Parts of Speech and Accidence (Boston:
D.C. Health & Company, 1935), p. 57.

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Relatives, therefore, should not be identified
with conjunctions. They, in fact, have other functions
in addition to those of conjunctions. "The relatives
are clause-linking, pronoun-like elements relating back
to an antecedent term in the utterance."[5]

A relative, according to Strang, therefore,
functions not only as a conjunction but also as a pro-
noun. It functions as a pronoun does in that it refers to
an antecedent in the sentence. But the definition, however,
does not tell what form the antecedent should be.

In the following two definitions, then, the form
of the antecedent will be a bit specified: "Relatives
are said to relate the clauses in which they occur to
the words that these clauses modify."[6] And similarly:
"The relative pronoun is a kind of joining word, and yet
at the same time it does the work of an ordinary pronoun
like 'he', 'him', etc. It refers to a word."[7]

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[5]Barbara Strang, Modern English Structure (London:
Edward Arnold Ltd., 1965), p. 104.

[6]L. Myers, Guide to American English (New York:
Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955), p. 199.

[7]P. Tregidgo, Practical English Usage (London:
Longmans, Green and Co. Ltd., 1959), p. 210.

According to these two definitions, an antecedent
should be a word. But none of them, however, shows what
kind of word an antecedent should be. This word, the
antecedent, should be a noun only, according to some
grammarians. Tipping says: "The relative pronoun is
really two parts of speech in one; it stands for a noun,
and it also joins two parts of a sentence together. It
does the work of a pronoun and of a conjunction."[8] Similar-
ly, Callihan holds that, "a relative pronoun connects
(relates) a dependent clause to an antecedent (noun) in
another clause."[9]

In other words, the relative clause is not
related to the whole "principal proposition," as Curme
states, but just to a specific word only. This word,
according to Tipping and Callihan, can be a noun only.

A better definition of the relatives would, at
least, be expanded enough as to include as well those
relatives occurring with antecedents that are not nouns.

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[8]Lewelyn Tipping, Marticulation English Grammar
(London: Macmillan and Co. Ltd., 1959), p. 125.

[9]E. Callihan, Grammar for Journalists (New York:
The Ronald Press Company, 1957), p. 39.

The relative pronouns serve at the same time
as pronouns, referring to words, and as lin-
king-words relating one thought to another.
A relative pronoun, therefore, carries the
attention back to a noun or a pronoun in
the main clause. This noun or pronoun is
the antecedent.[10]

And similarly:

A relative pronoun is a pronoun that begins
a subordinate adjective clause and is related
to a noun or a pronoun already mentioned or
understood. The word to which the relative
pronoun is related is its antecedent.[11]

Others have used the term 'substantive' to

stand for both noun and pronoun: "Relative pronouns

connect dependent clauses with main clauses by refer-

ring directly to a substansive in the main clause. This

substansive is the antecedent of the relative."[12]

Thus, the last three definitions have had

room for both noun and pronoun antecedents; but the noun

and the pronoun are certainly not the only possible forms

of an antecedent. In the following sentence, for example,

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[10]Alfred Sheffield, Command of Sentence-Patterns
(Chicago: Scott, Freshman and Company, 1929), p. 115.

[11]John Warriner, and Griffith Francis, English
Grammar and Composition (New York: Harcourt, Brace
& World, 1965), p. 65.

[12]George Kittredge and Frank Farley, An Advanced
English Grammar (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1913), p. 66.

the antecedent is a noun phrase:

> John and Henry, who are still in Iraq,
> visited Babylon.

A much more important objection to these defi-
nitions, in fact to all definitions quoted so far, is
that they all have defined relatives in terms of their
meaning and their antecedents. The result is that:

A. The relatives that may occur without antece-
dents have been excluded.

B. There are no clear-cut lines between relatives
and non-relatives.

The following set of definitions, therefore,
will be based on more formal criteria than these semantic
ones.

2- The second set includes those definitions that
are based on structural criteria. It includes
those definitions that are established by consider-
ing both the syntactical function of the relative
within the clause it introduces and also the
syntactical function of the clause itself within
the whole sentence.

Paul Roberts, for example, has defined the relatives as follows: "[Words] occurring in place of the nouns or ;..... in place of a determiner."[13]

Thus, according to Roberts, relatives do not link clauses as simply as conjunctions do. Whereas a conjunction stands outside the two clauses it links, a relative interacts within the clause it links to the main one.

This definition, however, applies only to those relatives occurring in place of a noun or a determiner, but not to those replacing noun phrases or adverbs. Moreover, the definition does not tell what kind of clause relatives introduce.

The following definition given by Rogovin, then, will partially take care of these two points: "A relative pronoun is a pronoun which replaces a noun phrase in a subordinate clause."[14]

The term 'noun phrase' here is wider in its scope than Roberts' 'noun', since it includes, according

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[13]Paul Roberts, English Sentences (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1962), p. 74.

[14]Rogovin, Modern English Sentence Structure (New York: Random House, Inc., 1964), p. 296.

to Rogovin himself, both one-word phrases and more-than-one-word phrases. But a noun phrase, however, is not the only element a relative can replace. A relative may replace an adjective[15] or an adverb as well.

The main thing one can learn from the last two definitions is that a word, in order to be a relative, would have to replace an element in the sentence. This feature, however, is sometimes the only factor that distinguishes relatives from non-relatives. In the following pair of sentences, for example:

We arrived at a time when he was very busy.
I told him that I was busy.

The word 'when' is a relative, since, in addition to other requirements, it has replaced something in the clause it introduces. In the second sentence, the word 'that' is not a relative, since it hasn't replaced anything in the clause it introduces.

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[15]The underlined phrases in the following sentences are considered adjectives:
His car is new.
The teacher's car is new.

Another objection to Rogovin's definition, however, may be that a clause becomes subordinate only after a phrase in it has been replaced by a relative. In other words, the definition would have perhaps sounded more appropriate if it had been worded in the following way: A relative pronoun is a pronoun which replaces a phrase in a clause and, thus, makes it a subordinate clause.

Such a definition would, in fact, be in line with that given by Roberts: "Relatives take what would otherwise be a complete sentence and subordinate it to a larger pattern."[16]

Another definition, provided by Francis, goes deeper and specifies the exact functions a relative may occupy within the clause it introduces: "A relative pronoun not only acts as a function word introducing the clauses but also has a structural function within the clause. It may be subject, complement, object or modifier."[17]

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[16]Paul Roberts, Patterns of English (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World Inc., 1956), p. 92.

[17]Nelson Francis, The Structure of American English (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958), p. 393.

All the last four definitions are, in fact, good ones, except for three things only. First of all, a better definition would show the specific syntactical positions relative clauses could possibly occupy. This point, however, is especially important and should be clearly stated in any acceptable definition, since this feature, the syntactical position of the whole clause, is sometimes the only factor that distinguishes relatives from non-relatives. As an example of this, the following pair of sentences may be compared:

> We arrived at a day when he was very busy.
> Everybody stood up when he left.

In both the sentences, the word 'when' replaces the same part of speech (adverb); yet it is a relative in the first sentence and not a relative in the second sentence. This is only because the whole clause the word 'when' introduces is an adjectival clause in the first sentence and an adverbial clause in the second sentence. An adjectival clause is a possible syntactical function of relative clauses in English, whereas an adverbial clause is not,[18]

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[18] Paul Roberts, English Syntax, alternate edition (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1964), p. 270.

The second point to be mentioned is that a better definition should state that a relative replaces an element in clauses that are in the form of statement only. No clauses in the interrogative, command, or exclamation forms, therefore, can be relative clauses.

The third thing, though not as important as the first two, is that the relationship between the syntactical function of the relative and that of the phrase it replaces should be defined.

Probably a more acceptable definition of the relatives in English will be the following one:

A relative is a function word that:

A. Replaces a phrase in a clause that is in the form of statement only.

B. Has the same syntactical function of the phrase it replaces.

C. Introduces the clause in which it replaces a phrase (except when a preposition precedes it in that clause).

D. Subordinates the clause it introduces to a larger pattern in which this clause functions either as a noun clause or as an adjectival clause.

Now according to this definition, the word 'whoever' in:

Whoever comes is welcome.

is a relative since:

1. It replaces a phrase in the clause it introduces.

2. It takes the same syntactical function of the phrase it replaces. (It is the subject of the verb 'comes'.)

3. It introduces a clause in the form of statement (whoever comes).

4. It subordinates the clause it introduces (whoever comes) to a larger pattern (whoever comes is welcome), in which this clause functions as a noun clause. (It is the subject of the verb 'is'.)

What a Relative in Classical Arabic Is

A typical definition of the relatives in Classical Arabic may be the following one: "A relative is what requires after it a sentence that would be called its

'sila' [relative clause] ."[20]

A relative, therefore, is a function word —
it has no meaning by itself; and it has to be followed
by a clause or, as it is traditionally called, a sentence.

The definition by now, is, of course, too vague;
and one still needs some information in order to set up
a criterion to distinguish relatives from other function
words.

The following definition, then, will say some-
thing on the nature of the clause (or sentence) that
follows relatives: "A relative is what requires after it
a sentence in the form of statement. . . ."[21]

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[20]This definitions is given by at least the
following grammarians:

Rashiid Ash-Shartuuni, Mabaadi'u al-'Arabiyya
fi-s-Sarfi wa n-Nahwi (Beirut: Catholic Press), p. 136.

Musa Sulaymaan and Alfred Khuuri, Lugatii al-'Arabiyya.
(Beirut: Daaru l-Kitaabi al-Labnaani), p. 75.

Mustafa al-Galaayiini, Jaami'u ad-Diruusi al-'Arabiyya.
(Sayda: Al-'Asriyya Press, 1962), p. 130.

