

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study namely, the statement of the problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

1.1 **Context of the study**

1.2 **Modern Standard Arabic and Relativization**

The variety of Arabic which shall be considered in the present study is the Standard Modern Arabic(henceforth MSA), the type of Arabic employed in formal public address, over radio and television, classroom settings, lectures and conferences and religious ceremonial. Due to the great universality of its applicability, Modern Standard Arabic has been chosen to be contrasted with English in this study. The phonology, morphology and syntax of Arabic literary language are more complex and comprehensive to provide a solid ground for conducting such a study.

Two influential and opposed forces have affected the development of the vocabulary and syntax of MSA. A reform movement began toward the end of the last century in *Syria* which has reawakened and popularized the old conviction of educated Arabs that ancient Arabia, of pre-Islamic times, which became the classical form of the language in the early centuries of Islam, is better and more correct than any later form. Advocates of this purist doctrine have held that new vocabulary must be derived wholly in accordance with the ancient models or by semantic extension of older forms. They have insisted on the replacement of all foreign loanwords with purely Arabic forms and expressions. The purists have had considerable influence on the development of modern literary Arabic although there has been widespread protest against their extreme point of view. At the same time, and under the increasing influence of Western Civilization, Arab writers and journalists have had to deal with a host of new concepts and ideas previously alien to the Arab way of life. As actual usage demonstrates, the purists have been unable to cope with the sheer bulk of new linguistic material which have had to be incorporated into the language to make it current with advances in world knowledge. The result

is seen in the tendency of many writers, especially the fields of science and technology, simply to adapt foreign words from the European languages. Syntax and Morphology of MSA was also subjected to a kind of reform to help accommodate new loan forms into the main stream of the language.

In the present study which seeks to handle only the relative clauses of MAS contrastively with that of English, the researcher is guided by such immense experience as a classroom practitioner and a translator to come up with a working project that will help students render forms of relative clauses quite effortlessly from Arabic into English.

The present study derives its importance from the fact that it addresses an issue that relates to the field of translation which has grown immensely significant in today's world for the purpose of communication in a digital world quite often described as a small village. The continuous growing need for translation calls for rigorous research to be carried out in different language aspects to facilitate the very process of translating, especially in contrastive studies. Translation as a discipline requires competent translators who are well informed in the discipline namely language. It goes without saying that language is a composite of morphemes and words that are combined to form sensible structures specifically sentences. Relative clauses are important parts of language structures without whose good knowledge it will be impracticable to form meaningful structures.

Relative clauses or relativization is a basic component of all worlds' languages even those with no writing system. Consequently, good knowledge of relativization in English and Arabic are prerequisite for any student of translation. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, Relativization in English and Arabic has some common ground, a fact that will certainly help facilitate the process of addressing the issue. Similarities and differences between Arabic and English relative clauses will be discussed thoroughly in later chapters, namely chapter three.

As a classroom practitioner, the researcher noticed that undergraduate students of translation make terrible errors in translation in general. The

situation worsens even more when it comes to translating relative clauses from English into Arabic and the opposite is also true. The problem arises mainly out of the fact that the students have received no previous training in the area of contrastive linguistics before they embark on their translation courses. They studied relative clauses as part of their English grammar courses in a way that has nothing to do with translation. Students, themselves start their translation course believing that the area of relative clauses is simple as they have already did part of that in secondary schools and their preliminary year English program and that they know how to use them properly, not knowing that in translation the situation is entirely different.

The problem with translation is that there are more practitioners of the discipline who picked it up through sheer practice without prior thorough training in linguistics and more particularly the theory of translation, translation problems, strategies and solutions. Therefore, graduates majoring in English, lured by the promising market of translation particularly in rich oil countries, have opted for translation as a profession. So, to help alter this awkward situation a need for the inclusion of translation syllabus at undergraduate level is immensely required. In the present research, the researcher seeks to provide a clear look at the relative clauses both in English and Arabic with the aim of exploring the possibility of translating them from English into Arabic and vice versa. So many areas in English and Arabic need to be examined for the purpose of furnishing English Language Departments at our universities with a sensible translation syllabus.

The researcher sets out in the present study to examine in terms of contrastive analysis those points of similarities and differences in English and Arabic relativization. All areas of relative clauses in English are satisfactorily covered in the present research right from the definition to the position of the relative clauses in language structures. To determine some of the essential properties of the relative clauses in both languages, the study addressed the syntactic and semantic functions of the relative clauses as the latter is closely connected with the hub of translation.

A relative clause is a subordinate clause that modifies a noun, Leech. et.al.(1982),Eckersley, C.E (1960), Thomas, L. (1993). To illustrate this point, let's look at the following structure, which is essentially a noun phrase "the woman who betrayed her husband", which contains the noun "woman", which is modified by the relative clause "who betrayed her husband". In English relative clauses are preceded by relative pronouns such as who, that, which and so on, and they are technically known as complementizers, followed by an antecedent, which is either the subject of the main clause or its object or any other verb-phrase relationship. Relative structures have two basic components: the antecedent and the relative clause. The two parts are joined by a relative pronoun, as in the example "this is the politician who deceived his people". In this construction, the politician is the antecedent and is the subject of the sentence, whereas "who deceived his people" is the relative clause underscoring the antecedent "politician". As they are subordinate in syntactic rank and add information to the nouns, relative clauses are called adjective clauses.

In Arabic relative clauses are subordinate adjective clauses, as was already mentioned above, in that they have the function of a modifier that adds information to the noun they are attached to. The relative clause ((جملة الصلة) follows the relative noun (إسم الموصول) for the purpose of clarifying the meaning of the relative noun and its antecedent. The relative noun cannot stand in isolation as it has no meaning without the relative clause. To provide sense or meaning the relative noun must have what is technically known as the "referent pronoun" (العائد أو الرابط), that refers to the relative noun (الإسم الموصول), for example "*gra?tu al magal aladhi ktabtahu ams*" "I read the article you wrote yesterday." The part "hu" attached to the verb *katbt* is known as clitic object pronoun and refers back to the relative noun "aladhi".

Two types of adjective clauses are readily recognizable in Arabic. They are defining and non-defining. The defining clause needs a relative noun which is *connected*, while the non-defining does not require a relative

noun, that is *unconnected*. More light will be shed on this part of the study in the coming chapters.

1.2. Statement of the problem

Linguistic and cultural hurdles pose the greatest difficulties ever to be encountered by professional translators and students of translation. Cultural difficulties will be solved by course of time as students proceed with their work on translation. However, linguistic difficulties can be dealt with in classroom settings as part of the translation syllabus. Again, the present study will only focus on addressing the linguistic factors or hurdles and that the cultural ones will be left for other researchers to handle in the future. Consequently, the basic issue to be dealt with as far as this part of the thesis is concerned is that students of English language and translation in Sudanese universities face difficulties in rendering Arabic relative clauses into English and the opposite also holds valid. The viable thing in relation to this present study is explore quite closely these problematic areas found in Arabic and English relative clause with the aim of providing solutions and drawing students' attention to the potential areas to be handled. The difficulties arising in translating relative clauses both in English and Arabic are probably caused by difference of the structures naturally pertaining to the languages in question. Another prime factor which further worsens the situation is the adoption of the improper translating techniques and strategies when dealing with relative clauses, not to mention overlooking the incorporation of contrastive linguistics which is greatly responsible for clarifying the areas of similarities and differences.

Some other salient factors which engender difficulties is the nature of the English marginal relative pronouns and those general ones of Arabic along with the differences in other grammatical categories such as gender, case, person as opposed to non-person, negative language transfer which is greatly brought about by the strong effect of mother tongue, and mostly because of the absence of one to one correspondence of relative pronouns in both languages. More factors will be referred to in their proper place on the thesis.

1.3. The study questions

The present study sets out to answer the following questions:

1. What are the similarities and differences between the Arabic and English relative clauses?
2. To what extent can the similarities and differences be addressed to facilitate their rendering in the languages in question?
3. Do undergraduate students actually benefit from exposure to a contrastive analysis approach with the aim of handling the hurdles involved in the relativization systems of both languages?
4. Are there any other areas of study in which the present research can be applied other than translation?

1.4 The study hypotheses

The following hypotheses are made in the present research:

1. At our Sudanese university settings, courses of translation are introduced only at very scanty level, one or two courses across the undergraduate years with the effect of having insufficient exposure to such a demanding discipline as translation. Moreover, the nature of the courses taught, i.e. theory of translation, does not allow for adequate practice on translation.
2. English and Arabic vary quite considerably in view of grammatical categories, gender, number, case, person as opposed to non-person. Therefore, these differences will pose considerable hurdles when it comes to translating relative clauses from Arabic into English and vice versa.
3. Mother tongue interference is immensely great as the two languages are greatly distant and different hence this situation is likely to lead to difficulties in the rendering process of relative clauses from English into Arabic and the opposite is also true. According to Malmjaer (1999:37) the fact of having two languages belonging to two different language families could pose serious problems in recognizing and understanding the structures of the languages particularly in relation to translation.

1.6 Objectives of the study

Primarily, the present study seeks to explore the possibility of handling the question of relative clauses contrastively for the purpose of

eliminating the hurdles involved in the translation of relativization system both languages under discussion. The research also tries to find and establish the following goals:

1. To explore the extent to which contrastive studies can contribute to the field of language teaching as well as translation in a way that enriches both realms and enhances students' language competence and awareness.
2. To elaborate on the question of relativization as a global phenomenon found across the languages of the world with specific reference to English and Arabic.
3. To address the issue of relativization contrastively in English and Arabic with the aim of pinpointing the differences and similarities and to further work out and establish an approach pertaining to their handling in a way that helps remove the obstacles involved in the translation process.
4. To explore the types of hurdles experienced by Sudanese undergraduate students in association with the influence of Sudanese colloquial Arabic.
5. The study also seeks to investigate the possible causes of the hurdles and how they can be removed.
6. To underscore the potential influences of Arabic as a source language over the English language in connection with the question of relativization.
7. The study, by and large, is intended to enrich the realm of contrastive studies conducted on the languages in question.

1.6 Significance of the study

The present study derives its importance from the significance of the issue under discussion itself that relativization is a global phenomenon underlying the entire languages of the world, the thing that makes its study worthwhile. Despite the fact that a number of similar studies have been performed on this particular issue in the Arab and other parts of the world, the present study is enormously important as it relates to the Sudanese context. The study is also significant inasmuch as its findings

will have pedagogical implications that will influence the teaching of translation at Sudanese universities. Though contrastive studies between Arabic and English are of very old standing that they were developed many years ago, contrastive studies in the field of syntax and grammar yet need to be further explored in depth as they affect translation studies quite remarkably. Quirk (1968: 95, 96) remarks that "There can be little doubt that the need for thorough analysis of the English grammatical system has not yet been fulfilled and that it becomes increasingly great. On the one hand, there is the need in schools and among laymen for an assured and accurate statement of educated usage (together with the need, expressed by more than one literary critic, for precise linguistic data); on the other hand, at least equally pressing need springs from the new importance of English as a second language and from the challenge of large-scale translation, including mechanical translation".

Yong (1987: IX), in addition, claims that "The study of relative clauses, or relativization, forms one of the most important and interesting topics on language typology and universals, and it is clearly a rich field of enquiry which has attracted a wide range of intensive work by good minds over a long span of the history of linguistics". Peranteau et al quoted in Yong (ibid) draw attention to the fact that Chicago Linguistic Society held the Relative Clause Festival in April 1972. In this festival, linguists from different American Universities have come to talk about relative clauses and they presented data from different languages on relativization. The effect of this gathering is felt on the considerable papers that have been compiled to give thorough elaboration on relativization in as many as twenty languages. This event signifies the universality of relativization in world languages and suggests that it's important enough to be studied adequately (ibid).

1.7 Scope and Limits of the study

One of the limitations to be leveled against the present study is that it is highly restricted to the study of relativization in English and Arabic with

no handling whatsoever to the other branches of the syntax of the two languages in question. As a representative sample of population, the study is restricted to the undergraduate students of one specific university.

1.8 Methodology of the study

To collect data to inform this study two tests of relative clauses in Arabic and English have adopted. In the first tests students are asked to translate relative clauses from English into Arabic and vice versa. Some other grammatical categories have also been included to make the tests challenging.

The tests have been administered to 60 students in their final year. These are Sudanese students whose native language is Arabic and taking English as their majors. The tests are intended to measure the students' translating ability in both languages. Marking the tests, the results will be taken to investigate the weaknesses and strengths to help formulate a syllabus of English based on contrastive study in English to be taught to students of translation. To conduct this experiment, 40 students have been selected and divided into two major groups, namely control group and experiment group. Both groups will be taught for 30 days, one, and the experiment group through contrastive teaching, the other in English. Full description of the data collection technique is given at the methodology part of this research.

1.9 Research structure

This thesis is divided into five chapters: Chapter One: An introductory chapter (the current chapter) which introduces the entire study specially focusing on the research issue and question, hypotheses , scope and limitations, significance of the research, and an overview on the research structure. Chapter Two: a theoretical framework drawing on all the

important theories forming and clarifying the nature and history of contrastive studies in Arabic and English. This chapter includes a review of Literature, which mainly investigates related works, their significance and the extent to which they are different from the present study. This review has also addressed issues connected with the history and theory of contrastive studies, relativization in the world's languages with a special concentration on English and Arabic. Chapter Three: This is the chapter that portrays the methodology and data collection techniques adopted in this research. Chapter four is linked with data analysis and discussion. This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, teachers' questionnaire, pupils' questionnaire, and classroom observations, whereas chapter five provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides the theoretical framework of the study as well as exploring some previous related works. The study shall take as a descriptive step the investigation of the history of contrastive studies in general and those conducted between English and Arabic. Related works will be viewed with respect to the definition of the contrastive studies and their role in language teaching and translation. The crucial importance of relativization of world's languages will also be dealt with in the present part to pinpoint the necessity of discussing relativization as a global phenomenon.

Part one: Theoretical framework

2.1 Contrastive linguistics

In this part of the thesis the researcher will shed light on some of the studies carried out on contrastive linguistics and translation. On the latter, specifically, -four schools of translation thought, will be highlighted largely

because of their prominent effect on the words translation theory and their adoption by most theorists and .practitioners worldwide, too. As point of departure, different aspects of contrastive theory will be underscored.

Our use of a foreign language is largely affected by our- mother tongue! hence we make mistakes in grammar, pronunciation and other levels of language. Such kind of mistakes often referred to as interference. This is why books in grammar and phonetics or foreign students with a particular mother tongue usually focus a lot on difference between the mother tongue - or LI -- and the target language - or L2.

Good knowledge of the differences is essential in order to learn the correct and idiomatic use of the foreign language. Without being conscious of the occurrence of such mistakes, we will to see and hear things in familiar, according to the categories which we are familiar with from our native language. And that is not surprising. This is the way we tend to see, hear, and interpret things in general.

Contrastive analysis (henceforth: CA) is the systematic comparison of two or more languages, for the sole purpose of demonstrating their similarities and differences. CA has often been conducted for practical/pedagogical purposes. The aim has been to provide better descriptions and better teaching materials for language learners.

There is more to CA than this, however, when we compare, we often see things more clearly. When we compare across languages, we can see the characteristics of each language more clearly, and the comparison can contribute to a better description of each individual language. This type of CA has sometimes been called analytic comparison or linguistic character logy (Mathesius 1975).

When more languages are involved in the process of comparison the effect is to see more clearly what is characteristic of languages more generally. There is a lot of interest in universals of language that is, what is characteristic of language in general. To study this, there is a need for language comparison.

