

Sudan University of Science & Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages

Department of English

**A Contrastive Study of English and Nubian Languages at
the Syntactical Level**

دراسة تقابلية بين اللغتين الانجليزية و النوبية علي المستوي النحوي

**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements of
the PhD in English Language**

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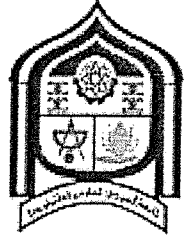
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إقرار

أنا الموقع أدناه أقر بأنني المؤلف الوحيد لرسالة الدكتوراه المعنونة
دراسة تقابلية بين اللغتين الإنجليزية والنوبية
على المستوى النحوي

وهي منتج فكري أصيل . وباختياري أعطى حقوق طبع ونشر هذا العمل لكلية الدراسات العليا جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا ، عليه يحق للجامعة نشر هذا العمل للأغراض العلمية .

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Dedication

To my family

Acknowledgement

First and foremost I would like to thank God for His everlasting mercy and grace, and best prayers be upon our beloved Prophet Mohammed. Particular acknowledgement is due to the help and encouragement of my supervisor Dr. Mahmood Ali, who patiently corrected my errors and lapses.

Also, I would like to thank the librarians of the Institute of African and Asian Studies for their extraordinary support and facilitations in this thesis process.

Abstract (English Version)

This study focuses on analyzing and contrasting the syntax in both Nobein and English. Nobein is a branch of Nile Nubian languages which was given this name by Bell(1970). Also, the study intends to find out the potential productivities of these processes for pedagogical purposes, which may prove to be useful for native and non- native linguists as well as teachers and learners of English.

The study aimed to apply the Contrastive Analysis approach as a model or a tool in contrasting a modern language (English) with an ancient language (Nobein), in order to identify differences and similarities. The findings came out to reveal such differences between both languages.

The data for the study were collected from different sources: the main source was the informants who supported the researcher with useful information, beside the written materials on Nobein. It is found that English and Nobein reveal similarities as well as differences. The similarities are found in some general universals.

Abstract (Arabic Version)

مستخلص

تركز هذه الدراسة علي التحليل التقابلي علي المستوي النحوي لكل من اللغتين الانجليزية و النوبيين (نوبيين) هي فع من اللغة النوبية النيلية و قد أعطيت هذا الاسم من قبل هرمان بل (1970). الغرض هو التحقق من أوجه الشبه و الاختلاف , والي أي مدي يمكن لمدرسي اللغة الانجليزية النوبيين الاستفادة من ذلك في تدريس اللغة الانجليزية.

هدفت الدراسة إلى تطبيق نهج التحليل التقابلي نموذجا أو أداة لمقارنة لغة حديثة (الإنجليزية) مع لغة قديمة (نوبيين)، وذلك من أجل تحديد أوجه الشبه والاختلاف. وجاءت هذه النتائج إلى كشف مثل هذه الاختلافات بين اللغتين.

اعتمدت الباحثة في جمع المعلومات و البيانات لهذه الدراسة علي مصدرين أساسيين:

(أ) المادة العلمية الموثقة في دارسات عن اللغة النوبية و (ب) الرواة الناطقون بلغة النوبيين قيد الدراسة. هذا و قد كشفت الدراسة عن وجود تشابهات و اختلافات نحوية في بعض العناصر اللغوية في اللغتين المستهدفتين.

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Abbreviations

CA : Contrastive Analysis

NP: Noun Phrase

N: Noun

Adj : Adjective

Art: Article

V: Verb

VP: Verb Phrase

QW :Question Word

M: Marker

IC: Immediate Constituent

TGG: Transformational Generative Grammar

TG: Traditional Grammar

CG: Classical Grammar

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

TL: Target Language

SL: Source Language

NL: Native Language

CCA : Classical Contrastive Analysis

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

Chapter one

Introduction

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0 Overview

Language is the greatest gift given to people. It is their media in expressing their ideas, thoughts and cultures. Also, it is one of the most important resources in transforming human cultures from one generation to another. Within it we can go deep in the past and know the present and future.

Scholars came to recognize the need of language for two different types of study, called 'synchronic' and 'diachronic'. A synchronic study examines a language at a particular time, whereas a diachronic study traces its development throughout time. The scholar who was most influential in separating diachronic and synchronic studies was Ferdinand de Saussure. In insisting up on his separation and in delineating the appropriate objects and goals of linguistics, he was instrumental in laying the foundation for descriptive or structural linguistics.

Language has a role in communication as always emphasized. The present day linguistics has become all the more aware of this teleological role of language. Although modern linguistics studies all aspects of language and all kinds of language including the language of literature, the most adequate data for purposes of linguistic investigation and description are the spoken utterances of language used for the purpose of communication among the individuals of a given linguistic community.

Sudan is one of the countries which is rich in its language varieties. Some of them survived hundred years and witnessed citizens who spoke and wrote them, and carried historical heritage. Modern Nubian languages are of

these languages, i.e. they are African Sudanese languages which have their properties among human cultures. Stevenson (1985: 11) sees that geographical position of the Sudan spanned the Arab world and other cultures. The significance of this position lies in that Sudan contains within its borders representatives of all the major defined groupings of languages in Africa.

Nubia, as described by Adams (1984), is partly a cultural province, partly a historical province, and partly a geographical one. A region, he says, in which human destiny has been shaped in particular and distinctive ways by a unique combination of history and environment. It is therefore obvious that the Nubian language is being so unique.

Old Nubian language was characterized by a writing system, used in all the regions of Nubia between the First and Fifth cataracts. As many manuscripts found in many different places of Nubia testify. It used the Coptic alphabet with addition of some letters to write the typical Nubian words. The oldest manuscript in Old Nubia goes back to the beginning of the Christian period. With the appearance of Islam in Nubia, Arabic became the dominant language (Badr, 1955).

However, Nubian has continued to be used until today. The Modern language is formed by many dialects (Fadija , Kenzi , Sikut, Mahas , and Dongolawi), which were derived from the old one. Of all the Nubian languages, the ones spoken along the Nile traditionally have received the most attention. Many manuscripts have been unearthed in the Nile Valley, mainly between the First and Fifth cataracts, testifying the Nubian presence in the area during the first millennium

Nobein is a Nubian language spoken along the banks of the River Nile in southern Egypt and Northern Sudan. It is classified as Northern Nubia. Many

Nobein speaking Nubians were forced to relocate in 1963 _ 1964 due to the construction of the Aswan High Dam in Egypt(Adams, 1984). Nowadays, Nobein speakers live in the following areas: (1) near Komombo, in Egypt. (2) in New Halfa, in Kassala state of Sudan, and (3) in the Northern State of Sudan, northwards to the Egyptian border at Wadi Halfa.

Nobein and a dialect cluster related to it, Kenzi_ Dongolawi, are found in the same area. These languages were the languages of the Christian Nubian Kingdoms. Historical comparative research has shown that the Nile Nubian languages do not form a genetic unit; the speakers of Nobein arrived first in the area following later by the speakers of the Kenzi and Dongolawi varieties. Nobein, according to Bell (1974) has been called Mahas_ Fadidja, but he used the term “Nobein” instead.

Today, many Nubians and foreign scholars are interested in the study of the Nubian language. This interest in its maintenance is very important for the Nubians since language is the most important instrument to perpetuate the memory of a culture. On the other hand, English is the global language and the most popular in the world.

Nubian and English have much in common; they are both unique in their grammatical innovations. For these reasons, and some others the researcher has chosen them in order to carry out this contrastive study.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In particular this study attempts to investigate one part of grammar, namely syntax of Nobein in comparison with English language. The investigation is carried out to study the grammatical structure of the Nobein as an ancient language i.e. a language which is currently used, but by a limited group of people and does not satisfy all of their language needs within the framework of a living and international language (i.e. English):

1. It seeks to apply the CA techniques to a regional language (Nobein) and a modern one (English).
2. The intention is to find out how far these techniques may be applied to an ancient language in contrast with a living one.
3. To what extent the findings of such an investigation can be used for developing methods of TEFL to native speakers of Nobein.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

Comparative concepts are universally applicable, and they are defined on the basis of other universally applicable concepts: universal conceptual-semantic concepts, universal formal concepts, general formal concepts, and other comparative concepts” (Haspelmath 2010: 665).

Few studies have been published in the area of contrastive analysis in the Sudanese languages, specially the Nile Nubians. Some, but not all, of these languages are carried out comparatively (i.e. to identify differences and similarities). So the researcher considers this as a gap in Sudanese studies and attempts to contribute by the present investigation to a bridge it.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The present study attempts to achieve the following objectives:

- 1/ To identify the points of differences between Nobein and English at the level of syntax.
- 2/ To provide a model for the syntactical processes of both languages.
- 3/ To clarify the confusion of the terms dialect and language, as far as the Nubian language is concerned.
- 4/ To increase the existing knowledge about syntax of Nobein as a contribution to relevant studies.
- 5/ To put forward some suggestions relating to the teaching and learning of English as well as those who work in translating.

1.4 Significance of the Study

It seems that from the previous studies on Nubian languages the area of comparative linguistics is absent in these studies. Most of these studies are attempts in writing the language (Nubian), and concentrate on phonology more. The researcher finds that these studies have not made use of the area of contrastive analysis, so she attempts to explore this area.

In addition, the researcher believes that this study can be of a theoretical significance to researchers since it deals with one aspect of grammar, i.e. Syntax, in the phenomena of sentence structure in English and Nobein. Also, it hoped that the investigation will contribute to a better understanding and use of the Nubian language structures. Furthermore, the researcher intends to show that such contrastive study may prove to be useful for teaching EFL to Nubian learners, by Nobein teachers, at both secondary and tertiary levels. This kind of

contrastive study may be helpful to the understanding of syntax in different languages and their differences in structures. It might also be useful in the language teaching programs.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that:

- 1/ Nobein possess various sentence structures that can have the same counterparts in English.
- 2/ Both languages have unique structures, each on its own right i.e. one language can have one or more structures to which there are no available counterparts in the other language.
- 3/ Ancient languages can be compared with living ones, and there is a criterion for doing this comparison
- 4/ There are similarities and differences in both languages at syntactical level.

1.6 Limits of the Study

Of all the languages in the world today English deserves to be regarded as a world language. It is the world's most widely spoken language. It is the common means of communication between people of different nations. On the other hand, Nubian language considers one of the important languages spoken in Sudan.

The present investigation has been undertaken keeping in view the growing demands of learning Nobein in comparison with other living languages, the reason why English is chosen. To make it more comprehensive and specific, the study has limited itself in these languages. Besides, a study of grammar reveals a structure and regularity which lies at the basis of language and enables us to talk of the language system. Taking syntax as the most basic level of language,

and the sentence as the basic unit, this research tries to investigate the grammatical rules that govern this area.

1.7 Methodology of the study

CA is used in this research as a theoretical study that provides an in-depth means of discovering the differences and similarities between Nobein and English. This will then be used to create a practical framework for teachers. The grammar section is an essential focus to understand how both languages can be contrasted to help design effective materials, especially for Nubian speakers who study English.

1.8 Summary of the Chapter

This Chapter attempted to make a general introduction of the value of the language in general and Nubian language specifically. The chapter also, provides the objectives, hypotheses and the need for undertaking a research of this kind. It shows the methodology which used to carry out the study.

Chapter 2

Conceptual Frame work

Chapter Two

Conceptual Frame work

2.0 Introduction

This part is divided into three major sections; the first will be about the geography, people and history of Nubia. The second will introduce the origin of Nubian languages. The third sheds light on the theory of Contrastive Analysis, syntax and grammar.

2.1 Geography of Nubia

Nubia is defined geographically by Trigger (1976:12) as the portion of the Nile Valley that lies between Aswan which was the southern border of Egypt in the Pharaonic time and Khartoum district. Located in one of the hottest and most arid region of the world, it begins from Aswan and Komombo in Southern Egypt including a series of cataracts down the Nile which divided into two parts, the lower and upper Nubia.

Dafalla (1975: 3) describes the Nubian land as isolated, remote and separated from the rest of the country by natural barriers. To the east and west it is cut off from the world by the boundless waste of the Sahara and to the south the inaccessible discrete of the 'Atmur' (i.e. empty land or desert).

According to Badr (1955: 5) the name Nubia was given to places between the First and Fourth cataracts ,but in ancient periods it was designated to the countries from the First cataract to Ethiopia in the South. For Holt& Paly (1979: 1) the name, traditionally was applied to the whole regions from the First cataract to the Sabaluqa, north of Khartoum. It falls into two portions, which had separate histories from the early sixteenth century. Lower Nubia , called by the Ottomans, Berberistan ' the land of Barabra', extended from the First to the

Third cataract , and included the territory both North and South of the modern Egyptian_ Sudanese frontier.

Adams (1984:31) sees that the main physiographic subdivisions of Nubia are marked off in a general way by the main or numbered cataracts of the Nile. In upstream order, these subdivisions are Lower Nubia, the Batn el Hajar, the Abri _ Delgo Reach, the Dongola Reach, the Abo Hamad Reach and the Shendi.

2.2 The People of Nubia

The Nubians are non_ Arab Muslims who once lived in the historic region of Nubia. They belong to two major societies, the Kenuz and the Fadidja. According to Adams(1984: 46) the Nubians of today are little different from many other peoples of the Northern Sudan. They exhibit an old, stable blend of African Negro and Mediterranean Caucasian elements in which the two strains are about equally represented. The most common skin pigmentation is a light to medium brown. Individuals vary considerably in color, however, for there had been constant intermarriage on the one hand with black slaves from the south, and on the other with Egyptians and occasional European peoples who garrisoned the frontiers of the Ottoman Empire. He described them as simple, hospitable people. Pliny(1961:473) indicates to Nubians when he mentioned the Bedouin tribes living on the Nile and he says that they are a group of Ethiopian citizens.

The Arabized Nubians are primarily are sedentary cultivators, inhabiting the narrow strip on riverbank lands and the islands which can be watered by the Nile flood or irrigation(Holt and Daly: 1979: 1). The following table shows the divisions of Nubian families:

Table (1): Nubian Families

Turkish Nubian	Arabized Nubian	Pure Nubian
Daudab	Gubara	Awlad Geir
Dababia	Hib Allab	Soi
Mandlab	Gararish	Dogma
Bizrganab	Awlad Orkel Din	Ghardaga
Kikhiab	Awlad Assim	Dakin
Beiramab	Abbin	Nurina
Magarab		
Agha Hussein		
Shalabab		
Ibrimab		
Tubashia		
Hamadallab		
Kariab		

Taylor (1991: 54) concentrates on the indigenous inhabitants of Nubia and their interactions with their Egyptian neighbors. This long-term relationship left a lasting impression on the culture of both lands.

The ancient Nubians practiced agriculture along the Nile valley, building one of the very early world civilizations. On the eastern and western deserts of the Nile, certain Nubian groups adopted nomadic lifestyles together with subsistent agriculture. The nomads of Eastern Sudan were known to the ancient Egyptians as the "Medjay-Nubians", to the Romans as the "Blemmies", and later to the Arabs as the "Beja". Nubian nomads also lived and herded in the western deserts of Sudan, side by side, with the "Libyans". After the Arab migrations into Sudan, following the Arab invasions of the fourteenth century

CE, many Arabs settled and intermarried with the local population. As most of the immigrants were men, and since Arabs follow a patrilineal tradition (i.e., the children take the identity of their fathers), most Sudanese today define themselves as Arabs.

2.3 History of the Nubians

The Nubians have a proud and rich heritage. They existed long before the Pharaohs. Bianchi (2004: 2) refers the history of Nubians to the Old Stone Age, some 300,000 years ago. He adds that the Nubians had developed agriculture by the sixth millennium B.C, and pioneering contacts with Egypt further to the north. Such contacts were to characterize Egypt_ Nubian relationships for the remainder of ancient Nubians history.

In the last few years there has been a tendency to use the word ‘ Nubia’ for the northern part of the country, the area between the First and Second cataracts, and the UNESCO ‘ Save Nubia’ campaign reinforced this trend. Nubia does not end at the arid stony land(i.e.’ Batn al –Hajar’), but stretches much farther south. A part from archaeological research, ancient Pharaonic texts, as well as some Latin and Greek, yield a little information about the early history of civilization in Nubia.

Ahmed (1989:13) claims that Nubia had experienced from the earliest times important and continuous external cultural influences stated by the Egyptian Pharaohs, who fully incorporated Nubia into the Egyptian state as early as 340 B.C. The most important Nubian Kingdom was Napata (750_ 300 B.C.), which conquered all Egypt and extended the Nubian border to the Mediterranean and Jerusalem. Collins (1971: 257) mentions that during the eighth century B.C., the land south of Aswan known as ‘Kush’ established its independence from Egypt and by the mid- seventh century B.C. had asserted its hegemony over lower Egypt .driven from Egypt by the Assyrians, the kings of

Kush retreated to Nubia , where they continued to rule over the middle Nile for another thousand years, preserving their own unique Egyptian _ Nubian culture.

Through the systematic archaeology began with Reisner, the first archaeological survey of Nubia was made necessary by the enlargement of the original Aswan Dam (Adams,1984:66).

Nubia in the ancient Egyptian archaeology refers to the Fourth family. In the period of the sixth Family Egyptian borders extended to the second cataract. Shinnie (1974: 81) explains that Nubia was intrusive and came in from the west sometimes after the beginning of the fourth century A.D., and replaced Meroitic which decayed at the same time. He adds that new archaeological materials show the arrival of new people , who appeared at this time and has been associated with people called 'Nubian' in the inscription of Aezanes, king of Axum.

In 1730 B.C, the 'Hyksos' conquered Egypt which led to the migration of large numbers of Egyptians towards Nubia and spread their civilization in the Nubian lands down to Dongola which shows that Nubia is influenced by both Meroitic and Egyptian civilizations (Badr, 1955: 5).

According to Phillipson (1985: 157), Nubia was influenced by Christianity and Nubians were able to maintain their Christian culture for seven hundred years. Their artistic accomplishments were best illustrated in the frescoes recovered from the cathedral at Faras near WadiHalfa.

The other Nubian languages are found hundred kilometers to the southwest, in Darfur and the Nuba Mountains of Kordofan. For a long time it was assumed that the Nubian people dispersed from the Nile Valley to the south, probably at the time of the downfall of Christian Kingdoms. However, comparative

lexicostatistic research in the second half of the twentieth century has shown that the spread must have been in the opposite direction(Thelwall:1982).

2.4 The Nubian Language

In fact, Nubia was one of the centers of ancient civilizations, home for unique Sudanese cultures, and a bridge for trading with the Middle East and Eastern Africa. As the study is mainly concerned with the Nubian language currently used in the region of the Northern Sudan and Southern Egypt, this section will be confined to the origins of this language.

2.4.1 The Origins of the Nubian Language

Many people think that Nubian is a dialect, not a language. According to Kabara (1997), Nubian is a language and it was written using special letters but nowadays there is no specific writing system.

There is a controversy among historians and linguistics about the origin of the word 'Nubia' .while historians refer the name to the third century B.C., linguists (e.g. MacMichel, 1922:12) believes that the origin of this name is unknown but it seems a very old one . he agrees with Seligman (1965) in that it is derived from a Coptic word which means 'comb'. Some writers claim that the word 'Nebo' meaning gold was used in Egyptian writing that date to the origin of Aminhat, one of the kings of the 20th dynasty. Most probably this word is regarded as the origin of the word 'Nubia' because the region was famous throughout history for its gold mines; also a word for gold in modern Nubian is 'nub'.

Tucker & Bryan (1956) mention that the name 'Nubia' is ancient and was used in the old Egyptian, Coptic and Greek languages to denote the inhabitants of the Nile Valley south of Aswan. It is used in various forms;: Nubia (the country), Nubian (the language) and Nubians (the people). Stevenson (1984: 1)

uses the name to describe the Negroid inhabitants of the region which has consequently come to be known as the Nuba Mountains or Nuba Hills in the south eastern of the present Kordofan province in the Republic of Sudan. Moreover, he uses it to describe the people south of Egypt from where at different times slaves were drawn. He writes:

In the Nile Valley the term 'Nuba', in some form, is of uncertain origin.

It has been variously connected with Ancient Egyptian 'nb' 'gold' or 'nbd' those having plaited hair. Eratosthenes is the first recorded user of the term, speaking of the Noubai north of Meroe and west of the Nile, as far as the bends of the river (ibid).

Badr (1955) claims that it is unknown where and when the Nubian language originated in the centre of Africa, or an Asian language moved from Asia to Africa. He refers this to three probabilities :

- a) It is African and originated in its current place in Africa.
- b) It is Kushian moved from Asia via the Red Sea to Africa and settled in the area called 'Kush' between the second and fourth cataract.
- c) It is a Libyan tribe's language whose speakers moved towards the North and displaced the Negroid tribes.

Nubian language origin is referred to as a non _ Hamito-Semitic language from the hinterland to the Nile Valley on the southern borders of Egypt, where, in course of time it displaced the Meroitic language and was used in the succeeding Christian kingdoms, to live on through the Islamic conquest until present day (Stevenson, 1984: 2). According to Arkel (1955: 177,178) the name refers to the people who live in South Kordofan where we find different ethnics and languages most of them are Negro.

So, there is no consensus among historians about the origin of the word 'Nubia' and how the area that is known today as Nubia has come to acquire its name. Is the name modern or date back to ancient history? Does the name apply to some parts of Nubia or was it more extensively applied in former time? The word 'Nubia' conjures up all these and more nostalgia in the mind of many, particularly Nubians. To them it means identity, past glories, present dilemma, and a hopeful and glorious future.

Nubian language is the common feature that characterizes Nubian of today and it is the centre of their identity. Ethnologically this spoken language is divided into two main groups:

1. Fiadidja-Mahas: Sudan is the country of this language group, although slightly more than 50% of Nubian in Egypt is Fadidja. In Sudan it is the main spoken language group among the majority of Nubian south of Dongola and up to the borders with Egypt. While in Egypt it is spoken by all Nubian to the Kunuz areas in the north. Fadidja and Mahas are two variants of this group, but there is only a slight difference in accent.
2. Kenoz-Dongola: This is talked by people of Dongola of Sudan and Kunuz of Egypt. Both language groups bear a lot of lexical similarities and a good number of people of Dongola and Kunuz understand the Fadidja-Mahas, which is the tongue of the majority of Nubians.

According to the system of classification devised by Joseph Greenberg, the languages spoken by the Nubians belong to the Eastern Sudanic family of the Nilo-Saharan stock. They are fairly closely related to several of the tribal languages of southern Sudan and Uganda, and are more distantly related to many other indigenous languages of east-central Africa.

The Nubian languages are believed to have evolved originally in what today are the provinces of Kordofan and Darfur, in western Sudan.

Subsequently most of the Nubian speakers migrated eastward to the Nile Valley, displacing or absorbing an older population of Meroitic speakers. In the Middle Ages the Nubian languages were dominant in the Nile Valley at least from Aswan to the confluence of the Blue and White Niles. They were spoken and written in the medieval kingdoms of 'Nobatia' and 'Alwa'. Since that time the Nubians in their turn have been partly absorbed into the Arabic-speaking population of central Sudan, and Nubian languages survive in the Nile Valley only in the far northern Sudan and in southern Egypt.