Mahdi Muter, Diraasaat fii Qawa'idi l-Luga l-'Arabiyya
(Najaf: Al-Aadaab Press), p. 44.

[21]Muhammad al-Biitaar, Al-Muufii fi n-Nahwi l-Kuufi
(Damascus: Al-Majma'u l-'Ilmi l-'Arabi), p. 97.

A relative clause, therefore, can be in the form of statement only. But this still does not help us distinguish relatives from other function words that are also followed by statement only. In the following two sentences, for example:

/?anaa ra?aytu l?awlaada θindamaa jaa?uu/
(I saw the boys when they came).

and,

/?anna ra?aytu l?awlaada lladiina jaa?uu/
(I saw the boys who came).

both '9indamaa' and '?alladiina' are followed (and always followed) by statements and yet, '?alladiina' is a relative, and '9indamaa' is not.

One of the differences between these two sentences, however, is that the word '?alladiina' is followed somewhere in its clause by a pronominal suffix that agrees with it and with its antecedent in gender, case and number. This agreement is illustrated in the following examples:

/?anaa ra?aytu lwalada	lladii	jaa?<u>a</u>/
lwaladayni	lla~~d~~ayni	jaa?<u>aa</u>/
l?awlaada	llad̲iina	jaa?<u>uu</u>/
lbinta	llatii	jaa?<u>at</u>/
lbintayni	llatayni	jaa?<u>ataa</u>/
lbanaati	llawaatii	ji?na/

Because of this agreement, this pronominal suffix
has been used by some as a clue to distinguish relatives
from other function words.

A relative is what requires after it a sentence
that includes a pronominal suffix that agrees with its
antecedent in number, gender, and case.[22]

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[22]This definition is given by at least the
following grammarians:

M. Abdul-Hamiid, Sharhu 1-Ashmuuni p. 66.

G. Attiyya, Salamu 1-Lisaan p. 135.

P. Al-Bustaani, Miftaahu 1-Misbaah fi n-Nahwi
wa s-Sarfi Beirut: The American Press, 1895), p. 188.

Adiib Hiidmus, Naylu 1-Arab fii Usuul Lugati
1-'Arab (Beirut: Al-Thabaat Press), p. 13.

But a definition like this cannot be accepted, though widely used, as a good criterion. The reasons are that:

A. A relative is not always followed by a pro-nominal suffix that agrees with its antecedent. Example:

/?ayna lkitaabu lladii ?iśtarayta/

(Where is the book which you bought?).

B. A relative may not be preceded by any antecedent at all.

/?a9tinii maa 9indaka/

(Give me what you have).

All the definitions quoted so far are, in fact, unreliable, since they all have defined relatives in terms of what follows them and what they refer to. A more efficient way of defining the relatives, may be tried by considering the syntactical function of the relatives in the clauses they introduce and also the syntactical function of the clauses themselves in the whole sentence.

The definition given by Frayha, for example, is somehow more functional than the previous ones:

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This [pronoun] the relative not only stands for
a noun but also links the first part of the sentence to
the second part.[23]

In respect to the reference to a noun, it has been
already shown that relatives may not be preceded by any
noun at all. As for the linking of the two parts of a
sentence, a better definition than this would tell what
parts of a sentence relatives link, and what the dif-
ference between relatives and other linking words is.

Finally, a more appropriate definition of the
relatives in Classical Arabic may be the following one
which will not rely on any semantic considerations:

A relative is a function word that:

A. Replaces a phrase in a clause that is in the form
of statement only.

B. Has the same syntactical function of the phrase
it replaces.

---

[23]Aniis Frayha, Tabsiit Qawaa'idi l-Luga L-'arabiyya
(1959), p. 199.

C. Introduces the clause in which it replaces
a phrase (except when a preposition precedes
it in its clause.)

D. Subordinates the clause it introduces to a larger
pattern in which this clause functions either as
a noun clause or as an adjectival clause.

In addition to these four features, a relative
sometimes requires a pronominal suffix in its place when
it is shifted to the beginning of its clause.

The definition will allow us to reject the tradi-
tional way of analyzing relative clauses. According to
traditional grammar, a sentence like

/ra?aytu man kallamtahum/

is analyzed as follows:

ra?aa-	verb
-tu	subject of ra?aa
man	relative, object of ra?aa
kallama-	verb
-ta	subject of kallama
-hum	object of kallama
kallamtahum	relative clause, no syntactical function.

According to the present definition, however, this
sentence will be analyzed as follows:

ra?aa-	verb
-tu	subject of ra?aa
man	relative, object of kallama
kallama-	verb
-ta	subject of kallama
-hum	appositive of man
man kallamtahum	relative clause, object of ra?aa

Such an analysis will be justified for the following reasons:

1- If a one-word object is to be put after 'ra?aa', this one-word object would replace 'man kallamtahum' and not 'man' only.

2- The gender of the relatives (here 'man' vs. 'maa') is determined by the inner structure of their clauses and not by the outer structure.

The only problem this new analysis engenders is with respect to '?alladii' in its dual form, where case is determined by its outer structure. But, nevertheless, this exceptional case does not dominate the whole system.

The present definition, however, will allow us to consider the word '?ayna' in

/?anaa laa ?a9rifu ?ayna dahaba lwaladu/

(I do not know where the boy went).

a relative, since,

1. It replaces a phrase in the clause it introduces.

2. It has the same syntactical function of the phrase it replaces. (It is an adverb).

3. It introduces a clause in the form of statement (/ʔayna ḏahaba lwaladu/).

4. It subordinates the clause it introduces to a larger pattern in which this clause functions as a noun clause. (object of ʔa9rifu).

On the other hand, the definition will exclude from the list of relatives three elements which have been recognized by such grammarians as Al-Bustaani,[24] Abdul-Hamiid,[25] Fwatiya,[26] Hamiid,[27] Hasan,[28] Ash-Shartuuni,[29] and

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[24] P. Al-Bustaani, op. cit., p. 183.

[25] M. Abdul-Hamiid, Sharh lbni 'Aqiil (Cairo: The Commercial Bookshop), pp. 130-135.

[26] Jubran Fwatiya, At-Tarfa sh-Shahiyya fii Tahsiil al-Qawa'idi as-Sarfiyya (Beirut: Jad'un Press, 1911), p. 184.

[27] B. Hamiid, Lugatu l-A'raab (Cairo: Daaru l-Ma'rifa), pp. 24-32.

[28] Abbaas Hasan, An-Nahwu l-Waafi Cairo: Daaru l-Ma'rifa), p. 264.

[29] Rashiid Ash-Shartuuni, op. cit., p. 136.

Muter.[30]   These three elements are: '?al', 'ḏaa' and 'ḏuu'.

Examples:

> /jaa?a ḏuu ?intasara/
>
> (The one who won has come).
>
> /maaḏaa fa9alta/
>
> (What did you do?)
>
> /jaa?a lmadruubu/
>
> (The one who was beaten has come).

The reason why 'ḏuu' has been excluded though it fits in the present definition is that it is completely out of use today, and that, even in the past, it had been used in a specific dialect of Classical Arabic only - the dialect of Bany Tay.

As for the word 'ḏaa', it has been considered by these grammarians a relative occurring after the interrogatives 'man' and 'maa' only. Thus, in a sentence like:

> /maaḏaa fa9alta/

'maa' is considered an interrogative: 'ḏaa' a relative;

---

[30]Mahdi Mutar, op. cit., pp. 41-45.

'daa fa9alta' a relative clause.

In the present study, however, this analysis will be completely rejected, and the structure 'daa' will be considered a part of the interrogative 'maadaa', rather than a part of 'daa fa9alta'. This will be done for the following reasons:

A. The structure 'daa' may occur without the following element, but it cannot occur without 'maa'. Thus we may say 'maadaa' by itself, but we cannot say 'daa fa9alta' without 'maa'.

B. On the basis of what is stated in A., the utterance 'daa fa9alta' is not a clause, and, accordingly, 'daa' is not a relative.

A third element that has been often considered a relative is the prefix '?al'. It has been considered a relative occurring before words in the subjective case, objective case, or plain attribute only.

Examples:

Subjective case: /jaa?a ddaaribu/
(The one who has beaten - another - has come).

Objective case :   /jaa?a lmadruubu/
(The one who was beaten has come).

Plain attribute: /jaa?a lhasanu lwajhi/

(The one whose face is
beautiful has come).

Thus, in a sentence like:

/haraba lwaladu/

(The boy ran away).

the prefix is, of course, a definite article. But in a
sentence like:

/haraba lqaatilu/

(The murderer ran away).

the prefix '?al' is considered by many grammarians a
relative. It is considered a relative on the assumption
that the sentence:

/haraba lqaatilu/

means the same thing as

/haraba lladii qatala/

(The one who had murdered –
somebody – ran away.)

This prefix '?al', however, will not be recognized
here as a relative for the following reasons:

A. A construction should not be analyzed through what
it means.

B. A relative, by definition, is supposed to
    introduce a clause, whereas the prefix '?al' in
    such a sentence as:

                        /haraba lqaatilu ?axaahu/
                        (The one who killed his
                        brother has run away).

is related to the word 'qaatilu' only and not to
the whole clause 'qaatilu axaahu'. In other words,
the presence or absence of the prefix '?al' is
determined by the kind of word that follows it
immediately, and not by the whole clause that
follows it. Thus, to say either

                        /haraba lqaatilu ?axaahu/

or

                        /haraba qaatilun ?axaahu/

depends on whether the word 'qaatil', and not the
whole clause, is definite or not.

C. In such sentences as:

                        /marartu bi lqaatili ?axaahu/
                        (I passed by the one who had
                        killed his brother).

the word 'lqaatili' is in the genitive case. It
is the object of the preposition 'bi'. If the
prefix '?al' were really a relative, the preposi-
tion 'bi' would not have gone beyond it and inflect-
ed the noun that follows it. The preposition would
have had, as its object, either the prefix '?al'
only, or the clause 'lqaatilu ?axaahu' as a whole.