2.2Contrastive linguistics and language teaching

Good knowledge of the positive contribution made by contrastive studies to pedagogical research and translation is of paramount importance. Hence, there is a vital need, to know the history and the theories of contrastive studies as the discipline has contributed a great deal to the field of second language teaching and translation. Contrastive studies in linguistics have a long history. There are many studies in this field that between 1940- 1950 great studies have emerged in contrastive and comparative linguistics. This has come to be known as comparative historical linguistics (Fisiks: 1981:1). Other studies are made by William John in (1986) he conducted comparative studies in which he compared Greek and Latin with Sanskrit in order to show equivalents between them. Fisks (1981) also said that “when two languages or more are contrasted and compared as to show the similarities and differences between them this operation is termed as contrastive analysis or contrastive study. The Structuralists concentrated on second language acquisition. So they concentrated on the areas where learners of target language may face difficulties and how to find solution for such difficulties.

One of the main techniques designed to challenge such difficulties is contrasting and comparing the students' first language with the second language they learn. After conducting such analysis, linguists have come to the view that rules and expression of the first language may interfere with the target language, so teachers should pay special attention to that phenomenon.

Lado (1957:7) claims that by using the results of linguistics and cultural comparison of first and second languages and cultures, we can pinpoint research problems and individuals can carry out highly significant and very much needed experiments, actually many teachers of foreign language such as Lado claimed (Ibid) knew the effect of the first language in the production of the second language.

2.2.1 Robert Lado's great contribution to the field of CA

Robert Lado (1957), provided a comparative description of English and Spanish. 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 (cf. König & Cast 2008: 1):

- 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.

The contrastive hypothesis in the form summarized above soon turned out to be too optimistic. It was too undifferentiated, in many respects and neglected important parameters of second language acquisition (e.g. natural vs. mediated, sequential vs.) simultaneous, second vs. third language, etc.). Moreover, the contrastive program lacked a solid foundation in learning psychology and was never even put on a reasonable empirical basis, insofar as the intention of producing comprehensive comparisons of language pairs was never convincingly realized. The enterprise of improving foreign language teaching on the basis of pair-wise language comparison was therefore abandoned before long, even though a certain plausibility of at least some of the basic assumptions made by early contrastive linguistics can hardly be denied (cf. Kortmann 1998).

2.2.2 Hawkins' typology

New impetus was given to pairwise language comparison in a number of publications from the 1970s and 1980s that did not primarily

pursue didactic purposes (e.g. König 1971, Rohdenburg 1974, Plank 1984). These authors regarded contrastive linguistics as a “limiting case of typological comparison” (König 1996: 51) which was characterized by a small sample size and a high degree of granularity. This typologically oriented approach culminated in John Hawkins' (1986) monograph *A comparative typology of English and German – Unifying the contrasts*. It was one of Hawkins' primary objectives to reveal correlations between properties of specific grammatical subsystems (esp. syntax and morphology), with the ultimate goal of Unifying the contrasts'. Moreover, Hawkins aimed at providing explanations for the correlations he observed and related his contrastive analyses to theories of language processing (e.g. Hawkins 1992). Even though Hawkins' hypotheses and generalizations met with criticism (e.g. Kortmann & Meyer 1992, Rohdenburg 1992), they provided important insights and helped establish contrastive linguistics as a type of language comparison that was interesting and worthwhile in itself, without pursuing any specific objectives related to second language acquisition or other linguistic applications.

The 1980s and 1990s witnessed a certain diversification in the field of contrastive linguistics insofar as new topics came into the focus of attention (e.g. pragmatics and discourse studies, cf. House & Blum-Kulka 1986, Oleksy 1989), and new empirical methods were introduced, esp. corpus-based ones (cf Section 7). The availability of specialized corpora (parallel corpora and learner corpora) also led to a renewal of the link between contrastive linguistics and linguistic applications, e.g. insofar as insights gained from (quantitative) contrastive analyses turned out to be useful for translation studies (see e.g. Johansson 1998a).

Most contemporary studies published under the label of Contrastive linguistics' follow the spirit of the characterization. They pursue a basically linguistic 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 Benjamin's Publishing Company in 1998, deals with European languages,

esp. 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.

2.4 Establishing comparability

Just like typology, contrastive linguistics as I face the problem universalist frameworks (such as early structuralist linguistics and its modern successors'), linguistic categories are only defined relative to the system that they form part of. Accordingly, the question arises whether categories from different linguistic systems can be compared at all, and if so, how such a comparison can be carried out. In very general terms, comparison can be defined as the identification of similarities and differences between two or more categories along a specific (set of) dimensions). The categories compared must be of the same type, i.e. there has to be a set of properties that they have in common, or a superordinate category containing, them. One major challenge for comparative linguistics thus is to determine the nature of that superordinate category ('Cg') for any pair of categories under comparison:

(1) C_s C₁ C₂

In linguistic typology, the problem of “comparability of incommensurable systems” has been tackled in various ways. Haspelmath (2008) has argued that cross-linguistic comparison needs to be based on “comparative concepts”, i.e. analytic notions that are used to describe specific aspects of linguistic systems, e.g. ‘subject’, ‘case’, ‘(past/present/future) tense’, etc. For instance, a ‘subject’ in German does not have precisely the (system-internal) properties of a ‘subject’ in English. Still, ‘subject’ can be used as a comparative concept, in the sense of grammaticalized neutralization over specific types of semantic roles’. Determining the extent of similarity as well as the differences between the instantiations of the comparative concept ‘subject’ in the languages under comparison is precisely the task that a relevant contrastive study has to carry out (cf. Rohdenburg 1974, König & Gast 2008: Ch. 6).

In contrastive linguistics, the ‘assumption of comparability’ for specific pairs of categories is reflected in, and supported by, linguistic output. Remember that contrastive linguistics has been defined as dealing with pairs (or groups) of languages that are socio-culturally linked, i.e. languages for which a substantial amount of bilingual output is available, for instance in the form of translations and parallel corpora. As Johansson (2000: 5) puts it, “[t]he use of multilingual corpora, with a variety of texts and a range of translators represented, increases the validity and reliability of the comparison. It can indeed be regarded as the systematic exploitation of the bilingual intuition of translators” The ‘hypothesis of inter-lingual commensurability’ is thus not a heuristic move but a fact of life reflected in the language of (balanced and fully proficient) bilingual speakers.

Bilingual output is also relevant to the question of (non-)equivalence between categories from different languages in another respect: Second language learners often identify categories from their L2 with categories from their L1 (‘inter-lingual identification’, ‘interference’, cf. Weinreich 1953). In other words, second language learners make an assumption of ‘inter-lingual equivalence’ that gives rise to non-target-like structures in

their L2. In these cases, the (non-) equivalence of categories from different languages is not a question of heuristics but part of the object of study.

2.3 Contrastive studies and the classroom

The reasons that justify the inclusion of contrastive studies in the classroom are numerous. The points are some for clarification.

- One salient reason is the inevitability of the influence of the mother tongue. LI can be used for practical reasons to correct mistakes, improve the knowledge of both languages, clarify some concepts or grammatical structures or even help as a tool for evaluation at some stages on the teaching/learning process.
- Translation is a natural and necessary activity. Today's culture anywhere is a translated culture, and, everyday is used at different institutions such as airports, travel agencies, and banks and business in broad general terms. Hence, there is every reason for its inclusion in the classroom.
- The linguistic competence of the speaker both in LI and L2 may be increased or enhanced by comparing/ contrasting. It may also be used to improve the knowledge of LI when using special registers, business letters, and different styles and levels of discourse. This will eventually have its sure impact on the recipient's thinking and keeps using translation to talk about different things in daily life, therefore constantly improving.
- The use of contrastive linguistics in foreign language teaching makes it possible to work with authentic materials in both languages; this means using a wider variety of materials with the possibility of using same materials used to teach other disciplines. such as diagrams, manuals and the like.
- Working with parallel texts can also be used to illustrate specific aspects of the structure of the language (adjectives, prepositions or nouns or passive voice and tenses) or even aspects connected with vocabulary and context -(rhetoric conventions) or pragmatic considerations (cultural differences. : ways of expressing politeness, etc) because through the inevitable comparison of both languages, the student may easily assimilate the structural, semantic and

pragmatic differences between the language and because fully informed of them.

- Translation as possible activity related to contrastive studies, is an activity that may lead to discussion, contrary to what was believed. It is usual to find more than one answer, and this does not need to be written. Students may compare their answers or one student may explain to the class what the teacher has just said. They can work with short text that after being translate may be read or discussed.
- Translation as Duff (1990:7) points out, serves to develop the three essential abilities in the learning of a second language Translation trains the learner to search (flexibility) for more appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)".
- We live in a multilingual and a multicultural society, with a rising cultural and a scientific cooperation. So, if we consciously of the student's current and future real needs, and not only their hypothetical needs, it will be worthwhile to introduce the students to contrastive linguistic in order to make them more aware of the differences and similarities between their native language and the foreign language as away of increasing their communicative competence, and producing as a result, effective communication.

It follows from above that, he will obviously learning a foreign language a student bound to be confronted with many kinds of learning problems dealing with its sound system, vocabulary, structure, etc. This is understandable since the student learning the foreign language has spoken his own native language, which has been deeply implanted in him as part of his habit. Very often, he transfers his habit into the target language he learns, which perhaps will cause errors.

Contrastive analysis theory pioneered by Fries assumed that these errors are caused by the different elements between the native language and the target language (Fisiak, 1981: 7). Thus, contrastive analysis followers suggest that teachers do contrastive analysis between the native language and the target language so as to predict the learning problems that will be faced by the students.

However, not all problems predicted by contrastive analysis always appear to be -difficult for the students. On the other hand, many errors that do turn up are not predicted by contrastive analysis. This shortcoming has inspired the appearance of error analysis which was pioneered by Corder in the 1960s. The key finding of error analysis is that many learner errors are produced by the learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the target language.

To overcome the shortcoming of contrastive analysis, it is suggested that teachers accompany contrastive analysis with error analysis. It is carried out by identifying the errors actually made by the students in the classroom.

Selinker (1992) in (Ho, 2003) states that errors are indispensable to learners since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. Thus, error is a proof that the student is learning. The error is the route that the student must pass to achieve the target language. And, at this stage, the language produced by the student is called interlanguage.

In the current study, the researcher will focus on the discussion of what is contrastive analysis, error analysis, interlanguage and what's the implication to the language teaching. Thus, the problems in this paper can be stated as follows:

- What is contrastive analysis?
- What is error analysis?
- What is interlanguage?
- What is the implication to the language teaching?

2.3 Theoretical foundations of contrastive analysis

The theoretical foundations for what became known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis were formulated in Lado's *Linguistics across Cultures* (1957). In this book, Lado claimed that "those elements which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult". While this was not a novel suggestion, Lado was 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

.describing the languages (using structuralist linguistics), comparing them and predicting learning difficulties language acquisition, January 25th 2011). Thus, the languages comparison is aimed at assisting language learning and teaching. | The goals of Contrastive Analysis can be stated as follows: to make foreign language teaching more effective, to find out the differences between the first language and the target language based on the assumptions that:

- foreign language learning is based on the another tongue,
- similarities facilitate learning (positive transfer),
- Differences cause problems (negative transfer/Interference), via contrastive analysis; problems can be predicted and considered in 'the curriculum.

However, not all problems predicted by contrastive analysis always appear to be difficult for the students. On the other hand, many errors that do turn up are not predicted by contrastive analysis. Larsen, et al (1992: 55) states "predictions arising from were subjected to empirical tests. Some errors it did predict failed to materialize, i.e. it over predicted." This prediction failure leads to the criticism to the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis. The criticism is that Contrastive Analysis hypothesis could not be sustained by empirical evidence. It was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by Contrastive Analysis were inexplicably not observed in learners language. Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their LI. It thus became clear that Contrastive Analysis could not predict learning difficulties, and was only useful in the 18 Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage and the Implication to Language Teaching (Katharina Rustipa) retrospective explanation of errors. These developments, along with the decline of the behaviourist and structuralist paradigms consider ablyweakened the appeal of Contrastive Analysis.

Fisiak (1981: 7) claims that Contrastive Analysis needs to be carried out in spite of some shortcoming because not all contrastive Analysis hypotheses are wrong. To overcome the shortcoming of contrastive analysis, it is suggested that teachers, accompany contrastive analysis

with error analysis. It is carried out by identifying the errors actually made by the students in the classroom. Contrastive Analysis has a useful explanatory role. That is, it can still be said to explain certain errors and mistakes. He further explains "...error analysis as part of applied linguistics cannot replace Contrastive Analysis but only supplement it." Schackne (2002) states "research shows that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of phonology and least predictive at the syntactic level."

A counter-theory was error analysis, which treated second language errors as similar to errors encountered in first language acquisition, or what the linguists referred to as "developmental errors." By the early 1970s, this contrastive analysis theory had been to an extent supplanted by error analysis, which examined not only the impact of errors but also those related to the target language, including overgeneralization (Schackne, 2002).

2.4 Error analysis and contrastive linguistics

Error analysis was established in the 1960s by Stephen Pit Corder and colleagues. Error analysis was an alternative to contrastive analysis. Error analysis showed that contrastive analysis was unable to predict a great majority of errors, although its more valuable aspects have been incorporated into the study of language transfer. A key finding of error analysis has been that many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the new language. Although error analysis is still used to investigate specific questions in SLA, the quest for an overarching theory of learner errors has largely been abandoned. Contrastive analysis emphasized the study of phonology and morphology; it did not address communicative contexts, i.e. contrasting socio-pragmatic conditions that influence linguistic production. Recent work in error analysis has emphasized errors as a source of knowledge of a learner's interlanguage and linguistic hypotheses.

(<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Secondlanguageacquisition>)

Brown (1993: 295) differentiates between mistakes and errors. A mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or slip

in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. All people make mistakes, in both native and second language situations. Native speakers are normally capable of recognizing and correcting such mistakes, which are not the result of a deficiency in competence but the result of some sort of breakdown in the process of production. Corder and Larsen (1992) claim that a mistake is a random performance slip caused by fatigue, excitement, etc. and therefore can be readily self-corrected.

An error is a noticeable deviation, reflecting the competence of the learner. It is a systematic deviation made by the learner who has not yet mastered the rules of the target language. The learner cannot self correct an error because it is a product reflective of his or her current stage of L2 development, or underlying competence (Larsen, 1992: 59).

Error analysis is the study of kind and quantity of error that occurs, particularly in the fields of applied linguistics. These errors can be divided into three sub-categories: overgeneralization, incomplete rule application, and the hypothesizing of false concepts, reflecting a learner's competence at a certain stage and thereby differing from learner to learner (findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_7571/, January 26th, 2011).

The methodology of error analysis (traditional error analysis) can be said to have followed the steps below:

1. Collection of data
2. Identification of errors (labeling with varying degree of precision depending on the linguistic sophistication brought to bear upon the task, with respect to the exact nature of the deviation)
3. Classification into error types
4. Statement of relative frequency of error types
5. Identification of the areas of difficulty in the target language
6. Therapy (remedial drills, lessons, etc.).

While the above methodology is roughly representative of the majority of error analyses in the traditional framework, the more sophisticated investigations went further, to include one or both of the following:

1. Analysis of the source of the errors (e.g. mother tongue interference, overgeneralization, inconsistencies in the spelling system of the target language,
2. Determination of the degree of disturbance caused by the error (or the seriousness of the error in terms of communication, norm, etc.), (vsites.unb.br/il/let/graliam/conan, January 27th 2011).

Error analysis was criticized for misdiagnosing student learning problems due to their "avoidance" of certain difficult L2 elements. The result today is that both contrastive analysis and error analysis are rarely used in identifying L2 learner problem areas.

The debate over contrastive analysis and error analysis has virtually disappeared in the last ten years. Most researchers agree that contrastive analysis and error analysis alone can't predict or account for the myriad errors encountered in learning English (Schackne, 2002).