There are also surviving pockets of Nubian speakers at several places in Kordofan and Darfur, although these languages are rapidly dying out. Today there are three Nubian-speaking groups in the Nile Valley: the Kanuz (sing., Kenzi) in the north, between Aswan and Maharraqah; the Mahas or Fadija in the middle, between Maharraqah and Karma; and the Danaglah (sing., Dongolawi), south of Karma. Kenzi and Dongolawi are actually dialects of the same language, while Mahasi is distinct and not intelligible to speakers of the other two. The Kanuz apparently migrated into their present northern habitat in the late Middle Ages, but the linguistic frontier between the Mahas and Danaglah was noted by the tenth-century Egyptian traveler bn Salim AL-aswani.

According to Authoing (1979: 268), Nubia is spoken along the Nile from a little north of Aswan to Debbah, and there is good evidence from place names for its further extension upriver, perhaps to the neighborhood of Khartoum, in medieval times. Related languages are spoken in the Nuba Hills to the southwest, where a group of dialects usually known as 'Hill Nubia' are spoken by people very different physically and culturally from the speakers of 'River Nubian'.

In addition to the languages that still survive, one or more additional Nubian languages were probably spoken in the kingdom of 'Alwa', around the confluence of the Blue and White Niles, where only Arabic is spoken today. There are also at least six surviving Nubian languages in Kordofan and Darfur.

They are quite markedly distinct from the languages spoken along the Nile, and also from one another, suggesting a long period of separate existence.

2.4.2 The Written Nubian Language

While old Nubia had had systems for archiving and documentation prior to the Christian Nubia era, most if not all of the ancient texts date back to this era. The context of these manuscripts are of Christian Nature and the most known of all is the 'MS or The Old Nubian Miracle of Saint Menas' from Qasr Ibrim and Serra East. This manuscript is one of the basic texts of Old Nubian literature.

The MS was purchased by the British Museum in 1908. According to Dr. Budge's description it measures about 15.5 by 110 cm and consists of 8 leaves of parchment in three quires, and is bound in covers of brown leather (Griffith). The scientific study of the Old Nubian language started very late, in 1913 by Griffith's monumental edition of all available Nubian text then. This was followed by several studies of other scholars.

During the Christian Nubian era the Old Nubian alphabets had resemblance to Old Greek and Coptic alphabets. Both Coptic (31 or 32 letters) and Old Nubian (26) had more letters than old Greek (24), either to add special letters with no equivalent in old Greek (the Old Coptic) or to represent special sounds (the Old Nubian).

As for today no standard method of writing Old Nubian has been adopted. However recently some scholars are active on establishing such a standard like Prof. Browne and Dr. M. M. Khalil. Recently the Nubian Archaeologist Dr. M. M. Khalil has drafted a textbook on how to write old Nubian. His study is based on an assumption that since Old Nubian relies mainly on produced tones

(intonation or chanting) then a Nubian who talks and masters the language is more qualified and capable to establish a standard method of writing.

The structure and formation of the Old Nubian language is characterized by its reliance on produced tones that is known as intonation or chanting. In this respect the general structure of this language is not a group of words linked by a common syntax to form a sentence. The speaker tackles this formation by putting parts together integrally with intonation and Chanting. This takes place without interruption to conform to grammar thus most parts of a sentence are composed by adding a suffix or prefix to the word stem.

2.4.3 The Coptic Language and its Greek Alphabet

The Coptic Language is the name used to refer to the last stage of the written Nubian language. Coptic should more correctly be used to refer to the script rather than the language itself. Even though this script was introduced as far back as the 2nd century BC. It is usually applied to the writing of the Nubian language from the first century AD.

The Coptic alphabet is used for the Coptic language of Nubia. This was the religious language used by Nubian Christians, and Egyptian as well. It is derived from Greek and Nubian writing. Old Nubian was not the only written language in medieval Nubia; both Greek and Coptic were also in regular use. For obvious reasons Coptic was the preferred language of the numerous

Egyptians who served in the Nubian priesthood and monastic orders. However, the liturgical language that was originally introduced when Nubia was converted to Christianity was Greek, and even after they accepted the discipline of Alexandria, the Nubians were reluctant to abandon it. In later centuries, when knowledge of Greek became increasingly imperfect, the tendency among the native clergy was to substitute Old Nubian rather than Coptic. Thus, according to Jakobielski's analysis, Coptic was the language only

of the Egyptian clergy resident within Nubia, while Greek, increasingly augmented by Old Nubian, was used by the indigenous population.

The surviving literature in Coptic and in Greek is almost exclusively religious, while Old Nubian was also used for administration and commerce. In the later Middle Ages there was much commercial correspondence in Arabic, since much of Nubia's trade was carried on by Egyptians. It is not certain when the use of Coptic and Greek died out in Nubia; presumably it was when contact with Alexandria was broken in the fourteenth century. The latest known document in Coptic is the consecration scroll of Bishop Timotheos of Ibrim and Faras, written in 1372. It was buried beside him in his tomb at Qasr Ibrim.

Old Nubian persisted for a century longer as the written language of the Christian splinter kingdom of 'Dotawo', which came to an end late in the fifteenth century. The last known document in Old Nubian bears the date 1484. Since their conversion to Islam, the Nubians have used Arabic exclusively as an instrument of written communication, though they continue to speak their indigenous languages as well as Arabic.

As early as 3000 B.C., the Egyptians had developed a writing system of their own. Writing also appeared in the valley of the Indus (now is Pakistan and India) around 2500 B.C. around 2000 B.C. the Chinese began using pictograms as symbols for words rather than concepts. By 1500 B.C. several of the world's most technologically complex civilizations had developed systems to commit spoken language to visual representation. So writing is known as a mean of communication from thousands years ago and various writing system were used at different time in history.

The Nubian language originated during the Meroitic period as a popular language beside the formal Meroitic language. In the middle of the Christian era the Nubian language developed and became the language of speech, writing, art, trade and worship, Badr (1955) thinks that the Nubians had their own language

and used it in their ordinary life, using local letters, and in the Christian era they used Coptic letters. Shinnie (1974:45) claims that Coptic was quite spread in Nubia, and inscriptions in it are found as far upstream as Koro, not far from Abu Hamad in Sudan.

Moreover, we find that the linguist Armbruster (1960) lists fifteen words in the modern Dongola dialect of Nuba which are borrowing from Coptic. Again, Kabara (1997: 1) refers the starting point of the Nubian language to the year 1906 by the German Schafer and followed by Lepss and Reinisch who wrote two books about the spread of manuscripts by the English linguist Budge in London museum. Then Griffith collected and translated these manuscripts which were retranslated by Zyhlar (1928).

The Nubians continue writing their language in Coptic but the spread of Islam and the influence of Arab Muslims on the country led to the end of Coptic writing and the Nubians used Arabic in their writing. Kabara (1997:26) talks about writing and documentation system in the Old Nubian period. He mentions that using letters (i.e. the alphabets) in Nubian for writing was started very early in one stage of its ancient history. Egyptians were the first who had known the writing and they used the Coptic letters which were 24, then they added six letters that were not existed in Coptic and they were developed and known as the Old Nubian alphabets.

Therefore, we can safely say that Nubian language was influenced by Coptic, Greek, Egyptian and Arabic. Only one of the medieval Nubian languages was written down with any degree of regularity. It was the ancestor of modern Mahasi, although the medieval variant is usually designated as Old Nubian. It was written in a modified Coptic alphabet, with two added letters to represent sounds not found in Coptic. F. L. Griffith believed that these

characters were carried over from the old Meroitic alphabet, although no text in Old Nubian can be dated earlier than 795.

Surviving texts in Old Nubian are mostly of a religious nature. They include gospels, prayer books, lives of saints, descriptive legends for wall paintings, and a great many mortuary texts. In addition, much of the administrative and commercial correspondence found at QASR IBRIM is in Old Nubian. The same form of written language appears to have been used both in the territory of Nobatia, where Mahasi was also the spoken language, and in Makouria, where the spoken language was Dongolawi. Griffith believed that the few Old Nubian texts recovered from the more southerly kingdom of 'Alwa might represent a different language or dialect.

2.5 Phonology of Nubian Language

Since the modern Nubian is divided into many branches (i.e. Dongolese, Kenuz, Mahas_ Nobein), the researcher will explain the Nobein phonology. First, there be a general introduction about the phonology as a branch of linguistics, then followed by a description of the Old Nubian phonology. According to Roach (1983) sounds are divided into two parts, consonants and vowels, beside two others which are called semi vowels. Consonants are those sounds which are described in terms of the movements and contacts of the vocal organs (articulation). Some consonants are voiced while others are voiceless. Vowels, on the other hand, are made on the stricture involving contact of both active and passive articulations e.g. the lower and upper lips, the tongue and the teeth. In English there are 24 consonants illustrated in the following table

Table (2): English Consonants**(Roach: 1983)**

Place of Articulation								
Manner of Articulation	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palate – alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	P b			tʃ dʒ			k g	
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z				h
Affricate					T d			
Nasal	m			N				
Lateral				L			ŋ	
Approximant	w				r	j		

According to Browne (1988) the Old Nubian has eighteen consonants; two semi- vowels, and five vowels. The table below shows these alphabets and equivalents in the IPA. For example the phoneme / e/ in IPA equals /E/ in Old Nubian so on.

Table (3): The Old Nubian Alphabet**(Brown: 1988)**

Old Nubian	IPA	Old Nubian	IPA	Old Nubian	IPA
a	a	λ	l	III	w
B	b	μ	m	III	sh, s
Π	g	N	n	ζ	h
Δ	d	O	o	ð	dj
€	e	oy	u	ʻɔ	tsh
Z	z	π	p	Φ	nj
I	i	ρ	r	Φ	ph, f
İ	y	c	s		
K	k	T	t		

Concerning the Modern Nubian phonology (i.e. Nobein), the study based on the research of Bell ‘Place Names in the Belly of Stone’ (1971) and ‘The Verbal system in a Nubian dialect’ by Ayoub (1968). Bell mentions sixteen consonants for the Nobein. These are; /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /f/, /s/, /sh/, /h/, /m/, /n/, /ng/, /r/, /l/, /ch/, /j/, two semi-vowels /w/, /y/ and five vowels /e/, /a/, /u/, /o/, /i/. the table below illustrates the consonants of Nobein, they are shown in the IPA transcription as follows:

Table (4): Consonants of Modern Nobein

(Bell: 1971)

	Manner of Articulation					
Place of Articulation	Plosive s	Nasal s	Laterals l	Fricative e	Affricate s	Semi-vowels s
Bilabial	/b/	/m/				/w/
Dental	/t/					
Alveolar	/d/	/n/		/s/	/tʃ/	
Velar	/k/ /g/	/ /				
Rolled			/r/			
Unrolled			/l/			
Labio – dental				/f/		
Palate-alveolar				/ /		
Guttural				/h/		
Palatal					/ʃ /	/y/

We notice that there are some phonemes in English are absent in Nobein. For example the phoneme /p/ is not realized in Bell's phonological system while Ayoub (1968) sorts it as bilabial voice less plosive and he mentions that it only found as an initial sound in three affixes as:

- 1) 'pa' (an exponent of the mark 'ga') e.g. 'kita: b pa dumm' = take the book.
- 2) 'pu' (an exponent of the plural suffix 'gu'), e.g. ' senab _ pu' = Zeinab's people.
- 3) 'po':n' (an exponent of the affix 'go:n), e.g. " kita:b po:n gelemgo:n g ekir' = bring the book and the pen.

Bell (1971) considers the phonemes /ng/ and /ch/ (c) , as consonant clusters and they are found only medially, e.g 'dingi' = fight, 'achi' = bite. Furthermore, the two digraphs /sh/ and /ny/ represent single consonants rather than clusters. normally no confusion occurs from the use of these digraphs, exceptionally, the sequence /s/ + /h/ may be illustrated into Nubian by the borrowing of Arabic words such as 'fusha' 'vacation' and may be marked /s'h/ to avoid this confusion. The table below shows the Nobein letters with some examples and their equivalents in English. for example the phoneme /b/ in Nobein equals the phoneme /b/ in English, i.e./ the /b/ in the word /buru/ in Nobein has the same pronunciation as that of the word 'boy' in English. The following table shows the Nobein's consonants with some examples.

Table (5): Examples of Nobein's Consonants

Nobein	English	Example	Meaning
/b/	/b/	/buru/	Girl
/d/	/d/	/dir/	Shoe
/f/	/f/	/fenti/	Date
/g/	/g/	/geil/	Red
/h/	/h/	/hiddo/	Where
/j/	/dj/	/jeli/	Work
/k/	/k/	/kudud/	Young _ small
/l/	/l/	/legen/	Wash basin
/m/	m/	/murti/	Horse
/n/	/n/	/nar/	Tongue
/r/	/r/	/sigir/	Boat
/s/	/s/	/suu/	Milk
/t/	/t/	/tii/	Cow
/sh/	/ʃ/	/shibir/	Basket
/ng/	/ŋ/	/soring/	Nose
/ch/	/tʃ/	/kongal/	Mirror
/w/	/w/	/wirki/	Worms
/y/	/j/	/yabaa/	Is it so"

Vowels in Nobein as mentioned before, are five. They are

/i/: front close.

/e/: front half close.

/a/: open.

/o/: back half close with lip rounding.

/u/ : back close with lip rounding.

The following table explains these vowels supported with some examples. For example the phoneme /e/ in Nobein is equivalent to English /e/ , i.e. in the word /eged/ (means sheep) /e/ equals the English phoneme /e/ in the word /eg/.

Table (6): Vowles of Nobein

Nobein	English	Example	Meaning
/a/	/a/	/agar/	Place
/i/	/i/	/id/	Man
/e/	/e/	/eged/	Sheep
/o/	/o/	//oskad/	Nine
u/	/u/	/ulum/	Crocodile

2.6 Morphology of Nubian Language

This part is divided into two units. The first will introduce the term morphology generally, while the second will discuss the morphology of Nobein.

Morphology is defined as ‘the study of word formation’. These words are formed using some elements which are called morphemes. Moreover, these elements or morphemes have grammatical functions. Thus the word renew has two morphemes; re and new. One minimal unit is new; the other is re(means again). The word journalist, for example consists of free morphemes. There is one minimal unit or meaning ; journal, another one _ ist (meaning person who does the action), and minimal unit of grammatical function(indicating plural).

Morphemes are divided into two parts:

1/ Free morphemes: they can stand alone, they are divided into two other parts:

- a) lexical morphemes: they are the normal nouns, adjectives, and verbs, e.g., girl, red, go, office ,etc.

- b) functional morphemes: they have grammatical functions such as prepositions, articles, pronouns and conjunctions(e.g, in my, this, or, and, etc).

2/ Bound morphemes: they are divided into two categories:

- a) Derivational morphemes: their functions are to make new words of different grammatical categories; thus they change the word . these can be found in such words (affixes) like, _ ness, _ ment, un, pre, _ ly, etc. for example in the word government, the element 'ment' changes the word govern (verb) to become government (noun). The elements that precede the word stem are called prefixes while those follow the stems are called suffixes.
- b) Inflectional morphemes: they work to the grammatical function of words. For example, the morphemes – s, - ed, -er, -est , 's, all have grammatical functions. The –s indicates the plural form, -ed indicates the past tense, -er and –est show the degree of comparatives and superlatives and 's means the possession. The following diagram shows the types of morphemes.

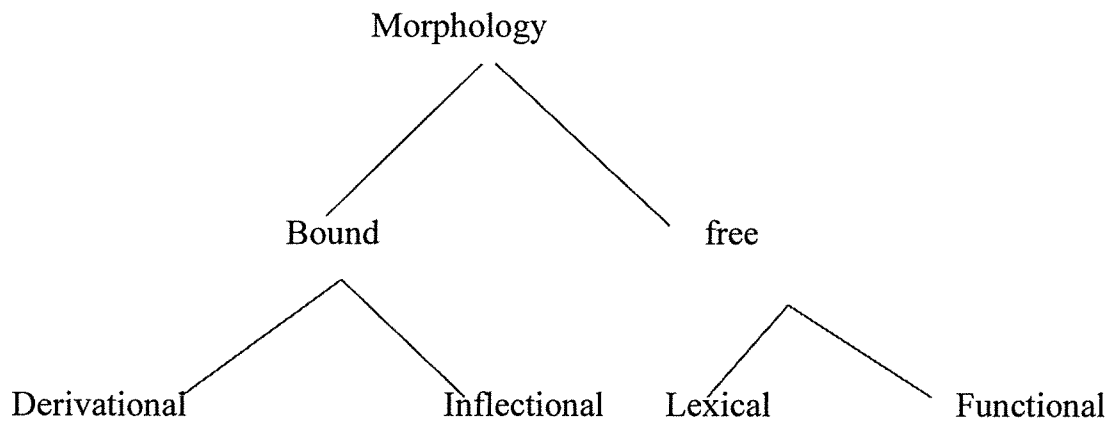


Figure (1): types of morphemes

Concerning the morphology of Nobein, the researcher relied on herself as an informant since she Nobein and on the Ph.D. of Ayoub (1968) ‘The Verbal System of Nubian’., in which he talks about different suffixes and prefixes.

Nobein is rich of morphemes. The word- form such as ‘kab’, ‘kab- atta, kab_es, and a:g kab r’ consist of one element ‘kab’ and a number of other elements such as _s, atta, es, a:g; which are considered as morphemes. Moreover, we find the two types of morphemes with their sub-branches. For example words such as ‘kawir’= open, ‘id’ = man , ‘ashri’ = beautiful, ‘fab’ – father.etc, are free morphemes (lexical). While the elements ‘goon’ = and, ‘in’ = this, ‘toon’ = from, ‘dan’ = with, are considered as functional morphemes.

For the bound morphemes the two types also exist in Nobein. New words are made from such morphemes(derivational morphemes) for example, the addition of the derivational morpheme ‘ar’ change the verb ‘a:g’ to the noun ‘agar’ place, and the morphemes ‘a”d’ changes the verb ‘daffir’= to lose to be the noun ‘ daffirad’.

The other type of bound morpheme which is the inflectional morpheme is co_ exist in Nobein. They are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past or present, if it is a comparative or possessive form. Examples of inflectional morphemes can be seen in the use of some suffixes to form the plurality such as 'ri i:, nchi, etc,' e.g, 'buru' = girl, 'buru i:' = girls where the suffix 'I'" equals the English 's', the inflectional morphemes in tenses are many and different from one tense to another according to person, e.g, in the words 'kab r' 'kabna', 'kabrokom', the suffixes r , na, rokom, are used with these persons: 'r' 1st person singular (present simple), 'na' with the 2nd person (present simple), 'rokom' with the second 2nd person plural. The suffix 'n' is used as a possessive marker, e.g, 'hudanbinati' = Huda's scarf, and the suffixes: 'liken' and 'kael' are used for comparative and superlative cases. The following sentences are cut down morphologically:

' sigir toog log miri' = the boat runs with the wind (boat wind with runs)

(lexical lexical functional lexical inflectional)

' in buru ashri a um' = this is not beautiful (this girl beautiful is not) (functional lexical lexical lexical functional).

2.7 Syntax of Nubian Language

In this section the researcher will give a preview of Nobein's syntax. Before starting, it is necessary, firstly, to define the term 'syntax'. Syntax is the grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence. It concerns both word order and agreement in the relationship between words.

In order to explain the syntax of Nobein the researcher relied on' the Nubian language' of Badr. She also depends on the information which has been gathered from the informants.

The basic word order in a Nobein sentence is subject object verb .objects are marked by an object suffix –'ga' or –' ka' often assimilating to the final consonant of the word.

Examples :

‘mug katu:g’= hit the dog.

‘amangaekir’ = bring water.

In a sentence containing both a direct and indirect objects, the object marker is suffixed to both, e.g, ‘ay hasan ga kasirka tis’ = I gave Hassan a turban (I Hassan turban gave), ‘tar ayga mug ka amantiro’ = she showed me the dog (she me dog showed).

The noun phrase consists of noun and the suffixes ‘ka’ or ‘ga’ which are indications as the article.

NP \longrightarrow N+ (Adj)

e.g ‘buru nasi’ = tall girl (girl tall).

The noun in Nobein precedes the adjective and the verb. The NP can be a pronoun (tar = she, ir = you, etc) or a proper noun(id= man, mug = dog, etc).

The sentence generally can be described as following:

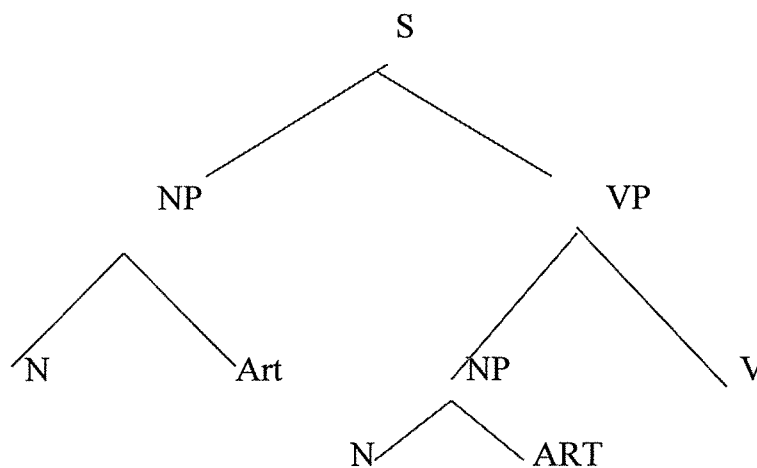


Figure (2): Syntax of Nobein

Example:

Kadis su: ga neiu

(cat) (milk) (the) (drank)

The suffixes 'ka' and 'ga' can be used as a definite article (the) and / or objective markers. The negative is formed by using some articles. The article 'mun' is used to express the negative in the present and future , e.g, 'ay kabmun' = I don't eat, 'mun' is used with the pronouns 'a' (I), 'tar' (she/ he /it), 'ou' (we), while the article 'mun+ nam' is used with 'ir' (you), and 'mun + nokom' with 'ter' (they)

For the past, the negative is expressed by the article 'kumun' with the pronouns 'ay', 'tar', and 'ou'. This article (i.e. 'kumun') is followed by the suffix 'nam' with the pronoun 'ir', 'nokom' with the pronoun 'ur' and 'na' with 'ter'.

Examples:

'ay kabmun' = I don't eat (I eat not).

'ay fakabmun' – I won't eat (I will eat not).

We notice that the negative articles come at the end of the sentence. In the interrogative case the verb is suffixed by a question article and it is changed according to the subject, singular or plural.

Examples:

'ay fay re?' = do I write? (I write + re).

'ir fayna?' = do you write? (you write + na)

'tar fayna?' = does she/ he/write?' (she/ he write+ na)

‘ou fayro?’ = we write + ro)

‘ur fayro?’ = do you write? (you write + ro)

‘ter fay na?’ = do they write? (they write + na)

We notice that in Yes / No questions the question begins with a nominal and the interrogative suffixes come at the end of the sentence. With the question words (i.e. when, where, how,...etc) the sentence structure is formed as following: QW + N + V + M

Examples:

‘hison aykab re?’ = when do I eat?

‘sikirikir o?’ – how did you come?