What a Relative in Colloquial Arabic Is

A relative in Colloquial Arabic may be defined
as follows:

A relative is a function word or a prefix that:

A. Replaces a phrase in a clause that is in the
   form of statement only.

B. Has the same syntactical function of the phrase
   it replaces.

C. Introduces the clause in which it replaces a
   phrase (except when a preposition precedes it
   in this clause).

D. Subordinates the clause it introduces to a larger
   pattern in which this clause functions either as
   a noun clause or as an adjectival clause.

Now according to this definition, the word
'?illii' in the following sentence is a relative:

/lwaladi llii ḫaaċaak huwwa ?axuuya/
(The boy who spoke with you is my
brother.)

It is considered a relative because:

1. It replaces a phrase in the clause it introduces.

2. It has the same syntactical function of the phrase
it replaces. (It is the subject of haaċa.)

3. It introduces a clause in the form of statement
(llii haacaak).

4. It subordinates the clause it introduces (llii
haacaak) to a larger pattern in which this clause
functions as an adjectival clause.

The definition here will allow us to include more
than one element in the list of relatives, although it has
been stated by Afif Bulos that "in Colloquial Arabic there
is only one form for ?ismu'l-mawsul, namely /?illi/, /halli/,
or /yalli/, depending on the dialect."[31]

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[31]Afif Bulos, "?ismu'l-Mawsul in Classical Arabic
and the Relative Pronouns in English: A Contrastive Study,"
Language Learning, X (1960), p. 48.

The definition will have room for some other elements like the prefix '?il', which has been established by Erwin[32] and McCarthy and Raffouli.[33] Example:

> /lwaladi lhaačaak huwwa ?axuuya/
>
> (The boy who spoke with you is my
>
> brother).

A third element has been also recognized at least by McCarthy and Raffouli,[34] and O'Leary.[35] This element is 'maa':

> /ntiini kul maa 9indak/
>
> (Give me all that you have).

Both of these elements '?il' and 'maa' will fit, of course, in the definition established here, and, hence, both of them are added to '?illi' as relatives.

In the present study, however, eight more

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[32]Wallace Erwin, <u>A Short Reference Grammar of Iraqi Arabic</u> (Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1963), p. 379.

[33]R. McCarthy and Faraj Raffouli, <u>Spoken Arabic of Baghdad</u> (Beirut: Librairie Orientale, 1964), p. 344.

[34]<u>Ibid.</u>

[35]De Lacy O'leary, <u>Colloquial Arabic</u> (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd.), p. 61.

elements are added to '?illii', '?il', and 'maa'. These
eight elements are: 'man', 'minu', 's̄inu', 's̄-', 'ween',
's̄wekit', 's̄loon', and 'lyees̄'. All these elements are
thought to behave, as relatives, in the same way as
'?illii', '?il' and 'maa' do.

<p align="center">*   *   *</p>

Throughout this chapter an attempt has been made
to set up three workable definitions for the relatives in
English, Classical Arabic, and Colloquial Arabic.

In all these three definitions, it has been
stated, first, that a relative is a function word. (In
Colloquial Arabic it is sometimes a prefix.) The second
point was that a relative replaces, and consequently,
has the same syntactical function of, a phrase in a clause.
Such a clause has to be in the form of statement only.
This, however, does not mean that the whole pattern with-
in which the relative clause interacts is always in the
form of statement also. The third point was that a rela-
tive introduces its clause (except when a preposition
precedes it). Fourthly, a relative subordinates the
clause it introduces to a larger pattern (usually a sen-
tence), in which this clause functions either as a noun
clause or as an adjectival clause.

These four features are hoped to be the common criterion that distinguishes relatives from other function words in these three languages. With respect to English, this criterion is more or less similar to those set by Francis, Roberts and some others. As for Arabic, this criterion may sound rather strikingly different, since it will:

1. Exclude from the list of the relatives in Classical Arabic three elements that have been recognized by almost all grammarians (?al, ɖuu, ɖaa).

2. Add to the relatives in Classical Arabic four elements that, perhaps, have not been established by any (?ayna, matáa, kayfa, limaaɖaa).

3. Add to the relatives in Colloquial Arabic eight elements that, perhaps, have not been recognized by anybody (man, minu, s̄inu, s̄-, ween, s̄wekit, s̄loon, lyees̄).

This, however, may give the impression that the writer is forcing English grammatical rules on the Arabic language. This, in fact, is not true. It simply means that the linguistic study of Arabic grammar, even modern Arabic grammar, has not yet undergone the same stages of development that English grammar has had.

CHAPTER III

THE RELATIVES IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC

According to the definitions established in the previous chapter, the relatives that will be recognized in this study will be the following ones:

The Relative in English:

1.	who:	Do you know who she is?
2.	whom:	This is the boy whom I met yesterday.
3.	whose:	This is the boy whose book I borrowed.
4.	which:	This is the book which I mentioned.
5.	that:	This is the book that I mentioned.
6.	Ø :	This is the book I mentioned.
7.	what:	I gave him what he found.
8.	as:	This is the same book as yours.
9.	where:	Do you know where they met?
10.	when:	Do you know when they met?
11.	how:	Do you know how he came?

12.   Why: Do you know why he came?

13.   whoever: Give it to whoever comes first.

14.   whomever: Give it to whomever you meet·

15.   whosever: Give it to whosever clothes are torn.

16.   whichever: Give it to whichever needs it.

17.   whatever: I will give him whatever he wants.

The Relative in Classical Arabic:

1.   ?alladii   with its eight forms:

      ?alladii: singular masculine

      ?allatii: singular feminine

      ?alladaani: dual masculine, nominative case

      ?alladayni: dual masculine, accusative and
                    genitive cases

      ?allataani: dual feminine, nominative case

      ?allatayni: dual feminine, accusative and
                    genitive cases

      ?alladiina: plural masculine

      ?allawaati or ?allaa?ii or ?allaatii: plural
                    feminine

Examples:

/jaa?a   lwaladu   lladii   kataba   rrisaala/

/jaaʔat   lbintu   llatii   katabati   rrisaala/
/jaaʔa   lwaladaani lladaani   katabaa   rrisaala/
/jaaʔat   lbintaani   llataani   katabataa   rrisaala/
/jaaʔa   lʔawlaadu   lladiina   katabu   rrisaala/
/jaaʔati   lbanaatu   llawaatii   katabna   rrisaala/

2. man   /jaaʔa man kataba rrisaala/
             (The one who wrote the letter has
             come.)

3. maa   /ʔa9ṭini maa 9indaka/
             (Give me what you have.)

4. ʔayna   /ʔanaa laa ʔa9rifu ʔayna dahaba lwaladu/
             (I do not know where the boy went.)

5. mataa   /ʔanaa laa ʔa9rifu mataa dahaba
             lwaladu/
             (I do not know when the boy went.)

6. kayfa   /ʔanaa laa ʔa9rifu kayfa dahaba
             lwaladu/
             (I do not know how the boy went.)

7. limaadaa /ʔanaa laa ʔa9rifu limaadaa dahaba
             lwaladu/
             (I do not know why the boy went.)

The Relatives in Colloquial Arabic:

1. ?illii   /lwaladi llii kitabi rrisaala ?ija/
                (The boy who wrote the letter has come.)

2. ?il-   /lwaladi lkitabi rrisaala ?ija/
                (The boy who wrote the letter has
                come.)

3. man   /ntiiha ?il man ma triid/
                (Give it to whomever you like.)

4. maa   /ntiini kul maa 9indak/
                (Give me all that you have.)

5. minu   /?aani maa ?a9rif minu hnaak/
                (I do not know who is there.)

6. šinu   /?aani maa ?a9rif šinʊ hnaak/
                (I do not know what is there.)

7. š-   /?aani maa ?a9rif šttaak/
                (I do not know what he gave you.)

8. ween   /?aani maa ?a9rif ween raah lwalad/
                (I do not know where the boy went.)

9. šwekit   /?aani maa ?a9rif šwekit raahi lwalad/
                (I do not know when the boy went.)

10. šloon   /?aani maa ?a9rif šloon raahi lwalad/
                (I do not know how the boy went.)

11.   <u>lyeeš</u>   /ʔaani maa ʔa9rif lyeeš raaḥi lwalad/

(I do not know why the boy went.)

These three lists show that a relative may occur
in the form ∅ in English but not in Arabic. This is
because in English a relative is sometimes deleted optional-
ly: This is the boy whom I met yesterday. ----) This is
the boy I met yesterday.

In the following examples, however, some of the
main features of the relatives in English and Arabic will
be described:

1. Both in English and Arabic, some of the relatives
   occur sometimes in free variation.

Examples:

English:

                          who

I know the boy whom you visited
                        that
                        ∅

                     which

This is the car that Jack bought.
                     ∅

                     whoever

You may give it to   you like.
                    whomever

when

The morning that I arrived, John left
for Iraq.   ∅

Classical Arabic: /ra?aytu $\frac{\text{lladii}}{\text{man}}$ kataba rrisaala/

(I saw   the one   who wrote the letter.)

Colloquial Arabic: /?aani s̄ifti lwaladi $\frac{\text{llii}}{\text{l}}$ kitabi

rrisaala/

(I saw the boy who wrote the letter.)

/?aani maa ?a9rif $\frac{\text{s̄inu}}{\text{s-}}$ 9indak/

(I do not know what you have.)