Contrastive Analysis has been the first major theory dealing with the relationship between the languages a learner acquires or masters. Linguists have always been interested in comparing and contrasting different language systems and first pioneering works appeared at the end of the nineteenth century (James 1981). The term 'Contrastive Study' was coined by Whorf in 1941 before that this discipline had been called 'Comparative Linguistics' or 'Comparative Studies' After the Second World War the interest in teaching foreign languages increased in the USA and many linguists were concerned with pedagogically oriented contrastive studies, especially in trying to predict learning difficulties on the basis of comparing the native language with the foreign language being learnt, and also with the study of bilingualism and language contact phenomena. It was believed that pointing to the similarities of the two languages compared will make the process of foreign language learning easier for the learner. Robert Lado's formulation of the 'Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis' in his *Linguistics across Cultures* (1957) is considered the greatest contribution in the field of contrastive studies (Fisiak 1981, James 1981 and .Krzeszowski 1990).

2.3.1 Some important terminologies

Fisiak defines contrastive linguistics as “a subdiscipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities between them” (Fisiak et al. 1978 cited in Fisiak 1981:1). As Krzeszowski explains (1990: 11), there is, unfortunately, not much consistency in the terminology related to contrastive linguistics. However, the terms ‘contrastive linguistics’ and ‘contrastive studies’ are most often used.

The term contrastive linguistics is usually used to refer to the whole field of cross- language comparison, slightly focusing on the instances related to the theory or methodology of comparisons. Another term, ‘contrastive analysis’, can be used interchangeably with the above mentioned terms, but linguists tend to use it to refer to the comparison proper. And finally, ‘contrastive grammar’ refers to “the product of contrastive studies, as a bilingual grammar highlighting the differences across languages” (Krzeszowski 1990: 11).

2.3.2 Division of Contrastive Studies

Fisiak (1981: 2-3) divides contrastive studies into theoretical and applied: “Theoretical contrastive studies give an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages, provide an adequate model for the comparison, and determine how and which elements are comparable ...” They are language independent, which means that they do not investigate how a particular category or item present in language A is presented in language B, but ‘they look for the realization of an universal category X in both A and B’ (Fisiak 1981:2).

Applied contrastive studies belong to applied linguistics. Fisiak (1981: 2-3) explains that “drawing on the findings of theoretical contrastive studies they provide a framework for the comparison of languages, selecting whatever information is necessary for a specific purpose ...” The main focus of applied contrastive studies is “the problem of how a universal category X, realized in language A as Y, is rendered in language B, and what may be the possible consequence on this for a field of application” (Fisiak 1981: 2-3). They are also concerned with “the identification of probable areas of difficulty in another language where, for

example, a given category is not represented in the surface and interference is likely to occur" (Fisiak, 1981: 3). So they are rather interested in the surface representation of language. Being a part of applied linguistics: applied contrastive studies depend on several other disciplines, including theoretical, descriptive and comparative linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, didactics and psychology of learning and teaching (Krzeszowski 1990).

2.3.3 Formulating Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) was widely accepted in the 1950s and 1960s in USA and its original purpose was purely pedagogical. The teaching method which used the CAH as its theory of learning was the audio-lingual method. Based on behaviorist and Structuralists theories, the basic assumption for this hypothesis was that "the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system ..." and "... that second language learning basically involved the overcoming of the differences between the two linguistic systems - the native and target languages" (Brown 1980: 148). The term 'interference' -...here refers to "any influence from the L1 which would have an effect on the acquisition of L2" (Powell, 1998: 2). I will further discuss the term 'interference' in chapter 3.4.

The assumptions about L1 interference were supported by the evidence from speakers' performance in their second language. As Brown states, "it is quite common", for example, to detect certain foreign accents and to be able to infer, from the speech of the learner alone, where the learner comes from" (1980: 149).

Lado's practical findings were based on his own experience and family background. Being an immigrant to the USA and a native speaker of Spanish, he observed what difficulties his Spanish-speaking parents had with learning English and how interference was evident in their speech.

In the preface to *Linguistics across Cultures*, Robert Lado explains: "that the plan of this book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those

that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and the culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student". (Lado 1957: vii cited in Brown 1980: 149). Later in the same book he claims that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult. The teacher who has made a comparison of a foreign language with the native language of the student will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them. (Lado 1957: 2 cited in Lisiak 1981: 4) This formulation of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was later called by Ronald Wardhaugh 'the strong version' of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Brown 1980: 157). Another linguist supporting the strong version of the CAH was Tries. In his opinion, "the most effective [teaching] materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with parallel description of the native language of the learner" (Tries 1945: 9 cited in Powell 1998: 1). Although the practical process of contrasting languages is not the aim of this paper, I am going to give a brief outline of the procedure used, as Ellis (1994: 307) mentions it. The procedure involved four stages:

1. Description (i.e. the two languages were formally described)
2. Selection (i.e. certain items or areas were selected for comparison)
3. Comparison (i.e. finding similar and different items)
4. Prediction (i.e. in which areas the errors will most probably occur)

Wardhaugh believed that the strong version was "unrealistic and impracticable", since "at the very least, this version demands of linguists that they have available a set of linguistic universals formulated within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deals adequately with syntax, semantics, and phonology" (Wardhaugh 1970:125 cited in Brown 1980: 157).

2.5 Moderating Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

As a reaction to the criticism of the strong version of the CAH, Wardhaugh offered a 'weak version'. The weak version does not imply the

a priori prediction of certain fine degrees of difficulty. It recognizes the significance of interference across languages, the fact that such interference does exist and can explain difficulties, but it also recognizes that linguistic difficulties can be more profitably explained a posteriori - after 'the fact' (Brown 1980: 157). Thus it has rather explanatory power, helping the teachers of foreign languages understand their students' sources of errors.

In the 1970s, Oiler and Ziahosseiny proposed a compromise between the two versions of the CAH and called it a 'moderate version'. Their theory was based on their research of spelling errors in learners of English as L2 which showed that spelling errors were more common among those learners who used a Roman script in their native language (e.g. Spanish or French) than among those who used a non-Roman script (e.g. Arabic or Chinese). However, the strong version of the CAH would predict the contrary, i.e. more difficulties on the part of the learners who had to acquire a new writing system (Brown 1980).

Brown (1980: 159) concludes that interference is more likely to occur when there is similarity between the items to be learned and already known items than in the case of learning items which are entirely new to the learner. He also points to the fact that most of the errors committed by L2 learners are 'intralingual' errors, i.e. errors which result from L2 itself and not from L1. Whitman and Jackson carried out a study in which predictions made in four separate contrastive analyses by different linguists were used to design a test of English grammar which was given to 2,500 Japanese learners of English as L2. After comparing the result of the test to the predictions based on the four contrastive analyses, Whitman and Jackson found out that they differed a lot. They came to the conclusion that "contrastive analysis, as represented by the four analyses tested in this project, is inadequate, theoretical and practically, to predict the interference problems of a language learner" (Whitman and Jackson 1972 cited in Brown 1980: 158). Besides the problem of inappropriate predictions, Towel and Hawkins (1994: 18-19) state two other problems. One of them is that "not all areas of similarity between an L1 and an L2

lead to immediate positive transfer" (1994: 19). Towel and Hawkins support this argument by the findings of Odlin's study in which L1 Spanish learners of L2 English omitted the copula 'be' at the early stages of learning regardless the fact that Spanish also has a copula verb, adequate to English 'be' and. thus the positive transfer was possible. However, it didn't happen. The other problem, they argue, is that only a small number of errors committed by L2 learners could be unambiguously attributed to transfer from L1. Thus, the strong version of the CAH has been proved inadequate, except for the phonological component of language, where it is quite successful in predicting the interference between the L1 and L2 in pronunciation in the early stages of L2 acquisition. Dulay, Burt and Krashen similarly conclude that "... present research results suggest that the major impact the first language has on second language acquisition may have to do with accent, (96 :1982) not with grammar or syntax. The weak version is not satisfactory because it is only able to offer an explanation for certain errors. The only version which remains acceptable is the moderate version. However, its findings as presented by Oiler and Ziahosseiny are in contradiction with Lado's original idea. This doesn't mean that the idea of L1 interference was completely rejected, but the CAH is applicable in practice only as a part of Error Analysis, which will be discussed later.

2.4 Contrastive studies between English and Arabic

Stern (1983) insisted that the aim of contrastive analysis is not to present a new method of teaching. He showed that it came on purpose of describing across two which can be useful in solving learning problems. Beressa (2003) explained that the first language is like a scaffold for building up the second language. Consequently, translation is considered a tool to fill the gaps.

Karimi (2006) conducted a study and listed a group of examples of equivalents in English and Persian. He insisted that making good equivalents and translation is dependent on group of factors: syntactic, semantic, pragmatic and cultural systems of the two languages.

Gholami (2009) explained that one of the problematic areas of learning a language is vocabulary he showed that some of the problems are as result of polysemy or what it is called multiplicity of meaning for one word. In addition, that teaching that is dependent on translation is less likely to bring about good communication. On the contrary, it may lead to some semantic mistakes.

Hayati and Shahriari (2010) explained that when beginners of English language start to produce English, they may ask a word in their mother tongue and want their teacher to give its equivalent in English and that demands their teachers entering the realm of translation which can be to some extent problematic because some words may have more than one meaning or even different parts of speech in different contexts.

Hobi (2011) highlighted the similarities and differences of attributive adjective which is considered the most common type of adjectives in English and Arabic in a study entitled as "A Contrastive Study of Attributive Adjectives in English and Arabic". The findings of the study revealed that:

a) Attributive adjectives are more

complicated in Arabic than in English because Arabic ones belong to the class of nouns and they are of different types .b) Both in English and Arabic attributive adjectives function as modifiers of the head noun either directly or indirectly, c) In English, attributive adjectives are positioned before the noun but they are positioned after the head noun in Arabic, d) In English, adjectives are with no special form, but some adjectives are characterized by certain suffixes , and some of them are considered to be irregular past participle forms of verbs while in Arabic , they are derived from certain verbs and nouns.

AL-ashoor (2004) conducted a study about problems of adjective sequencing in English --Arabic translation. The study hypothesized the following: a) translation of adjective ordering poses some serious problems for translators as well as learners of English, b) there are no one-to-one correspondence between the modification systems in English and Arabic-, c) there is no one-to-one correspondence between adjective ordering in both languages.

Twenty different patterns of adjective ordering from different books of English grammar were chosen. The examples were given to five subjects of assistant lectures at the Department of Translation, College of Arts in University of Mosul for rendering them to test the validity of the hypotheses. The findings of the study showed the following: a) there is no one-to-one correspondence between adjective ordering in English and Arabic. In English, this ordering is governed by some syntactic and semantic rules, whereas in Arabic, it is governed by speaker's intuition, emphasis shift and language usage. This results in inadequate and inaccurate renderings, b) all subjects used both semantic and communicative translations with varying percentages. 24 instances 24% were translated semantically, whereas 76 instances 76% were translated communicatively. c) in English, the use of articles (definite and indefinite) are mutually exclusive with the use of demonstrative pronouns. In Arabic the definite article *الـ* is not mutually exclusive with the demonstrative pronouns. As for the indefinite article, it does not exist in Arabic.

Mansour (n.d.) conducted a study entitled "Appraisal Emotional Adjectives in English/Arabic Translation: A Corpus Linguistic Approach" to argue that some of the Arabic translations of appraisal adjectives found in dictionaries are misleading because they do not reflect the full information about the word. She listed and explained enough clear groups of examples that spell out the main differences between English and Arabic powerful/less adjectival appraisal synonyms. The findings of the study revealed the following some facts: a) even big well famous dictionaries are not enough guarantees to have the full information of the word. Although AMMD and EMD are considered well known and trusted dictionaries for Arabic learners and researchers, the analysis showed some limited, missing, misleading and even wrong translations of appraised adjectives under discussion, b). The data provided about the powerless adjective weak as well as the powerful adjective strong is the different and somewhat contradicting information presented by the monolingual dictionaries; AMMD and EMD as well as the monolingual dictionaries; LASD, COED and WCD. c) The study proves that synonymous words like

the powerful Arabic adjectives: .jabar, qawi and qas are not necessarily collocationally interchangeable as the meaning can be entirely different and even contradicting.

Amer(n.d.) studied the main differences between compounds in Arabic and English and identified areas of difficulties in compounding that are difficult to be understood by Arab learners of English. The study showed that there are numerous differences. As a result, errors are expected to be caused because of the difficulty in constructing English compounds and the negative interference between Arabic and English. Khudhayer (2010) investigated the Iraqi EFL university students' performance in using adjectives modifiers order in English and the causes of the students' errors and types of such errors. Dependently, finding some solutions to help students overcome the problems they encounter in using adjectives modifiers. The study hypothesized that Iraqi EFL university students do not have the mastery of the rules which govern the use of the order of adjective modifiers in English and they encounter difficulty in their performance.

2.5 Interlanguage theory

This chapter is partly dedicated to discussing issues such as Interlanguage theory or hypothesis, which arose as a reaction to the CAH. I will explain how the concept of interlanguage emerged and how it developed and was understood by different linguists. The focus will be on how a learner's L2 system develops and how transfer and interference are related to this issue.

2.4.1 The Birth of Interlanguage

The CAH -focused on the influence of LI on the emerging L2 system and stressed the similarities and differences between the LI and L2. The Interlanguage theory, which is a reaction to the CAH, basically understands second language learning as "a creative process of constructing a system in which the learner is consciously testing hypotheses about the target language from a number of possible sources of knowledge ..." (Brown 1980: 162); these sources include, among other factors, both LI and L2.

The term 'interlanguage' was first used by Selinker in 1969 in reference to "the interim grammars constructed by second-language learners in their way to the target language" (McLaughlin 1987: 60). However, it was Nemser who in the 1960s first mentioned 'deviant' learner language: "Learner speech at a given time is the patterned product of a linguistic system distinct from [NL] and [TL] and internally structured" (Nemser 1971: 116 cited in Powell 1998: 3). And, finally, it was Corder who made the whole issue important.

In McLaughlin (1987: 60) we read that the term 'interlanguage' can mean two things: "(1) the learner's system at a single point in time and (2) the range of interlocking systems that characterizes the development of learners over time". Therefore we think that one's interlanguage is different from one's mother tongue and target language as well. It is, as James (1998: 3) suggests, a system which holds a halfway position between knowing and not knowing the TL.

2.4.2 Selinker's View of Interlanguage

In Selinker's view, interlanguage is "a separate linguistic system resulting from learner's attempted production of the target language norm" (McLaughlin 1987: 60- 61). McLaughlin (1987: 61) also gives Selinker's belief that interlanguage was "the product of five central cognitive processes involved in second-language learning":

- (1) Language transfer, i.e. transfer from the LI;
- (2) Transfer of training, i.e. some features transferred from the training process;
- (3) Strategies of second-language learning, i.e. an approach to the material taught;
- (4) Strategies of second-language communication, i.e. those ways learners use to communicate with L2 speakers; and
- (5) Overgeneralization of the target language linguistic material.

Selinker also believed that the development of interlanguage was different from the first-language development because of "the likelihood of fossilization in the second language" (McLaughlin 1987: 61). Fossilization can be basically defined as the state when a learner's interlanguage does

not develop anymore, no matter how long the learner is exposed to the target language. Based on the analysis of children's speech, Selinker found a "definite systematicity in the interlanguage", which was evidenced by certain cognitive strategies: language transfer, overgeneralization of target language rules and simplification. So his view of interlanguage is "an interim grammar that is a single system composed of rules that have been developed via different cognitive strategies ... and the interlanguage grammar is some combination of these types of rules" (McLaughlin 1987: 62-63).