We notice that the Nobein’s interrogative is formed by using different suffixes which equal the auxiliary verbs in English do / does. With the pronouns ‘ay’ we use the suffix re, with ‘ir’, ‘tar’, and ‘ter’ we use the suffix na and with ‘ou’ and ‘ur’ the suffix 'ro' is used.

2..8 Classification and Distribution of the Nubian Language

The Nubian language may be divided into two stages. The first is the Old Nubian which was documented and unified; the second is the Modern one which characterizes by varieties of dialects.

2.8.1 The Old Nubian Language

The Old Nubian Language is the name given to the written language of the medieval Christian kingdom from the 8th to the 15th century A.D. Greek_ Coptic alphabet was used for writing this language. According to Tucker & Bryan (1956: 13) there would appear to have been several dialects in Old Nubian, the best known is Mahas.

For Shinnie (1974) the Nubian language is considered as the main and national in the Dongola Kingdom, and he assumes that this language (Nubian) can be the language spoken at the court, and was reduced to written format at least as the eight century

2.8.2 Modern Nubian Language

Greenberg (1966: 314) classifies the Modern Nubian language with the Nilo_ Saharan group. Tucker & Bryan (1956:75) divided these groups into the following:

- a) Nile Nubian: Dongola_ Kenuz, and Mahas _ Fadicca.
- b) Hill Nubian.
- c) Darfur Nubian: Midob_ Birked.

According to them these languages are spoken in these places:

- 1- The Nile Valley, on both sides of Egypt _ Sudan borders.
- 2- The northern part of the Nuba Hills area in Kordofan.
- 3- Darfur.

As for the Nile Nubian , Adam identifies three dialects of Nubian which are spoken on the banks of the Nile between the First and Fourth cataracts approximately:

- a) Kenzi: from Aswan to Korosko.
- b) Mahas(includingFadicca (i.eNobiin): from Korosko to Abu Fatma at the head of the third cataract.
- c) Dongolese, or Dongola Nubian: from Abu Fatma to Korti about fifty miles below the fourth cataract.

Tucker & Bryan (1956) identify the Nile Nubian as a dialect cluster. Dongolese, Kenuz, Fadicca and Mahas are the Nile Nubian dialects, Dongolese _ Kenuz are practically identical, although the areas in which they are spoken, are separated by speakers of Mahas and Fadicca. Dongolese is spoken in Dongola province while Kenuz is spoken in Egypt, from Seiyala northwards to beyond Aswan. Mahas_ Fadicca are closely related ;Mahas is spoken between Dongola and the Egyptian border, and Fadicca is spoken from Sudan Egyptian borders northwards to Korosko in Egypt. This last division of Mahas_ Fadicca made by Reinish (1879), where he distinguishes two dialects: a southern one, Mahas, and a northern ,Fadicca. This division, according to Bell(1974: 111) was denied by Lepsius, who refers to the whole as Mahas, while Bell gives Fadicca_ Mahas the name “Nobein”

The Hill Nubian is a dialect cluster for Tucker & Bryan (1956: 76), it is spoken in Kordofan, in the northern and north_ western part of the Nuba Hills, from El Hugeirat in western Kordofan district to Jebel Dair south of Rahad. Most of these regional dialects are known by the names of the localities where they are spoken. Hence Kordofan or Hill Nubian can be classified into sub-divisions according to phonetic changes .

However, a Nubian dialect was spoken in Jebel Haraza and adjacent hills, north of El Obeid, but is now probably extinct.Both Birked and Midob are spoken in Drfur, so they are referred to as Darfur Nubian. Midob (who called themselves Tidda) have three sections (Urti, Sheltoka or Kargid and Torti) and

perhaps two dialects. Bired or Birgid people call themselves 'Murgi' and their language was spoken north and east of the Daju and Baygo land, east of Gebel Mara and north of Nyala. No dialects or Birked have been recorded and the language has become extinct.

Today, there is a convenient differentiation between Nubians(Nubiyun) the speakers of the non_ Arabic language of Upper Egypt, namely (Nubia), and 'Nuba' as an overall term for the tribal groups of the Nuba Mountains of Kordofan province. There has been confusion when writers have not kept to or understand this usage; sometimes calling the Nubians of the Nile 'Nuba' and vice versa. Stevenson (1984: 2) refers this confusion to the linguistic connection between the Nubian language of the Nile Valley and the languages of some of the northern hills of the Nuba Mountains. He argues that this relationship attributed to migration from the Nile to Nuba Mountains and there has been influence from the Nile Nubian speakers south _ west ward to Kordofan.

Although some researchers assume that there is a relationship between the Nilotic Nubians and the Hill Nubians, there is no exact essence of this relation. On the other hand some studies deny any direct relation between these two groups. Mekawwi (1951) rejects such relations and describes this assumption as a huge mistake, because there were no further justifications in their linking between the Kordofani Mountain inhabitants and the Nilotic Nubians. So he describes the Nilotic Nubians as Caucasians and the Hill Nubians as Negroid.

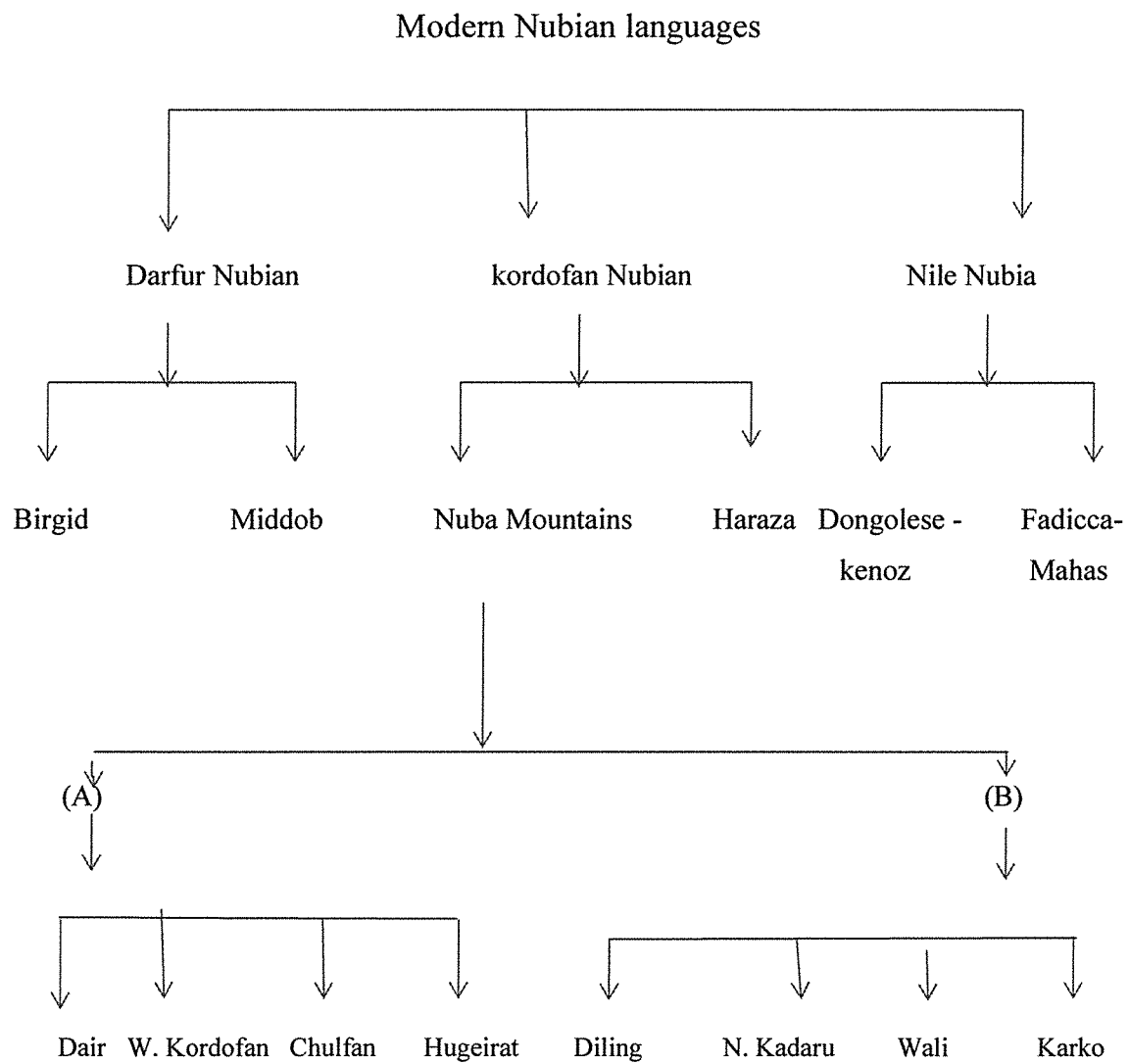


Figure (3): Classification of Modern Nubian Languages (Tucker & Bryan: (1956)

2. 9 Contrastive Analysis Hypotheses

Contrastive analysis is a method of analyzing the structure of any two languages with a view to estimate the differential aspects of their systems irrespective of their genetic affinity or level of development. According to James (1980:10) contrastive analysis is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted two _ valued typologies and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared.

CA was elaborated by structuralism Fries (1945) and Lado (1957). The structuralism model was in fact, expounded by Bloomfield (1933) and elaborated by Harris(1963). The analytic technique developed by the structuralisms is known as Immediate Constituent (IC) analysis. It claims that any grammatical construction which is not 'simple' can be reduced to pairs of constituents. Transformational _ Generative Grammar (T_GG) on the other hand, was elaborated by Chomsky in his Syntactic Structure (1957) and his Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965). This kind of grammar recognizes a level of deep structure and a level of surface structure, which are related by sets of transformations. According to James (1980: 41) the reasons behind using T-GG in CA are: first, the deep structures are 'universal' or common to all languages , secondly, the transformations applied to deep structures are taken from a universal stock, which is called the 'formal universals' - so there is a second criterion for comparison or contrastive analysis with some kind of measure of degree of difference between compared constructions in L1and L2..

The theoretical bases of CA Hypothesis, however, were established in what is called 'Linguistics Across Cultures' (1957) by Lado who was considered the first to provide a comprehensive theoretical treatment and to suggest a systematic set of technical procedures for the contrastive study of

languages. This involved description of the languages and prediction of learning difficulties after languages being compared. He observed that “ those elements which are similar to the native learner’s language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult. The origins of contrastive analysis according to Ellis (1985:23) and Connor (1996: 15) were pedagogic , since it was rooted in the practical need to teach an L2 in the most efficient way possible. Ellis maintains that CA had both a psychological and a linguistic aspect. The psychological aspect of CA should deal with the conditions under which interference takes place and should account for instances when linguistic differences between the first and second languages lead to transfer errors. On the other hand, the linguistic aspect of CA deals with a comparison of two languages which can be carried out using any of different models of grammar. It emphasized the importance of detailed ‘scientific description’ of languages based on a description of the different categories that make up the patterns of a language (ibid).

Els et al (1984:38) point out that CA has a number of essential objectives. Firstly, it provides insights into similarities and differences between languages. Secondly, it explains and predicts problems in L2 learning. Thirdly, develops course materials for language teaching.

According to König & Gast (2009: 1) the assumption that foreign language teaching can be improved by comparing the learner’s native language with the language to be learned came to be known as the “Contrastive Hypothesis”. Its main assumptions can be summarized as follows :

- First language acquisition and foreign language learning differ fundamentally, especially in those cases where the foreign language is learnt later than a mother tongue and on the basis of the full mastery of that mother tongue.

- Every language has its own specific structure. Similarities between the two languages will cause no difficulties ('positive transfer'), but differences will, due to 'negative transfer' (or 'interference'). The student's learning task can therefore roughly be defined as the sum of the differences between the two languages.
- A systematic comparison between mother tongue and foreign language to be learnt will reveal both similarities and contrasts.
- On the basis of such a comparison it will be possible to predict or even rank learning difficulties and to develop strategies (teaching materials, teaching techniques, etc.) for making foreign language teaching more efficient.

Contrastive analysis attempted to predict the areas of difficulty and non-difficulty learners would encounter by comparing the linguistic system of the target language (TL). Proponents of this approach claimed that those elements of the TL which were similar to the learners' NL would be relatively difficult to acquire (Lado 1957).

Wardhaugh(1974) presents two versions of CA, one is the strong version (pseudo- procedure), and the other is the weak version. The strong is the one which most of the supporters of this theory base their claims, although it was unrealistic and impracticable. In this version it is possible to contrast the system of one language (the grammar, phonology and lexicon) with the system of a second language in order to predict the difficulties which a speaker of the second language will have in learning the first language, and to construct reading materials to help him/ her learn that language.

However, the weak version, on the other hand, has possibilities for usefulness, although even this is suspect to some linguists. This theory makes a lot of demands of linguists. For example the theory requires to have:

- 1) A set of linguistic universals formulated within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deals with syntax, semantics and phonology.
- 2) A theory of contrastive linguistics in which they can 'plugin' linguistic descriptions of the two languages to be compared.

This version is called a 'pseudo- procedure' _ a procedure which linguistics claim they could follow, in order to achieve definitive results, if only there were enough time. In the weak version, on the other hand, the linguist uses the best linguistic knowledge available to him in order to account for the observed difficulties in second language learning. This approach makes fewer demands of contrastive theory than the strong version.

James (1994 :7) adds a third version called the moderate version beside the strong and weak ones. According to him the strong version focuses on the notion of interference of the first language system with the second language system as the principal barrier to second language learning. The weak version on the other hand, studies errors after they have been occurred by second language learners and explanations based on a contrastive analysis of these areas.

The moderate version has been defined as a specialization of the principle of ' Stimulus Generalization' .it assumes that greater differences do not always result in greater difficulty. Such a view underscores the significance of intra lingual errors, which are as much a factor in second language learning as in inter lingual errors (ibid).

2.9.1 Theoretical and Applied Contrastive Analysis

The experience derived from the early work with contrasts implies clearly that it is necessary to distinguish between two types of CA: theoretical and applied. Theoretical contrastive studies produce extensive accounts of the differences and similarities between the languages contrasted. Attempts are also made at providing adequate models for cross language comparison and at determining which elements in languages are comparable and how it should be done. The main concern of early applied contrastive analysis was a reliable prediction of the learner's difficulties (James: 1980: 181_ 187), this was later to be called the strong hypothesis of contrastive analysis (Wardhaugh: 1970).

2.9.2 Linguistic Models and Contrastive Studies

Contrastive studies are performed in various linguistic models, ranging from traditional grammars, through structural, generative transformational, relational grammar. According to Krzeszowski (1987: 108) the minimum requirement that one can place on such models is that a model employed in the description of L1 should be compatible with the model employed in the description of L2.

Fisiak (1990) writes:

CA can be performed meaning fully only if the confronted languages are presented in the framework of the same theory one can not take Polish described within a structural theory and compare it with English presented within a transformational theory. such a contrastive comparison would be meaning less and, moreover, Practically impossible as each theory uses its own set of concepts and it would not be feasible in most cases to establish similarities and differences holding between linguistic elements. Furthermore, different theories vary as to the number of facts they can account for.

Krzeszowski (1987) talks about the Classical Contrastive Analysis (CCA).
He mentions that there are three steps in CCA studies:

1) Description:

He assumes that no comparison can be done without a prior description of the elements to be compared. Therefore, all contrastive studies must be founded on independent descriptions of the relevant items of the languages to be compared.

2) Juxtaposition:

This step is crucial in deciding what is to be compared with what is not to be compared. It is based on intuitive judgements of component bilingual informants, who determined the material to be compared. In Classical Contrastive studies the investigator himself often acts as the bilingual informant and decides what to compare on the basis of his own knowledge of the two languages.

3) Comparison:

4) Three basic areas of comparison are distinguished:

- a. Comparisons of various equivalent systems across languages, such as pronouns, articles, verbs and in phonology consonants, vowels, as well as sub systems, such as nasals, laterals, etc., depending on the degree of 'delicacy' of grammar.
- b. Comparisons of equivalent constructions, for example, interrogative, relative, negative, nominal phrase, etc., and in phonology , clusters, syllables, diphthongs, and various distributions of sounds.
- c. Comparisons of equivalent rules, for example, subject rising from the embodied sentence, adjective placement, interrogative

inversion, passivation, etc., and in phonology assimilation, dissimilation, metathesis, etc.

2.9.3 CA and Behaviorist Learning Theory

Behaviorist psychology held that the ability to perform in a first language represented a set of habits which had been acquired by linking language forms with meanings via reinforcement and reward. According to Hawkins et al (1994: 17) the meeting of the two approaches _ structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology – in researchers' thinking about SLA gave rise to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.

Contrastive Analysis was used in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s as a method of explaining why some features of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others. According to the behaviorist theories prevailing at the time, language learning was a question of habit formation and this could be reinforced or impeded by existing habits (Chomsky: 1966). Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language depended on the difference between the learners' mother tongue (L1) and the language they were trying to learn.

Long et al (1991: 52) assume that researchers from the 1940s to 1960s conducted contrastive analysis (before the SLA was established), systematically comparing two languages. According to them, those researchers were motivated by the prospect of being able to identify points of similarity and difference between particular native languages (NLs) and target languages (TLs) believing that a more effective pedagogy would result when these were taken into consideration. Language materials were considered to be more efficient when based on contrastive analysis (CA) was expressed by Lado:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and

The distributions of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives (Lado: 1957 : 2)

James (1980:20) sees that the psychological basis of CA is Transfer Theory, elaborated and formulated within a stimulus + response theory of psychology. Behaviorist learning theory predicts that transfer will take place from the first to second language. Transfer will be negative when there is proactive inhibition. In this case errors will result. When the first and second language habits are, transfer will be positive and no errors will occur. Thus differences between the first and second language create learning difficulty which results in errors, while the similarities between first and second languages facilitate rapid and easy learning.

2.10 Grammar

Most linguists agree on the definition of the term grammar in that it is concerned with the structure of words (morphemes), and of phrases and clauses (syntax). English grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety.

Grammar is both a science and an art. As a science, it investigates the principles of language in general. When thus used, it is denominated general grammar, and sometimes comparative grammar. As an art, it teaches the right method of applying these principles to a particular language.

2.10.1 Traditional grammar

A grammar in the traditional view is an account of competence. It describes and attempts to account for the ability of a speaker to understand an arbitrary sentence of his language and to produce an appropriate sentence on a given occasion. Grammar is the key to understanding the language people speaks. When learning grammar, an individual can then “talk about language, understand what makes sentences and paragraphs clear and interesting and precise, and has a tool for thinking about and discussing sentences (Haussamen et al, 1998: 2). Unfortunately, Mulroy (2004: 53) points out, students who do not understand grammar “lack any method for analyzing meaning”; if a student can not decipher meaning, he or she certainly can not reproduce meaning.

One opinion about traditional grammar is that it includes two concepts. One is narrow; another is broad. —Narrowly speaking, traditional grammar refers to the grammar theories originated from ancient Greece and Rome, which became popular in the end of the 18th century before the birth of historical comparative grammar and dominated the research of grammar and language teaching for a long time in Europe. It values the old language model, emphasizes written language, neglect oral language. It tries to purify language and settle language. So it's called prescriptive grammar, which was adopted by most school in their language class. In this case, it's called school grammar as well. Broadly speaking, traditional grammar includes the scholarly traditional grammar that originated from the end of the 19th century as well. Some of this kind of grammar emphasizes the principal of historical comparative study of language; some emphasizes contemporary language phenomena. Generally speaking, both of them take the attitude of descriptivism, trying to describe the change of language and the use of language objectively.‖ (Yin, 1990, p. 1)

Aarts (2011, 6) has not followed the classical traditional grammar instead he describes the grammar of standard English as a system in its own right, making use of modern linguistics. He is influenced by two major grammars of English, namely Quirk et al's Comprehensive Grammar of the English language (1985) and Huddleston and Pullum et al's Cambridge Grammar of the English language (2002).

Alfred (1895: 2) sees that the business of grammar is to deal with correct forms of expressions, and to point out, not merely that some forms are wrong, but also why they are wrong, it is clear that a person who has studied is more likely to avoid common errors in speech and writing than one who has not. The habit of mixing with educated people, and of reading well within books, will doubtless vastly more, than can be done by studying grammar, to keep a man from making grammatical blunders; but the study of grammar will help.

Grammar in general or universal grammar, explains the principles which are common to all languages. English grammar according to George (1803: 2), accommodates these general principles to the English language, and furnishes a system of such observations and rules as for necessary for speaking and writing it according to the usage of the most approved writers and speakers. George (1803: 2) and Peter (11847:3) divided grammar into four parts:

- 1/ Orthography, teaches the spelling of words.
- 2/ Etymology, treats of the varieties of words.
- 3/ Syntax, teaches how to join words in a sentence.
- 4/ Prosody, gives rules for verification. We can divide the understanding of the nature of grammar, its place within language learning and the teaching of grammar, into broad phases.

Hudson(1992) suggests two phases to the understanding and teaching of formal written grammars. He indicates that the first phase runs from 300 BC to 1957. This broad sweep of the history of grammars and grammar teaching has as its common strand the description of language and the subsequent prescription in 'grammar textbooks' in terms of how to write. The basic approach of these grammars is paradigmatic: that is, classes and categories of the language were defined, and these were then taught as a means to write the language

Chomsky (1980) states that "... Universal Grammar provides a highly restricted system of 'Core Grammar' which represents in effect the 'unmarked case'. Fixing the parameters of core grammar and adding more marked constructions that make use of richer descriptive resources, the language learner develops a full grammar representing grammatical competence..." .in (1957) he argued that the proper role of linguistic theory is to provide criteria for selecting the most explanatory grammar from among a group of competing grammar.

Traditional Grammar (TG) is known as Classical Grammar (CG). According to Tomorri (1977) all the part of speech and grammatical categories of English have been defined in CG. Yule (1980: 70) adds a number of other categories, including 'number', 'person', 'tense' and 'gender'. This type of grammar can be applied in Contrastive analysis to sort out the differences and similarities of these categories of the languages to be contrasted.

The publication of Chomsky's Syntactic Structures (1957) marks the beginning of the second of these phases. His approach is more syntagmatic than paradigmatic. That is to say, it takes a structuralism approach, assuming that language can be described cross-sectionally or at any one moment in history in terms of a coherent system of rules. Such an approach is part of the tradition of cognitive neuro-scientific theories of language production in that it is interested in the structural relationships between words, phrases and clauses in sentences,

rather than in classificatory categories or 'parts of speech'. Chomsky's theory, with its distinction between deep syntactic structures and surface manifestations in speech and in writing, gave rise to generative and transformative grammars.

2.10.2 Transformational Generative Grammar

In the 1950s the school of linguistic thought known as transformational-generative grammar received wide acclaim through the works of Noam Chomsky. Chomsky postulated a syntactic base of language (called deep structure), which consists of a series of phrase-structure rewrite rules, i.e., a series of (possibly universal) rules that generates the underlying phrase-structure of a sentence, and a series of rules (called transformations) that act upon the phrase-structure to form more complex sentences. The end result of a transformational-generative grammar is a surface structure that, after the addition of words and pronunciations, is identical to an actual sentence of a language.

All languages have the same deep structure, but they differ from each other in surface structure because of the application of different rules for transformations, pronunciation, and word insertion. Another important distinction made in transformational-generative grammar is the difference between language competence (the subconscious control of a linguistic system) and language performance (the speaker's actual use of language).