2. On the other hand, some relatives always occur in
complementary distribution:

	Replacing Adverb of:			
	Place	Time	Manner	Reason
English:	where	when	how	why
Classical Arabic:	?ayna	mataa	kayfa	limaadaa
Colloquial Arabic:	ween	s̄wekit	s̄loon	lyees̄

Other relatives may also stand in complementary dis-
tribution, but not always:

	Referring to:	
	Animate	Inanimate
English	who(-ever), whom(-ever), whose(-ever)	which(-ever), what(-ever)
Classical Arabic	man	maa
Colloquial Arabic	man, minu	maa, s̄inu, s̄-

3. With respect to Arabic, the first two phonemes of the following relatives are optionally deleted:

Classical Arabic	?alladii
Colloquial Arabic	?illii, ?il-

(See examples under 1.)

4. In respect to Colloquial Arabic, the form of the relative '?il' is assimilated to the immediately following phoneme, if this phoneme is a 'sun' sound. The 'sun' sounds in Colloquial Arabic are:

$$/t/, /d/, /ṭ/, /ḍ/, /c̄/, /j/,$$
$$/ø/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /ṣ/, /ḍ/,$$
$$/s̄/, /n/, /r/.$$

Examples: /haada huwwa lwaladi lc̄aan hnaak/----)
/haada huwwa lwaladi c̄c̄aan hnaak/

CHAPTER IV

A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE

RELATIVES IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC

The purpose of this chapter is to set the rules
that will generate the major English relative sentences
and their Arabic counterparts.

For the English part, the study will be largely
based on Lees',[1] Roberts',[2] and Gleason's[3] systems.
For the Arabic part, not even a single reference was,
unfortunately, available.

Whether in English or in Arabic, a relative
sentence can only be derived from a pair of sentences
in the following three steps:

1. In one of the two sentences ("the choice is gram-
   matically free, though of course sometimes one
   choice produces an undesirable sentence"[4]), a

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[1] Robert Lees, The Grammar of English Nominaliza-
tion (The Hague: Mouton & Co., 1960)

[2] Roberts, English Syntax, alternate edition.
(New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1964)

[3] H. A. Gleason, Linguistics and English Grammar
(New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965)

[4] Ibid., p. 337.

phrase in replaced by an appropriate relative.

2. The relative is shifted to the beginning of this
sentence (now a clause), if it is not already
there. (However, when a relative functions as
object of a preposition, this preposition is
sometimes put in front of the relative.)

3. This new clause is inserted within the other sentence.

In addition to these three steps, relative sen-
tences sometimes undergo some other changes so as to form
other types of relative sentences.

Accordingly, the present chapter will be divided
into two parts: the first part will deal with the
"kernel" relative sentences only; the second part with
the relative sentences that are derived from relative
sentences described in the first part.

Throughout this analysis, the following symbols
are used:

T	:	transformational rule
Eng	:	English
Cla	:	Classical Arabic
Col	:	Colloquial Arabic
R	:	relative
R S	:	relative sentence

R C	:	relative clause
N	:	noun
V	:	verb
P S	:	pronominal suffix
Adj	:	adjective
Adv	:	adverb
Prep	:	preposition
D A	:	definite article
N P	:	noun phrase
N Cl	:	noun clause
Adj Cl	:	adjectival clause
Rest Cl	:	restrictive clause
Nonrest Cl	:	nonrestrictive clause
Subj	:	subject
Obj	:	object
Subj Comp	:	subjective complement
Gen	:	genitive
Z, Y, X	:	anything that may or may not occur in the sentence
( )	:	occurrence optional
N P R C A	:	No parallel relative construction in Arabic.

The examples in Arabic will mostly have the same meaning as their English counterparts; otherwise, they would be translated into English.

Part A: Simple Relative Clauses

A R Cl can be either a N Cl or an Adj Cl. A N Cl̄
functions within the whole sentence either as Subj, Obj,
or Subj Comp.[5]   An Adj Cl functions, as its name implies,
as Adj only.

Both N Cl's and Adj Cl's are produced basically
in the same way - a R replaces a phrase in one of the
two sentences, then this R is shifted to the beginning
of this sentence, if it is not already there.   The two
kinds of clauses, however, differ in where to insert
each of them.   An Adj Cl is inserted, within the other
sentence, after a phrase that is equivalent to (or
refers to the same entity as) the phrase replaced by
the R.[6]   The phrase after which the clause is inserted,
is either definite or nondefinite in English; however,
it is always definite in Classical Arabic, and usually

[5]With respect to Arabic, relative clauses may
have other functions as vocative. The present analysis
will exclude these cases not only because they do not
exist in English, but also because they all operate,
in Arabic, in the same way as noun clauses functioning
as objects do.

[6]In this study the following items are considered
equivalents: the men, they, them, their, theirs.
the place, to the place.
a time, at that time.
the reason, for this reason.

definite in Colloquial Arabic. On the other hand, a N Cl
is not just added, but it replaces a N P in the other
sentence. The N P replaced by the whole clause is,
of course, NOT identical with the phrase replaced by
the R.

This part will, therefore, cover the following:

1. Description of the rules that produce simple
   N Cl's.

2. Description of the rules that produce simple
   Adj Cl's.

Description of the Rules that Produce Simple Noun Clauses:

The following relatives may occur in simple N Cl's:

Eng. who, whom, whose, which	Where, when, how, why
Cla. ?illaðii, man, maa	?ayna, mataa, kayfa, limaaðaa
Col. ?illii, l, minu, $\bar{s}$inu, $\bar{s}$-,	ween, $\bar{s}$wekit, $\bar{s}$loon, lyee$\bar{s}$

T1 Eng. $Z + N P_{Subj} + V + Y$ ----> $\begin{array}{l}\text{who} \\ \text{which} + V + Z + Y \\ \text{that}\end{array}$

The boy is there.   ----> who is there

Cla. $Z + N P_{Subj} + V + Y$ ----> $\begin{array}{l}\text{?allaðii} \\ \text{man} \quad\quad + V + Z + Y \\ \text{maa}\end{array}$

/?alwaladu hunaaka/ ----⟩   /man hunaaka /[7]

Col. Z + N P$_{Subj}$ + V Y   ----⟩   ?illii
                                         ?il   + V + Z + Y
                                         minu
                                         s̄inu

/lwaladi hnaak/   ----⟩   /minu hnaak/

Such clauses function usually as objects:

Eng. I know who is there

Cla. /?innii ?a9rifu man hunaaka/

col. /?aani ?a9rif minu hnaak/

T2   Eng. Z + V + N P$_{Obj}$ + Y ----⟩   who
                                             whom + Z + V + Y
                                             which
                                             that

     You met the boy.   ----⟩   whom you met.

     Cla. Z + V + N P$_{Obj}$ + Y ----⟩   ?alladii
                                             man   + Z + V + (PS) + Y
                                             maa

     /?anta qaabalta lwalado/ ----⟩ /man ?anta qaabalta/

     Col. Z + V + N P$_{Obj}$ + Y ----⟩   ?illii
                                           ?il   + Z + V + (PS) + Y
                                           minu
                                           s̄inu

     /?inta qaabaliti lwalad/ ----⟩ /minu ?inta qaabalit/

With respect to Arabic, this rule has the following
limitation: if the R is immediately followed by a
N with the DA, this N should be shifted after the
P S:

---

[7]It has been stated in Chapter I that a clause in
Arabic may have its verb in the form ∅.

R + DA + N + Z + V + (PS) + Y   ----) R + V (PS)

+ DA + N + Z + Y

Cla. /mani rrijaalu qaabaluuhu   ----) /man qaabaluhu

rrijaalu/[8]

(whom the men met)

Col. /llii rriyaajiil qaabloo/   ----) /llii qaabloo

rriyaajiil/

(whom the men met)

Clauses derived by T2 occur usually as objects:

Eng. I know whom you met.

Cla. /?anaa ?a9rifu man ?anta qaabalta/

Col. /?aani ?a9rif minu ?inta qaabalit/

T3 Eng. Z + Prep + N P$_{Obj}$ + Y   ----) who
                                           whom
                                           which + Z + Prep + Y
                                           that
                                           ∅

You went to the man.   ----) whom you went to

or Z + Prep + N P$_{Obj}$ + Y   ----) who
                                       Prep + whom + Z + Y
                                       which

You went to the man.   ----) to whom you went

---

[8]The vowel change in the verb is not relevant to the present analysis.

Cla. $Z + Prep + N\ P_{Obj} + Y$ ----) $\begin{matrix}?alla\delta ii\\man\\maa\end{matrix} + Z + Prep +$

$P\ S + Y$

/?anta δahabta ?ila rrajuli/----) /man ?anta δahabta

?ilayhi/

or $Z + Prep + N\ P_{Obj} + Y$ ----) $Prep + \begin{matrix}man\\maa\end{matrix} + Z + Y$

/?anta δahabta ?ila rrajuli/----) /?ila man ?anta

δahabta/

Col. $Z + Prep + N\ P_{Obj} + Y$ ----) $?illii + Z + Prep +$

$P\ S + Y$

/?inta riḥit li rrajjaal/ ----) /llii ?inta

riḥitla/

or $Z + Prep + N\ P_{Obj} + Y$ ----) $Prep + man + Z + Y$

/?inta riḥit li rrajjaal/ ----)/?il man ?inta riḥit/

With respect to Arabic, this rule has basically the
same limitation as T2: if the R is immediately followed by
a N with the DA, this N is shifted, in Cla, either after
Z or after the P S (the choice is stylistic).