2.4.3 Other Views of Interlanguage and its Properties

Adjemian stressed the, dynamic character of interlanguage systems. In his opinion, interlanguage systems were "by their nature incomplete and in the state of flux". He saw the individual's LI system as relatively stable, but not the interlanguage. In this way, "the structures of the interlanguage may be 'invaded' by the first language" (McLaughlin, 1987: 63). So Adjemian shares Selinker's opinion about the influence of the first language on the developing of interlanguage. Larone's view differed from those of Selinker and Adjemian because she thought that interlanguage was "not a single system, but a set of styles that can be used in different social contexts" (McLaughlin 1987: 64). So she stresses the social factor involved in the use of interlanguage.

Nemser argued that interlanguage was an autonomous system and supported his argument by the evidence that there are "elements which do not have their origin in neither (i.e. neither L1 nor L2) phonemic system" (Nemser 1971: 134 cited in Powell 1998: 3). He used the term 'approximative system', as he thought that a learner of a L2 undergoes a process of approximation of the emerging system to the target language (Brown 1980: 163).

Corder defines interlanguage as "a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and target language". In his opinion, every L2 learner creates an interlanguage which is unique to this individual and he called this phenomenon 'idiosyncratic dialect' (Brown 1980: 163). He stressed the importance of errors as a source of information

and argued that “the appearance of error in a learner’s production was evidence that the learner was organizing the knowledge available to them at a particular point in time” (Powell, 1998: 4).

All these interpretations stress different aspects of interlanguage. However, all of them share the basic idea that interlanguage is an independent language system lying somewhere between MT and TL. As James put it, it occupies a “halfway position ... between knowing and not knowing the TL (1998:3).

2.4.4 Transfer, Interference and Cross-linguistic Influence

I have already mentioned the terms ‘transfer’ and ‘interference’ in chapter 2.4 since they have their roots in the behaviorists theories of L2 learning and are closely related to CAH. Now we know that behaviorism does not give a satisfactory explanation of the learner’s native language influence and that, actually, any of the .previously acquired languages can cause interference. Therefore Sharwood Smith and Kellerman came up with the term ‘cross-linguistic influence’ which is theory- neutral and can be used as a super ordinate term for the phenomena of ‘transfer’, ‘interference’, ‘avoidance’, ‘borrowing’ etc.

The terms ‘transfer’ and ‘interference’ are not synonymous: Transfer usually refers to the influence of FI on L2 in both positive and negative way, whereas interference is usually used in negative sense, so it corresponds to negative transfer. Weinrich’s definition of interference (1953: 1 cited in Dulay et al. 1982: 99) supports this idea: Interference are “those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e. as a result of languages in contact”. However, I must note that there is often inconsistency in usage of these terms by various linguists.

Therefore I will use ‘transfer’ as a neutral term including both positive and negative transfer, and ‘interference’ as a synonym of negative transfer. Kellerman defined transfer as “those processes that lead to incorporation of elements from one language into another” (Kellerman 1987 in Ellis 1994: 301). Odlin offers a ‘working definition’ of transfer:

“Transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (Odlin 1989: 27 in Ellis 1994: 301). According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen interference can be understood from two different perspectives. From the psychological or behaviorist perspective it is the influence from old habits on the newly learned ones. From the sociolinguistic point of view they see transfer as “the language interactions ... that occur when two language communities are in contact” (Dulay et al. 1982: 98-99). In this point of view we are talking about the issues of borrowing, code switching and fossilization.

2.4.5 Positive and negative transfer

When talking about language transfer in the behaviorist interpretation of the term, we usually differentiate between two types of transfer ‘positive transfer’ and ‘negative transfer’.

Positive transfer occurs where a language item in L1 is also present in L2, so, acquisition of this item makes little or no difficulty for the learner. An example could be the use of plural markers ‘-s’ and ‘-es’ in English and Spanish. A L1 Spanish learner of L2 English should use the English plurals correctly if the positive transfer is operating.

Negative transfer comes when there is no concordance between L1 and L2 and thus, acquisition of the new L2 structure would be more difficult and errors reflecting the L1 structure would be produced (Powell 1998: 2 and Dulay et al. 1982: 97). In my own research I have found that L1 Spanish learners of L2 English tend to use the English long-adjective superlatives incorrectly. For example, they say the more beautiful girl instead of the most beautiful girl. The reason is probably a negative transfer, since in Spanish both comparative and superlative uses the same word *más*, just the superlative uses it together with a definite article: ‘el/la *más* t adjective’.

2.4.6 Borrowing

Linguistic borrowing is a sociolinguistic phenomenon and a form of language interference which appears among bilingual speakers. It is very common in multilingual societies all over the world (Dulay et al. 1982:

113). Powell defines borrowing as “the incorporation of linguistic material from one language into another” (1998: 8).

Most commonly borrowed items are, Dulay et al. (1982: 113) explain, “lexical items that express either cultural concepts that are new to the borrowing group, or notions that are particularly important in a given contact situation”. For example, after discovering the American continent, English and other old European languages borrowed words from the Native American languages, such as maize, tomato, igloo, etc. Words that are borrowed into a language usually preserve their general sound pattern, but they also modify it according to the phonetic and phonological system of the borrowing language. After that, the words are incorporated into the grammar of the borrowing language, i.e. they are given articles, inflections, etc (Dulay et al. 1982: 114). ‘Integrated borrowing’ refers to a word which was borrowed into a language and speakers of that language learn this word from each other without understanding its original meaning in the language of origin. On the other hand, ‘creative borrowing’ is characterized by speakers using a word from another language to express a concept closely related to the culture of that language (Dulay et al. 1982: 114).

2.4.7 Code Switching

The term ‘code-switching’ refers to “an active, creative process of incorporating material from both of a bilingual’s languages into communicative acts” (Dulay et al. 1982: 115). Rapid switches from one language into the other are very characteristic for code-switching. There is a widespread opinion that code-switching is an evidence of a lack of proficiency, fluency or control over the language systems on the part of the speaker. However, this is not true. On the contrary, code-switching is most frequent among the most proficient bilinguals and is governed by strict structural and grammatical rules of both the languages involved. It has a strong sociolinguistic function: most importantly, it works as an ethnic marker (Dulay et al., 1982: 115). Code-switching can take form of (a) inserting words or short phrases from one language into single

sentences in another language or (b) altering the languages in terms of entire phrases or clauses.

Now, a further step to be considered in this domain is the investigation of the fact that translation is a science that has benefited greatly from the research in contrastive analysis. Some basic definitions which are strongly related to the present study will be considered herein below.

2.5 Translation

In a rapidly globalized world translation has become an activity of ever increasing importance than before, thus assuming a central place in linguistics and language studies. In translating, the fundamental step is to concentrate on equivalence and meaning within the process of the rendering. This demonstration reflects the fact that both translation theory and practice are inseparable. Again, this entails that a close understanding of the translation theory and the process of translation is vital in the production of the translated text.

To provide insights into solving translation problems, it is greatly important to study the practicality and the usefulness of translation theory in an in-depth manner. Translation according to Newmark (1981:36) is considered as an art as well a skill and a science. Hence as part of the present research investigate the role of translation in rendering Arabic relative clause into English and vice versa, a brief look at different aspects of translation as regards its theory, its relation to pedagogical practices and history is undeniably important.

2.5.1 Translation and world's views

Several definitions of translation have been given by different scholars; however none of these definitions has been comprehensive enough to be accepted as hard and fast. This disputable situation can be attributed to the nature and process of translation. Munday (2001: 4) indicates that the term "translation" could be used to refer to the *product* (the translated text), the *process* (the action of producing the translation) or the *subject* (the field of study). Al Ghussain (2003: 10), similarly, claims that "Most definitions of translation... may be classified under one of two

headings. The first is concerned with what is involved in translation as a process ... The second group of definitions concentrates on translation as a product, and describes what good translations should be like".

The following is a demonstration of some common definitions of translation given by some scholars in the field of translation studies such as Catford, Nida and Taber, Newmark, and Hatim and Mason. The above mentioned scholars have been chosen because of their importance and contributions to the field of translation studies.

Catford (1965: 1) defines translation as "An operation performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another".

According to Catford's definition, translation is basically considered an operation performed on languages. Thus, he describes translation as the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another. Catford also distinguishes between full and partial translation, "depending on the extent to which the source language text is submitted to the translation process" (Al Ghussain, 2003: 11). In a full translation, the entire text is submitted to the translation process and every part of the source text is replaced by target text material. On the other hand, in partial translation, some parts of the source language text are not translated and simply transferred to and incorporated in the target text (Catford, 1965). In addition, Catford (ibid) distinguishes between total and restricted translations. He (ibid: 22) defines total translation as "the replacement of source language grammar and lexis by equivalent target language grammar and lexis with consequential replacement of source language phonology/graphology by target language phonology/graphology". In contrast, restricted translation is defined by Catford (ibid) as "the replacement of source language textual material by equivalent target language textual material at only one level". Nida and Taber (1969: 12) define translation as "Producing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style". They give priority to the reader and audience at whom the translation is aimed. They (ibid: 31)

"...attach greater importance to the forms understood and accepted by the audience for which a translation is designed than the forms which may possess a longer linguistic tradition or have greater literary prestige". Moreover, Nida and Taber (ibid) emphasize the importance of understanding the original source language text before constructing the target language text. Nida (1964: 14) argues that "Translation is the interpretation of verbal signs of one language by means of verbal signs of another". Newmark (1981:7) defines translation as "A craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or a statement in one language by the same messageand/or statement in another language". He (1988: 5) also defines translation as "rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text". Moreover, Newmark (ibid) considers translation "complicated, artificial, and fraudulent, since by using another language you are pretending to be someone you are not". He (ibid: 7) also thinks that translation is a useful technique for learning foreign languages and it is "a two-edged instrument: it has the special purpose of demonstrating the learner's knowledge of the foreign language, either as a form of control or to exercise his intelligence in order to develop his competence. This is its strong point in foreign language classes".

Hatim and Mason (1990: 1) consider translation "a communicative process which takes place within a social context. It is a useful test case for examining the whole issue of the role of language in social life and creating a new act of communication of a previously existing one". In addition to the above mentioned definitions, scholars interested in translation studies are still trying to provide some other definitions of the concept and process of translation bearing in mind that it is a complex field that comprises different types of activities and processes.

Rojo (2009: 22), for instance, defines translation as "a complex activity characterized by the intervention of opposing forces that pose serious dilemmas for translators. Some are: the tension between the 'truth' or 'facts' of the matter and the translator's competence, the conflict between the intentions and style of the ST writer and the expectations of

the TL readership, the differences between the conventional features of a given text type in the SL and the conventions of the same type of text in the TL and the differences in the cultural settings of the languages involved.”

Apart from translation, the present study seeks to explore in-depth the difficulties Sudanese students of translation are likely to encounter when dealing with the issues of relativization in English and Arabic.

2.6 Relative clause formation in English and modern standard Arabic

A relative clause is defined as a surface structure realization of an embedded sentence following a definite or an indefinite head noun phrase called the **antecedent**, and containing a noun phrase coreferential with this antecedent. The relative clause formation rule involves the deletion of the second identical noun phrase and its replacement by an appropriate relative pronoun.

The position of the relative clause is **postnominal** in both English and MSA, it always follows the antecedent. However, there are certain differences between English and MSA, in that in English the relative pronoun may follow a definite or an indefinite antecedent:

1. He hates the women who chew gum.
2. He hates women who chew gum.

In MSA, the situation is different. No relative pronoun follows an indefinite antecedent:

1. I can't find the book that I was reading (correct version)
2. I can't find a book that I was reading (incorrect)

Again, in MSA, if the relative clause refers to a definite noun, that noun is usually followed by a relative pronoun agreeing with it in *gender*, *number* and *case*. Such a sentence is called '*silah*' relation:

1. I saw the girl who came.

Such a sentence is called *silah'*, *adjectival*. However, there is no relative pronoun if the modified noun is indefinite:

I saw a girl who came (Ra?ayt-ufatat-a hadarat).

2.7 Types of Relative Clauses

The function of the head noun in a relative clause determines the structure of relative clauses. In the main clause, a head noun can function as a subject, a direct object, an indirect object, an object of a preposition, or a predicate noun. In the relative clause, heads of the NPs can function as subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, or objects of prepositions. Moreover, the possessive determiner *whose* can relativize any noun functioning as a subject, a direct object, an object of a preposition, or a predicate noun, as in:

1. I saw a poor woman whose clothing's saddened me. (Subject)
2. It was a book whose title was missing. (Object)

Now, different types of relative clauses in English will be handled below briefly. Special focus will be given to: nominal relative clauses, sentential relative clauses, and restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.

2.7.1 Nominal Relative Clauses

The nominal relative clause, also called the **fused relative construction**. It is exemplified by the following:

- a. [He had eaten quickly] what he was given.
- b. [He had eaten quickly] the food which was given to him.

In (b) *what he was given* is a restrictive relative-word relative clause functioning as modifier within the NP the food he was given, the relative word *which* is anaphoric to (the food). Semantically (a) is much similar to (b) both can be treated as [he was given X, and he had eaten quickly X], with (b) *which he was given* which can be explicitly said that X is (food). In (a) the idea of relativization is fused in *what he was given*, which is more exactly a fused relative construction (Huddleston 1988: 158). Huddleston (ibid) also adds that "The major relative words occurring in the nominal fused relative construction are *what*, and the -ever compounds *whatever*, *whoever*, *whichever*."

- c. whoever works hard will succeed.

Greenbaum (1991: 109) claims that "**Nominal relative clauses** are clauses that are introduced by nominal pronouns... Whereas relative clauses post-modify nouns, nominal relative clauses have the same functions as noun phrases:

- d. He carried out what his wife ordered him to.
- e. Whoever comes late will be derived.

2.7.2 Sentential Relative Clauses

Sentential relative clauses are similar to non-restrictive relative clauses with a slight difference owing to the fact that they do not postmodify nouns only, but they postmodify their antecedent which is the whole or part of what precedes them in a sentence (Greenbaum, 1996: 228), as in:

- a) Neither of the two students gave an excuse for their absence for the whole week, which may affect their level this term.

In the above mentioned sentence, the antecedent of *which* is everything that precedes the relative pronoun *which*. Greenbaum (ibid) also adds that "The sentential relative clause is non-restrictive, and therefore it is generally separated from what precedes it by an intonation break or pause in speech and by a punctuation mark in writing."

Moreover, *which* can be used as a determiner in relative clauses, with a general noun which repeats the meaning of what came before. This construction is mainly used after prepositions, especially in some fixed phrases like *in which case* and *at which point*.

- b) She may be late, in which case we ought to wait for her.
- c) He lost his temper, at which point I decided to go home.

- *That* is the relative pronoun that can be used in restrictive clauses to replace any relative pronoun except *whose*.

2.7 Relative pronouns

In English, the relative pronoun can be classified as having five forms: *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which* and *that*, only two of which are marked for the case: *whom* for the accusative and *whose* for the genitive. In MSA, the relative pronoun has the same base with phonological differences in *masculine* and *feminine* and various endings for the case and number. According to Hamdallah (1991, pp. 141-152) the form of relative pronoun in MSA is determined by gender, number and case. The forms are not as clear as those of the English language. Thus, there are as many as eight different forms of the relative pronouns in MSA. The following is a list of the various forms of MSA relative pronouns:

2.7.1.a The resumptive pronoun

The resumptive pronoun, which is a personal pronoun (ضمير العائد) *returning pronoun* is a phenomenon exclusively restricted to MSA. It agrees with the relativized NP (noun phrase) in gender and case. This resumptive pronoun does not appear in the *subjeexposition*, e.g. *al-ustaz al zaiyuh buhu al nahuayatou gulit dries al gwaid. The teacher who likes syntax is keen on teaching grammar*. However, it is optional in the *direct object position*, e.g. *al siaratu alati sh trituhaiqtisadi ietu* - the car that I bought is economical. Nevertheless, it is obligatory in the following positions:

- Indirect object: *al saiehalaisaraghaaltimthalharaba, the tourist who stole the historical figurine escaped*.
- Object of preposition: *al maktabu al zaiada'ualaihe kutubi wasi'u- the desk on which I put my books is large*.
- Genitive: *al maratu alati mat zoujouhaintahart-t/ze woman whose husband died committed a suicide*.
- Object of comparison: *al kitabu alazigratuhu agdam min haza- the book which I read is older than this*.