McCawley(1998:16) assumes that Transformational Grammar abounds in analyses in which a sentence is claimed to have multiple syntactic structures: a surface structure, in which the words and morphemes appear in the order in which they are pronounced, grouped in a way that corresponds to ways in which the sentence can be pronounced, and varies underlying structures that involve units and ways of combining them that do not appear as such in surface structure.

Although the first work done in transformational-generative grammar was syntactic, later studies have applied the theory to the phonological and semantic components of language.

Al- Khuli(1979: 5) says that" generative grammar is a system of rules which explicitly describes the structure of the language it accounts for. This explicitness of description is the main characteristic and advantage of such a grammar". He argued that the term generation does not mean the physical production of sentences. It is the identification of a sequence of words as a sentence in the language. He adds that T. grammar usually has four types of rules. The first type is the phrase- structure (PS) rules, which are supposed to be highly regular or, more properly, explicate the syntactic regularities of the language. The second type is the lexical (L) rules, where the irregularities of the language appear. The third type is the T- rules, which take care of what can not be done or can only be done clumsily in Ps – rules. The fourth type is the morphophonemic (M) which assign phonemic shapes to the morphemes. To generate a sentence, one has to run through Ps rules, and M- rules respectively.

A grammar may be generative, but non- transformational. In this case, there will be a rather long set of branching rules with detailed categorical and functional symbols. Such a non- transformational generative grammar is certainly complicated and lacks simplicity because it does not take advantages of assuming a deep structure and a surface structure of each sentence (ibid:6)

The fundamental aim in the linguist analysis of a language L is to separate the grammatical sequences which are not sentences of L and to study the structure. of the grammatical sequences. One way to test the adequacy of a grammar proposed for L is to determine whether or not the sequences that it generates are actually grammatical, i.e., acceptable to a native speaker(Chomsky:14: 1957).

There are many ways of describing the grammar of a language. Graham (1996: 1) distinguishes two approaches of grammar:

- a. Formal approach which sees grammar as a set of rules which specify all the possible grammatical structures of the language. It concerns with the forms of grammatical structures and their relationship to one another, rather than with their meanings or their use in different contexts.
- b. Functional approach that sees language as a system of communication and analyzes grammar to discover how it is organized to allow speakers and writers to make and exchange meanings rather than forms.

2.11 Syntax

Syntax is defined by many linguists, it is basically the structure of sentences. Sentences have to follow certain structural rules in order to make sense.

According to Edith(2006: 23) syntax complements the other components of grammar _ semantics, phonology, the lexicon_ in two ways: on the one hand, it describes the selection and order of words for producing well formed sentences. On the other hand, it describes the correspondence between sentence structure and sentence meaning, and sentence structure and sentential sound form. She mentioned two syntactical rules:

- a. Syntactic structure rules:

Word selection: every concrete common noun in the singular must occur with an article.

Word order: the article must precede the noun.

- b. Syntactic correspondence rules:

- between syntactic structure and meaning:
 - In sentences where the predicate has a negative meaning, if they contain no auxiliary, a form of the verb do has to be included.

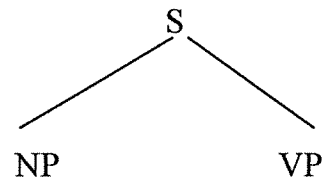
- In sentences whose meaning is a basic weather statement, there must be an it subject.
- Between syntactic structure and sound form:
 - Yes/ no questions carry rising intonation.
 - The two syntactic constituents is and not can make a single phonological word isn't.

The traditional grammar school developed a system of sentence analysis, which involved examining complete sentence and identifying major sentence elements, such as subjects, verbs, and objects, diagrams were used to indicate sentence structure.

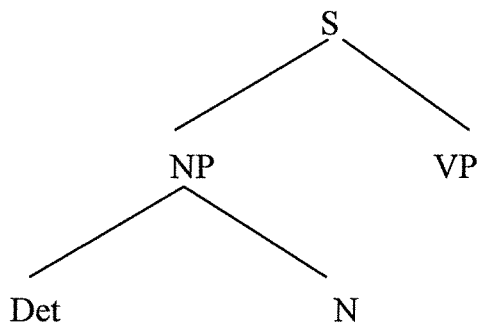
In Syntactic Structure (1957) Chomsky mentions that when we try to set up for English the simplest grammar containing a phrase structure and transformational part, we find that the kernel of the language consists of simple, declarative , active sentences, and that all others can be described more simply as transforms.

In a transformational grammar, phrase structure rules are illustrated by means of tree diagrams, called " phrase markers" which show the hierarchical structure of the sentence . it is begun with S, the highest level, and work down to lower levels until the maximally specific or terminal level, where no additional symbols can be rewritten . this process is called a derivation of a sentence. The following rules and diagrams illustrate the step- by – step derivation of a sentence:

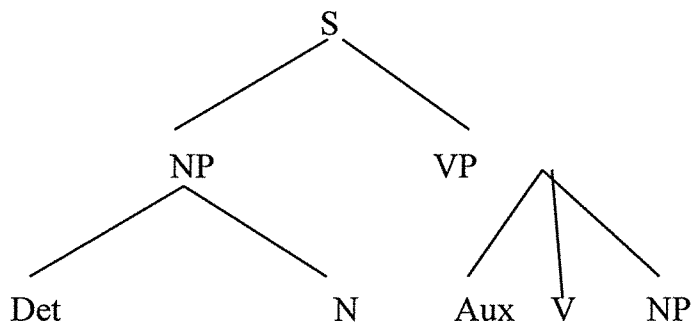
S ----- NP+ VP



NP _____ Det + N

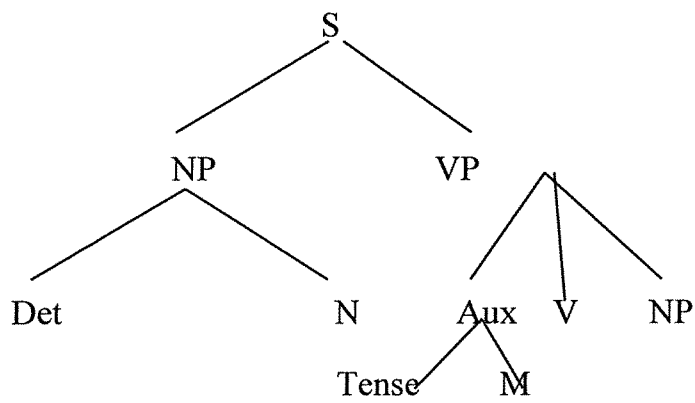


VP _____ Aux + V+ NP

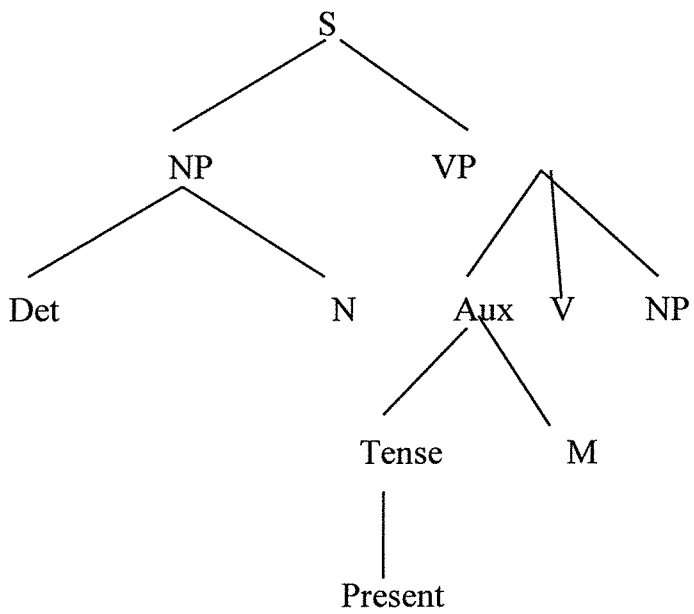


Aux _____ tense (M)

The optional modal(N) is chosen in the following rewriting of auxiliary(Aux)"

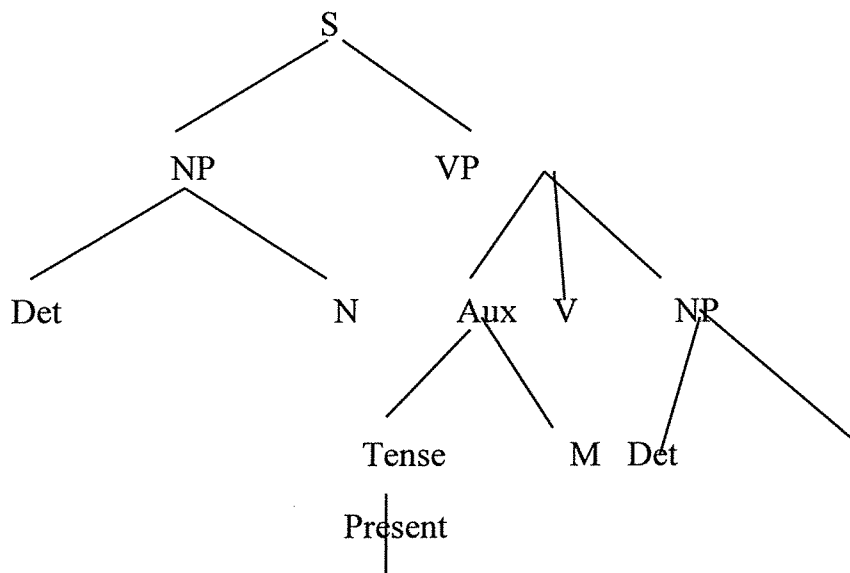


Tense _____ { present – past }



The noun phrase rule is applied for rewriting of the object noun phrase:

NP _____ Det + N



Sentence pattern: Det + N + PRES + M + V+ DET + N

Sample sentence: the man will buy a car.

The tree diagram provides a precise means of defining syntactic relation. An NP immediately dominated by an S is the subject of that sentence. An NP immediately dominated by a VP is the object or complement of the sentence containing the verb phrase. The tree diagram also shows which words are constituents of a sentence.

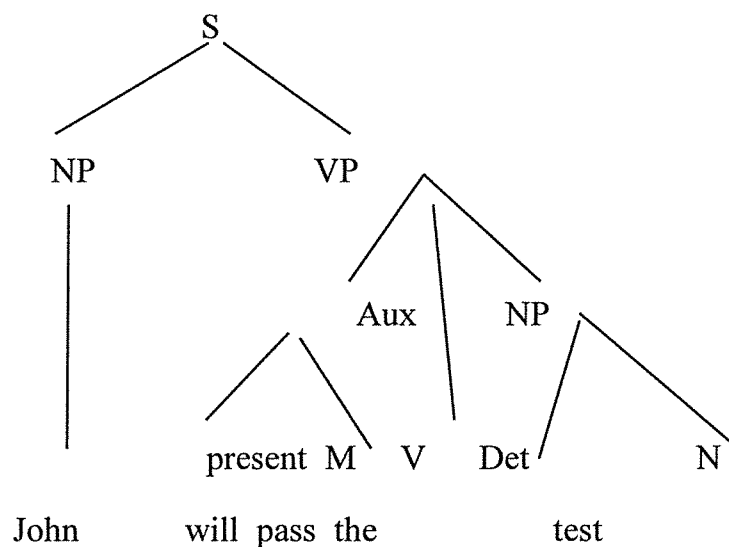
The rule "S _____ NP+ VP" accounts only for simple declarative sentences, such as the following:

John will pass the test.

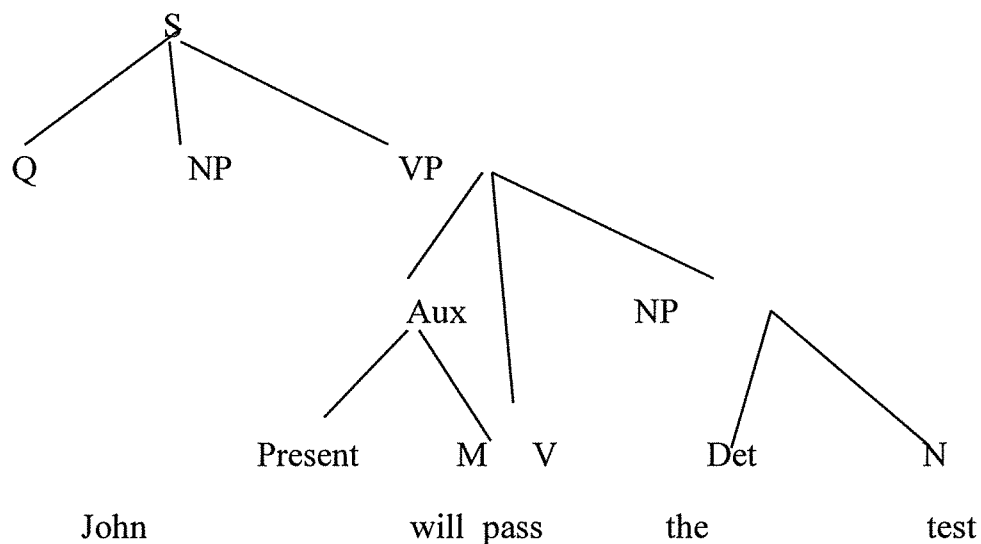
In early models of transformational grammar, questions and negatives were considered optional transformations of simple declarative sentences, which were called "kernel sentences".

Since the deep structure was supposed to represent the meaning of the sentence, abstract markers were placed in the deep structure in later models of the grammar to give positive, negative, and interrogative sentences different representations:

John will pass the test.



Will John pass the test?



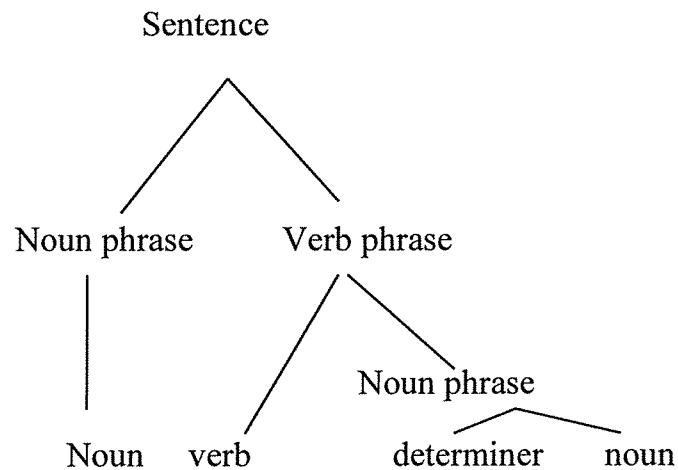
The question and negative markers serve as triggers for transformations; that is, they indicate that certain transformations must be performed. Similar markers are used for imperative and emphatic sentences. The following phrase structure rule indicates the possibilities of selecting these markers so as to generate different types of sentences:

S----- (Emph- Imp- Q) (Neg) NP+ VP

Sentences are made up of smaller phrases. There are several difference types of phrase that can be used in a sentence, but the two phrases which must be used in a sentence for it to make sense are a noun phrase and a verb phrase.

A noun phrase is usually the person or thing that is performing the verb in the sentence. It may also be the person or thing that the verb is being done to in a sentence. The person doing the verb in a sentence is known as the subject. For example, in the sentence 'Tom pushed the car', 'Tom' is the subject of the sentence as he is pushing the car. 'The car' is the object in the sentence as the car is the object that the verb is being done to. Both of these are noun phrases.

A noun phrase has to be made up of a noun, such as a name or a tangible object. Sometimes, a determiner is needed in a noun phrase, for example 'a cat', 'the dog'. 'A' and 'The' are called determiners because they tell us which person or thing is involved in the sentence.



2.12 Summary of the chapter

This chapter has highlighted the Nubian language generally as a Nilo-Saharan , and its people, since it occupies a geographical and historical position in Africa. It has also introduced the written Nubian and concentrates on the morphology, phonology and syntax of Nobein. Greenburg, Tucker and Bryan's classification of Nubian language group was the main source to classify Nubian language in this chapter. In addition, it has presented the theory of CA as a mean of contrasting two different languages,

Chapter 3

Literature Review

Chapter Three

Literature Review

3.0 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher will preview the previous studies in the field of Nubian languages and Contrastive Analysis. It is divided into two parts. The first part consists of three sub- sections. The first surveys the history of the general studies of Sudan languages; the second presents studies on the Nubian languages specifically, and the third highlights some ideas on contrastive analysis.

3.1 History of the General Studies of Languages of Sudan

In the previous century, the number of distinct languages spoken in the Sudan cannot be much less than 100. uncertainties about the exact number arises, partly because new languages are occasionally still found, and partly because so little is known about some of the languages listed that cannot be ascertained whether they are distinct languages or only dialects. a few spoken only in the Sudan, the remainder are shared only with immediately neighboring territories- with the exception of any languages of the Sudan.

Arabic and Nubian languages are spoken in the Sudan or in neighboring territories of Middle Africa; they were unknown outside this region and had to be discovered by the scholars of linguistics, almost all after 1800 and many after 1850. thus, Sudan linguistics is a science only a century or so old and the many gaps in knowledge that still exist can be explained by the short period of study as well as by the small number of scholars who have chosen to undertake this study. virtually all these scholars have been non- Sudanese and non- African.

According to Adams (1983) the oldest records of a Sudanese languages are the inscriptions on Meroitic monuments in a language not yet decisively related to any later languages. A part extant Sudanese literature is in Medieval Nubian and consists of Christian literature, mainly translations from Greek or Coptic, some of which were discovered in archaeological excavations. A dictionary of Modern Nubian was compiled by an Italian missionary about 1650 A.D., and this can be considered as the initial steps in the modern systematic study of Sudan languages.

Hair (1960) mentions that the earliest work on the languages of Northern Sudan other than Nubian, dates only from the early nineteenth century. Accordingly, Salt, an English diplomat in Ethiopia, collected brief vocabularies, not only of languages of Western Ethiopia, but also of Sudan languages, e.g. Gumuz (from the Ethiopian border land) and Fur (of Darfur). Ruppel, the German traveler who visited Nubia and Darfur in 1824, collected vocabularies of Fur, Funj, Shilluk, Dinka and two languages of the Nuba Hills, which he published in 1829, thus revealing some of the richest linguistic variety in the Sudan. Lepsius, the German Egyptologist, made a detailed study of Nubian after his visit to Meroe in the early 1840s, though his Nubian grammar and translations were not published until 1880 A.D.

The most detailed work on Sudan languages was published before 1850, however, from a scholar who had never set foot on Africa. He was a German prince who, in his visit to Egypt, bought four African boys in Cairo slave market and took them back with him to Germany. The tutor to the princely family, Carl Tutschek, was given the task of looking after the boys, and in carrying this out he collected from them information about their homelands and languages. Tutschek, with assistance from his brother Lorenz, compiled a grammar and vocabulary of the Ethiopian language Galla, and papers on three Sudan languages: Berta (from the Ethiopian border land), Fur and Tumale (from

the Nubia Hills). Tragically, neither Tutschek nor his African informants lived to see these works published. Meanwhile, on languages south of the Nuba Hills, the earliest detailed work was done on Bari, by Roman Catholic Missionaries in the early 1850s.

Studies of Sudan languages have been listed in bibliographies. The standard bibliographies the Sudan by Hill(1939) and Nasri (1962) give only a limited selection , but they included Arabic. Tucker and Bryan (1956) give 'complete' lists of works for all the others, usually concentrating on the more recent works. The lists in Jones(1959) are generally not as full as those in Tucker and Bryan , but occasionally they contain additional items. On Nilotic languages, Kohler (1955) listed all works.

Starting with these bibliographies, it is usually possible to discover recent works on particular languages, which contain further bibliographies of the earlier works by Schafer (1917). Murray (1923), and Spagno (1933) list earlier writings on Bari. For writings on African languages since the publication of the general bibliographies, it is necessary to turn to the periodical literature. Review of books on Sudan languages appear in Sudan Notes and Records, Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies, and in some non- English journals.

Since 1956, African Abstracts have provided summaries of all relevant articles.

Comparative work is Tucker's (1940) ' Eastern Sudanese languages and the Linguistic Analysis', by Tucker and Bryan (1956). Steven (1984) has also conducted 'Linguistic Research on Nuba Mountains' which may be considered as a more recent work. We find also some journals established recently such as 'African Language Studies', 'The Journal of West African Languages and 'Journal of African Languages'.

3.2 Studies on Nubian Language

This section surveys the linguistic research on Nubian languages and presents some researchers' works and their contributions to Nubian languages. It offers a guide to the most general work already done during the previous century.

The first attempts for Nubian writings were written by Badr who has some books about Nubian language, in which he uses Arabic and Latin letters. In (1955) he published 'Nubian language' which is divided into two parts. The first is an introductory one while the second is divided into two sections: the first is about the Nubian grammar (noun, verb, conjunction, and sentence); the second characterizes the vocabularies. His other book (1978) is 'Nubian Wisdom and Proverbs' which comprises Nubian wisdoms and proverbs written in both Arabic and Latin characters. 'Read in Nubian' is another contribution by Badr, which is designed pedagogically for beginners and introduced Nubian sounds, vocabulary, grammar and a song.

Shinnie (1996) describes the region of Nubia and the Nubian people whose culture survived centuries of change and periods of foreign rule. The author gives an account of Nubia under Egyptian occupation, and the establishment of the independent Sudanese states of Nubata and Meroe. The book concludes with a description of Christian Nubia, the advent of Islam, and examines the religious influences and their affect on the Nubian way of life. It also includes numerous plates and a list of bibliography. Armbruster was interested in the Nile Nubians, so he wrote two books about Dongolese Nubian. One is 'Dongolese Nubian _ A lexicon' in 1965, and the other is 'Dongolese Nubian _ A grammar' in 1960.

Another work is a Ph.D. dissertation on Nubian language (Mahas), by Ayoub (1968) entitled 'Verbal System in a dialect of Nubian'. It is a description

of the verbal function in the structure called 'relation' and 'relation adjunct', as spoken in Halfa district. The work divided into five parts. The first is devoted to notes on transcription, and a review of terminology. The second to the structure called relation and its morphological components, relation and marks. The third part is devoted to the use of more than one relation and the fourth contains conjugation tables of the verbal 'kab' (to eat). The fifth part provides a text fully analyzed according to the approach suggested and other fifteen translated texts written in narrow transcription.

The most noteworthy of these studies is the contribution of the great researcher Herman Bell who is enthusiastic and interested in the study of Nubian languages, specially the Nile Nubian languages. One of Bell's contributions is his Ph.D. dissertation 'Place Names in the Belly of Stone' (1970), in which he represents an effort to establish a foundation for a study of the historical and cultural significance of Nubian place names. It also shows the description of the survey toponymy (place names) and sociology beside, the names and dialects of Mahas Nubian and their phonology. In 1974, he wrote 'Dialect in Nobiin' in *Studies in Ancient languages of the Sudan* by Abdel Gadir Abdalla. He points out the conflicting views on whether to call one of the Nubian languages Mahas or Mahas- Fadicca. This conflict, as he informs us, led to confusion in the works on Nubian linguistics. Beside the introduction, the paper falls into four main divisions:

1/ Demonstration of how conflicting views on the demonstration of a language under discussion continued to create confusion in works on Nubian linguistics down to the present day.

2/ Raising of, and an attempt to answer, the question of the significance of the term Fadicca as it appears in the literature on Nubian linguistics and as it is used by Nubian people themselves.