$R + DA + N + Z + Prep + P\ S + Y$ ----) $R + Z + DA + N + Prep + PS + Y$

           or ----) $R + Z + Prep + PS + DA + N + Y$

/man irrijjaalu δahabuu ?ilayhi ?ams/ ----) /man δahaba rrijaalu
?ilayhi ?ams/

           or ----) /man δahaba ?ilayhi
rrijaalu ?ams/

If the R is preceded by its Prep, this N has to come before Y:

Prep + R + DA + N + Z + Y   ----→   Prep + R+Z+DA+N+Y

/?ilaa man^{i}rrijaalu dahabuu ?ams/ ----→   /?ila man dahaba rrijaalu ?ams/

As for Col, the N with its DA is put, in such a case, only after the P S, but not after Z:

R+ DA + N + Z + Prep + PS + Y   ----→   R+Z+Prep+PS+DA+N+Y

/?illi rriyaajiil raahoola/   ----→   /?illii raahoola rriyaajiil/

If the R is preceded by its Prep, this N has to come before Y:

Prep + R + DA + N + Z + Y   ----→   Prep + R + Z + DA + N + Y

/?il mani rriyaajiil raahoo lbaarha/----→   /?il man raahoo rriyaajiil lbaarha/

Clauses produced by T3 usually function as objects:

Eng: I know whom you went to.
Cla: /?anaa ?a9rifu man ?anta dahabta ?ilayhi/
Col: /?aani ?a9rif llii ?inta rihitla/

T4   Eng.   Z + NP_{Gen} + nondef N + Y   ----) whose+nondef N + Z + Y

          The boy's book is red.   ----) whose book is red

      Cla.   Z + nondef N + NP_{Gen} + Y   ----) nondef N+ man + Z + Y

          /kitaabu lwaladi ?aḥmaru/ ----) /kitabu man ?aḥmaru/

                              ?alladii
               or   ----)   +nondef N+PS+Z+Y
                              man

                              /man kitaabuhu ?aḥmaru/

      Col.   Z+ nondef N+ NP_{Gen} + Y   ----) nondef N + man + Z + Y

                               ----) /ktaab man ?ahmar/

               or   ----) ?illii+ nondef N+PS+Z+Y

                               ----) /llii ktaaba ?aḥmar/

Clauses produced by T4 function usually as objects:

Eng . I know whose book is red.

Cla . /?anaa ?a9rifu man kitaabuhu ?aḥmaru/

Col . /?aani ?a9rifu llii ktaaba ?aḥmar/

                               where

T5   <u>A</u>.   Z + Adv_{place}+ Y   ----) ?ayna   + Z + Y
                               ween

Eng. The men went home.   ----) where the men went

Cla. /dahaba rrijaalu ʔila lbayti/ ----) /ʔayna dahaba rrijaalu/

Col. /rahoo rriyaajiil li lhooš/----) /ween raahoo rriyaajiil/

$$B. \quad A + Adv_{time} + Y \qquad ----) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{when} \\ mataa \\ \text{šwekit} \end{matrix} + Z + Y$$

Eng. The men went yesterday.   ----) when the men went

Cla. /dahaba rrijaalu ʔams/   ----) /mataa dahaba rrijaalu/

Col. /raahoo rriyaajiil lbaarha----) /šwekit raahoo rriyaajiil/

$$C. \quad Z + Adv_{manner} + Y \qquad ----) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{how} \\ kayfa \\ \text{šloon} \end{matrix} + Z + Y$$

Eng. The men went quickly.   ----) how the men went

Cla. /dahaba rrijaalu bisur9a/ ----) /kayfa dahaba rrijaalu/

Col. /raahoo rriyaajiil bsur9a/----) /šloon raahoo rriyaa-jiil/

$$D. \quad Z + Adv_{reason} + Y \qquad ----) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{why} \\ limaadaa \\ \text{lyeeš} \end{matrix} + Z + Y$$

Eng. The men went because of the rain ----) why the
men went

Cla. /dahaba rrijaalu bisababi lmatar/----) /limaadaa
dahaba rrijaalu/

Col. /raahoo rriyaajiil 9ala muud lmutar/ ----) /lyeeš
raahoo rriyaajiil/

As in T3 and T4, if the R in Arabic is immediately
followed by a N with the DA, this N is put after Z or
the Prep:

Cla. /?ayna rrijaalu dahabu/ ----) /?ayna dahaba rrijaalu/

Col. /ween rriyaajiil raahoo/----) /ween raahoo rriyaajiil/

Clauses of this type occur usually as objects.

Eng. I do not know where the boy went.
Cla. /?anaa laa ?a9rifu ?ayna dahaba lwaladu/
Col. /?aani maa ?a9rif ween raahi lwalad/

Description of the rules that produce simple adjectival clauses:

An Adj Cl. may be either Rest or Nonrest: A Rest Cl
restricts, or limits the meaning of the NP it modifies; a

Nonrest Cl simply adds to the meaning of the NP but it does not define it. In English, a Nonrest Cl is separated from the rest of the sentence by a juncture, in writing, by a comma. A Rest Cl is not. In Arabic, none of them is separated by anything.

The relative that may be used in each type of these clauses are:

Rest Cl: Eng: who, whom, whose, which, that, $\emptyset$, as, where, when, why

              Cla: ?alladii

              Col: ?illii, ?il

Nonrest Cl: Eng: who, whom, whose, which, where, when

              Cla: ?alladii

              Col: ?illii, ?il

Following are the rules that may produce the simple Adj Cl constructions in English and Arabic:

T6   Eng: $Z + NP_{Sub} + \begin{smallmatrix} am \\ is \\ are \end{smallmatrix} + Adj_{Sub\ Comp} + Y \dashrightarrow)$ which $+ \begin{smallmatrix} am \\ is \\ are \end{smallmatrix} + Adj_{Sub} Comp$ $+ Y$

        The man is ill $\dashrightarrow)$ who is ill

      Cla: $NP_{Subj} + Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$ $\dashrightarrow)$ $DA + Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$

        /?arrajulu mariidun/ $\dashrightarrow)$ lmariid $\begin{smallmatrix} a \\ u \\ i \end{smallmatrix}$/

$Col: NP_{Subj} + Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$ ----) $DA + Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$

/rrajjaal mariid/ ----) /lmariid/

(N P R C A)

T7 $Eng: NP_{Subj} + \begin{smallmatrix}was\\were\end{smallmatrix} + Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$ ----) $\begin{smallmatrix}who\\whom\\that\end{smallmatrix} + was + Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$ were

The man was ill   ----) who was ill

$Cla: NP_{Subj} + kaana + Adj_{Sub\ Comp} + Y$ ----) $?alladii + kaana + Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$

/?arrajulu kaana mariidan/ ----) /lladii kaana

mariidan/

$Col: NP_{Subj} + \bar{c}aan + Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$ ----) $?illii + \bar{c}aan +$

$Adj_{Subj\ Comp} + Y$

/?irrajjaal c̄aan mariid/ ----) llii c̄aan mariid/

T8 $Eng: Z + NP_{Subj} + V + Y$ ----) $\begin{smallmatrix}who\\which\\that\end{smallmatrix} + Z + V + Y$

The man went to school. ----) who went to school

$Cla: Z + V + NP_{Subj} + Y$ ----) $?alladii + V + PS + Z + Y$

/dahaba rrajulu ?ila lmadrasa/ ----) /lladii dahaba

?ila lmadrasa/

Col:Z + V + NP$_{Subj}$+ Y ----) ?illii + V + PS + Z + Y

 /raahi rrajjaal li lmadrasa/ ----) /llii raah li

 lmadrassa/

            who
            whom

T9 Eng:Z + V + NP$_{Obj}$+ Y ----) which + Z + V + Y
            that
            ∅

 I saw the man. ----) whom I saw

Cla:Z + V + NP$_{Obj}$+ Y ----) ?alladii +Z+V+PS+Y

 /?anaa ra?aytu rrajula/ ----) /lladii ?anaa

 ra?aytuhu/

Col:Z + V + NP$_{Obj}$ + Y ----) ?illii + Z + V + PS + Y

 /?aani ̄sifti rrajaal/ ----) /llii ?aani ̄sifta/

            who
            whom

T10 Eng: Z + Prep + NP$_{Obj}$ + Y ----) which + Z + Prep + Y
            that
            ∅

 I went to the man. ----) whom I went to

Cla: Z + Prep + NP$_{Obj}$ + Y ----) ?alladii + Z + Prep + PS + Y

 /dahabtu ?ila rrajuli/----) /lladii dahabtu ?ilayhi/

Col: Z + Prep + NP$_{Obj}$ + Y ----) ?illii + Z + Prep + PS + Y

 /?aani rihit li rrajjaal/ ----) /llii ?aani rihit la/

T11   Eng: $Z + NP_{Gen} +$ $N + Y$ ----) whose+nondef $N + Z + Y$

            The boy's book is red.   ----) whose book is red

      Cla: $Z +$ $N + NP_{Gen} + Y$ ----) ?alladii + Z + nondef N +

                                          PS + Y

        /kitaabu lwaladi ?ahmaru/ ----) /lladii kitaabuhu

                                      ?ahmaru/

      Col: $Z +$ $N + NP_{Gen} + Y$ ----) ?illii + Z + nondef N +

                                            PS + Y

        /ktaab lwalad ?ahmar/   ----) /llii ktaaba ?ahmar/

T12   Eng: $Z + all + DA + N + Y$ ----) that $\atop \emptyset$ $+ Z + Y$

            I read all the books.   ----) that I read

      Cla: $Z + all + DA + N + Y$ ----) ?alladii + Z + PS + Y

        /qara?tu jamii9a lkutubi/----) /llatii qara?tuhaa/

      Col: $Z + all + DA + N + Y$ ----)?il, ?illii + Z + PS + Y

        /?aani qreet kulli lkutub/----) /llii qreetha/

T13   Eng: Z + DA+superlative Adj + $N + Y$ ----) that + $Z + Y$

            I read the best book.----)   that I read

      Cla: Z + superlative Adj + nondef N +Y ----) Z + PS + Y

        /?anaa qara?tu ?ahsana kitaabin/ ----) /?anaa

                                        qara?tuhu/

Col: Z + superlative Adj + nondef N + Y ----) Z + PS + Y

/?aani qreet ?aksan ktaab/ ----) /?aani qreeta/

(N P R C A)