According to Mohammed (1999: 159) "There are two types of relative clauses in Arabic...: one type with an overt relative pronoun, and the other without an overt relative pronoun. The former is used when the head of the relative clause is definite and the latter is used when the head of the relative clause is indefinite". Consider:

جاء المزارع الذي يزرع الذرة

- a. /ja,a al muzari alazi yazra al zura/

The farmer who grows Dura came.

- b. /ja,amuzari unyazra al zura/

A farmer grows Dura came

In (a) the head of the relative clause is definite and in (b) it is indefinite. So, the presence of the relative pronoun in (a) a, and its absence in (b) is an ungrammatical structure.

2.7.1. b Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

Relative clauses can be categorized into two types: (1) restrictive and (2) non- restrictive. A restrictive clause provides information that is relevant or essential to the meaning of the sentence. A non-restrictive clause, which is also called a parenthetical or an appositive, encompasses information that is extra, and can be dealt without, that is, information contained in a non-restrictive clause may be removed from the sentence altogether without changing the overall meaning of the sentence. Because this information is not crucial to the meaning of a sentence, it is set apart with commas, or, more emphatically, with dashes, or parentheses.

Both kinds of clauses can be signaled by the use of wh word (which, when, where, and who). That is used to signal a restrictive clause. Because a restrictive clause contributes to the basic meaning of the sentence, it is not separated from the rest of the sentence with commas or other surrounding punctuation. The meaning of a sentence can be altered by whether a clause is punctuated so as to show that it is a restrictive clause (giving crucial information) or a non-restrictive clause (giving extra information).

Compare the following sentences:

- The builder, who erects very fine houses, will make good profits.
- The builder who erects very fine houses will make good profits.

At the syntactic level, these two sentences seem to have the same patterns, but semantically, they have two quite different meanings. Correspondingly, they have also two clearly distinguished intonation patterns, depending on whether the commas are inserted. Specifically, the first example uses a non-restrictive clause. It does not distinguish the builder from a builder who does not erect very fine houses. With the commas, and with three short intonation curves, the sentence refers to a specific builder and tells the hearer firstly about his houses, then about his profits. The second example uses a restrictive relative clause without the commas, and with a single intonation curve, the sentence states that any builder who builds such houses will make profits.

Restrictive clauses are also called defining relative clauses, or identifying relative clauses as they identify the antecedent. Similarly,

non-restrictive relative clauses are called non-defining or nonidentifying relative clauses as they do not identify the antecedent but give extra information about it.

The meaning of a sentence can be altered by whether a clause is punctuated so as to show that it is a restrictive clause (giving crucial information) or a non-restrictive clause (giving extra information). A summary table follows:

2.7.1.C Restrictive Non-Restrictive (appositive/parenthetical)

- begins with *wh* words or that may begin with *wh* words
- presents highly relevant information gives “extra” information
- is not separated from the sentence is separated by commas, dashes, or parentheses

2.8 Different views over restrictive as opposed to non restrictive relative clauses

As it was already noted, in speech, the distinction is clearly marked prosodically: non-restrictive relatives are pronounced with a separate intonation contour, whereas restrictive clauses are prosodically bound to their antecedent. In writing, non-restrictive clauses are normally distinguished from restrictive clauses by being marked off by separation markers as has been mentioned earlier. Semantically, the information included in the non-restrictive clause is presented as separate from, and secondary to, the information included in the rest of the subordinate clause, whereas this is not so with the restrictive clause: here the information it expresses forms an integral part of the message conveyed by the subordinate clause as a whole. For example, in (*The coat which Jack had presented to her was in the safe*). The relative clause is part of the description that defines which coat is being referred to: the implication is that there is more than one coat in the context of discourse, but just one that Jack had presented her; (*The coat, which Jack had presented to her, was in the safe.*) on the other hand, implies a context where there is only one coat: the non-restrictive relative clause simply gives additional (and extra) information about it. (Huddleston 1988: 157).

To further clarify the difference between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses, Stageberg (1971: 250, 251) analyses these two examples:

- a) He walked to the garage *which he liked best*. (Restrictive)
- b) He walked to the garage, *which was a mile away*. (Nonrestrictive)

"The first clause points out one garage among many. Of all the garages, he walked to the particular one that he preferred. In the second sentence, however, there is only one garage, and as additional information, we learn that it is a mile away. In short, the restrictive clause restricts the meaning to part of the total, but the nonrestrictive clause makes no such limitation. This is the semantic way of distinguishing the two kinds of relative clause" (Stageberg, *ibid*). George Yule (2000: 249) also states that:

There are some aspects of restrictive relative clauses that are not normally found with non-restrictive types. The relative pronoun "that" and the zero relative pronoun are typical features of restrictive relative clauses. Also with antecedents such as anyone, any person, everyone and everything, a restrictive relative clause is typically used to identify more specifically who or what is being talked about.

It was observed that after the following these antecedents unusual to find a non- restrictive relative clause Thus, the italicised examples in [a,b,c and d] are all restrictive relatives.

- a- Is there anything *you cannot do*?
- b- Well, I cannot help every person *who needs help*.
- c- But those *that you help* are usually satisfied.
- d- I am sure there are some people *who are never happy*.

Hudson (1990: 383, 384) claims that:

It is quite easy to represent this distinction (between defining and non-defining relative clauses), because defining relatives clearly relate to the sense of their antecedent, whereas non-defining relatives refer to its referent. For example, if my wife who lives in Rio is taken to contain a defining relative, then who lives in Rio adds a property to the existing properties of the sense of wife, so that this word refers not just to 'wife of

me', but to 'wife of me such that she lives in Rio'. If on the other hand the relative clause is non-defining, then the referent of who is the same as that of wife, and does not define a particular kind of wife; consequently it is customary to compare a non-defining relative with a parenthetical clause containing an ordinary identity-of-reference pronoun.

2.8.a The syntactic functions of the relative clause in English

- The relative clause in English sentence is marked by certain features assigning specific functions as indicated below:
- The relative clause must contain a NP (head noun/antecedent) that has the same reference as the head of the main clause.
- The relative pronoun is placed at the beginning of the clause and the co-referential NP is omitted.
- The relative pronoun is "which" if the co-referential NP is a non-human in subject or object function, or following a preposition.
- The relative pronoun is "who" if the co-referential NP is human in subject function.
- The relative pronoun is "whom" if the co-referential NP is human in object function or following a preposition.
- The relative pronoun is "whose" if the co-referential NP is human or nonhuman in possessive function, "where" if a locational, and "when" if a temporal element. Now, the following examples will illustrate the above points:
 - a. I saw the rat which stole the cheese
 - b. I talked to the plumber who mended the AC.
 - c. I sat with the workman whom my father hired.
 - d. I knew the teacher whose wife deserted.
 - e. I went to the village where the new bridge was constructed.
- The relative pronoun "that" is often used as an alternative for "whom", "who" and "which" because it can refer to people or things and can be used as the subject or object of a relative clause. Consider the following examples:
 - a. The man that I saw last week is flying today to Saudi Arabia.
 - b. Is this the cleaner that smashed the cup.
 - c. The neighbor that rented the opposite house is a doctor.
- The subject is often separated from its verb by information represented by the dependent clause. Sometimes, an adjective clause has no subject other than the relative pronoun that introduces the clause. In such a clause, the relative pronoun serves as the subject of the

dependent clause and relates to some words or ideas in the independent clause. (Darling, C. ,1999).

- The case of a relative pronoun is generally marked in its form. This is applied in "who", which has a possessive case form "whose" and an object case form "whom". However, the form "whom" is in decline and often restricted to formal use.
- Consequently, "which" and "that" have no possessive form, instead "whose" is normally used for the possessive form of these two relatives, or long phrases (periphrasis) is sometimes used with these relatives.

Consider the following examples below:

- a. The new mosque whose walls are decorated by a Turk has no minaret.
 - b. The new mosque the walls of which are decorated by a Turk has no minaret.
- As stated above, relative pronouns can sometimes be left out; they are understood but not given in the sentence. For example:
 - a. I sold the house my father gave it to me.
 - b. The house my father gave it to me was old but in good repair.
 - Omission of the relative pronoun "whom" is particularly common when the verb is linked to a preposition. For example:
 - a. The teacher I met yesterday went to his village.
 - b. Instead of: The teacher whom I met.....
 - On the other hand, *who* cannot be omitted if it is the subject of the relative clause, and if the relative clause is non-restrictive/non-defining. For example it is acceptable to say:
 - a. That is the man who used to live next door to us. Yet it is not acceptable to say:
 - b. That is the man used to live next door to us. (Murphy , R. 1994: 182-190)

According to Eckersley, C.E et al (1960 : 327), the relative pronoun can be omitted or kept in defining and non-defining clauses under certain conditions as follows:

- When the relative pronoun in a defining/restrictive clause has an object case, it is optionally omitted, especially in the spoken English ,e.g'.
 - a. The man (that) you spoke to is my brother.
 - b. There is something (that) you do not know.

The relative pronoun can also be omitted in a defining clause introduced by (there is) a. The 10.00 is the fastest train (that) there is to Oxford.

- In non-defining clauses, who(m) and (which) are never omitted, e.g.
 - a. Her brother Alfred, who is eighteen years old, has bought a new bicycle.
 - b. His father, whom you met in Paris, is now in London.
 - c. This poem, which almost everybody knows, is written by Shakespeare.

2.8 .b The semantic functions of the relative clauses in English

The meaning of the sentence with a relative clause is shaped respectively by two factors; the choice of the relative pronoun, and the relation between the dependent and the independent clauses of the sentence. In this regard, Dik, S. et al (1997:25) identified the semantic function of relative clause stating that "a relative clause is a proposition embedded within a construction with a nominal head, which restricts the set of potential referents of that nominal head to a subset of which the proposition is also true."

In the same vein, Guy, G. and Bayley, R. (1995) correlated between relative pronoun choice and the animacy of the antecedent, the channel of communication, the syntactic position of the relativised element in the embedded clause, and the adjacency of the antecedent and the relativized element. This means that all these variants have significant effects on the choice of the relative pronoun, which in turn imposes constraints on the semantic framework of the sentence.

Existing alongside, some other typical semantic variables such as "agent" and "patient" have also their impact on the semantic features of the relativized sentence.

To consider the semantic functions of the relative clause in English, the following examples may shed light on five different variables:

- a. Mary talked to the man who (agent) bought the house down the street.
- b. She saw the boy whom (patient) the dog bit.
- c. They called the man to whom (recipient) Bill sold the house.
- d. Mary looked at the box in which (location) the jewelry was kept.

- e. Mary looked at the box out of which (source) the jewelry had been taken

Clearly, the above instances show that the different semantic roles are controlled by the head of the relative clause, ie, the relative pronoun can have any semantic role; it can function as agent, patient, recipient, location or source.

In the fullest sense of the term, the semantic features of complex sentences have been echoed by Diessel, H. (2004:42-44) ,who stated that "complex sentences are often described in terms of foreground and background information which characterize the content and pragmatic function of clauses". In correspondence, with the previous notions, there are three types of markers which in different combinations are used to characterize relative clauses:

- That (invariable relativization marker) gives explicit information on the subordinate status of the relative clause, but they give no direct information on the nature of the relativized variable.

They have delivered a message that is difficult to ignore

Personal pronouns, such as he/ his/ him/ ; such pronouns in the context of the relative clause, give information about the nature of the relativized variable, but they give no information about the relativized nature of the relative clause.

- a. Mona told me about her new job which she is enjoying very much.

Relative pronouns, such as who, whose , whom ; contain information both on the relativized status of the relative clause and on the relativized variable.

- a. The chef who won the competition studied in Paris.
b.

2.9 Semantic differences

Perlmutter and Soames (1997: 267) argue that "A restrictive relative clause in a sentence of the form „[NP relative clause] NP predicate restricts the predication to the class of individuals specified in the relative clause."

In this case, a restrictive relative clause restricts the predication to the class of individuals specified in the relative clause, but a non-restrictive relative clause does not. When the relative clause is non-restrictive, the predication is made of all those individuals specified by the head NP; it is also assured that this group of individuals is the same as the group of individuals specified by the relative clause (ibid).

2.10 Related differences

Specific individuals are referred to by proper names; "As a result, when the head NP of a relative clause is a proper name, it picks out the subject of predication, leaving no role for a restrictive clause to play. Consequently, it has been argued that proper names cannot be heads of a restrictive clause" (ibid: 268,269), e.g.:

- c. *Rose who has just played the piano told us about the party.
- d. Rose, who has just played the piano, told us about the party.
- e. To conclude what Perlmutter and Soames (ibid) have said, non-restrictive relative clauses are set off by commas, dashes, or parenthesis in writing and pauses in the spoken language; whereas restrictive relative clauses are not.

Baker (1996: 333) states that:

Going along with this difference in function are a few small differences in form. In the first place, a nonrestrictive relative inside larger sentence is set off in speaking by a special 'interruption' intonation that occurs before it begins and also when it ends. This intonation, which involves a slight upturn at the end of the final word of the intonational unit, contrasts with the ordinary downturn intonation that we generally find at the end of a sentence.

Moreover, Roberts (1997: 233) claims that "The difference between restrictive and non-restrictive lies in the way they relate to the head noun within the overall NP...

"Restrictive relative clauses specify more exactly which of the things picked out by the head noun are being mentioned ... Nonrestrictive clauses serve to add extra information, without restricting the set of things... being mentioned."

Stageberg (1971: 250) claims that "The restrictive-nonrestrictive distinction is characteristic of all postnominal-phrase modifiers: prepositional phrases, participial phrases in -ing and -ed, infinitive phrases, appositives, and noun phrases. This is not surprising, as all of these can be considered as elliptical forms of relative clauses."

2.11 The syntactic function of the relative clause in Arabic

In Arabic The relative clause in Arabic qualifies definite nouns that are treated as adjuncts and thus termed "sila"= attachment . The feature which determines the syntactic behavior of the relative clause is determination (definiteness vs. indefiniteness), which combines a/syndesis to produce connected relative clauses or unconnected ones. In other words, the relative clause is used throughout in preference to the "antecedent". In this respect, Gully, A. et al (2004: 490-489) characterized the relativization strategy in Arabic into the following classification:

- Definite head plus syndetic clause = relative structure Akal alwaladualdiyalabu

Dined the boy who play The boy who is playing dined

- Def. head plus asyndetic clause = circumstantial structure/Alcala waladunyalabu

Dined the boy played The boy dined yalabu

- Indefinite head NP plus asyndetic clause = adjectival clause.

Akal waladunyalabu

Boy played dined

- Indefinite head plus syndetic clause is empty and there is no structure of this type in Arabic, like

AkalawaladunaladiyalabuAboy, who is playing dined

This means that an agreement in case and definiteness is needed between the head noun and the relative clause. Consequently, a definite adjunct clause cannot modify an indefinite head. Accordingly, the relativization strategy in Arabic can be summed up as follows: Relative clauses with indefinite heads are asyndetic (unconnected) and always adjectival, while those with definite heads are syndetic (connected) and

always relative clauses. However, both types are internally the same, containing an

anaphoric pronoun linking them to the head. Although semantically relative clauses in Arabic may be restrictive (defining) or non-restrictive (non-defining), this has no structural reflection, e.g.