3/ Examination of how 'Nobein' is a more accurate name for the whole language, than either Fadicca- Mahas or Mahas.

4/ Discussion of dialect situation within the language in question at least to the extent that it has actually been described.

His other contributions are 'The Phonology of Mahas Nubian' and 'The Tone System of Mahas Nubian', which are found in *Journal of African Languages*. In addition, he presented a paper in a conference at University of Khartoum (2005) entitled 'How to write Nubian language'.

" A comparative study of place names and geographical generic terms in Nubian language", is an M.A. thesis by Kheir (1980). The major objective of his study is to investigate samples of Nubian toponyms (place names) to list and compare the most frequent generic terms, aim to visualize the area of occurrence with stable or changing semantics over the vast territory of Nubia, and to determine which of the items ought to be included in Sudan Survey Department maps. Another study on Nobein achieved by Werner (1987), is 'Grammatik dess Nobiin'.

Kabara's book 'How to Write Nubian Language' (1997), a book which consists of four chapters, considers one of the most useful books. The first chapter presents a historical introduction about Old Nubian alphabets and writing from Christian periods till Islam, the second is about the Nubian letters which presents the consonants and vowels of Modern Nubian written in Old Nubian symbols. The third chapter shows some wisdoms and proverbs written in the Old Nubian alphabet mentioning the meaning in Arabic. The fourth contains the Nubian numbers. He concluded the book with some affixes, previous studies and researches and texts written in Old Nubian letters using modern Nubians.

Ibraahiim (1990), criticizes a few newspaper journalists, magazines reporters and TV program reporters for providing an incorrect account about the origins of the Nubians. This situation prompted the author to write this book in order to give a more accurate description of the indigenous people of Nubia throughout history. The book discusses Nubian weddings, births, deaths, and other customs and traditions before and after resettlement. He also describes Nubian houses and their architecture, costumes, occupations and arts. The author concludes the book with a statement imploring the Egyptian authorities to preserve the Nubian heritage and language.

Abd al-Rahman (1983) provides an interesting account written by Egyptian and Sudanese Nubians describing their journey along the Nile River. The book is divided into two parts. Part I deals with four main topics: a) the “anonymous history of Nubia” (Kush lands). The author referred to the Holy Scriptures to support his evidences about the origin of the Nubian people. b) He gives a detailed history of Nubia during the past ten thousand years, and describes the Nile as the primary source for the existence and power of both the Nubians and Egyptians. Consequently the author deals with the Nubian civilization, and mentions that that Nubians were the industrial powerhouses of the ancient world, producing immense quantities of gold and iron. c) The author then gives an historical account of the Arab Muslims who invaded from Egypt in the north and settled in Nubia, and provides historical evidences proving that the Arabization of the lands around the Nile Valley was a gradual process that occurred during the past six thousand years. d) In this section he gives an extraordinary description of Nubia and its exotic charm. Part II is divided into four sections. In the first section the author deals with the issue of the flooding water, the Aswan Basin, and the resettlement of the Nubians. Consequently the author gives an account of the Nubian social life and customs, including their marriages and religious rituals. In sections two and three he talks extensively

about the Nubian people's frustrations, and their realization of their migration from Nubia as a conspiracy against them.

Walter (1948) presents in the first chapter the main reasons for building the Aswan High Dam. The second chapter describes the Nubians and their land before the area was submerged under the reservoir that was created by the Dam. A historical background of the Nubians from ancient times through different periods of rulers is discussed in the third chapter. The discovery of the ancient tombs of Qustul and Ballana is a subject of interest in the book. The book also includes illustrations of ancient treasures.

Drower (1970) introduces her book by using a historical chart of Nubia. In Chapter I she outlines prehistoric Nubia, calling it "The Door to the South". She then moves on to examine the notion of 'Nubia', and discusses the possibility of the unification of Nubia through the fortification of its frontiers. Drower then provides an overview of the Egyptian occupation through the period of Ramses II until the period of Nubian kingdoms under Napata and Meroe. Moving through the period of the Romans, the book concludes with a look at the introduction of Christianity and Islam into Nubia. The book includes paintings by Alan Sorrell.

Jennings (1995) accounts about the Nubian people and their culture. The author begins with a discussion of the history of the Nubians in general, with particular emphasis on the natives living in west Aswan. Jennings later examines the social aspects of Nubian life such as gender roles and sexuality, and expresses her lament for certain enduring social practices. She concludes with a look at cultural changes and developments that have taken place in west Aswan since the booming of the tourism industry. The book includes photographs, maps, and a glossary of Nubian and Arabic words, as well as anthropological terms.

Mokhtar (1998) emphasizes the relationship between the Egyptians and the Nubians. The book is based on three subjects that are dealt with in the subsequent three chapters: The first chapter is the orthography and the phonetic structure of the old Nubian language. The second chapter is about the grammatical, structural and dialectal similarity between the Egyptian and the Nubian languages. The last chapter of the book deals with the common lexicography.

Mirghani (2000), in her Ph.D.thesis, investigates the genetic relationship between Nubian languages. She selects Midob, Dongolese and Kudur as representatives of the three divisions of the Nubian language group. Her investigation is significant and important for three reasons:

- (1) She examined two of the Nubian languages(Kudur and Midob Kargidi dialects), and identified their verbal suffixes for the first time.
- (2) The comparison of the verbal suffixes of Midob, Dongolese and Kudur revealed that the similarities in the tested features indicated existence of a genetic relationship between those three languages and between them and Old
- (3) The relatedness of the three languages to Old Nubian is found to be of different degrees. Dongolese is the closest language to the Old Nubian, and then comes Kudur, and Midob occupied the last position.

Ibrahim(2002) has written in the field of Nubian writing an M.A. thesis entitled 'A Project for Nubian Languages Writing'. Her research sets out to study the contemporary Nubian languages. The modern languages were compared to arrive at a sound system, which represents these modern Nubian languages. The conclusion of the study was that the Latin letter was the most suitable to be used in writing the modern Nubian languages but the research opted the choice of using Arabic letter for linguistic and practical considerations.

There are also studies on Hill Nubians, e.g. 'The Phonology of Dying Nubians: Birigid' , an M.A thesis by Ushari (1971), and 'Nubian Elements in Darfur' by Mac Michael. In 1974 Bell wrote about the Haraza Nubian which he describes as an extinct and a separate Nubian language. 'A Phonological Comparison of the Katcha Kadugli language Groups in the Nuba Mountains' is a contribution by Yahia (2000). She makes a phonological comparison of nine Katacha _ Kadugli languages of Nuba Mountains. In her study she used two approaches, namely descriptive and comparative. Another work is 'Language Status and Use in Dilling City, the Nuba Mountains' by Mugadam(2006).

"A Reference Grammar of Kunuz Nubian" (1988) is a Ph.d dissertation by A. Abdel- Hafiz., in which he focused on the ohonolgy, morphological criterion and the syntactic structure of Kunuz Nubian.

We notice that all the above studies focus on the Nile Nubians; Mahas_Fadicca(Nobein) and Dongolese - Kunuz, which is the area of the researcher's interest. Yet, it seems from what has been said that the recent studies on Nubian languages have not yet investigated the area of contrastive analysis. Thus, the researcher attempts to contribute to this area and aims to conduct a comparative study between one of the modern Nubian languages (Nobein) and modern English, for two reasons: firstly, to abridge this gap, and secondly, to find out how far comparing an ancient language with a modern one can be studied using a method for this. Hence, the following section will be devoted to a brief review of some researches on contrastive studies.

3.3 Studies on Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is a very controversial field of applied linguistics, especially in regard to its role in the language teaching process. In this part the researcher would like to review some previous studies on this area.

Most studies published under the label of ‘contrastive linguistics’ in the first decade of the third millennium follow the spirit of the certain characterization , i.e. they pursue a basically theoretical (rather than applied) interest but deal with pairs of languages that are ‘socio-culturally linked’. In fact, the majority of articles published in the journal *Languages in Contrast*, which was launched by the John Benjamins Publishing Company in 1998, deals with European languages, especially Germanic and Romance ones.

As far as the topics investigated are concerned, there is a preponderance of discourse-related studies, which may be due to the corpus-based methodology applied in most cases. Recently, structural aspects of contrastive comparison have been brought back into the focus of attention, e.g. by König & Gast (2009), who provide a comprehensive comparison of English and German grammar.

Fisiak (1984: 319) sees that various contrastive studies will vary not only as regards to the linguistic models underlying that descriptive of source language and target language, but also with regard to the use of different models applied to the description of one language.

According to Lehn (1983) et al, materials which may be used in teaching English as a foreign language should be based on a comparison of the native language and the target language. They carried out a contrastive study of the segmental phonemes of Egyptian Arabic and American English. Their materials were based on: (1) recent analysis of English. (2) analysis of Arabic, and (3) a manual for Egyptian elementary school teachers of English. The study

concluded that speakers of Arabic had difficulties with the segmental phonemes of English. Those difficulties were due to: (1) differences in the number of contrasts, (2) differences in the permissible sequences, and (3) differences in the phonetic expositions of 'similar contrast'.

Another study achieved in the same year was on the 'Contrastive Analysis of the Segmental Phonemes of Greek and English' by Koutsoudas (1983). The study aimed firstly, to predict the problems that would arise in teaching English pronunciation to native speakers of Greek and to provide a guide for the empirical solution to those and another problems. Secondly, to provide an insight as to what would constitute a problem in language learning.

In (1995) El _ Haj has written an M.A thesis entitled 'Concord in English and Palestinian Arabic', where he attempted to contrast the area of concord in both language namely, gender, number and person. In each area both the the features and system of concord have been discussed and analyzed with regard to feature assignment and to subject verb, noun adjective and noun - pronouns concord. The study included a contrastive analysis of the articles system in English and Palestinian Arabic. The findings predicted that differences would cause problems that the Palestinian learners of English might face in that area.

A contrastive study of English and Arabic was conducted by Abbas (1998) entitled 'Gender and Number Agreement between Standard Arabic and Standard English'. The study has attempted to explain the similarities and differences of gender and number agreement between Standard Arabic and Standard English and predicted the areas which might cause difficulty for both learners. He utilized grammar texts used in schools and universities to teach English grammar. Moreover, he used the method of immediate constituent analyses to analyze the data. The study revealed that there were some similarities and differences between both languages with regard to gender and number.

Another contribution is by Ibrahim (1999) is entitled ' Noun Formation in Standard Arabic'. The thesis concentrates on analyzing and contrasting the processes of noun- formation in both Standard Arabic and English, in order to reveal the similarities and differences between them. The research has found that English and Arabic reveal a common linguistic phenomenon in their classification of noun- formation processes as well as their attitude towards the utilization of language b forming productive rules and patterns.

Kadir (2005) focused in his research 'A contrastive analysis between English and Kurdish language in regard to grammatical gender' on the investigation of the contrast between English language and Kurdish in regard to grammatical gender. The purpose of the study was to find out the use of grammatical gender in both languages. The variation between English and Kurdish grammatical gender was very significant.

Aziz M. khalil's book "A Contrastive Grammar of English and Arabic", published in 1999 by the Jordan Book Center is one of such recent researches. Another book called Diversity in language – Contrastive Studies in English and Arabic Theoretical and Practical Linguistics, written by Zainab Ibrahim, Nagwa Kassabagy and Sabiha Aydeolt and published in 2002 by the American University in Cairo and mentioned in [www. Walmart.com](http://www.Walmart.com) is another such recent studies. In these two books, the authors have made insightful observations about the phonological and morphological aspects of Arabic and English. But there is very little about syntax.

During the last few years, some books and articles have, no doubt, been published on Arabic. Jane Wightwick and Mahmoud Gaffar , for example, wrote the book 'Arabic Verbs and Essentials of Grammar - A Practical Guide for A Mastery of Arabic'. This book published in 1997 provides some useful information about Arabic verbs. But as it is a book meant for the learners of

Arabic and not for research scholars working in the area of contrastive linguistics, the authors talk about those morphological aspects of Arabic verbs in relation to English, which present difficulties to those learners of Arabic whose mother tongue is English.

A research paper with the title 'A contrastive Study of the Aspect in English and Arabic' was presented in an international conference held in Hebron University in Jordan 2002. But as the title of this research paper suggests, the study is confined to the progressive and perfective aspects of English and Arabic verbs, with hardly any attention to the syntactic typology of verbs in the two languages.

A recent study 'The Verbal System of Malay and Arabic: Contrastive Analysis' (2013) by Shehadeh, examines the contrast between verbal system of Arabic and Malay. The researcher starts with a descriptive study for issues of verbal system in Malay. The following subjects are discussed: active voice, passive voice, derivation through prefixes and suffixes, repetition of the numbers and structures. In Arabic this study describes conditional sentences, conjugation, the expression, actions in different kinds, derivation, inflection, types of sentences, derivation of verbs and forms of perfect. The study found that the differences between two languages are in the subject of present tense, future, verb agreement, and passive voice and active voice..

Abdallah Al-harbi wrote a research paper with the title A Syntactic Analysis of Arabic and English Verbs, reported in [www.uqu.edu.sa/ majalat /humanities/ vol14 / f9.htm](http://www.uqu.edu.sa/majalat/humanities/vol14/f9.htm). He pointed out that these verbs have different properties as they project at different places at the hierarchical clause structure. Their distribution depends primarily on their morphological and syntactic properties specified in their lexical entries .

In his MA thesis, Hassan Gadalla (reported in www.ling.upenn.edu/nhgadalla) has presented a contrastive study of transitivity in English and Arabic. The notion of transitivity takes us very close to the heart of the syntactic typology of verbs. Gadalla has not really gone into the details of the syntactic typology of verbs; he only confines his study to "the system by which we derive transitive sentences from intransitive ones and di-transitive sentences from transitive ones".

A final work on contrastive analysis which can be mentioned is 'Passive Construction in English and Chinese_ A corpus _ based contrastive study' (2006) by Tony Mc and Xiao. It combines the corpus methodology with a contrastive perspective, seeking to provide a more systematic account of passive construction in English and Chinese on the basis of corpus data. It was found that while passive constructions in both languages express a basic passive meaning, they also show a range of differences in terms of overall frequencies, syntactic features and functions, semantic properties, and distribution across genres.

From what has been mentioned in sections we notice that studies on contrastive analysis on Nubian language with any other language is absent and have not been researched. The Ph.D of Mirghani (2002) might be considered one of the comparative studies, but she followed another method in her research. She used the model of recurrence in order to identify the genetic relationship between the languages concerned. Therefore, the researcher found that it is important and necessary to apply the method of contrastive analysis in this study to be a contribution in this field.

This part has summed up that there are many contrastive studies on English with other languages, but not with any of the Nubian languages with other language. We notice that very few studies on Nubian languages are mainly

comparative (i.e Merghani, 2002). Because of this scarcity, the present study is concerned with contrasting Nobein and English in order to determine the similarities and dissimilarities of the syntactical level between them, and open the door for further studies at other linguistic levels.

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

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Research Methodology

4.0 Introduction

The need for selecting and using appropriate methodology in any research has been stressed by different scholars. The procedures of data collection, tools for analysis and reporting of results are given adequate attention. This chapter describes the approaches and the sources of collecting data.

4.1 Approaches

The study was carried out using two approaches. The prescriptive and descriptive approaches. The prescriptive views grammar as a set of rules for the proper use of a language, while the descriptive approach describes the regular structures of a language as it is used, which is the basis of most modern attempts to characterize the structure: structural analysis, which investigates the distribution of forms in a language, and the immediate constituent analysis, which shows how small constituents in sentences go together to form larger constituents. However, the researcher has chosen the first type of descriptive approach (i.e. the structural analysis) in order to carry out this study. We can conclude that this study has benefited from this model of analysis, which seems suitable to deal with such issues.

The term ‘contrastive linguistics’ is sometimes used for comparative studies of small groups rather than just pairs of languages, and does not require a socio-cultural link between the languages investigated. On this view, contrastive linguistics is a special case of linguistic typology and is distinguished from other types of typological approaches by a small sample size and a high degree of granularity. Accordingly, any pair or group of languages can be subject to a contrastive analysis.

Francis (1965: 36) says, 'Modern method of language description differ from the traditional ones'. He refers this difference to different theories of language or to different techniques of analysis, which are used within the same theoretical framework. The essential differences in the description of a language are in:

- (1) the linguistic levels described,
- (2) the units used to describe them,
- (3) the direction or order in which these units and levels are treated, and
- (4) the material on which the description is based.

However, Van (1974:295) identifies certain sets of instructions which constitute one possible approach to linguistic analysis. These instructions are:

- 1/ to start with one or more simple sentences in the first language and their translation equivalent language.
- 2/ To state the problems which emerge from the data,
- 3/ To list the problems that have emerged from the data for later reference.
- 4/ With reference resulting from instruction(1), one should consider alternative ways of expressing the same meaning in both languages, i.e, to find synonymous with different structural properties, and
- 5/ To reconsider the original simple sentence and examine their grammatical properties.

Contrastive analysis is today frequently considered part of applied linguistics. It began to be widely appreciated when it started to be used in the field of teaching. Its usefulness is limited to pedagogical application, i.e. an

applied discipline with value to teachers in the classroom. Therefore, it is more and more often called applied contrastive analysis. Filipovid (1979:197) sees that this value comes out: a) in new foundations for foreign language teaching materials, b) in the organization of the materials, i.e. the order in which individual items are taken up in teaching, and c) in the organization of the classes themselves, i.e. the amount of time to be devoted to introducing and reviewing various points.

A descriptive approach to language takes the view that language is a phenomenon that can be studied scientifically. Such an approach takes as its evidence all aspects of language use but, given the vast amount of data, most linguists concentrate on particular varieties of a language. The major works of grammar, the Cambridge Grammar for example, examine and report on the variety of English known as Standard English, which is, very broadly, the language of the printed word. However, other research looks at all the many different varieties of language as it appears in different regional and social dialects, in different genres and in different registers.

The prescriptive approach to language, on the other hand, takes the view that there is an idealized form of a language to the use of which we all should aspire. Such an approach is often taken by those with little knowledge of how language works and little professional training in its study and it is often based on social rather than linguistic considerations. Prescriptivists play on the insecurity people feel when confronted with a variety of their language which is not their own and which might show them to be socially and intellectually inferior.

According to Ellis (1985: 25), executing CA involves two steps; description and comparison. A comparison of two languages can be carried out using any of several different models of grammar and it is important to give

detailed, ' scientific description ' of the language in question, based on a description of the different categories that make up the pattern of that language.

He goes on to say:

"Contrastive studies carried out have been based on surface structure characteristics such as those described by the structuralisms. The procedure followed was: (1) description (i.e. a formal description of the two languages is made (2) Selection (i.e. certain items which may be entire sub systems such as the auxiliary system or areas known through error analysis to present difficulty are selected for comparison,(3) Comparison (i.e., the identification of areas of difference)

According to Fisiak (1975: 62) one of the distributionalism was that every language should be analyzed and described in its own categories insofar as every language employs different and unique grammatical means. Consequently, according to structuralists' principles, it is impossible to describe all languages within the same universal framework of grammatical categories, since every language has its own categories, which can only be identified and described in terms of unique structural signals operating in that language.

Krzeszowski(1990:63) says that syntactic contrastive studies must embrace basic sentence patterns, major sentence constituents, i.e., noun phrase verb phrase, various functions of noun phrases as subjects, objects, complements, and modifiers and of verb phrase as predicates. The analysis of sentence constituents must embrace both their internal and external structures.

The distinction between internal and external structures suggests one possible strategy in looking for syntactic contrasts across languages. Fisiak et al (1987) distinguish the following types of differences in comparing equivalent sentences across languages:

(a) structural , (b) categorical and (c) functional.

Structural differences occur when in L1 there exists a syntactic structure which has no congruent counterpart in L2. In transformational terms, these differences are due to differences in application of rules generating the equivalent structure. A structural difference occurs whenever a particular rule of grammar is not shared by the grammars of L1 and L2. Categorical contrasts are inherently connected with functional contrasts, which occur whenever equivalent categories perform different functions in equivalent sentences.

James (1980: 66) maintains that the grammatical CAs are carried out on comparable systems of the two languages concerned. He produces a step _ by _ step algorithm for executing a representative CA, the steps are:

1. To assemble the data exhibiting the relevant systems in each language.
2. To state realizations of each grammatical category pertinent to the CA being done, i.e. to compare the two items _ wise _ item at all levels of the structure.
3. To supplement the data
4. To formulate the contrasts which have been identified, i.e at the categories of:
_ Similar features a
b_ dissimilar – for the target language.

In comparison with the structures of the native and the foreign languages Lado (1961: 147) had long suggested two procedures in order to do this:

- a) To summarize in an outline form the description of the grammatical structures of the foreign and the native languages.
- b) To compare the distinctive pattern at each level of structure, we need to know: (1) if there is a functional parallel patterns in the native language, (2) if it signaled the same way, i.e. by the same formal features, and (3) if it is similarly distributed in the larger structures of the language.

The deep structure contrastive analysis is based on a universal model of language. Some linguists such as Noam Chomsky initiated the hypothesis that all sentences have a surface structure and a deep structure. By applying the notions of deep structure and surface the fact that the crucial contrast area is the one that lies between the deep structure and the most surface one becomes evident. The differences between languages can be observed at any level that lies between the deep structure and the surface structure.

Paul (1989: 55) explains that there is much to be said in favor of the descriptive approach, though responsible from a purely linguistic point view, language can be a help to the teacher; for his task is to lead his students to a certain degree of norms. A good teacher should be eclectic in his approach; he should select what is best suited for his purpose in the classroom, he need not have a whole- hearted commitment to traditional grammar, nor reject outright the insight of modern linguistics. He should explain and describe the grammatical aspects of structures, illustrate them with examples and lay down certain rules for his students' guidance and practice.

For the purpose of this investigation, the researcher makes use of some of these models, because the methods of analysis have at least two advantages. First, they deal with surface structures rather than deep structures and this makes them more suitable for the analysis of the data of this study which attempts to show the similarities and dissimilarities between English and Nobein at the surface structure level. Second, the procedures elaborated by CA linguists enable researchers to do contrastive analysis between languages for their clearness and un ambiguity in applying them.

4.2 Data Collection

Primary and secondary sources of the data are utilized.

.4

A) The primary sources:

Include information collected during interviews with the native speakers of Nobein (informants), who live in New Halfa and Khartoum the text analysis elicitation were used to collect data. The instrument is recording actual Nobein speech, the researcher used a notebook and a pen in order to write down the information immediately so that she can refer to it at any time. For the informants the researcher has chosen some old women who reside in Nobein region since they had been born and had never moved to any other place. The choice of these informants was based on the fact that they are expected to have a great storage of the native language. Their age ranged between 40 and 80, the researcher believes that too old people might forget some information in this stage of their age. Again, too young people may not have much and accurate information. Therefore, the research sees that this choice of age is the most suitable to obtain what may be useful for the study.

My first informant, Sakina Mohamed Ahmed who lived with her son in Khartoum, was 80 years when I started my experiment. She was helpful and funny, the others came from New Halfa for an occasion. They were Shafoga Salih (68) and Asha Khidewi (74), who were co-operative and helpful. There were also other informants who provided the researcher with some information. One of them was Saleem Khalil Abdu, a teacher, who had moved from New Halfa and settled in Khartoum. The second was Mutwakil Mustafa, an officer who lives in Khartoum.