T14 Eng: Z + DA + same + N + Y ----) as + Z + Y

You bought the same book. ----) as you bought

Cla: Z + same + DA + N + Y ----) ?alladii + Z + PS + Y

/?anta ?iŝtarayta nafsa lkitaabi/ ----) ?lladii

?anta ?iŝtaraytahu/

Col: Z + same + DA + N + Y ----) ?illii + Z + PS + Y

/?inta stireet nafis li ktaab/ ----) /llii ?inta

stireeta/

T15 Eng: Z + such + nondef N + Y ----) as + Z + Y

I had such a book. ----) as I had

(N P R C A)

T16 Eng: Z + that$_{nominal}$ + Y ----) which + Z + Y

The man found that. ----) which the man found

(N P R C A)

T17 Eng: Z + adv $\begin{matrix} \text{place} \\ \text{time} \\ \text{reason} \end{matrix}$ + Y ----) $\begin{matrix} \text{where} \\ \text{when} \\ \text{why} \end{matrix}$ + Z + Y

I went to this place. ----) where I went

I went at that hour. ----)   when I went

I went for this reason. ----)   why I went

(The reason why the word 'how' is excluded

from here is that a sentence like "This is

the way how he did it" is hardly good English)

Cla :The same as T10

Col :The same as T10

(In Arabic, the phrases 'this place', 'that

hour', and 'this reason' are just considered

objects of the prepositions 'to', 'at', and

'for', and, hence, no special rules for this

pattern.)

Part B: Complex Relative Sentences

This part deals with the various types of the

R S's that can be <u>optionally</u> derived from the R S's,

the clauses of which, are already described in Part A.

The rules in this part, then, will deal with <u>the</u>

<u>whole sentence</u>, and not with the R Cl only.

T18   This rule describes some of the N Cl's that can be

derived from certain Adj Cl's plus their antecedents:

A. Eng: Z + that + which + Y ----)   Z + what + Y

I gave him that which he found. ----) I gave him

what he found.

(N P R C A)

```
                 who
                 whom                        whoever
B.  Eng: Z + any + whose + Y  ----)   Z + whomever   + Y
                 that                        whosever
                 ∅
```

Anyone who comes is welcome. ----)   Whoever comes

is welcome.

(N P R C A)

```
                       which                whichever
C.  Eng: Z + any + X + that + Y  ----)  Z +           + Y
                        ∅                  whatever
```

You may take anything you like. ----) You may

take whatever you like.

(N P R £ A)

T19   This rule describes some of the changes an Adj Cl

with the R 'as' may undergo.

A. Eng: Z + as + X + V ----) Z + as + X + $\underset{\emptyset}{do}$

        I bought the same kind of book as you bought. ----)

        I bought the same kind of book as you did.

or   I bought the same kind of book as you.

        (N P R C A)

B. Eng: Z + as + $\underset{our}{\overset{my}{her}}$ + N + Y ----) Z + as + $\underset{ours}{\overset{mine}{hers}}$ + Y

        He bought the same book as my book. ----)

        He bought the same book as mine.

        (N P R C A)

The purpose of this chapter was to set the rules that would generate the major English sentences and their Arabic counterparts.

Two main points can be deduced from these rules:

1. The Classical and Colloquial Arabic relative constructions are so similar that they can be taken together in comparing the Arabic with the English constructions.

2. The English constructions can be classified
   in terms of their similarity to and difference
   from the Arabic constructions into three groups:
   similar, different, and unparalleled.

The following table will, therefore, classify
the English relative constructions into these three groups.
The first group will include the constructions that occur
and function similarly in the two languages. The second
group will include the constructions that occur, but func-
tion differently, in the two languages. The third group
will include the constructions that occur in English but
not in Arabic.

	Similar	Different	Unparalleled
T1	x		
T2		x	
T3		x	
T4		x	
T5	x		
T6		x	
T7	x		
T8		x	
T9		x	
T10		x	
T11		x	
T12		x	
T13		x	
T14		x	
T15			x
T16			x
T17		x	
T18			x
T19			x

Such a classification is thought to be of special importance in locating the problems Arabic-speaking students will meet in learning the English relative constructions. It is maintained that (a) similar constructions are positively transferred, (b) different constructions are negatively transferred, and (c) unparalleled constructions are not interfered with by Arabic. In the coming chapter, however, each of these three groups will be described through examples.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS OF THE CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

The present chapter describes the results of
the contrastive analysis with ample examples. First, a
description of similar constructions that are positively
transferred is given. Secondly, a description of dif-
ferent constructions that are negatively transferred high-
lights the mistakes Arabic-speaking students are expected
to make in learning the English relative constructions.
Thirdly, a description of unparalleled constructions is
given; the learning of these constructions is not inter-
fered with by Arabic.

Throughout this chapter the following symbols are
used:

    T   Refers to the transformational rules set in
             Chapter IV.

   ____   (Underlining) Refers to the word or phrase
             replaced by the relative.

_____   (The blank) Refers to the position a relative
           noun clause would occupy.

*   Refers to the sentence produced with the
           expected mistake due to transfer from Arabic.

A. The English relative constructions that are positively
    transferred

    1. T1   I know _____

               The boy is there. ----)   who is there

               I know the boy who is there.

    2. T5   I know _____

               He went to school ----)   where he went

               I know where he went.

               (and similarly with 'when', 'how', and 'why'.

    3. T7   I saw the boy.

               The boy was ill. ----)   who was ill

               I saw the boy who was ill.

B. The English relative constructions that are negatively
    transferred

A negative transfer from Arabic can be due to more than
one element:

1. The insertion of the pronominal suffix which a
   relative, in Arabic, requires in its place after
   it is shifted to the beginning.

   T2   I know _____

              You met <u>the boy</u>. ----)   whom you met

              I know whom you met.

   *   I know whom you met him.

   T3   I know _____

              You went to the boy. ----)   whom you went to

              I know whom you went to.

   *   I know whom you went to him.

   T4   I know _____

              His book is red. ----)   whose book is red

              I know whose book is red.

   *   I know whose his book is red.

   T8   I know the boy.

              <u>The boy</u> went to school. ----)   who went to school

              I know the boy <u>who</u> went to school.

   *   I know the boy who he went to school.

T9   I saw the man.

     You met <u>the man</u>. ----)   whom you met

     I saw the man whom you met.

*   I saw the man whom you met him.

T10 This is the man

     I went to <u>the man</u>. ----)   to whom I went

     This is the man I went to.

*   This is the man I went to him.

T11 This is the boy,

     <u>His</u> book is red. ----)   whose book is red

     This is the boy whose book is red.

*   This is the boy whose his book is red.

T12 I read all the books.

     You read all the books. ----)   that you read

     I read all the books that you read.

*   I read all the books that you read them.

T13 This is the best book.

     I read <u>the best book</u>. ----)   that I read

     This is the best book that I read.

*   This is the best book that I read it.

T14 I bought the same book.

     You bought <u>the same book</u> ----) as you bought

     I bought the same book as you bought.

*   I bought the same book as you bought it.

2. The transposition of the nondefinite noun that

    immediately follows the relative 'whose'.

T4 I know _____

     You read <u>the boy's</u> letter, ----) whose letter you

                                 read.

     I know whose letter you read.

*   I know letter whose you read.

T11 I know the boy.

     You read the boy's letter ----) whose letter you read

     I know the boy whose letter you read.

*   I know whose you read his letter.

3. The transposition of the noun following the relative

    if that noun is preceded by the definite article.

     This is the boy whom the teacher gave the book .

*   This is the boy whom gave the teacher the book.

4. The use of other relatives in the place of 'where', 'when' and 'why' in adjectival clauses. This may be due to the fact that relatives never function as adverbs in adjectival clauses in Arabic, and, hence, there are no special forms that parallel the relative adverbs in English.

    T17   I went to the place where I met you yesterday.
    *   I went to the place which I met you yesterday.

5. The failure to differentiate in production between 'who', 'whom' and 'whose'. Students are expected to make such a mistake because relatives in Arabic (except '?alladii' in its dual form in Classical Arabic) are not inflected for case.

        This is the boy whose father left for France.

                         who
    *   This is the boy whom father left for France.
                         whose

6. The failure to use a relative construction after a nondefinite antecedent. This is because such an English relative construction is paralleled, in Arabic, by an adjectival, but nonrelative, construction.

He is a boy whom everybody likes.

*   He is a boy everybody likes.

7. The omission of the juncture, the comma in writing,
that separates nonrestrictive adjectival clauses
from the rest of the sentence.

I visited Jane, who had a toothache.

*   I visited Jame who had a toothache.

B. The English relative constructions that are not interfered
with by Arabic.

1. T6   I saw the man.

          The man is ill. ----) who is ill

          I saw the man who is ill.

2. T15   I have such a book.

          You have such a book. ----) as you have

          I have such a book as you have.

3. T16   I saw that.

          The man found that. ----) which the man found

          I saw that which the man found.

4. T18   I gave him that which he found. ----) I gave
him what he found.

  b Anyone who comes is welcome. ----) Whoever

comes is welcome.

  c You may choose anything you like. ----) You

may choose whichever you like.

5. T19   a I bought the same book as you bought. ----)

I bought the same book as you did.

       b I bought the same book as your bought.

I bought the same book as you.

       c I bought the same book as you book ----)

I bought the same book as yours.

6. The optional deletion of some of the relatives:

       I read the letter which he wrote.

       I read the letter he wrote.

This chapter has described the results of the

contrastive analysis of the relatives in English and

Arabic. These results are helpful in determining the

problems Arabic-speaking students will meet in learning

the English relatives. In the next chapter, therefore, the

study will suggest a model lesson plan that is based on

these results.