- ?oxtialatitartadialbintalmualima. (non-restrictive).

Sister-my who wear-she teacher

“My sister who wears the trousers is a teacher.

- Laaauhibualarajalaaldhiythrtirukathira (restrictive)

Not I- like one who talk much

I don't like the one who talks much.

In Arabic , this type of syntactical distinction is applied to differentiate between the syndetic and asyndetic relative clauses rather than restrictive or non-restrictive clauses.

2.12 The semantic functions of the relative clause in Arabic

As far as the semantic functions are concerned, Arabic and English relative clauses are to a great extent similar. In that they tend to shorten the sentence and employ cohesive devices, namely connectors to glue its parts hence prevents the occurrence of repetition of the head noun. Unlike English, movement of the antecedent in the defining relative clause/ syndetic does not affect the meaning since the Arabic sentence can start with either a verb or a subject .This is clearly shown in the following instances:

- Tafawaqataaliballdiidasajayyedana.

Succeeded the-student who studied good

‘The student who studied adequately succeeded’

- Ataalliballadiidasajayyedantafawaq.

The-student who studied good succeeded

‘The student who studied adequately succeeded’

- Laa ?atheq bi-tajirinyukthar al-half.

Not trust in merchant increase swearing ‘I do not trust the merchant who swears a lot’

- Laa ?athaeq bi-t-taajiralladiiyukther al-half.

Not trust in merchant who increase swearing 'I do not trust the merchant who swears a lot'

As with respects to their types, the two sentences cited above display two basic differences. For example, the first sentence is indefinite as the subject of the sentence (the merchant) is unidentifiable to the listener. However, the subject of the second sentence is known to the hearer as it was made definite by the fact of the merchant (subject) who swears a lot. Incidentally, determination as a syntactic feature is considered to be the distinguishing marker of these two types of clauses that in turn, as indicated above, imposes this semantic difference in meaning. On contrary, punctuation (island effect) and the position of the relative clause are the two main factors that determine the two types of clauses in English.

2.13 English -Arabic relative clauses contrastively viewed

Despite the numerous similarities between relativization in English and Arabic, they differ in a number of ways in connection with the relative pronouns, the agreement of the relative pronoun with its antecedent, and the appearance of the resumptive pronoun in Arabic sentence. Additionally, one of the problematic structures for most Sudanese students learning English language identified by the researcher and teachers is relative clauses. Schachter (1974) cited in (Ibraheem,Z., Kassabgy, N., Aydelott,s.,2000: pp50-51) discussed three main dimensions in comparing the relative clause in English with that in Arabic. The first dimension relates to the position of the relative clause with respect to the head noun. Relative clauses in English and Arabic follow the head noun, i.e., the syntactic pattern of word order of

English and Arabic relative clauses are similar. The second dimension relates to how relative clauses are marked. English uses a relative pronoun that agrees with the noun it replaces, i.e., who for subject-case human, whom for object-case human, which for non-human, and whose for human and non-human possessive determiner. While standard Arabic (SA) uses relative nouns that need to agree with the head

noun in case, gender, and number. However, case agreement is applied only with the dual relative nouns, i.e., nominative, genitive, or accusative.

Part two: Literature review

As far as this part of the study is concerned, no similar study has been conducted in Sudan. There are some who have handled the topic from purely grammatical view point, but hardly contrastively.

2.1 Acontrastive study in English and Arabic

Many studies were carried out in the Arab World, foremost of which is a PhD thesis carried out in Durham University by a Libyan researcher on relativization. On his study the researcher presents a theoretical overview of relativization in English, relativization in Arabic, and contrasts between them. It also investigates the problems encountered by fourth-year English department students of El-Mergib University in Libya in translating relative clauses from English into Arabic and vice versa.

The thesis comprises seven chapters. Chapter one is an introduction to the study. Chapter two reviews the relevant literature on contrastive studies and relativization in the world's languages with an emphasis on English-Arabic relativization. Chapter three presents a theoretical discussion of translation theories, pedagogy, and assessment. Chapter four gives a theoretical background to relativization in English, relativization in Arabic, and a contrastive study between them. Chapter five presents the research methodology and design. Chapter six presents the quantitative and qualitative data analysis. This chapter is the empirical part of the research. It focuses on the description of students' errors. Chapter seven (the last one) deals with the conclusion, presents some remedial solutions, gives some recommendations for the University of El-Mergib to overcome the students' difficulties in translating relative clauses from English into Arabic and vice versa, and suggests some topics for further research.

2.2 Relative Clauses in English and Modern Standard Arabic

Another salient work on relativization was conducted by jointly by Rami.W. Hamdallah and Hannah Y. Tusheha. They handled the issue of relative clause in English and Modern Standard Arabic.

2.3 English Arabic Contrastive Analysis, Redefinition of Goals

May Al-Sheikh, Amman, Jordan presented a paper entitled: English Arabic Contrastive analysis, redefinition of goals. In this paper, the researcher stated the purpose as an attempt to assess the current status of English-Arabic Contrastive Analysis (CA) in Iraqi universities & to suggest some redefinitions of the goals of this analysis accordingly. A sample of 25 theses that have been randomly chosen has been investigated and chronologically appended. The historical background will have a bird's eye view on the various phases CA in general has undergone so far. One of the limitations is consulting English references only, admitting that Arab scholars did have their own contribution as well.

2.4 Arabic Relative Clauses in HSPG

A joint paper was coauthored by Alqurashi and Robert Borsely entitled "Arabic relative clauses in HSPG. The authors stated that relative clauses have been analyzed in terms of phonologically empty heads in Pollard and Sag (1994) and in terms of a complex system of phrase types in Sag (1997). Modern Standard Arabic has a distinction between relative clauses with a definite antecedent, which are introduced by a special complementizer, and relative clauses with an indefinite antecedent, which are 'bare' clauses. Analyses eschewing empty heads and assuming a complex system of phrase types face a number of problems. An analysis in which relatives with an indefinite antecedent are headed by a phonologically empty complementizer is more satisfactory. Thus, in the case of Arabic, the approach of Pollard and Sag (1994) seems preferable to the approach of Sag (1997).

2.5 A comparative Study of Restrictive Relative Clauses in Latakian Syrian Arabic and English

In this thesis the author handled the structure of restrictive relative clauses (RRCs henceforth) from a syntactic point of view as well as a second language acquisition (SLA) perspective, and thus can be divided into two parts: a theoretical part which deals with the syntax of RRCs in English and in Latakian Syrian Arabic (LSA); and an empirical part which deals with the acquisition of this construction in English by speakers of

LSA. In this introductory chapter, I outline the aims of the thesis. The first investigative challenge that I attempt to respond to is to find an analysis for RRCs in English and then for those in LSA. This includes reviewing current proposals for the representation of RRCs cross-linguistically. This will be discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 of the thesis.

2.6. On the Syntactic and Semantic Structure of Relative clauses in English and Arabic: A Contrastive Study.

This paper studies relative clauses in English and Arabic comparatively. It aims at determining some essential properties of relative clause structure in both languages. To achieve this aim the study touches the syntactic and semantic functions of the relative clause structure in both languages. It then focuses on the main asymmetries and symmetries of these constructions in English and Arabic. The study ends with a summary of the main concluding remarks that highlight the main areas of difficulties in understanding relative clauses of English; these are expected to lead into committing serious interlingual and intralingual errors.

In Chapter 2, the question of what is the best analysis for English RRCs will be addressed first through evaluating three major syntactic proposals. These are the traditional operator-movement analysis, the head-raising promotion analysis and the partial promotion analysis. The head-raising and the partial promotion analyses are assessed and criticized. These largely depend on the reconstruction phenomenon which does not provide evidence for movement of the crucial element as will be explained in detail later. It is the operator movement approach that will be adopted in 3 this work. This is because it is a parsimonious account which offers a unified analysis for all types of RRCs, and overcomes the weaknesses of the other analyses. Chapter 3 deals with the second challenging task, namely providing an analysis for this construction that suits data from LSA. The structure of RRCs in this dialect has not been investigated before, to the best of my knowledge. Various views of this construction in different Arabic dialects are presented and assessed against data from LSA.

The analysis adopted for LSA will be arrived at after explaining the island phenomenon, providing an analysis for clitics and resumption, and exploring the nature of the linking words in RRCs of LSA. It will be argued that islands regardless of their nature block movement, that there is a null resumptive pronoun which is licenced by a clitic, and there is only one type of RRC: complementizer-relatives for definite RRCs and null-complementizer-relatives for indefinite ones.

2.7 English Relativization and Learners' Problems

The present study aims at investigating the learning strategies on which Thai EFL learners rely in learning English relative clauses (ERCs). Not only do these strategies facilitate their ERC acquisition, but they are also found to lead them to certain kinds of problems. Such problems related to the learning strategies are first language transfer, transfer of training, avoidance, and overgeneralization. Thai learners seem to transfer a lack of some relative clause types in their native language to learning L2 ERCs. They also avoid the RC constructions, e.g. the object-of-

preposition relative and the genitive relative, as well as the relativizers *whose* and *whom*, which they probably consider too complex or unfamiliar. In addition, the previous ERC instruction apparently has a negative effect on their subsequent ERC learning, making the learners over-produce the relative marker *that*. Furthermore, they even extend the use of *that* to nonrestrictive RCs, which is grammatically incorrect in English.

2.8 Summary

This chapter has handled extensively the different theoretical concepts of contrastive linguistics, translation as well as those of the relative clause both in English and Modern Standard Arabic. It also underscored some of the most important concepts of the disciplines in questions, and pinpointed the fundamental studies in this respect.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is in essence, a plan describing the diverse venues which the research process will follow and develop quite substantially into a full body of knowledge through the diverse theoretical and practical steps. It will also help the researcher to track down the intended pathways for the realization of the set objectives of the study in a systematic manner. The chapter will include the following sections:

1. The subjects of the study
2. Research design
3. The theoretical principles on which the methodology is based
4. Instrumentation and procedures of data collection.

3.1 Subjects

3.2 The students

The subjects of the present research have been preliminary year students at the University of Science and Technology. All the students have to a greater extent similar background as regards their education at the secondary level. They have mostly come from public schools, with the exception of few ones, who received their education at privately run institutions, and some from Arab countries. The total number of the students is 120.

Due to the experimental nature of the present study, this situation calls for dividing the population of the study into two main categories, namely the

control and experimental groups. The control group is essentially the students who did not undergo any kind of training in rendering the relative clauses in English into Arabic and vice versa. The latter, experimental group, have otherwise received training in handling the relative clauses.

The members of the two control groups (high and low proficient groups) are 60 Sudanese students (freshmen) preparatory year, College of Science and Technology who has been selected according to their achievement in the Sudanese Certificate Exam. They did the oral and written pre and post tests. Their scoring in these tests confirmed their poor standards in the Sudanese certificate Exam. Thus they have been chosen as the subjects for the control groups in order to avoid what Brown called *subject expectancy*:

...which occurs when the subjects think they have figured what a study is about and try to “help” the researcher to achieve the apparent aims . . . the problem was that by guessing this fact, they might form expectancies about the results of the investigation and try to help . . . achieve those results by performing poorly on the pretest and well on the posttest. They would, thereby, introduce a new variable (1988: 34).

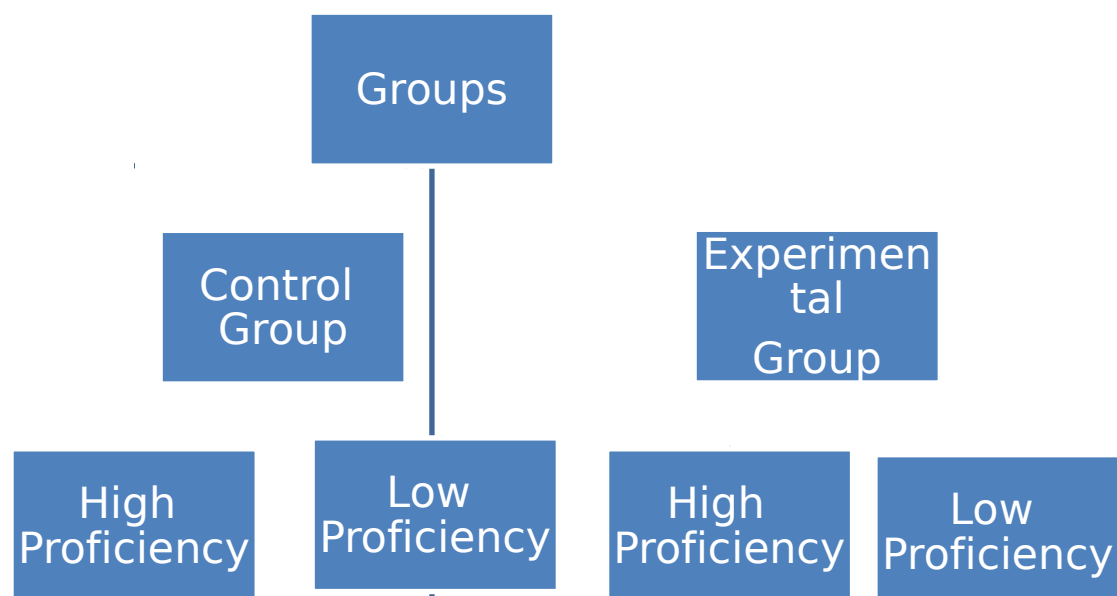
Table (1) Distribution of the sample in accordance with the gender:

Gender	No.	%
Male	50	39.4
Female	70	59.6
Total	120	100%

The experimental groups were comprised 60 students (40 low students, and 20 higher students). These groups received the pre-test, and after they had been introduced to the rendering and handling of the relative clauses they did the post-test. Their ages ranged from 17 to 19. They have generally come from public schools. They studied English for six years. Some started sometime earlier, particularly those who have come from

private schools such as those adopting a British system. They all received English classes at the College with an average of 3 hours a week.

In the normal course of the study the factors of age and gender were not viewed as influential in selecting the subjects. All the subjects have managed to attend all the training sessions. The graphic below represents the four groups that participated in this research and the way they were classified.



3.3 Instruments of data collection

3.3.1 The questionnaires

Questionnaires have obtained a rather undecided reputation as a research instrument. Although they can be very useful, designing a good questionnaire takes considerable effort and thinking. Two things that are not always around, it seems. Not surprisingly, we all have come across some, to put it mildly, terrible questionnaires. Sitting down for five minutes to write down a number of questions is, of course, unlikely to result in a brilliant questionnaire. Still for the untrained eye, it looks like a questionnaire and again another proof that they should not be trusted.

3.3. 1.1 Questionnaires and the present study

Questionnaires in the present research are used only with the classroom practitioners enquiring whether their students have been exposed to handling the relative clauses or any grammatical items contrastively. The

questionnaire used in the present study is not that long and requiring much writing as this will have the effect of making some tutors unwilling to respond authentically. Open-ended questions have especially been avoided as far as the present questionnaires are concerned for fear of making the answering process a bit tedious on the part of the respondents.

3.3.1.2 Composition writing

Writing a composition is a complex activity that includes the mechanics of writing, including handwriting (or keyboarding, using an adaptive device, etc.), spelling, and the basics of language knowledge (i.e., word morphology, syntax, and vocabulary). In addition it includes the following cognitive, meta-cognitive, self-regulatory, and motivational aspects.

In the present study, composition is mainly drawn upon as a tool of data collection. Before they have enrolled in college, students have done quite a huge number of compositions at the secondary schools. However, there is always the inadequacy of drawing their attention to applying their grammars to writing. So, the researcher does not expect them to come up with considerable amount to be used for analytical purposes.