The data was collected from the informants in meetings and interviews. The informants answer to the researcher's questions and give meanings of large numbers of words. Furthermore, the researcher herself being a Nobein relied on introspection into her knowledge of the language.

B) The secondary sources: include references, published articles related to the subject, and printed materials such as Ayoub (1965) and Bell (1974) and the books of Badr (1955). Moreover, there is a Nobein's dictionary by Adam (2002) which considers a useful guide to Nobein's vocabularies. Furthermore, the researcher attended the 2005 conference on Nilo- Saharan languages at the Institute of African and Asian, and listened to a number of papers on Nubian Language. For English grammar the researcher used many books. The researcher also relied on herself in writing and analyzing the data since she is a Nubian and speaks the language perfectly

4.3 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter reviewed the methodology which used to carry out current study and its procedure.

Chapter 5

Description of Syntactical Processes of Nobein and English

Chapter Five

Description of Syntactical Processes of English and Nobein

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, syntactical processes which occur in Nobein (one of the Nile Nubian branch) and English language will be explained. Description of some linguistic aspects of the two languages will be examined to find out similarities and dissimilarities between them. The study will examine the basic sentence structure or "syntax" which involves two important tasks: (a) determining what the structure of a sentence is, and (b) describing the elements which make up the structure. Certain linguistic elements have been chosen for the purpose of analyses in this chapter. It focuses on simple sentence, under three headings: sentence elements, sentence patterns and word order, and sentence types. Moreover, sentence negation in both languages is discussed.

5.1 Sentence Elements (Declarative)

5.1.1 English

(a) Subject

Aarts (1987:94) states that sentences can be classified in terms of their syntactic complexity as well as in terms of their grammatical form. The first classification comprises three sub- classes: simple sentences, complex sentences and compound sentences. The second classification consists of four sub-classes: declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences. Declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences can also be negative

A declarative sentence gives information and always ends with a simple period. In English a simple declarative sentence is a matter of following a simple formula and has different structures. Every complete sentence must have a subject, often a noun or pronoun and the modifiers, and a predicate, which includes the verb and all the information relating to the action of the subject.

The subject can be simple with a noun phrase or it can be a compound subject.

Examples:

My coat is red.

Simple Subject – “My coat”

Predicate – “is red”

John and I went to the party.

The word *John* and the word *I* are two simple subjects joined by the conjunction *and* to make a compound subject.

A few more examples of declarative sentences

- I have an appointment at 2:00 today.
- Tomorrow I will leave for France.

The subject can be:

1. Noun: A noun is the name of a person (Dr. Smith), place (Lawrence, Kansas, factory, home), thing (scissors, saw, book), action (operation, irrigation), or idea (love, truth, beauty, intelligence). The noun can be followed by a definite or indefinite article
2. Pronoun.: A pronoun stands in the place of a noun. There are several types: personal pronouns, demonstrative and indefinite pronouns, and relative and interrogative pronouns. Pronouns have antecedents, a reference to a word they take the place of. The following table illustrates the English pronouns:

Table (7): English pronouns

SINGULAR				PLURAL		
	Subjective	Objective	possessive	Subjective	objective	Possessive
1 st person	I	Me	my, mine	We	Us	our, ours
2 nd person	You	You	your, yours	You	You	your, yours
3 rd person	He	Him	His	They	them	their, theirs
	she	her	her, hers			
	it	it	its			

Relative and interrogative pronouns link dependent to independent clauses; they link to adjective or noun clauses to simple sentences. Relative pronouns include:

Table(8): English Relative Pronouns

Who	when	which
Whom	where	whether
Whose	why	

(b) Verb

Verbs are classified into two kinds: transitive and intransitive. Depending on the kind of verb being used, that determines the inclusion or exclusion of other elements in a sentence. Transitive verbs involve transfer of action to a receiver of an action which is the object, e.g. I need shoes. Need is a transitive verb because the thing or person which is needed must be mentioned or the sentence is worthless, so in this case the word shoes is an object. Intransitive verbs function without the object because the verbs cannot transfer action to a receiver, e.g. appear, happen, and digress.

- He appeared from the dark.

(c) Object

There are two types of objects: direct and indirect.

The direct object typically refers to some person or thing directly affected by the action expressed by the verb.

- Moses struck the se.

The indirect object typically refers to an animate being that is the recipient of the action.

- Mary gave him a hug.

In this particular sentence the direct object is also mentioned (hug) but the indirect object precedes it

Examples:

-He gave Martha a present;.

-We can use a prepositional object:

-He gave a present to Martha.

(d) Complement

Complements tell us something about the subject or object. They can be realized by noun phrases or adjective phrases. Copular/ linking verbs are followed by complements:

- Most of the participants were teachers.

Subject complements can be:

- NPs: My sister is a doctor.
- Adjective phrase: Frank is very famous.
- Pronoun : this car is ours.
- Prepositional phrase: the players are in good shape.

Object complement, on the other hand, follow the direct object of the sentence., SVOC:

- They call her Rita.
- I prefer my coffee black.

5.1.2 Nobein

Declarative sentences in Nobein are of two groups: nominal sentence and verbal sentence. In nominal sentence both subject and the predicate will be nouns.

(a) Subject

These are six units in which a category of person and a category of number are recognized as a subject in the following way:

- The six pronominal roots can be formally arranged in two different ways as shown in the following table:

Table(9): Pronominal of Nobein

Singular	Plural
(A)"ay, ir, tar" (I, you, he- she)	(B)"u, ur, ter" (we, you, they)

In certain structural patterns the use of (A) group is associated with the infix “j”. This is not the case when group (B) is used in the same patterns, e.g.:

“tar u-ga tuk’ ki-j-on” = He has beaten us.

“tar ‘uk-ka tuk’ki-j-on” = He has beaten you

“tar ‘tek-ka tuk’ki-j-on” = He has beaten them

“tar ay-ga tuk’-k-on” = He has beaten me.

“tar ik-ka tuk’-k-on” = He has beaten you

“tar tak-ka tuk’-k-on” = He has beaten him.

(b) Verb

In Nubein the verb is used differently according to the tense used . Tenses in Nubeinare of different forms according to their occurrence, their usage are the same as English but the forms differ . The following table shows some Nubein tenses compared with English.

Table (10): Tenses of Nubein

Tense	Nobein	English
Present Simple	Ay bata r Ir batar na Tar batri Ter batar in U: bat ro	I play You play(sing) She, he, it plays They play we play
Past simple	Ay batar s Ir batr onam Tar matr o	I played You played(sing) She, he, it played

	Ter batr sa U: batrso so	They played we played
Future simple	Ay fa bata r Ir fa batar name Tar fa batar e Ter fa batar enna U: fa batar o	I will play You will play(sing) She, he, it will play They will play we will play
Present progressive	Ay a:g bata r Ir a:g batar na Tar a:g batar i Ter a:g batar na U: a:g bata ro	I am playing You are playing (sing) She, he, it splaying They are playing we are playing

Verbs are divided in to transitive and intransitive. They can be used with or without a dependent (s-v) or (o-v) . These can be illustrated in the following examples:

Table (11): Examples of Nobein's Verbs

Transitive	Intransitive
- “ay ka ‘ba-kka fa-kab-ir” = I shall eat the bread. “ay is’sa:g-ka fa-kab-ir” = I shall eat now.	- ay fa-kab-ir = I shall eat - ay tel’mi:s illin = I am a schoolboy (“illin”) without a dependent -’tar nadu = he fell.

(c) Object

There can be one object or two objects in a sentence. For example ' tar kirrika a:g kir' = he is singing a song, has one direct object which is 'kirrka'. In the case of two objects one is direct and the other is indirect. Example : ' tar ay ga shongir ka dinou' = he gave me money, where the direct object follows the indirect one.

(d) Complement

'Kiro mali ustaz a mes' = all who came were teachers.

Subject complements can be:

NPs: 'anessi ustaz ya' = My sister is a teacher.

Adjective phrase: tar shedn ashrya' = she is very beautiful.

Pronoun : 'man noug ounil' = that house is ours.

5.1.3 Contrast

Similarities in the following terms are noticed in both English and Nobein :

- Declarative sentences are divided into nominal sentences and verbal sentences. In nominal sentence the subject in both languages is either a noun or pronoun .
- Verbs are transitive and intransitive.
- Objects are direct and indirect.
- Complements can be realized by noun phrases or adjective phrases.

The following differences hold between sentence elements between English and Nobein:

First: In English simple declarative sentences, the subject is an obligatory realized element, whereas in Nobein , may be overt or covert:

English : He entered the house.

Nobein: tar noug il toro

English: he entered the house.

Nobein: noug il toro.

Second, in English the syntactic functions of sentence elements are determined by word order, but in Nobein, these functions are marked by case endings that are retained by the elements regardless of their position in the sentence.

Third, unlike Nobein, English allows definite or indefinite nouns to occur initially in a copulative sentence.

English : a man in the house.

Nobein: nou gil id dafi.

house man in

5.2 Interrogative Sentences

Sentences that ask a question or request information are called interrogative sentences, they always end with a question mark (?).

There are 4 types of Interrogative sentences:

1. Yes/No interrogatives
2. Alternative interrogatives.
3. Wh-interrogatives
4. Tag questions.

5.2.1 English

(a) Yes/ No interrogatives

Are questions that can be answered with a yes or a no response. You probably ask or are asked these questions every day.

Here are some examples of yes/no interrogative sentences:

- Can you speak Germany?
- Did you take your vitamin this morning?
- Do you have your homework ready?
- Are you ready to go?
- Did you go to the game Friday night?

For each of the above questions, the answer will be either yes or no .

(b) Alternative interrogatives are questions that provide for two or more alternative answers. In other words, you are providing a choice.

Examples of alternative interrogative sentences:

- Would you prefer chocolate or vanilla ice cream?
- Should I call or email you?
- Do you want coffee, tea, or soda?

(c) Wh-Interrogatives

Sentences begin with a wh-word and call for an open-ended answer. A yes or no answer isn't appropriate for these questions, nor does the question provide alternative answers. The answer can be a simple response or complex explanation.

The following table shows question words with examples

Table (12): Examples of wh-interrogative sentences:

Question word	Example
What	What are you doing?
Where	Where do you live?
Who	Who is playing in the Super Bowl?
Which	Which songs do you like best?
How	How do you go to work?
How much	How much is this car?

(d)Tag Questions

Tag questions are used when the speaker is checking the accuracy of his/her information. They are tacked onto the end of a statement .in English such a construction can use only one negative. Thus an affirmative statement uses a negative tag and a negative statement uses affirmative tag. They transform a declarative sentence into an interrogative sentence.

Examples:

- You live in the city, don't you?
- We don't need to get going now, do we?
- You're coming to the party, aren't you?

Sometimes interrogative sentences are actually declarative sentences that have a question mark at the end, the last syllable of the final word in the sentence is spoken with a rising intonation. Here are a few examples.

- The bus has already left?
- It's snowing in Florida?
- You've lost 15 pounds already?
- The Subject of Interrogative Sentences

In tag question, the statement and tag usually have opposite polarities. Specifically, there are three types of tag questions in term of polarity: (a) a positive statement followed by a negative tag, (b) a negative statement followed by a positive tag, and (c) a positive statement followed by a positive tag.

5.1.2.2 Nobein

(a) Yes/no Interrogatives

In Nobein, Yes/No answer giving questions are formed by adding the interrogative certain suffixes such as 'na', 'r', 'ro' are added at the end of the sentence according to the noun and the tense.

'buru kiru na?' = has the girl come?

'ir midrs al ju: na?' = do you go to school?

The following table shows examples in Nobein and their equivalent in English:

Table(13): Example of yes/ no questions of English and Nobein

Ay noug il tig <i>ri</i> ?	(do I stay at home?)
Ir noug il tig <i>na</i> ?	(do you stay at home?)
Tar noug il tig <i>i</i> ?	(does he/ she stay at home?)
Ur noug il tig <i>ro</i> ?	(do you stay at home?)
Ter noug il tig <i>ina</i> ?	(do they stay at home?)

(b) Alternative Interrogative

Alternative questions are formed by using the word 'walla' means 'or' which is positioned between two words.

'ir sougila walla nougil noga fi?' = are you going to the market or home?

'fenti ga walla assal ka fergi?' = do you want date or honey/

'illin walla wallu tar fa kii?' = is he coming today or tomorrow.

(c) Wh-Interrogatives

In Nobeinwh-type questions are formed by using some interrogative words as we can see in the following table:

Table(14): Wh- Questions of Nobein

'nay , naysi'	Who
'mina'	What
'siddo, hiddo'	where
'sikir'	how
'hisun , insun'	when
'min kela' = 'in min kela? (how much is this?)	how much
'sika , hika'	which

In reviewing the paradigm of this case we use the interrogative root " isun" = when, throughout:

The present

Isun ay kab- ri?	when do I eat?
Isun ir kab- i?	when do you(sig) eat?
Isun tar kab- i?	when does she/h eat?
Isun u: kab- ru?	when do we eat?
Isun ur kab- ru?	when do you (plu) eat?
Isun ter kab- innan?	when do they eat?

With " kir" infix

Wilid- t isun ay kab- ke: ri? =	when do I feed the boy?
Wilid- t isun ir kab- ke ?	when do you feed the boy?
Wilid- t isun tar kab- ke?	when does he/ she feed the boy?
Wilid- t isun u: kab- ke: r- ru?	when do we feed the boy?
Wilid- t isun ur kab- ke: ru?	when do you feed the boy?
Wilid- t isun ter kab- ke: nna?	when do they feed the boy?

With " inkir" infix

Wilid- t isun ay fa kab- inke:ri? = when shall I let the boy eat?

As with " kir"

With " dakk" infix

Isun ay fa- to:g- dakk- ri?	When shall I be beaten?
Isun ir fa- to:g- dakk- i?	When will you be beaten?
Isun tar fa- to:g- dakk- i?	When will he/ she will be beaten?
Isun u: fa- to:g- dakki- ru?	When shall we be beaten?
Isun ur fa- to:g- dakki- ru?	When will you be beaten?
Isun ter fa- to:g- dakki- nna ?	When they be beaten?

The past

Isun ay kab- si? = Isun ir kab- o? Isun tar kab- o? Isun u: kab- su? Isun ur kab- su? Isun ter kab- sa?	when did I eat? when did you eat? when did he/ she eat? when did we eat? when did you eat? when did they eat?
--	--

With the infix " ken" used to '

Isun ay kab- kesi Isun ir kab- ken- o? Isun tar kab- ken- o? Isun u: kab- kes- su? Isun ur kab- kes- su? Isun ter kab- kes- sa?	when did I use to eat? when did you use to eat? when did he/ she use to eat? when did we use to eat? when did you use to eat? when did they use to eat?
--	--

With the infix " kir"

Wilid- t isun ay kab- kis-sii? = Wilid- t isun ir kab- kir -o ? Wilid- t isun tar kab- kir- o? Wilid- t isun u: kab- kis- su? Wilid- t isun ur kab- kis- su? Wilid- t isun ter kab- kis- sa?	when did I feed the boy? when did you feed the boy? when did he/ she feed the boy? when did we feed the boy? when did you feed the boy? when did they feed the boy?
---	--

Present perfect

With the infix " dakk

Isun ay to:g- dakk- si?	When have I been beaten?
Isun ir to:g- dakk- ko?	When have you been beaten?
Isun tar to:g- dakk- ko?	When has he/ she been beaten?
Isun u: to:g- dakki- su?	When have we been beaten?
Isun ur to:g- dakki- su?	When have you been beaten?
Isun ter to:g- dakki- sa ?	When have they been beaten?

(d) Tag Question

This type of questions in Nobein are formed by placing an interrogative suffix at the end of a declarative statement which is 'ingira emi'. Nobein has only one fixed grammatical structure that functions as a tag whether the structure is positive or negative.

Examples:

'ir kabonam, ingira emi?'= you ate, didn't you?

'tar wallu fa ki, ingira emi?' = he will com tomorrow, won't he?

'ter ag batar en, ingira emi? = they are playing, aren't they?

5.1.2.3 Contrast

In both English and Nobein interrogative sentences are divided into yes/no questions, wh-type questions and tag questions. Alternative questions in English and Nobein are expressed by using one word (i.e, in English uses 'or' which equals the word 'walla' in Nobein).

The following differences hold between English and Nobein. First, English question formation involves Do- support when no auxiliary is present in the statement, whereas in Nobein certain suffixes are used at the end of the sentence. Second, only English question formation involve auxiliary- subject inversion. Thirdly, unlike Nobein, English questions allow preposition stranding. Fourthly, Tag questions in English and Nobein are formed by adding an interrogative suffix at the end of declarative sentence. In English, if the sentence is in positive the tag will be negative and vice versa. and it has a variety of tags, whereas Nobein has only one fixed structure that expresses the tag. Fifthly, English tag may have either rising intonation(expecting agreement) or falling intonation (demanding agreement). The Nobein tag in contrast, always has rising intonation. Sixthly, English uses 'how many ' and 'how much' to ask about count and no count nouns, respectively, while Nobein does not make this distinction. The following table explains the question types in both languages:

Table(15): Question types in both languages:

Question type	English	Nobein
Wh- question	Who What where how when how much which	'nay , naysi' 'mina' 'siddo, hiddo' 'sikir' 'hisun , insun' 'min kela' 'sika , hika'
Alternative questions	Or	Walla
Yes/ no	Auxiliary and modal verbs	Suffixes: na, ri, ru,
Tag	Auxiliary and modal verbs (positive and negative)	ingira emi

5.1.3 Imperative Sentences

5.1.3.1 English

Typically, imperative sentences are short and simple, but they can be long, compound or complex sentences as well. Some of the simplest sentences in the English language are actually imperative sentences consisting of a single verb as in the following example:

- Stop!
- Go.
- Hurry!

Depending on the strength of emotion you want to convey, either a period or exclamation mark punctuates imperative sentences. The sentence begins with a verb followed by an object

Examples Of Imperative sentences

- Pour me a glass of water.
- Leave the package at the door.
- Take me to the library.
- Walk through this door and turn left at the next hallway.
- Come over here, look at this specimen, and tell me what you think.
- Put that down now!
- Tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth.

Though it may be considered more polite to use the word “please” in imperative sentences, it is not necessary. Without the word attached the sentence is still grammatically correct.

5.1.3.2 Nobein

In Nobein imperative sentence showing request or command or order has the form object + verb (O+ V).

'aman ter ika ikir' = bring some water.

'indo kir' = come here.

No:g ka toy' = sweep the house.

'hosan tiig' = keep calm.

Also , the imperative sentences can give permission.

'tak ka mando joi mangir' = let him go there.

Also, the imperative can be expressed by using one verb, for example:

Tiig = sit jou = go

Neir = sleep menj = wait

5.1.3.3 Contrast

Imperative sentences in both English and Nobein show request, command or permission .The structure of the sentence in English and Nobein in imperative differs. In English the imperative begins with a verb followed by an object or a complement while in Nobein it begins with a noun and the object marker precedes the verb. Both have the form of the imperative in the case of one verb.

The following table explains the structure of imperative in both languages:

Table (16): Imperatives of English and Nobein

English	Nobein
V O	O V
Come here	Indo ´ kir
V	V
Sit	Tiig

5.1.4 Exclamatory Sentences

5.1.4.1 English

Exclamatory sentences convey some type of strong emotion;

love, anger, happiness, confusion, elation or any other typed of exuberant emotion. To express a strong emotion we write a declarative sentence and use the punctuation mark (!)!

Exclamation marks are reserved for powerful feelings so we won't find them used to express a matter-of-fact emotion or serenity, or a sense of calm.

Grammatically speaking, formal English requires exclamations to begin with either the word *what* or *how*. But in everyday informal English exclamations can begin with any word, as it will be seen in the examples of exclamatory sentences to follow. But first, two more grammar rules needed to be known.

Rule Number One: If the noun in the sentence is plural, the correct choice is *what*, not *how*.

- “What exceptional children these are!” is correct.
- “How exceptional children these are!” is incorrect.
- *What* is acceptable with singular nouns as well.
- “What an exceptional child this is!”

Rule Number Two: When punctuating an exclamatory sentence, the exclamation mark should be at the sentence end, not in the middle of the sentence.

- “Fantastic, we closed the deal!” is correct.
- “Fantastic! we closed the deal.” is incorrect.

Examples of exclamatory sentences

The following sentences are all examples of exclamations:

- No, you did not have permission to stay out this late! (anger)

- I can't figure this out! (frustration)
- Our team won the championship! (happiness)
- I don't know what happened here! (confusion)
- I simply adore you! (love)
- I just won the lottery! (elation)
- My life will never be the same without you! (sorrow)
- Oh, I didn't see you come in! (surprise)

An interrogative sentence can become an exclamation, too. Like this...

What did you do to the dog's hair!

Exclamatory Words:

The following table shows the exclamatory words :

Table (17): Exclamations of English

Wow	Brilliant!
Bravo!	Ouch!
Unbelievable	Magnificent!
Awesome!	Amazing

Exclamatory words that can stand alone as a sentence while expressing emotions or reactions are called interjections. Interjections don't require a subject or verb to express a thought. However, they can be inserted in a sentence by using commas.

- Wow, that was a thrilling ride!
- Brilliant, you solved the puzzle!
- Awesome, you got the job!

5.1.4.2 Nobein

Exclamatory sentences in Nobein are formed by adding the interrogative pronoun 'sikir'

'sikir buru ashrya !' = how a beautiful girl!

'sikir noug dawra ! ' = how a big house!

'sikir fenti ajwa! " = how a sweet date!

The structure of exclamatory sentence is formed by using the exclamatory word in the beginning of the sentence followed by a noun then an adjective

5.1.4.3 Contrast

In both English and Nobein exclamatory sentences are formed by adding interrogative pronouns. In English the adjective precedes the noun while in Nobein it follows it, e.g., in the sentence 'how a big house' the adjective 'big' comes before the noun house while in Nobein in the sentence 'sikir nou:g dawwra' we notice that the adjective 'dawwra' comes after the noun 'nou:g' = (house). English possesses more words for exclamation than Nobein as shown in the following table:

Table (18): Exclamation words in English and Nobein

English	Nobein
What How Brilliant! Unbelievable Magnificent! Awesome! Amazing	Sikir

5.2 Sentence Patterns

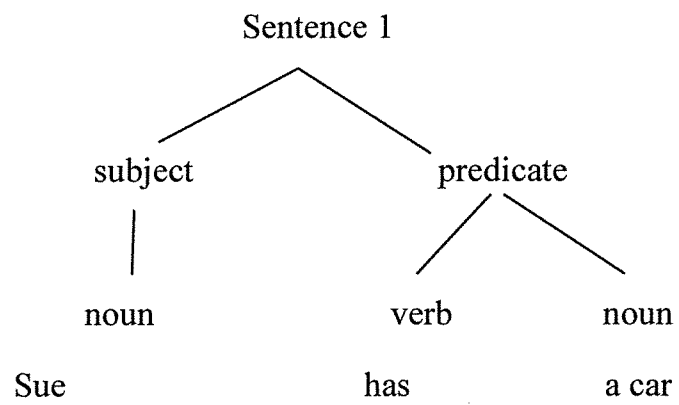
According to John et al (1965: 18) sentence may be viewed abstractly as grammatical patterns consisting of a sequence of slots, each of which is a place in the pattern at which a substitution of various appropriate lexical units can be made.