CHAPTER VI

A MODEL LESSON PLAN FOR TEACHING THE ENGLISH

RELATIVES TO ARABIC SPEAKING STUDENTS

This chapter presents a model lesson plan for
teaching the English relatives to Arabic-speaking students.
The plan is based on the results of the contrastive
analysis described in Chapter V.

In order to keep this lesson plan in line with
the English syllabus and textbooks used in the governmential
intermediate schools in Iraq, the writer will keep in mind
the following two points:

1. The English relatives are taught for the first
   time in the first two years of the three-year
   intermediate level. Accordingly, this lesson
   plan consists of two parts that may be taught
   in the first and second years respectively.

2. In the English lessons, teaching grammar should not take the whole hour. The units of this lesson plan, therefore, are arranged so as to take about fifteen to twenty-five minutes each.

Major Assumptions:

The three major assumptions that underlie this lesson plan are the following ones:

1. Learning should gradually proceed from the easy elements to the more difficult ones. This, of course, has its psychological implications for the learner.

2. Negatively transferred patterns and patterns that are not interferred with by the native language are more difficult, and, hence, need greater attention than positively transferred patterns.[1]

3. Pattern practice is a much more efficient way of language learning than memorizing rules and individual words. Adams defines pattern practice as

---

[1]It may be logically assumed that negatively transferred patterns are more difficult to learn than those patterns that are not interferred with by the native language. This distinction, however, is not made in the present study, since no verification of such an assumption could be cited by the writer.

follows: "The student should be introduced to the pattern with his attention focused on the problem at hand. Then, by substituting other items, the focus of his attention is drawn away from the structure being repeated."[2]

Content of the Lesson Plan:

This lesson plan consists of two parts: the first part presents the simple relative sentences, and the second part presents the complex ones. Each part of this lesson plan consists of more than one unit. The material proceeds from recognition to production: patterns are first exposed in their 'traditional' order and irrespective of their ease and difficulty. This exposition is then followed by production exercises that concentrate on the more difficult patterns. These exercises are, of course, too brief for classroom teaching. But they can be easily expanded by similar items.

---

[2]Alexander Adams, "Where is 'The'? Some Contrastive Pattern Practice," Language Learning, Vol. XII, No. 1, (1962), p. 59.

Order of the Material:

The material in this lesson plan is ordered in the following way:

Part One

Unit 1:   Adjectival clauses with 'who', 'whom' and 'whose'.

Unit 2:   More adjectival clauses with 'who', 'whom' and 'whose'.

Unit 3:   Noun clauses with 'who', 'whom' and 'whose'.

Unit 4:   Adjectival clauses with 'which'.

Unit 5:   Adjectival clauses with 'that'.

Unit 6:   Adjectival clauses with 'Ø'.

Unit 7:   Adjectival clauses with 'as'.

Unit 8:   Noun clauses with 'where', 'how' and 'why'.

Unit 9:   Adjectival clauses with 'where', 'when' and 'why'.

Part Two

Unit 10:   Noun clauses with 'what'.

Unit 11: Noun clauses with 'whoever', 'whomever'

and 'whosoever'.

Unit 12: Noun clauses with 'whichever' and 'whatever'.

Unit 13: Adjectival clauses with 'as'.

Method of Presentation:

1. The teacher reads all the sentences in the model.
    (For example, all the six sentences in Unit 1.)

2. The students repeat in unison all these sentences.

3. Then, in unison repetition, different structures
    are contrasted. Example from Unit 1:

        This is the boy who met John.
        This is the boy whom John met.

4. The teacher explains the rules given by the end of
    each model, if there are any.

5. The teacher then shifts to the exercises and explains
    what the students are required to do.

6. The exercises with "Combine into one sentence"
    should be done twice, first in unison repetition and
    then individually.

7. The teacher should immediately supply the answer to
    any student who hesitates or who does not know the
    answer.

Part One: Simple Relative Sentences

Unit 1

This is the boy	who	visited John
		saw the teacher
	whom	John visited
		the teacher saw
	whose	bicycle is new
		father left for London

Exercise 1 a

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use WHO.

Examples:

I met the man. The man arrived yesterday.

I met the man who arrived yesterday.

I met the man. He arrived yesterday.

I met the man who arrived yesterday.

Teacher's Guide

Exercise 1a

The last two examples are more difficult than the first one, since the verb "be" in them is in the present tense.

1. The boy went to the doctor. The doctor was sitting there.

2. I saw the lady. She is ill.

3. They visited the boy. The boy is very clever.

Exercise 1 b

(The teacher writes the following sentence on the chalkboard):

This is the girl whom the teacher visited.

Teacher: Repeat after me:

This is the girl whom the teacher visited.

Students: This is the girl whom the teacher visited.

Teacher: (Erases the word 'the teacher'.) The doctor.

Students: This is the girl whom the doctor visited.

Teacher: The merchant.

Students: This is the girl whom the merchant visited.

Exercise 1 b

This exercise drills the students in using a noun with the definite article after the relative.

Exercise 1 c

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use WHOM.

Examples:

> That is the girl. I met the girl.
>
> That is the girl whom I met.
>
> That is the girl. I met her.
>
> That is the girl whom I met.

1. I visited the man. You gave him the watch.
2. Jane sent a letter to the lady. We went to the lady.
3. I gave it to the girl. Paul likes the girl.
4. I know the man. You asked him yesterday.
5. He is the boy. Everybody likes the boy.

Exercise 1 d

A. I saw the man whom she went to.

B. I saw the man to whom she went.

Exercise 1 c

This exercise drills the students in using 'whom' without the pronominal suffix.

Convert into form B.

1.   This is the girl whom he was sitting with.

2.   Where is the boy whom they talked to?

3.   I didn't know the man whom they laughed at.

Exercise 1 e

Combine the statements into one sentence.   Use WHOSE.

Examples:

I know the boy.   The boy's father is a merchant.

I know the boy whose father is a merchant.

I know the boy.   His father is a merchant.

I know the boy whose father is a merchant.

1.   That is the child. His leg was broken.

2.   Do you know the girl? Her car is new.

3.   Where is the boy? The boy's bicycle was stolen.

4.   I went to a student. His mother is a teacher.

5.   She met a man. The man's son lives in France.

Exercise 1 e

This exercise drills them in using 'whose' without the pronominal suffix. The last two examples have nondefinite antecedents.

Unit 2

The boy	who	visited John	is very clever
		saw the teacher	
	whom	John visited	
		the teacher saw	
	whose	bicycle is new	
		father left for	
		London	

Exercise 2 a

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use WHO.

Example:

John is very rich. He bought this house.

John, who bought this house, is very rich.

1.   These men went to school. The men study very hard.

2.   Jane was ill. She swam in the stream.

3.   Smith left for Iraq. Smith finished his studies.

Teacher's Guide

This unit presents the adjectival clauses with 'who', 'whom' and 'whose' in medial position

Exercise 2 a

Since this exercise is basically the same as Exercise 1 a, a new element is added here: the clauses are all nonrestrictive.

Exercise 2 b

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use WHOM.

Example:

> John came to school. I saw John yesterday.
>
> John, whom I saw yesterday, came to school.

1. Sam visited me. My father met him.

2. The servant came to my house. They dismissed him.

3. Mrs. Brown will go to England. I talked to her yesterday.

4. This boy has passed the exam. I visited him last week.

5. The girl likes John. You invited her.

Exercise 2 c

Combine into one sentence. Use WHOSE.

Example:

> John came to school. His brother will be a doctor.
>
> John, whose brother will be a doctor, came to school.

Exercise 2 b

This exercise drills them in using 'whom' in non-restrictive adjectival clauses.

Exercise 2 c

This is for using 'whose' in nonrestrictive adjectival clauses.

1. Sam visited me. Sam's father is ill.

2. Mrs. Brown has arrived. Her son came yesterday.

3. Jane is in bed. Her hand was broken.

4. The girl went to the office. Her car is new.

5. These boys are quarrelling. Their teacher is absent.

Unit 3

I know	who is here
	whom you met yesterday
	whose car is new

Exercise 3 a

A. The man is there.

B. I don't know who is there.

Convert into Form B.

1. The girl was inside.

2. The boy wanted to go.

Teacher's Guide

This unit presents 'who', 'whom' and 'whose' in noun clauses.

Exercise 3 b

    A.   You visited Robert

    B.   I don't remember whom you visited.

Convert into Form B.

    1.   She talked to John.

    2.   The man played with Smith.

    3.   He went to the teacher.

Exercise 3 c

    A.   His car is new.

    B.   Do you know whose car is new.

Convert into Form B.

    1.   The doctor's pen is the best one.

    2.   Sam's hand was broken.

    3.   The teacher's book was stolen.

Unit 4

This is the snake	which	killed the child
		the child killed

Exercise 4 a

(The teacher writes the following sentence on the chalkboard):

      This is the boy who ate the bread.

Teacher: Repeat after me:

      This is the boy who ate the bread.

Students: This is the boy who ate the bread.

Teacher: (Erases 'the boy who'.)

      The cat which.

Students: This is the cat which ate the bread.

Teacher: The man who.

Students: This is the man who ate the bread.

Teacher: The dog which.

Students: This is the dog which ate the bread.

Teacher's Guide

Exercise 4 a

    This exercise is to contrast 'which with 'who'.

Exercise 4 b

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use WHICH.

Example:

> The dog is very old. The dog was here.
>
> The dog which was here is very old.

1.   These are the letters. They were sent to me.

2.   I read a book. It is about medicine.

3.   She has a cat. It is three years old.

Exercise 4 c

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use WHICH.

Example:

> The dog is very old. I saw it.
>
> The dog which I saw is very old.