To guarantee, that every student will take part of writing, numerous topics have been provided for the students to try. The following are some of the topics given:

1. How do you picture yourself four years from now?
2. How can you change the way you look?
3. An unforgettable dream.
4. Obstacles are what you see when you take your eyes off the goal.
5. What would happen if children ruled the world?

Students have been deliberately asked to use correct grammar and particularly relative pronouns, and organize their ideas into a coherent whole.

3.3.1.3 Multiple choice questions

Multiple choice test questions, also known as items, can be an effective and efficient way to assess learning outcomes. Multiple choice test items have several potential advantages:

- (i) **Versatility:** Multiple choice test items can be written to assess various levels of learning outcomes, from basic recall to application, analysis, and evaluation. Because students are choosing from a set of potential answers, however, there are obvious limits on what can be tested with multiple choice items. For example, they are not an effective way to test students' ability to organize thoughts or articulate explanations or creative ideas.
- (ii) **Reliability:** Reliability is defined as the degree to which a test consistently measures a learning outcome. Multiple choice test items are less susceptible to guessing than true/false questions, making them a more reliable means of assessment. The reliability is enhanced when the number of MC items focused on a single learning objective is increased. In addition, the objective scoring associated with multiple choice test items frees them from problems with scorer inconsistency that can plague scoring of essay questions.
- (iii) **Validity:** Validity is the degree to which a test measures the learning outcomes it purports to measure. Because students can typically answer a multiple choice item much more quickly than an essay question, tests based on multiple choice items can typically focus on a relatively broad representation of course material, thus increasing the validity of the assessment.

For all the above cited merits, the researcher has paid special attention to including multiple choice items as an effective tool for collecting data. Sudanese students are particularly used to such kind of questions that they can do it properly, to the effect that the desired goals are easily attained.

3.3.2 Research design

As far as the present study is concerned, three key sections are recognized, namely the pre-training, during the training and the post-training. The first phase (The pre-training) had a dual aim: first it was used to manage the pre-self-confidence questionnaire and the pre-tests to collect the data that would be compared to the post-test; and, second, it was the stage of the experiment in which the researcher introduced central information and practice to raise the subjects' self-confidence and willingness to participate in the investigation. To be able to judge the effect of the training on the proper use of the relative clauses both in English and Arabic by the subjects of the experimental groups, the instruments used in both parts were similar in form and requirements. These include:

1. Tutors' questionnaire
2. Interview (with students as a self-confidence strategy)
3. Composition writing
4. Multiple choice questions

3.4 Research strategies

The methodology to be pursued in the present research is for all intents and purposes a blend of what is known as:

1. Grounded theory
2. Case study
3. Triangulation
4. Saturation

3.4.1 Grounded theory

The methodology of grounded theory was developed by American sociologists Glaser and Strauss in 1967 to describe a new qualitative research method they used in their research *Awareness of Dying* in 1965. In this study, they adopted an investigative research method with no preconceived hypothesis and used continually comparative analysis of data. They believe that the theory obtained by this method is truly grounded in the data. For this reason they named the methodology "grounded theory" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The goal of the grounded theory approach is to generate a theory that

explains how an aspect of the social world “works”. The goal is to develop a theory that emerges from and is therefore connected to the very reality that the theory is developed to explain.

This theory puts emphasis on the importance of “developing theories on the basis of empirical research and gradually build up general theories that emerge from data.” (Denscombe, 2003: 110). This means that “researchers should engage themselves in fieldwork as the fundamental part of the work they should do.” Practically, this entails that “the researcher should undertake data collection from the field.” which has to be a continuing process.

The basic tenets of the theory are:

- a. Theories should be generated by a systematic analysis of the data.
- b. The selection of instances to be included in the research reflects the developing nature of the theory and cannot be predicted at the start.
- c. Researchers should start out with an “open mind”
- d. Theories should be useful at a practical level and meaningful to those on the ‘ground.

As far as data analysis is concerned, grounded theory separates things into their component parts (Denscombe, 2003: 119). This involves the study of complex things so as to identify their basic elements. Denscombe (ibid) states that Grounded Theory “calls on the researcher to discover the key components or general principles underlying a particular phenomenon so that these can be used to provide a clearer understanding of that thing.”

3.4.2 Grounded theory and the present research

This employs the basic tenets of the grounded theory:

- a. Grounded Theory is in every respect appropriate for the present study as long as the present study focuses on language learning in a specific setting – the classroom context.
- b. The issue of open-mindedness, which the theory in question stresses, will be adhered to upon collecting and analyzing the data.

c. The results of the study can be of great use and meaning to those “on the ground”. It will help enhance the learning outcomes of English language in the Sudanese context.

3.5 Case study

Gerring (2005: 5) defines the case study as “an *intensive study of a single unit for the purpose of understanding a larger class of (similar) units*” (italics and brackets in the original).

Denscombe (2003: 30-32) makes a number of points that illustrate the case study approach. He states that:

- a. The case study by focusing on one example clarifies the general by looking at the particular.
- b. It provides opportunities for in-depth study.
- c. It caters for naturalness because the research will inevitably use naturally occurring instance.

3.5.1 The present research and case study

What makes this approach relevant to the present research is the following:

1. The size of the demographics to be explored in this study is relatively vast (three classrooms of preparatory year students) which calls for a rigorous tool to handle it in order to come up with solid results.
2. Having a huge population can affect the quality of analysis as per findings. The researcher’s efforts will be distributed over enormous candidates, and which can negatively influence the process of data collection. So, case study helps narrow down the negative effect.
3. Each of the two groups is considered a case study on its own.

3.6 Triangulation

Validity, in qualitative research, -the present research is both qualitative and quantitative-refers to whether the findings of a study are true and certain—“true” in the sense that research findings accurately reflect the situation, and “certain” in the sense that research findings are supported by the evidence. Triangulation is a method used by qualitative researchers to check and establish validity in their studies by analyzing a research

question from multiple perspectives. Patton (2002) cautions that it is a common misconception that the goal of triangulation is to arrive at consistency across data sources or approaches; in fact, such inconsistencies may be likely given the relative strengths of different approaches. In Patton's view, these inconsistencies should not be seen as weakening the evidence, but should be viewed as an opportunity to uncover deeper meaning in the data.

3.6.1 Reliability

Joppe (2000:1) defines reliability as:

The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable.

Kirk and Miller (1986:41-42) identify three types of reliability referred to in quantitative research:

- the degree to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same
- the stability of a measurement over time; and
- the similarity of measurements within a given time period.

3.6.1.1 Reliability and the present research

The factor of reliability has been taken care of throughout the present study. This is largely confirmed by the strong statistical analysis pursued in the study, in that:

- SPSS package will be used to show the percentage of the tutors respond to the questionnaire as well as the students' use of the relative clauses.
- SPSS will also be used to test normality of data distribution.

3.7 Validity

Joppe (2000:1) provides the following explanation of what validity is in quantitative research:

Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research object? Researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others.

Wainer and Braun (1998) describe the validity in quantitative research as "construct validity". The construct is the original concept, notion, question or hypothesis that stipulates which data is to be collected and the way it is to be gathered. They also emphasize that quantitative researchers actively cause or shape the interplay between construct and data so as to confirm their investigation, usually by the application of a test or other process. In this sense, the involvement of the researchers in the research process would greatly reduce the validity of a test. This is why the task of evaluation is left to the class teachers and the school system.

3.7.1 Validity and the present research

First and foremost, validity is ensured by the overall design of the research. In addition, the data analysis will be used to ensure that the instruments will test what they are intended to test and nothing else. That is why the SPSS package and the Excel program are used for the analysis.

3.8 Saturation

Researchers commonly seek to collect data to explain a phenomenon of interest and then construct theories from the collected data. Theory construction takes place as the data are being collected. Saturation is the point in data collection when no new or relevant information emerges with respect to the newly constructed theory. Hence, a researcher looks at this as the point at which no more data need to be collected. When the theory appears to be robust, with no gaps or unexplained phenomena, saturation has been achieved and the resulting theory is more easily constructed.

Basically Saturation arises out of the Grounded Theory. It refers to the process and practice of the ongoing sampling and collection and analysis of data until no new patterns emerge.

Sandelowski (2008:875-876) points out that saturation occurs “when the researcher can assume that her/his emergent theory is adequately developed to fit any future data collected.” Although Grounded Theory and saturation relate primarily to qualitative data, Glaser (1978:6) observes that:

Grounded Theory method although uniquely suited to fieldwork and qualitative data, can be easily used as a general method of analysis with any form of data collection: survey, experiment, case study. Further, it can combine and integrate them. It transcends specific data collection methods.

As long as the current research is both qualitative and quantitative as regards data analysis, it then applies saturation to have solid results.

3.8.1 Applicability of saturation to the present study

In the present research saturation is employed to account for a variety of factors:

1. Data has been collected from diverse sources and by multiple instruments. (Questionnaire has been devised in a way that it will no longer allow for new single datum to come up-that is saturated)
2. Composition writing
3. Multiple-choice questions
4. Pre-tests and post-test were carefully designed
5. Statistical analysis of the pre-test and post-test have repeated in a way allowing for emerging patterns, using PSSP and Kolmogorov Smirnov-test (KS-tests). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (KS-test) tries to determine if two datasets differ significantly. The KS-test has the advantage of making no assumption about the distribution of data. (Technically speaking it is non-parametric and distribution free.)

3.9 Data collection instruments and procedures

The following instruments have been applied to collect data to inform the present study:

3.9.1 Interviews

Research differs in a number of aspects but they do have some commonalities. What do action research, evaluation research, ethnography, phenomenology and others have in common? One of the common aspects is the need to collect data. Data collection can be derived from a number of methods, which include interviews, focus groups, surveys, telephone interviews, field notes, taped social interaction or questionnaires (Heaton, 2004, p. 37).

Interviews are a systematic way of talking and listening to people and are another way to collect data from individuals through conversations. The researcher or the interviewer often uses open questions. Data is collected from the interviewee. There are many reasons to use interviews for collecting data and using it as a research instrument. Gray (2004, p. 214) has given the following reasons:

- There is a need to attain highly personalized data.
- There are opportunities required for probing.
- A good return rate is important.
- Respondents are not fluent in the native language of the country, or where they have difficulties with written language.

It is necessary for the researcher to prepare before the actual interview. The interview starts before the interview actually begins. This is the researcher's preparation stage. Once the interview is conducted the researcher needs to make sure that the respondents have:

- A clear idea of why *they* have been asked;
- Basic information about the purpose of the interview and the research project of which it is a part;
- Some idea of the probable length of the interview and that you would like to record it (explaining *why*);
- A clear idea of precisely where and when the interview will take place

Gillham (2000, p. 38).

3.9.2 Interviews and the present study

What makes interviews specifically valid for the present study is the fact the research seeks to account for the use of relative clauses, their types and whether the candidates have ever used or encountered them. A number of factors have to be taken into account in order for the success of the interview: The researcher ought to have the following skills and abilities

- An ability to listen
- An ability to be non-judgmental
- A good memory

In order to account for the factors stated above all the interviews have been recorded to facilitate reference and hence help with the analysis process. One important point to be reckoned with in this connection is that the type of interviews used with the population of this study is that what is commonly known as structured interviews. In a structured interview all the candidates have been given the same questions with the same wording and in the same sequence.

Bryman (2001 p. 107) explains structured interview entails:

... the administration of an interview schedule by an interviewer. The aim is for all interviewees to be given exactly the same context of questioning. This means that each respondent receives exactly the same interview stimulus as any other. The goal of this style of interview is to ensure that interviewees' replies can be aggregated ... Questions are usually very specific and very often the interviewee a fixed range of answers (this type of question is often called closed, closed ended, pre-coded, or fixed choice).

3.10 **Tutors' questionnaire**

Questionnaire sample

The samples of this study included 100 tutors from Sudan University of Science and Technology, Nilien University, Bahri University, Bahri University, University of Science and Technology

Table (3.1) shows tutors numbers and their distribution according to sex

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	60	60.0
Female	40	40.0
Total	100	100.0

Table (3-1) indicates that males respondents are more than females, that is 50% to 48%, while table (3-2) shows that 40% of the tutors had experience more than 10 years, 39% had teaching experience ranged between 6-10 years, and that only 18% had teaching experience between 1-5 years.

Table (3-2) shows tutors' years of experience

Teaching experience	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	18	18.0%
6-10 years	39	39.0%
More than 10 years	43	43.0%
Total	100	100.0%

3.3.2.3 Questionnaire setup

This questionnaire consists of 15 multiple statements divided into three parts. (see appendix).

- Part one: included 5 statements surveying tutors teaching of relative clauses in a contrastive manner, with Likert - 5 point scale: (always, often, sometimes,, rarely and never)
- Part two: include 5 statements surveying tutors' attitudes towards strict observation of comparing and contrasting relative

clauses in English and Arabic. Likert scale is also adopted in this part.

- Part three: included 5 statements surveying how often should tutors teach or help their students reflect on the differences and similarities of relative clauses in both languages in question.

3.3.2.4 Validity of questionnaire

The present research questionnaire has been validated by a jury consisting of 4 assistant professors and one associate professor, all specializing in English Language. They gave their opinions according to the following criteria:

- The clarity of the items and instruments
- Simplicity of the items and their relevance to the theme in question
- The language use to set up the questionnaire itself.

Some members of the jury suggested some modifications of certain items. Three items were deleted and replaced by other three suggested ones. The researcher took up their suggestions loyally and introduced the required modifications.

3.3.2.5 Reliability of the questionnaire

As far as statistics is concerned, the concept of reliability is taken to mean the consistency of a set of measurements often used to describe a process (here questionnaire). The split-half method is use in the resent research to test the reliability of the questionnaire. A measure of consistency where a questionnaire is splitted into two and score for each half of the questionnaire was compared with another. The questionnaire was distributed to 100 tutors at three universities as was already stated in this study. The coefficient correlation formula was used to calculate the correlation.

The researcher calculates the reliability coefficient of the scale used in the questionnaire by alpha equation and the results were as follows:

Table (1) Reliability and Validity:

Validity Coefficient	Reliability Coefficient
0.88	0.77

$$Validity = \sqrt{Reliability}$$

The results in the table above show that all reliability and validity coefficients for the questionnaire are greater than (50%) and close to the one. This indicates that the questionnaire is characterized by high reliability and validity, and makes statistical analysis acceptable.

3.4 Classroom observation

There is now strong empirical evidence regarding a variety of teaching practices that can, and should, be the focus of classroom observations intended to measure and enhance teacher performance which then reflected on his students' performance. A key ingredient of any classroom or school environment, with regard to learning and development, is the nature and quality of interaction between the teacher and students. Although other factors, such as curriculum, teacher planning, and parent involvement, are important – it is students' daily experiences in the classroom, with teachers and peers, that have the greatest influence on how much they are able to learn.

Classroom observation is particularly relevant to this present research for varied reasons:

- The nature of this study is greatly empirical in the sense that much information and data directly come from practical situations. Inside the classroom the practitioner has the perfect opportunity to detect and register his students' difficulties and attempts with language use and how they try to realize their objectives.
- Working in a classroom room setting can to some extent be viewed as natural compared with tests and interviews and hence the types of faults students make can be said to be natural and truly account for the type of ailment they undergo and needs to be remedied.

- Classroom observation, by virtue of being long and varied, allows the practitioner to detect a wide range of types of uses of the relative clauses in both languages under investigation. This entails that the teacher has to be sensitive and keeps a rigorous reliable record.

3.5 Statistical methods employed in the present study

To achieve the objectives of the study and to verify hypotheses, statistical methods were used the following:

- 1 - Charts.
- 2 - Frequency distribution of the answers.
- 3 - Percentages.
- 4 - Alpha equation, to calculate the reliability coefficient.
- 5 - Median.
- 6 - Chi-square test for the significance of differences between the answers.

To further maintain control over the results and get them as accurate as possible the researcher used SPSS statistical software.