Sentence patterns can be understood as the way sentences are usually structured. It is important to learn the most common sentence patterns in any language. There are a number of common sentence patterns used to write most sentences.

This section focuses on the simple sentence, its patterns and types of both languages. To begin the discussion of sentence patterns, the researcher has chosen patterns of the more general type, relying on the Nobein speaker's familiarity with English. A simple sentence has different forms and patterns, in this part the researcher is going to give an overview of them. A tree diagram is used to show the constituents of the sentence in both languages.

4.2.1 English

1. Subject, verb, object

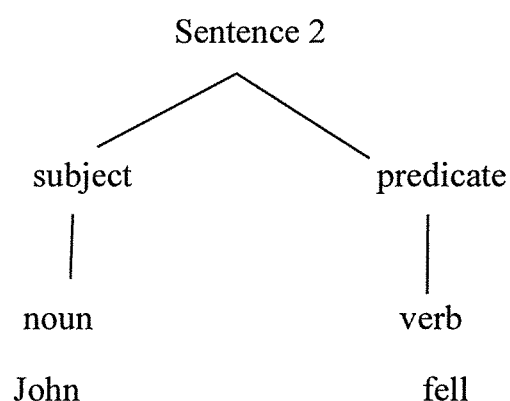


In this pattern the sentence is made of a subject, a verb and a direct object.
 The verb is transitive because it is acting upon an object directly: S V DO
 In sentence 1 the verb to have must have an object.

Examples:

She drinks tea. The teacher likes the students.

2. Subject, verb



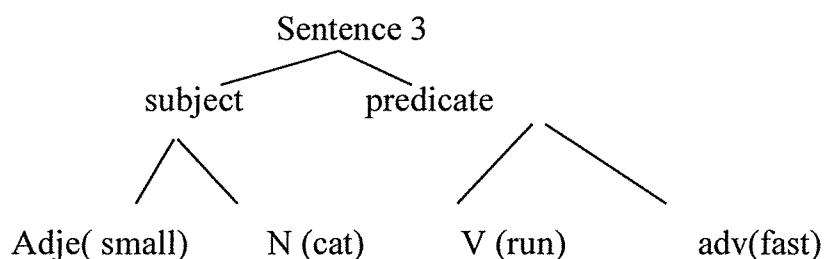
This pattern is made up of a subject and a verb plus any modifiers, there is no complement or completer; therefore, the verb is intransitive: S V
 In sentence 2 there is no object because the verb to fall can not take an object, it is an intransitive verb.

Examples:

The birds fly. I run every day.

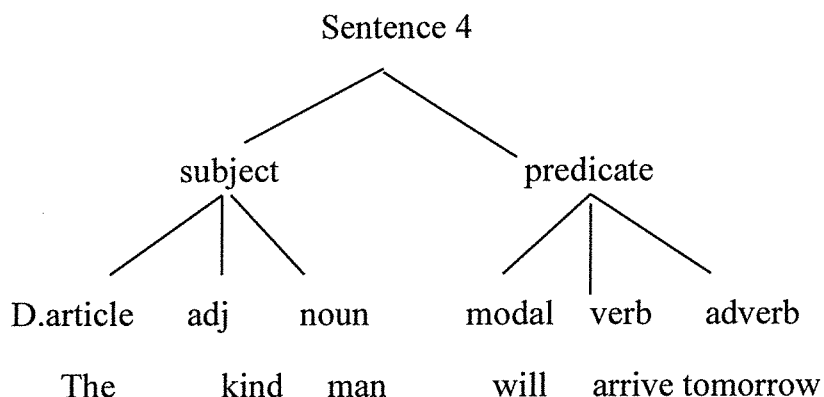
The boys sing sweetly.

3. Adjective , adverb



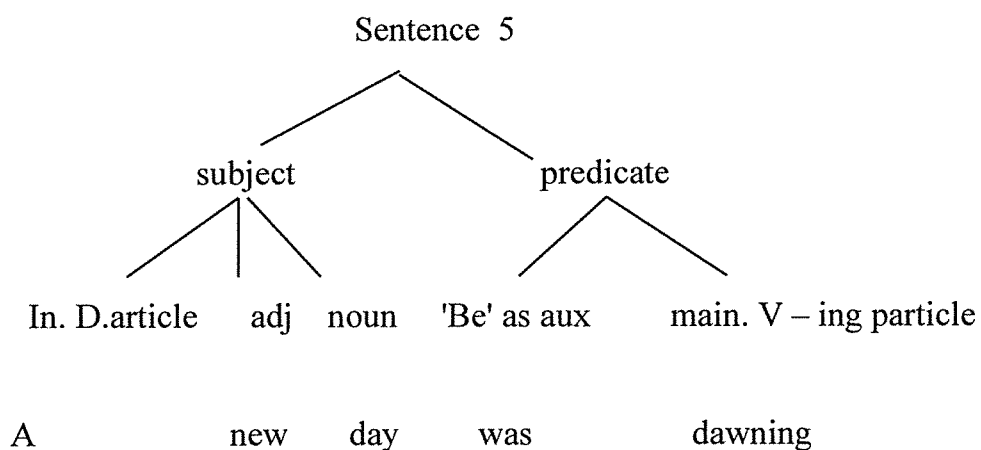
In English the adjective proceeds the noun and the adverb follow the verb.

4. The articles, modals, infinitives



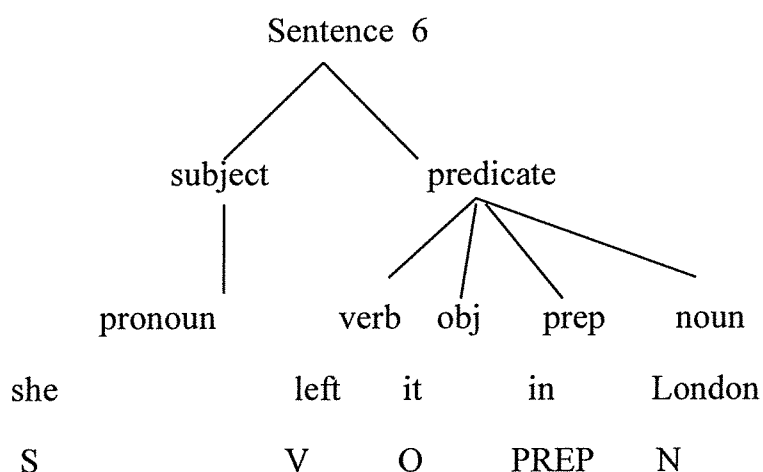
In sentence 4 we are introduced to the definite article, a modal auxiliary verb and the infinitive. The subject is formed by a definite article plus an adjective which describe the noun. The predicate consists of the modal and the adverb that follow the verb.

5. 'Be' as an auxiliary verb, + ing participle



In sentence 5 we can see the indefinite article a and the verb be (in the form of was) in its function of primary auxiliary verb. The main verb takes the –ing form and may be called the –ing participle or present participle.

6. Pronoun, preposition

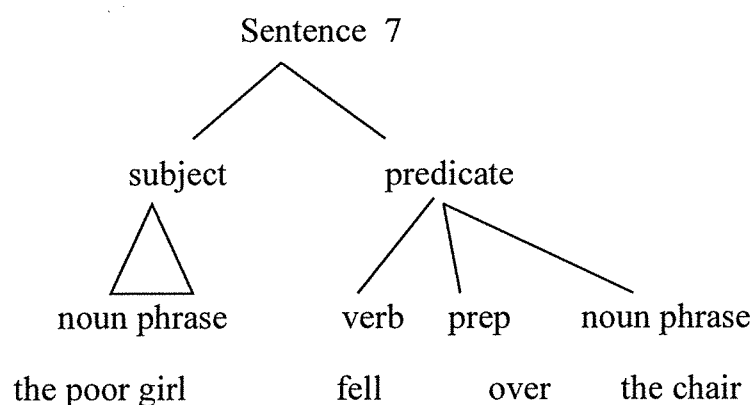


In sentence 6 we are introduced to personal pronouns as a subject and prepositions as predicates.

I baked it in the oven.

He listened to it in the radio.

7. Noun phrase



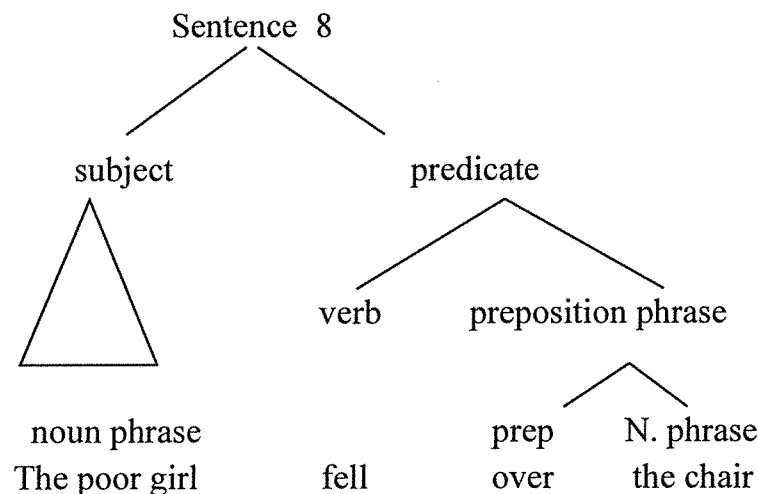
Sentence 7 shows two noun phrases. The noun phrase is a group of words made up of a noun and one or more words modifying or specifying it.

Examples:

The book is good.

I read the book.

8. A preposition phrase

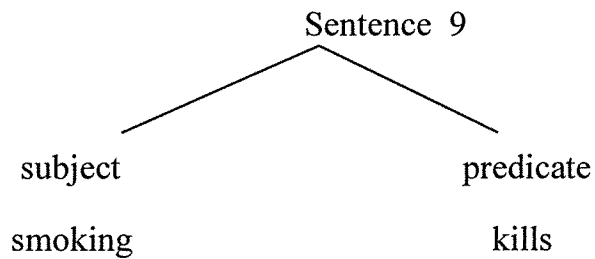


The sentence is made up of a noun phrase which occupy as a subject and a verb followed by a prepositional phrase. The prepositional phrases are characterized as the following:

- Prepositional phrases always consist of two basic parts at minimum: the object and the preposition.
- In English, prepositions are almost always followed by objects.
- Adjectives can be placed between the prepositions and objects in prepositional phrases.
- Prepositional phrases can act as adverbs or adjectives. When they are used as adjectives, they modify nouns and pronouns in the same way single-word adjectives do.
- When prepositional phrases are used as adverbs, they at the same way single-word adverbs and adverb clauses do, modifying adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs.

9. Gerund

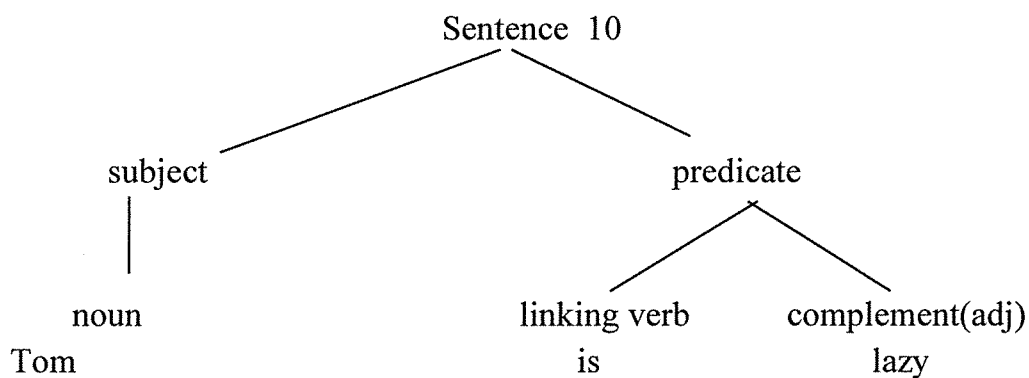
A gerund is a word ending in –ing, derived from a verb and taking the place of a noun. Also known as –ing form (used as a noun).



The word smoking is in subject position. Besides being the subject in a sentence, the word smoking can occupy other noun positions:

- It can be the object of a verb, e.g., she likes smoking.
- It can follow a preposition, e.g., we put it down to smoking.
- It can be preceded by a definite article, e.g., it's the smoking that does it.

10. Being pattern - Linking verbs



This pattern consists of a subject, a special kind of intransitive verb called a linking verb and a subjective complement (may be an adjective which describes the subject): S LV AC

In sentence 12 the verb be is used as a major verb (its other role is an auxiliary verb). This verb does not describe any activity, it just links a person or thing with a descriptor. It is therefore given the functional title linking verb by the subject complement. An object complement would occur after the object. The most common verb for this patter is the lexical verb be, called a copula verb. the following table shows more verbs that may be used with this pattern

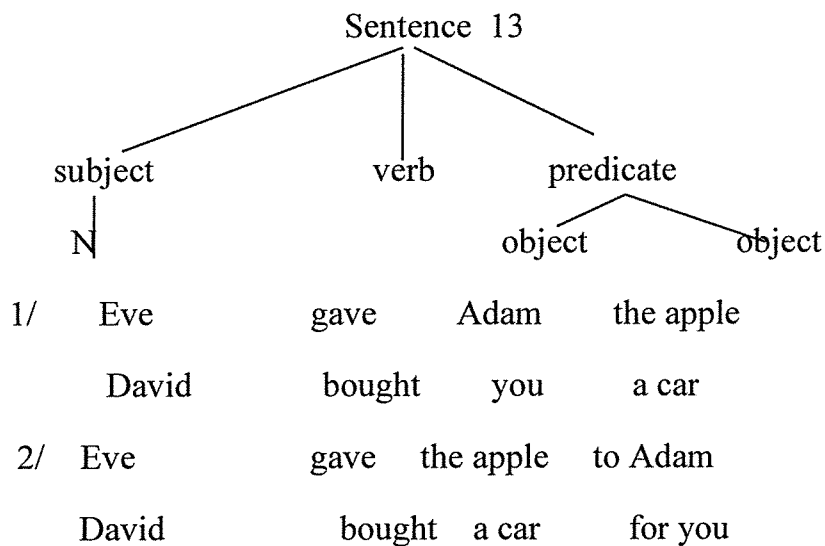
Table (19): Copula verbs of English (verbs used in the being pattern)

Appear	grow	seem	look
Become	make	smell	sound
Feel	prove	taste	remain

11. Indirect Object

This pattern consists of a subject and a verb with two completers of the verb: the direct object, which directly receives the action of the transitive verb and answers who or what and the indirect object, which indirectly receives the action of the verb and answers to whom

Many verbs can or must take two objects. The indirect is usually a person, and when it follows the direct object it is preceded by the preposition to or for. The following table illustrates this type of patter with some examples:



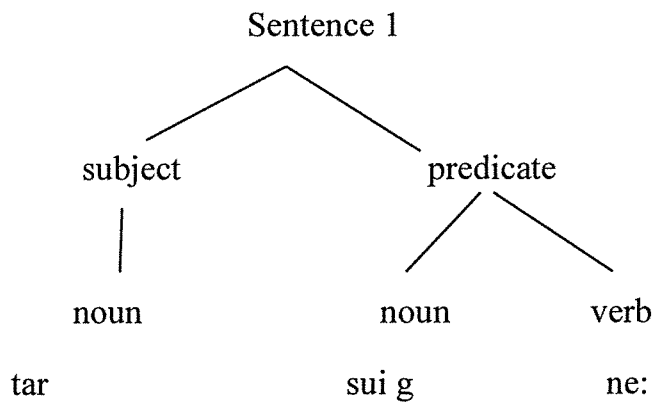
Here the transitive verb is followed by N which has a different referent from N and hence it functions as the (DO). The grammatical meaning of this object is “under goer of the action” or “that affected by the verb”.

In this pattern the object can be followed by one of the following:

- (a) **Noun**: They chose her a model.
- (b) **Adjective**: They considered her brilliant.
- (c) **Pronoun** : I thought the caller you.
- (d) **A (place)** : We supposed him upstairs.
- (e) **V present participle**: I imagined her eating.
- (f) **V past participle** : I believed him seated.
- (g) **Prep. phrase** : We considered her in the way.
- (h) **Inf. phrase (to be)** : We thought him to be fine.

5.2.2 Nobein

1. Subject, object, verb



In Nobein the object which is the predicate follows the subject and precedes the verb.

Examples:

“ay wilid-ta nas-s” = I saw the boy.

(s-v) pattern

verbal phrase

“nas-s” = saw

nominal phrase

“ay” = I

(o-v) pattern

verbal phrase

“nas-s” = saw

mark

“ta”

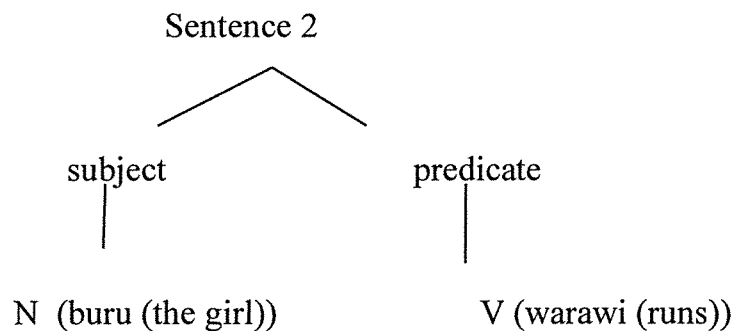
nominal phrase

“wilid-ta”

'ay mug weika kunir' = I have a dog.

'ter agissi g kabina' = they eat fish

2. Subject, verb

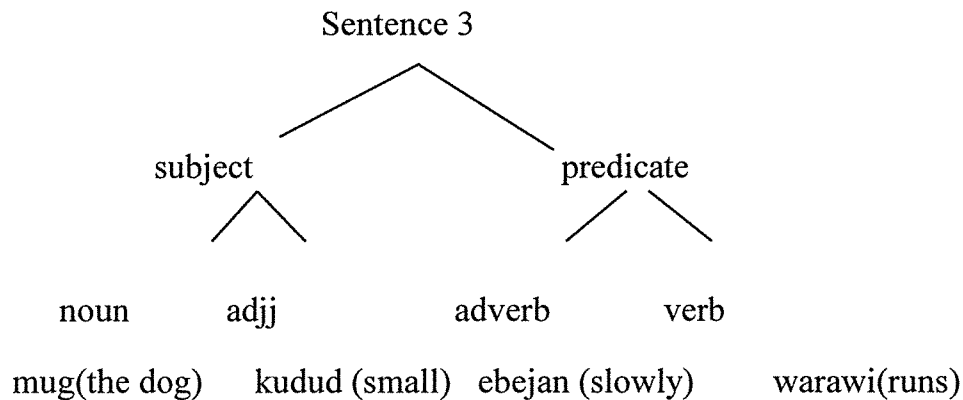


Example

“ay lim’m-is” = I gathered.

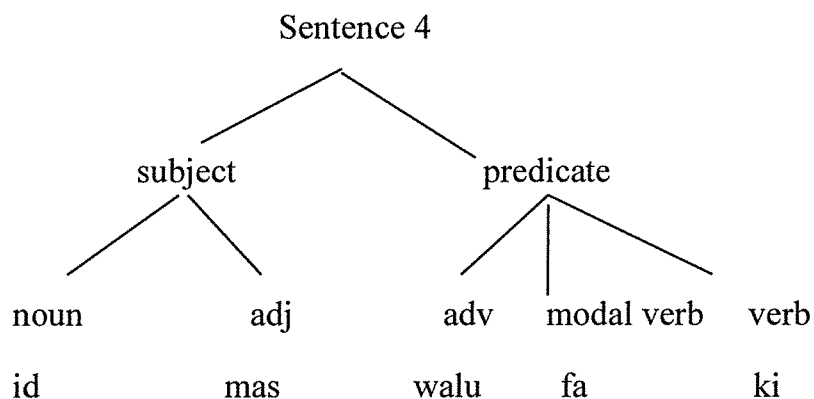
Here stress mark is placed above and before the first symbol of the stressed syllable. Here the verb 'warawi' is intransitive because the verb does not have an object.

3. Adjective , adverb



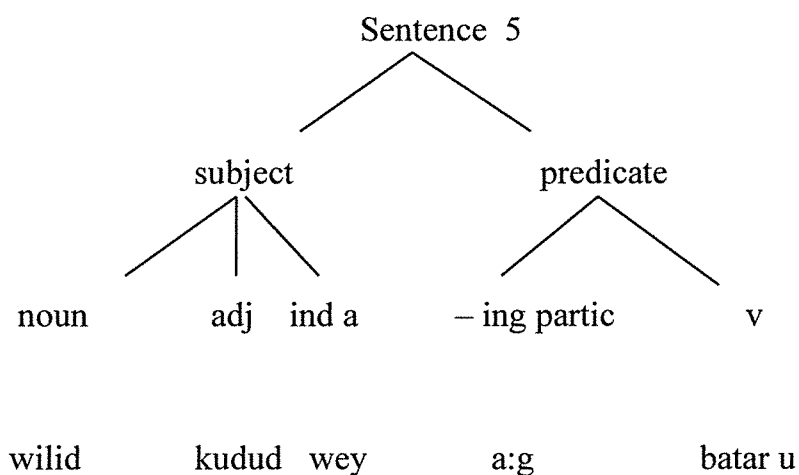
In Nobein the adjective follows the noun and the adverb comes before the verb.

4. The modals, infinitives



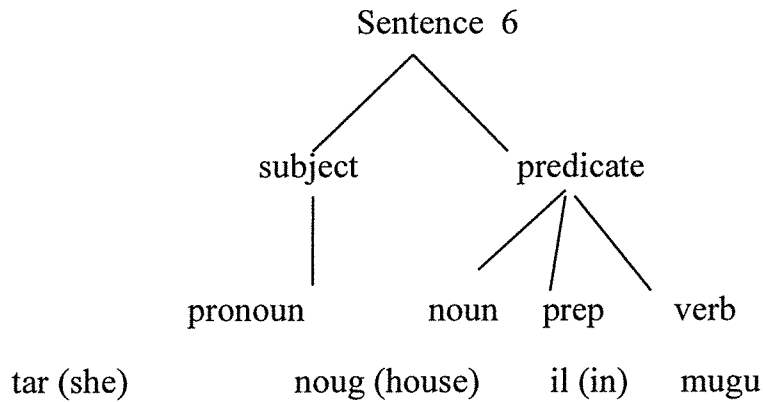
In Nobein there is no definite article and the adjective follows the noun. The predicate is formed by an adverb and the future marker which precedes the verb.