1.   The house is very beautiful. She built it.

2.   He bought the book. Smith wanted the book.

3.   He visited the school. We were in it.

4.   She took the watch. Jane brought it.

5.   The man sold the car. He bought it last month.

Exercise 4 b

'Which' is used here as subject. The last two examples
have nondefinite antecedents.

Exercise 4 c

'Which' is used here as object.

Unit 5

This is	the boy	that	killed the snake
			the snake killed
	the snake		killed the child
			the child killed

The relative 'that' can be used for persons and things.

Exercise 5 a

Use 'that' instead of 'who'.

1. They visited the girls who were in France.

2. I saw the boy who wrote the letter.

3. The men who came to you are my friends.

Exercise 5 b

Use 'that' instead of 'whom'.

1. That is the man whom you visited.

2. He is a boy whom everybody likes.

3. She was a teacher whom we all admired.

Teacher's Guide

Exercise 5 b

The last two examples have nondefinite antecedents.

Exercise 5 c

Use 'that' instead of 'which'.

1. The boy bought a car which is rather expensive.

2. He wrote a book which was quite interesting.

Exercise 5 d

A. This is the man that she talked to.

B. This is the man whom she talked to.

C. This is the man to whom she talked.

Convert into Forms B and C

1. I met the girl that he was sitting with.

2. She visited the man that you went to.

3. We saw the boy that you gave the watch to.

Exercise 5 e

A. This is the house that he lived in.

B. This is the house which he lived in.

C. This is the house in which he lived.

Exercise 5 c

The examples here have nondefinite antecedents.

Exercises 5 d and 5 e show that the relative 'that' may not be preceded by its preposition.

Convert into Forms B and C.

1. I bought the book that the teacher talked about.

2. They showed me the passage that they went through.

3. She went to the shop that you bought your suit from.

Unit 6

This is	the boy	whom	I saw there
	the cat	which	

If the relative is object, it can be deleted.

Delete the relative 'whom' from the following sentences:

Example:

Where is the boy whom we met yesterday?

Where is the boy we met yesterday?

1. That is the man whom you asked me about.

2. She is the girl whom Smith talked with.

3. He went to the teacher whom you visited.

4. The doctor saw the lady whom they were sitting with.

Teacher's Guide

The exercises here are easier than others. They may be done without model answers by the teacher.

Exercise 6 b

Delete the relative 'which' from the following sentences:

Examples:

    I saw the car which he bought.

    I saw the car he bought.

1.   That is the house which Jack built.

2.   He went to the school which they were studying in.

3.   She took the book which I wanted.

Exercise 6 c

A.   This is the man whom I visited.

B.   This is the man that I visited.

C.   This is the man I visited.

Convert into Forms B and C.

1.   The girl whom you talked with is Miss Brown.

2.   The man whom I asked was very rough.

3.   We visited the teacher whom you went to.

Exercises 6 c , 6 d and 6 e show that some relatives may occur in free variation.

Exercise 6 d

A. This is the house which Jack built.

B. This is the house that Jack built.

C. This is the house Jack built.

Convert into Forms B and C.

1. The book which I read is very beautiful.

2. The pen which you bought is very sharp.

3. The suit which Jack made is very beautiful.

Exercise 6 e

A. I know the man whom you talked to.

B. I know the man that you talked to.

C. I know the man you talked to.

Convert into Forms B and C.

1. That is the girl whom I was walking with.

2. I met the boy whom you asked me about.

3. She invited the teacher whom you went to.

Unit   7

I bought	the same book	as you bought
	such a book	

Exercise 7 a

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use AS.

Example:

She took the same watch. I took the same watch.

She took the same watch as I took.

1.   He played in the same way. Jan played in the
same way.

2.   I wanted the same books. She wanted the same books.

3.   The girl made the same table. You made the same
table.

4.   She ordered the same dish. My friend ordered the
same dish.

5.   You suggested the same thing. Your father suggested
the same thing.

Teacher's Guide

These two exercises drill the students in using 'as'
without the pronominal suffix.

Exercise 7 b

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use AS.

Example:

He wanted such a house. I wanted such a house.

He wanted such a house as I wanted.

1. He played in such a way. Jane played in such a way.

2. The girl made such a table. You made such a table.

3. I ordered such a dish. That man ordered such a dish.

4. The man wrote such a letter. His wife wrote such a letter.

5. She borrowed such a bag. Her friend borrowed such a bag.

Unit 8

Do you know	where when how why	he went yesterday?

Teacher's Guide

These relatives are easier to learn when they occur in noun clauses than when they occur in adjectival clauses.

Exercise 8 a

A.   He left for London

B.   I don't know where he left for.

Convert into Form B.

1.   She went to the hospital.

2.   They met in the garden.

3.   Jane is in her house.

Exercise 8 b

A.   He left yesterday.

B.   I don't know when he left.

Convert into Form B.

1.   The boy went two days ago.

2.   He met her last week.

3.   She came at 5 o'clock.

Exercise 8 c

A.   He left by train.

B.   I don't know how he left.

Convert into Form B.

1.   This man went running.

2.   He was walking very slowly.

3.   The girl came very quickly.

Exercise 8 d

A.   He left because of the rain.

B.   I don't know why he left.

Convert into Form B.

1.   The teacher did not come because of the hot weather.

2.   She went out because of the rain.

3.   The man sat in his house because of his illness.

Unit 9

I don't know	the place	where	
	the occasion	when	he fell
	the reason	why	

Teacger's Guide

Such patterns with 'how' do not occur in English.

Exercise 9 a

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use WHERE.
Example:

This is the place. They saw her in this place.

This is the place where they saw her.

1. He went to the town. He lived in it for 20 years.
2. This is the place. The boy was killed in this place.
3. She went to London. She had a brother in London.

Exercise 9 b

Combine the statements into one sentence.
Example:

I met him on the occasion. His father came on this occasion.

I met him on the occasion when his father came.

1. She left at the time. Everybody was asleep at that time.
2. They finished on the day. I arrived on that day.
3. He arrived in the month. We were in Hilla in that month.

Exercise 9 c

Combine the statements into one sentence. Use WHY.

Example:

That is the reason. He became angry for this
reason.

That is the reason why he became angry.

1.   I do not know the reason. She came for that reason.

2.   They asked about the reason. He lived alone for
this reason.

3.   She wanted to know the reason. He threw away the
bag for that reason.

Part two: Complex Relative Sentences

Unit   10

I gave him	what	was there
	(that which)	he wanted

Teacher's Guide

A review of 'which' may precede this unit.

Exercise 10

    A.   She took that which was here.

    B.   She took what was here.

Convert into Form B.

    1.   The man read that which was written by you.

    2.   That which is not true is not French.

    3.   The man borrowed from me that which you wanted.

    4.   I gave them that which he found.

Unit 11

	whoever	comes first
You may give it to	whomever	you meet
	whosoever	book is old

Teacher's Guide

A review of 'who', 'whom' and 'whose' may precede
this unit.

Exercise 11 a

    A.   Anyone who comes is welcome.

    B.   Whoever comes is welcome.

Convert into Form B.

    1.   Any boy who likes it may have it.

    2.   Anyone who receives it must sent it to me.

    3.   We will listen to anyone who speaks.

Exercise 11 b

    A.   They will talk to any girl whom they meet.

    B.   They will talk to whomever they meet.

Convert into B.

    1.   I will go to any person whom you want me to.

    2.   He may tell anybody he meets.

    3.   She will ask any man   she finds there.

Exercise 11 b

The last two items are more difficult, since the rela-
tive is in them is in the form $\emptyset$.

Exercise 11 c

    A.   She will ask anyone whose son lives there.

    B.   She will ask whosoever son lives there.

Convert into Form.

    1.   She may go to anyone whose car is new.

    2.   They will ask any boy whose family is rich.

    3.   This man will tell any person whose house is going to be rubbed.

Unit 12

You may take	whichever	you like
	whatever	

Exercise 12 a

    A.   They will take anything which they find there.

    B.   They will take whichever they find there.

    C.   They will take whatever they find there.

Exercise 12 a

The choice here is semantically determined.

Convert into Forms B and C.

1.   I will take anything that he gives me.

2.   She may accept anything you send.

3.   He may read anything that he sees on this table.

4.   I will buy anything that I find there.

5.   The man will eat anything he finds there.

Unit 13

He bought the same book		I did
This is the same book	as	mine

Exercise 13 a

A.   He found the same quality as I found

B.   He found the same quality as I did.

C.   He found the same quality as I .

Convert into Form B and C.

1.   She went to the same place as you went.

2.   I like the same type as you like.

3.   They are listening to such music as you are
listening.

Exercise 13 b

    A.   That is the same pen as your pen.

    B.   That is the same pen as yours.

Convert into Form B.

    1.   She took the same book as his book.

    2.   The teacher gave me the same paper as your paper.

    3.   I wanted the same watch as your watch.

    4.   He bought the same shirt as my shirt.

    5.   They made the same suit as your suit.

Exercise 13 b

A review of the two kinds of the personal pronouns in the possessive forms may precede this unit.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to predict the
mistakes Arabic-speaking students will make in learning
the English relatives. In order to do this, and since
any Arabic-speaking student is exposed to both Classi-
cal and Colloquial Arabic, the study has compared the
relatives in English with the relatives in both these
forms of Arabic.

The relatives in these two forms of Arabic
were found so similar (except for some minor points[1])
that they have been taken together in comparing the
English and the Arabic relatives.

The study, finally, has suggested a model
lesson plan for teaching the English relatives to
Arabic-speaking students. This plan is based on the
results of the contrastive analysis and, accordingly,
lays more emphasis in its corrective drills on points of
diversity than it does on points of contact.

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[1]Supra, pp.48 and 52.

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