5. 'Be' as an auxiliary verb + ing participle



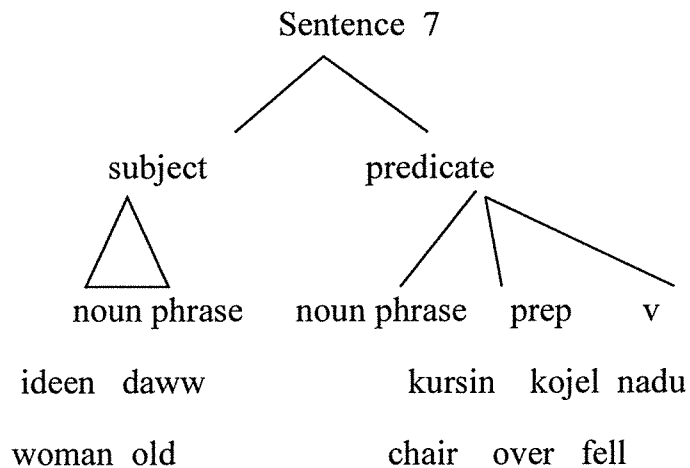
In Nubein the indefinite article is expressed by the word 'wey' means one which follow the adjective. The predicate is made up of the past continuous of be expressed by 'a:g' and the verb 'batar' (play), the past tense is formed by using the suffix 'u' .

6. Pronoun, preposition



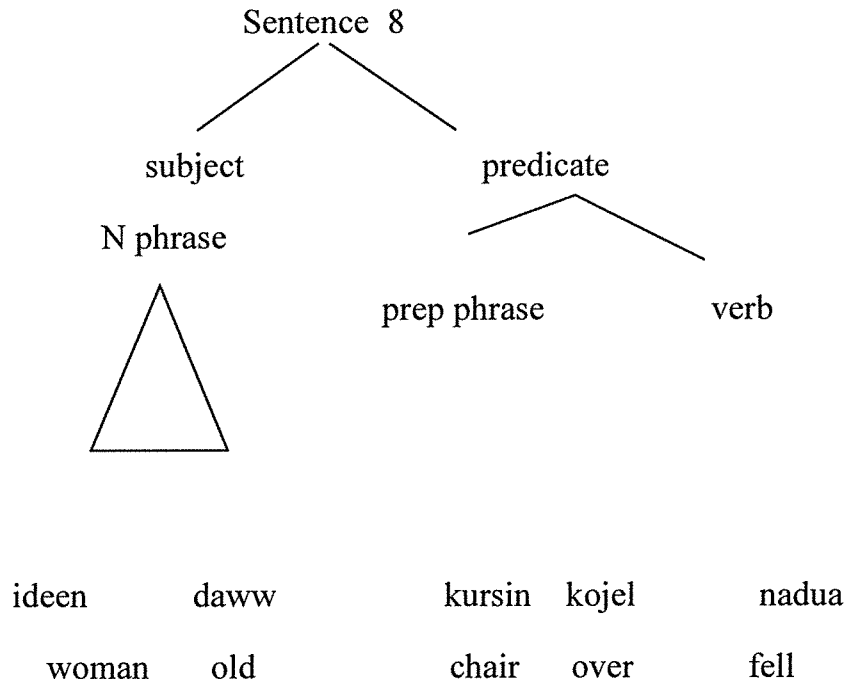
In this sentence the pronoun 'tar' works as a subject, followed by a noun and a prepositional clause. The verb comes after the preposition.

7. Noun phrase



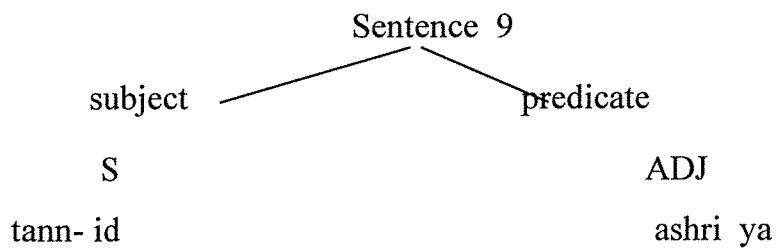
In this type of pattern the noun phrase consists of a noun and an adjective. The adjective follows the noun. The predicate is formed by a noun phrase, a preposition and a verb which comes after the preposition .

8. A preposition phrase



The prepositional phrase consists of an object and a preposition. It is positioned between the noun and the verb.

9 . Gerund



A verbal root may have one of the following suffixes.

“i:d” e.g. “tann-i:d” = walking (of the verbal root “tann” = to walk).

“a:d” e.g. “daffi’ r-a:d” = losing (of the verbal root “daffir” – to lose).

“andi” e.g. “simar’k-andi” = anger (of the verbal root “simarkir” = to be angry).

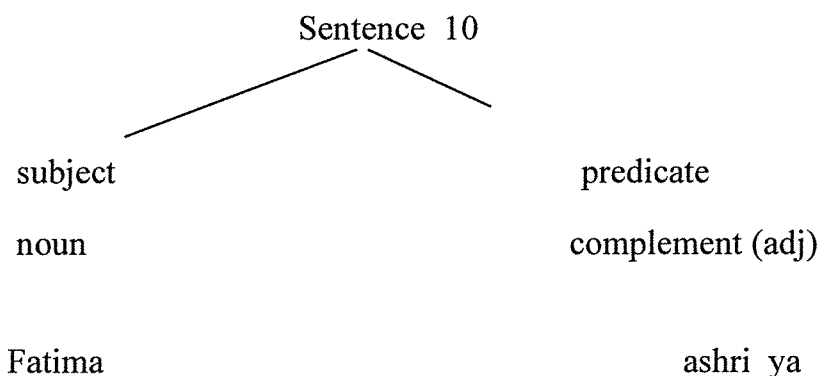
“innan” e.g. “kab-in’nan” = eating (of the verbal root “kab” = to eat).

The gerund can be :

- a subject as in ' tann-id ashri ya' = walking is good

-an object as in ' ay tann- id ta dolir' (S O+ ta V)= I love walking.

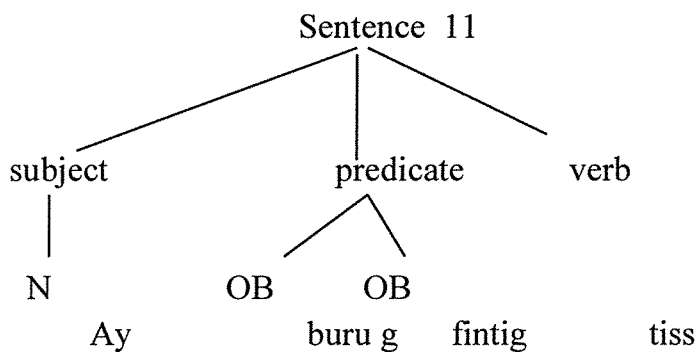
10. Being pattern - Linking verbs



Fatima beautiful is (Fatima is beautiful).

This pattern is made up of a subject which is a noun and a complement that precedes the verb. The verb to be seems not to be found in Nobein as a single separate verb but some markers are attached to the word before it, e.g., *ya* in 'ashri ya'

11. Indirect object



As in English this pattern consists of a subject, a verb and two complements (Do & Io).

'Ay buru g fintig tiss ' = I girl date gave (I gave the girl dates) -

- 'Tar tafa pa noug ka jana tiro'= He bought his father a house

The word order differs in English and Nobein in this pattern. In Nobein the verb comes after the direct and indirect objects while in English the verb is positioned before the objects. in Nobein this pattern has other structures such as:

- S O V O: buru g ay fenti g tiss(girl i date gave).
- O S O S: fenti g ay buru g tiss.(date i girl gave).

5.2.3 Contrast

English and Nobein sentence patterns differ in structure and word order.

In the following tables all patterns of both languages are shown :

Table (20) :Contrast of Pattern (1)

English	Noben
S V O	S O V / O S V
I saw Omer	Ay Omer <i>ka</i> nass// Omer ka ay nass
	Tar wilid <i>ta</i> nalu(she saw the boy)

In English the sentence is consisted of a subject followed by a verb and an object. In Nobein the subject is followed by an object which is marked by some suffixes such as 'ka', 'ta'.

Table (21): Contrast of Pattern (2)

English	Nobein
S V	S V
The man came	id kiro

The structure of this pattern is similar in both languages. The sentence begins with the subject followed by a verb. We notice that in Nobein there is no definite article like in English.

Table (22): Contrast of Pattern (3)

English	Nobein
ADJ N V ADV	N ADJ ADV V
small dogs run fast	Mugri kudud tu shiddan warawin

Unlike English, in Nobein the adjective does not precede the noun, it follows it and the verb follows the adverb

Table (23): Contrast of Pattern (4)

English	Nobein
D.article adj N modal V ADV	N ADJ ADV modal V
The kind man will arrive tomorrow	Id mas walu fa ki Man kind tomorrow will come

In this pattern the difference appears in that there is no definite article in Nobein as in English and the adjective and adverb are adjacent followed by the verb in future.

Table (24): Contrast of Pattern (5)

English	Nobein
In. D.art adj n 'Be' main. v – ing	n adj in d.art ing v
A new day was dawning	Wilid kudud wey a:g bataru

Indefinite article and the –ing form are parts of this pattern. In English the indefinite article proceeds the adjective while in Nobein it follows the adjective. The –ing is attached to the verb in English whereas in Nobein it precedes the verb.

Table (25): Contrast of Pattern (6)

English	Nobein
S V O PREP O	S O O PREP V
She left the dog at home	tar mug ka noug il mugu

In English this pattern is formed by a subject, a verb, an object followed by a preposition and a noun while in Nobein it is formed by a subject, an object, an object, a preposition followed by a verb.

Table (26): Contrast of Pattern (7)

English	Nobein
N phrase V prep N phrase	N phrase N phrase prep V
The small boy fell over the chair	Wilid kudud kursin kojel nado

In this pattern the difference lies on the structure of both languages sentence. In English there are two noun phrases which are separated by a verb

and a preposition. In Nobein on the other hand the noun phrases are adjacent and followed by a preposition and a verb which comes at the end.

Table (27): Contrast of Pattern (8)

English	Nobein
ADJ N V PREP N	S ADJ N PREP V
The old man fell over the chair	id daww kursin kojel nadu
He fell over the chair	tar kursin kojel nadu

The prepositional phrase is formed by a preposition and a noun as a complement. In English the preposition comes after the verb while in Nobein it precedes the verb.

Table (28): Contrast of Pattern (9)

Language	Gerund form
English	-ing
Nobein	-i:d _ a:d _ andi _ innan

In English the gerund has only one form which is the – ing, while in Nobein gerund is formed by using many suffixes at the root verb.

Table (29): Contrast of Pattern (10)

English	Nobein
S predicate (linking verb + adj)	S predicate (adj + be marker)
Tom is lazy	Fatima ashri ya

In English the verb to be is used as a linking verb that precedes the complement, while in Nobein it doesn't have this function. It is expressed by adding some markers to the predicates.

Table (30): Contrast of Pattern (11)

English	Nobein
S V IO DO	S IO+g DO V
He gave Ali dates	Tar Ali g fintig tiro

This pattern shows two object complements. In English they follow the verb while in Nobein they precede the verb.

5.3 Sentence Negation

5.3.0 Introduction

According to Willis et al (2013: 1) negation is one of the few truly universal grammatical categories and every language has some grammatical means to deny the truth of an ordinary declarative sentence. The expression of this category varies significantly both from language to language and historically within the same language.

Lyeiri (1984: 142) states that languages and dialects could signal negation by using a variety of strategies and each of these languages has a small set of dialectal negative markers. The syntactic position in which these markers are found is restricted. Negation is the grammatical operation whereby a proposition is replaced by one that states the opposite. An affirmative form expresses the validity or truth of a basic assertion. A negative form expresses the falsity of a basic assertion

5.3.1 English

In English, if we want to state that something is not true, we can form a negative sentence by adding the word “not” after the first auxiliary verb in the affirmative sentence. If there is no auxiliary verb in the affirmative sentence, as in the Present Simple and Past Simple tenses, we will add one with the word “not” after it. When an auxiliary verb is added like that, the main verb must be in the infinitive form (no ‘-s’ or ‘-ed’ ending).

Nowadays, when looking at a negative sentence, we usually see the auxiliary verbs with ‘not’ in contracted forms, not in full forms. Full forms are used in very formal cases or when we want to emphasize. Contractions of negated auxiliary verbs in English are formed by reducing the negative particle ‘not’ to n't, a clitic or suffix which is fused to the root verb form.

Examples include isn't, aren't, wasn't, weren't (from be), hasn't, haven't, hadn't (from have), won't, wouldn't (from will), shan't, shouldn't (from shall), can't, couldn't (from can), mayn't, mightn't, and mustn't (from may). And there is no standard contraction for ‘am not’.

All conjugations of ‘be’ are subject to contraction even when used in a non-auxiliary sense.

Example: “He isn’t my teacher.” (‘be’ here isn’t an auxiliary)

“I don’t have a pen.”

The following table illustrates the auxiliary negations including examples, contracted forms which are used in informal writing and speaking , and full forms:

Table (31): English Negation forms

Tense	Negative element + contracted forms	Examples
Present simple	Do +not = don’t Does +not = doesn’t	I do not read. She doesn’t read.
Past simple	Did +not= didn’t	I didn’t read.
Present progressive	Am +not (no amn’t) Is +not = isn’t Are +not = aren’t	I am not reading. He is not reading. We aren’t reading.
Past progressive	Was +not = wasn’t Were +not = weren’t	I wasn’t reading. They were not reading.
Present perfect	Have +not = haven’t Has +not = hasn’t	You haven’t read She has not read.
Present perfect progressive	Have +not+ been = haven’t been Has +not+ been = hasn’t been	I have not been reading. She hasn’t been reading.
Past perfect	Had +not = hadn’t	You hadn’t read.
Past perfect progressive	Had +not+ been = hadn’t been	She hadn’t been reading.

Future simple	Will +not =won't	I won't read.
Future perfect	Will +not +have = won't have	He will not have read.
Conditional	Would + not =wouldn't	She wouldn't read.
Conditional perfect	Would + not +have =wouldn't have	She wouldn't have read.
Modals	can + not = can't or cannot (formal) should + not = shouldn't	I can't read. I cannot read. We shouldn't read.

In English, there are several instances where 'not' can grammatically negate the subject of a sentence.

Examples: "Not everyone can do this work"

"Not many people came to the meeting last week"

'No' and 'any' are another negative determiners which we can place before a noun to bring a negative meaning into a sentence.

Examples:

"He sold no car last year." = "He did not sell any car last year."

"You will make no cakes for him." = "You won't make any cakes for him".

There is also a type of negation called affixed negation and is marked by the presence of negative affixes such as: a-, non-, dis-, un-, in- (including the variants im-, il-, ir-), the suffix -less and the suffix -out.

Examples

atypical = not typical;

non-stop = without any stop;

dislike = not like;

unnecessary = not necessary;

ineffective = not effective;

impossible = not possible;

illogical = not sensible;

irresponsible = not responsible;

useless = not fulfilling the intended purpose

without = not having

Also, there are other negation words such as the followings:

No one / not ... anyone

Nothing / not ... anything

Nowhere / not ... anywhere

Neither ... Nor

No more / not ... any more

5.3.2 Nobein

In Nobein negation is realized by suffixing certain negative markers to the verb. The following table illustrates some Nobein's tenses with their negation.

Table (32): Negation forms of Nobein

Tense	Negative form
Present simple	Ay fay mon Ir fay minam Tar fay mon U: fay mo Ter fay men
Present progressive	Ay a:g fay mon Ir a:g fay minam Tar a:g fay mon U: a:g fay mo Ter a:g fay men
Past simple	Ay fay kom Ir fay kominam Tar fay kom U: fay kom Ter fay komen
Past progressive	Ay a:g fay komon Ir a:g fay ko minam Tar a:g fay kom U: a:g fay kom Ter a:g fay komen
Future simple	Ay ha fay mon Ir ha fay minam Tar ha fay mon U: ha fay mo Ter ha fay men

There are three common formations for negation in Nobein:

1. To negate an action, a process or quality:

Examples:

"tar ashry a um"= she beautiful in not (she is not beautiful).

"tar wilid ta kum" = he son a not have (he does not have a son).

2. To negate a relationship or quality:

Examples:

"ir sahab ana eminam" = you friend my not (you are not my friend).

3. To negate the existence of something.

Examples:

"wey kir kum" – one has come no (no one has come)

"wey takka janinga firgum" = one it buy wants no (nobody wants to buy it).

5.3.3 Contrast

Both English and Nobein use negation and they have certain markers and words to express it. But we can notice some dissimilarities between them. For instance, in English language sentences, auxiliary verbs must be used in tenses such as do, does, did, etc. plus the negative word 'not'. So, verbs may be negated with the adverbs 'not' and 'never', the determiner no, and the indefinite pronouns such as no one, nobody, and none as well as other negative words. The negative article or determiner precede the verb such as 'he has not come' where the negation word 'not' is placed before the main verb 'come'.

In Nobein , on the other hand, we notice that certain suffixes are attached to the verb according to the subject (noun or pronoun). In Nobein the negation is formed by putting the negative marker i.e. suffixes, after the main verb such as 'ay kab kom' (I didn't eat).

5.4 Summary

In this chapter we have seen that sentences may have different communicative functions and that each of these communicative functions is expressed with a typical sentence patterns and sentence elements of both English and Nobein. The researcher highlighted on simple sentence (declarative, interrogative , imperative and exclamatory sentences) of both languages identifying similarities and differences. Also, it sheds light on sentence negation in both languages.

Chapter 6

Summary, Suggestion and Recommendations

Chapter Six

Summary and Recommendations

6.0 Introduction

The overall aim of this dissertation is to advance an understanding of CA in the FL classrooms, particularly in relation to teach English language to Nubian speakers. After many years of depending on theoretical contrastive studies, finally this research has sought a practical framework by laying down a set of strategic lesson plans for teachers to use, which contribute a great deal to the field of applied linguistics. This chapter will synthesize the literature review and the findings related to the specific objectives of the research in order to make valuable concluding key points, limitations and recommendations. In modern time, comparative studies have become an integral part of any discipline/field of study. The English teachers can also use comparative study/contrastive analysis as a tool for teaching of the target language. As has been stated earlier, the present thesis is intended to identify, validate, calibrate and illustrate the similarities and differences between English and Nobein from the point of view of the syntactic typology, one of the purposes of the study being to ascertain whether the similarities between the two languages can help us to understand better the concept of linguistic universals as discussed and illustrated by Greenberg and his associates.

For instance, consider Nobein and English languages which are originally different from one another. More accurately, consider the simple sentence system (structure) in the two languages. Basically, they both have the same type of sentence: simple sentence, but a simple sentence structure in Nobein is entirely different from that in English. For that matter, Nobein learners of

English especially beginners and whether leaning it as (L2) or (FL) face difficulties in building a simple sentence. These difficulties might be due to their first language (Nubian) transfer (language interference) according to CA hypothesis.

In the words of Dulay and Burt (1982: 5) language learners usually make errors in English in general, and syntax and pronunciation in particular often as a result of the influence of their L1. This can theoretically be put a negative transfer of learning.

6.1 Summary of Findings

In the preceding chapter of this study, the structures of English and Nobein have been compared at syntactic level. The similarities, partial similarities and differences between the two languages in different structural aspects have been closely identified and listed immediately after the individual descriptions of each structural aspects. The analysis reveals are similar in both languages. Dissimilar items should be learnt carefully with proper attention. Sentences in both English and Nobein are classified into simple, compound and complex. Generally speaking, those containing of a single clause are simple sentences, on which the study focuses.

In both English and Nobein the declarative sentences are divided into nominal sentences and verbal sentences. Their structures also show differences. Interrogative, wh questions, are formed by using certain question words in both languages. Concerning yes/ no questions, English differs from Nobein in that it uses more auxiliary verbs while in Nobein only one form is used for all answers. In Nobein, tag questions use affixed form whether the preceding statement is negative or affirmative. Nobein speakers have much difficulty in

interpreting and properly answering tag questions. This is because English combines two elements in the tag which are foreign to Nobein grammar.

In both languages imperative can be realized by using one single verb. on the other hand, they differ in the structure if the imperative consists of a verb and a complement. In English the verb precedes the object while in Nobein it follows it. Concerning the exclamation, we find that both languages use certain words and expressions but English uses more exclamation words than Nobein.

As Sam et al (2000:4) mention, English organizes its sentence structure elements with the subject (S) first and then follows it the verb (V). The verb which forms part of the predicate, may be followed by other elements of the predicate, either singularly or in combination. According to the grammar being, followed these are variously called complement, direct object(DO), indirect object (IO), adverb (A), prepositional phrase(PP), in addition to others. The sentence type in both languages consist of subject, verb, object and complement; but the structure and word order differ. In Nobein the verb is used differently according to the tense used . Both languages have the same elements , but the order of elements is different from each other . In English it is subject , verb and predicate . In Nobein the predicate comes at the end of the sentence. So, Nobein speakers of English are often baffled by the word order of English.

Regarding negation, we noticed that negation can be implied or explicitly marked by negative forms. It is important to notice that English appears to have a wide range of devices for implicit negation and uses this kind of negation more frequently than Nobein. In addition to verbs of negatives, here are many other word classes can express negation including, for example determiners, (e.g. few, little), nouns (e.g., absence, failure, lack), adjectives (e.g. free, reluctant), adverb (e.g., hardly, scarcely). Preposition (e.g., beyond, past), and conjunction (e.g., lest, unless). In contrast, negation in Nobein is normally

marked explicitly though rhetorical devices that are also used sometimes to imply negation.

To facilitate the process of learning a language, a systematic comparison between the mother tongue and the target language at the level of phonetics, grammar, semantic, morphology and more importantly culture is likely to yield areas of similarity and difference. The area of difference is likely to be the area of difficulty and requires much drilling exercises. The findings of the contrastive analysis give an insight into procedure and amount of focus a teacher has to shed on each linguistic or cultural component.

The findings of this research indicate that Nobein learners of English as a foreign language encounter a serious problem in attaining an acceptable level of mastery in their attempt to learn certain English structures.

In light of the differences, it is advisable that the whole process of teaching and mastering grammar be revised in a way that pays attention to the form of language structures. Grammar should also be discourse-based rather than being strictly sentence-based.

To conclude, English and Nobein are different yet alike. Although the two languages differ they share some linguistic feature within the same areas. Moreover, it would be beneficial to carry out the same kind of analysis of syntax with different aspects of grammar in both languages. Through comparing the structure of two languages the analysis will result in areas of similarities and differences between the two languages, thus proving the validity of the hypothesis of the present study that contrastive analysis can also be used as a useful tool of comparing an ancient language (i.e. Nobein) with a modern one (English).

6.2 Suggestions for Further Studies

The language of Nile Nubians has been the subject and the interest of much research and study. Some studies have been carried out by linguists, nevertheless, there are still many areas in which research is needed.

It is pertinent at this stage to identify topics in which Nubian grammar studies should be continued in the future. We need firstly a full syntactical description of all Nubian languages and dialects , which may serve as foundation of any linguistic research on Nobein.

Further analysis of this type of grammar must be carried out to examine the tendencies of occurrence of structures. Therefore the researcher suggests that investigation of the areas below is important:

- Mutual intelligibility testing to distinguish different dialect areas.
- Contrastive studies on Nile Nubian as an ancient language and a modern language (i.e., English, French).
- Socio- linguistic and Folklore studies to collect more data about the oral traditions in the Nile group.

6.3. Recommendations

Depending on the findings and results the researcher recommends the followings:

- 1/ Further research could be done in the areas of the value of contrastive analysis between English and other Nubian languages.
- 2/ Provide materials on Contrastive Analysis in schools.
- 3/ Teach Nubian languages to the new generations to update the language

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