3.6 Pilot study

Piloting phase is very essential for the success of any research. Bell (1993) points out that all data gathering instruments should have to be piloted to test how long it takes recipients to complete them, to check that all questions and instructions are clear and enable them to remove any item which does not produce usable data.

Prior to actually conducting the present study, the researcher had all the questions in the instruments piloted with a small sample of subjects (30 students, 10 teachers). This pilot phase was done so as to make sure that the selected questions will provide the required information and to revise and delete any question which may prove to be confusing or ambiguous. The teachers' questionnaire was agreed upon by all subjects.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected by the instruments discussed in chapter three. It will also discuss the results of the analyses with the purpose of answering the research questions and testing the hypotheses. The data informing the present study can be categorized into two types:

- Input data
- Intake data

4.1 Input data

The input data is connected with the different types use and translation of the relative pronouns as performed by the participant. This also includes

1. Data from the class observation during the semester observed and registered by the tutor of his students' behavior towards the employment or use of the relative pronouns in response to questions they were presented with during classes.
2. Tutors response to the questionnaire
3. Students' performance over the tests administered **translation** tests to collect data. The tests, besides translation included: diagnostic, where two tests were administered, namely:
 - (i) composition and,
 - (ii) multiple-choice questions

The present research as it was already mentioned uses both strategies of qualitative and quantitative research. Employing the two techniques can reciprocally have the effect of strengthening and supporting the outcome of each other.

4.2 Instrumentation of data collection

4.2.1 Diagnostic test

Each of the subjects was first given a 20 -item-multiple-choice grammar test relating to relative clauses in order to obtain learners' receptive knowledge about English relative clauses. It is also intended to assess the

overall level of the students prior embarking in any kind of experimentation. Test items, including relative clause structures containing relative pronouns functioning as the subject, object, the object of a preposition, and possessive, were selected from the *Practical English Usage* by Michael Swan (1999). In addition, items involving the reduction of the relative clauses and the use of *where* and *when* in relative clauses were included. After the grammar test, subjects were asked to write a composition in order to obtain information concerning learners' productive knowledge of the English relative clauses. Subjects were given 80 minutes to finish both tasks.

4.2.2 Composition data

As far as the composition test is concerned, students have totally avoided using relative clauses in a way that reflects their poor knowledge of the clauses. Some have managed to use it properly but insufficiently. This inadequacy in the students' writing is attributable to the fact that relative clauses are only introduced and used in grammar classes and that teachers hardly think of linking their grammar classes with writing.

4.2.3 Composition data analysis

Composition data have been analyzed in terms of:

1. The total number of relative clauses in each pattern, and
2. The type of errors produced in each pattern of relative clauses

Table (3) total number of relative clauses in the participants' compositions (60 participants)

The number of relative clauses in a composition	0	1	2	3	4	5
Total number of subjects	45	7	4	2	1	1
%	75%	11.6%				

As shown in table (3) percentages reflect the students' poor performance on the composition test. More than two thirds of the participants have not produced a single relative clause in their compositions a matter which can apparently account for their inadequate knowledge or perhaps their complete ignorance of the relative clauses.

Table (4) Classification of the type of relative clause produced in compositions

No	Items		Total N0. Of Relative Clauses	Total No. of Correct Relative Clauses	Total No of Incorrect Relative Clauses
1	Restrictive Clauses	Relative	15	4	11
2	Non-restrictive Clauses	Relative	10	3	7
3	Sentential Clauses	Relative	3	2	1
TOTAL			28	9	19

Table (4) is more specific as to the type of the clauses produced by students in their compositions. Judging by the items cited above in the table participant's knowledge of sentential is immensely poor. Even those who could make it and produced two or one were not technically informed of the difference between a sentential and a non-restrictive relative clause. Table (1) the total number of relative clauses in students' compositions

The total number of relative clauses in a composition		0	1	2	3	4	5
Total number of subjects (%)		20	3	2	1	2	2
		33.3	50	3.3	1.4	3.3	3.3
		%	%	%	%	%	%

Table (2) Classification of the types of relative clauses produced in composition

Function of antecedent (Matrix position)	Function of relative pronoun	Total number of RC	Total number of correct RC
--	------------------------------	--------------------	----------------------------

Subject	Subject	3	1
Subject	Object	23	13
Object	Subject	65	18
Object	Object	92	41
Object	Object preposition	4	2
Object	Gen	2	0

4.2.3 Multiple-choice test data

Students' performance on multiple-choice is far better than that of the composition because of the excessive training they did at the secondary schools. Almost all classroom practitioners put greater emphasis on teaching grammar explicitly. Hence, students' have managed to score higher marks on types of questions as multiple-choice questions. Table (3) indicates how positively students were able to perform on this test.

Table (3) analysis of students' performance in the multiple-choice test

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
RC	Thos	Sub	sub	sub	wher	sub	sub	sub	sub
type	e				e				
	who								
Accura	91.1	65.	56.3	37.4	85.8	66.3	88.6	85.8	54.7
cy rate		6							
%									

4.3 Validity of the diagnostic test

Odlin (1990) states that validity of a test arises out of what it seeks to measure. In other words, validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what is intends to be measure. There are many types of validity, this study used referee validity besides two types of statistical validity to evaluate the instrument validity.

- (i) **The Referee Validity :** The test, prior to application, was handed over to a panel of expertise in English language and methodology at the English Department, University of Science and Technology, to mention experienced linguists in Arabic

language. The original tests have actually undergone significant alterations in response to the panel's suggestion.

- (i) **Internal Validity:** The internal validity of the test is the first statistical test that used to test the validity of the test. It is measured by a inspection sample, which consisted of 20 tests through measuring the correlation coefficients between each question in one field and the whole filed.

4.4 Pre-test

To attain the goals of the study, the researcher designed a pre-test of translation, which is based on the results of the diagnostic test . The test consisted of (60) sentences that were divided into two main parts; amongst the high and low level students. The first part was the English ones (30) sentences, and the subjects of the study were asked to translate them from English into Arabic. Those sentences contained English relative clauses in three domains; defining relative clauses, non-defining relative clauses and sentential relative clauses. The second part of the test was the Arabic relative clauses (30) sentences that addressed two domains; defining relative clauses and non-defining relative clauses.

The entire test comprised five domains, and each one of the five domains was represented by different number of sentences. The items of the test were classified as follows:

1. Defining relative clauses (English)
2. Non-defining relative clauses (English)
3. Sentential relative clauses (English)
4. Defining relative clauses (Arabic)
5. Non-defining relative clauses (Arabic)

The entire sentences in English and Arabic were extracted from books mainly *Practical English Usage*, by *Michael Swan*, articles, educational websites and mono and bilingual dictionaries. Upon designing the pre-test, the divisions of relative clauses in some Arabic and English references were examined. *Practical English Usage*" and " *Alnahw A lwafi*" were examples of such resources. The divisions of relative clauses identified in the test were the most common in most references. Then the test was handed to 5 referees to judge its appropriateness and validity for the purposes of the. Their recommendations and suggestions were taken into consideration, and then the test was administered to 60 students to check

its statistical validity and reliability. The subjects were given enough time to perform the translation task, and they were allowed to use dictionaries or ask about any difficult word they faced. Also the subjects of the study were given one hour as an allotted time for their translation task and it was their lectures.

4.2.1 View of quantitative data collection

The main purpose of the quantitative data analysis is to show the percentages of errors made by the sample used in this research, who were first-year university students of the University of Science and Technology (senior students) at the Department of English/ Faculty of Chemical Engineering. In addition, the quantitative analysis paves the way for the qualitative one which follows in this chapter. The rationale for the employment of such a technique as the qualitative data analysis is to describe the errors made by the sample used in this research, identify the reasons for such errors, and suggest some remedial solutions for them. It is important to note that the errors and results of the resent research are restricted to the data collected and analyzed from the performance of first year students, mainly from the sample used in the present research during the academic year 2011-2012. Again, the researcher kept sizable records of the students' mistakes which occurred during classes as part of the researcher's classroom observation.

It is very much important to note that prior to conducting any work of analysis of the students' mistakes over the translation of the relative clauses from English into Arabic and vice versa, that all types of errors other than those relating to relative clauses have not been taken care of. Such errors as manifested in the inappropriate use the tenses, word order, and punctuation marks, and the like.

4.2 Quantifying and analyzing collected data

"....a quantitative procedure...serves to give some weight to a qualitative judgment. ...the quantitative aspect is mainly of importance in documenting borderline failures; passing or failing candidates are generally identifiable on a first reading." Campbell (1968:169)

This indicates that validity and reliability of empirical research are enormously measured against the quantification of the analyzed data.

In the present study the number of the students has amounted to 120 as already stated.

The criterion to be adopted in the present study in relation to data collection has been a dichotomous criterion comprising the following elements for the assessment of the quality of the translation:

- (i) satisfactory, (correct)
- (ii) incorrect

Though some questions left unanswered or unattempted, they constitute a very insignificant portion. Thus this element has not been considered as part of the overall criterion.

Table (1) Criteria of translation evaluation

The criterion	Definition
Satisfactory	Is the type of rendering that conveys a clear equivalent (meaning) in the target language to that of the source language with no linguistic (grammatical) errors.
Incorrect	The one that fails to convey a correct equivalent (meaning) in the target language to that of the original of the source language and/or includes linguistic (grammatical) error(s)

Kenny (2009) roughly defines equivalence as “a relationship between two texts: a source text (ST) and a target text (TT). Equivalence relationships are also said to hold between parts of STs and TTs. In many cases, it is the relationship that allows the TT to be considered a translation of the ST in the first place.”

Some students have managed to translate some constructions quite satisfactory, however they have not used relative clause. They successfully employed other syntactic structures to convey the intended meaning of the relative clause. Though such rendering is correct, was not taken into consideration as the prime goal is the use and translation of the

relative clauses. Examples of the constructions in which the relative clauses were left out in rendering are the following:

1. He showed me a photo **that** saddened me.
عرض على صورة احزنتنى
2. It is a family of eight children, all of **whom** are studying music.
إنها عائلة من ثمانية أطفال يدرسون الموسيقى

4.3 Quantitative data analysis

The first texts of (Test One) given to students of the experimental group who were categorized into high-level as opposed to low -level have been handled differently. Some were translated satisfactorily (correct), other mistranslated, while a few were unattempted. As many as twenty texts were given to high-level ones and the same texts were given to the low-level group. The texts were to be translated from English into Arabic. Each text consists of one statement (sentence) labelled as for example: text one, text two etc...

Table (2) (Test One) shows English Arabic translation by high -level group:

The text/ Relative clause	Satisfac	Incor	%	Unatt	%
	tory. T	rect		empte	
				d	
Text (1) Relative clause one	7	12		4	
Text (2) Relative clause two	5	9		5	
Text (3) Relative clause three					
Text (4) Relative clause four					
Text (5) Relative clause five					
Text (6) Relative clause six					
Text (7) Relative clause seven					
Text (8) Relative clause eight					
Text (9) Relative clause nine					

Text (10) Relative clause ten
Text (11) Relative clause
eleven
Text (12) Relative clause
twelve
Text (13) Relative clause
thirteen
Text (14) Relative clause
fourteen
Text (15) Relative clause
fifteen
Text (16) Relative clause
sixteen
Text (17) Relative clause
seventeen
Text (18) Relative clause
eighteen
Text (19) Relative clause
nineteen

4.4 Analyzing the questionnaire

As far as this part is concerned, the questionnaire comprises three sections. The first part addresses the problems associated with English language program followed at universities. In almost all Sudanese universities, the kind of syllabus used with first year students is designed by one of the tutors. Mostly it is a collection of heavily fragmented topics that can hardly be called syllabus. The second part is about the students whereas the third is about the tutors.

The questionnaire contains (15) chunks. Respondents are requested to answer along the lines of Likert scale as traditionally questionnaires are designed. on four hypotheses as follows:

- The first hypothesis includes the chunks ranging from 1 to 5
- The second hypothesis from 6 to 10

- The third hypothesis from 11 to 15

4.4.1 Statistical methods

To realize the goals set for the study and to validate hypotheses, the following statistical methods have been employed:

- Charts.
- Frequency distribution of the answers
- Percentages.
- Alpha equation, to calculate the reliability coefficient.
- Median.
- Chi-square test for the significance of differences between the answers.

To further confirm the obtained results and check their accuracy the researcher used SPSS statistical software package.

Table (4) The first chunk, which addresses the syllabus.

No	Items	Frequency and percentages				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Relativization concept is not adequately introduced and explained in preparatory year English language program.	61 50.8%	36 30%	3 2.5%	9 7.5%	11 9.2%
2	The syllabus presents examples of relative clauses that do not reflect authentic communicative	54 45%	34 28.3%	8 6.7%	18 15%	6 5.0%

	language.					
3	Even if the examples of relative clauses contained in the syllabus were numerous, they do not enrich students' grammatical repertoire.	66 55%	37 30.8%	9 7.5%	4 3.6%	4 3.6%
4	Examples of relative clauses were not combined in universal topics selected from a wide variety of material to account for the language cultural dimension.	57 47.5%	37 30.8%	8 6.7%	13 10.8%	5 4.7%
5	Generally, the course lacks an in-depth treatment of grammar with clear presentations followed by extensive practice activities.	60 50%	36 30%	11 9.2%	10 8.3%	3 2.5%
Hypothesis		298 49.7%	180 30%	39 6.5%	54 9.0%	29 4.8%

As shown in table (4.) item (1) the majority of the respondents (50.8%) strongly agree that Relativization concept is not adequately introduced and explained in preparatory year English language program, (30%) agree, (2.5%) neutral, (7.5%) disagree, while 9.2% shown to be strongly disagree.

Judging by the percentage as shown above, the tutors are not pleased with the situation of the Relativization across the syllabus or the English program.

Item (2) shows that the greater part of the respondents (45%) do strongly agree that the syllabus presents examples of relative clauses that do not reflect authentic communicative language. They are well aware that the language used make illustration is not at all a communicative one that you can be used in everyday life. Hence, such kind of medium or language is difficult for the students to commit to memory to use in authentic situations. Again, (28.3%) of the respondents agree, while (6.7%) showed a neutral attitude, and that (15%) disagree while (5%) do strongly disagree.

As far as the third item is concerned, it is apparent that the entire respondents (55%) strongly agree that Even if the examples of relative clauses contained in the syllabus were numerous, they do not enrich students' grammatical repertoire. The fact that having is abundant examples, but they were not carefully selected and nicely presented their effect will probably be very restricted or limited. Much ado without anything. (30.8%) do agree further confirming the first slot, (7.5%) are neutral, which can also be viewed as supporting the first and second options. The following two options (3.3%) disagree and (3.4%) strongly disagree can be thought of as insignificant.

As for item (4) it is noticeable that the mainstream of the respondents (47.5%) strongly agree that Examples of relative clauses were not combined in universal topics selected from a wide variety of material to account for the language cultural dimension. This situation of cultural distance is not restricted to the Sudan, it holds true across the Arab world that they hardly think of the question of culture. The researcher worked for

a time there in Saudi Arabia and taught different syllabuses. The researcher observed that all illustrations in English language syllabuses that do not reconcile with local culture were crossed out. This sad fact is attributable to lack of awareness of the role culture plays in language learning. (30.8%) agree which means that the first element substantially reinforced, and (6.7%) are neutral only to additionally augment the first and second choice. (10.8%) disagree, and that (4.7%) strongly disagree. As regard item (5) the majority of the respondents (50%) strongly agree that in broad general terms, the course lacks an in-depth treatment of grammar with clear presentations followed by extensive practice activities. This strong percentage accounts for the sole fact that the majority of the tutors are not satisfied with the syllabus. It also reflects the fact that the English program needs to be updated with clear presentations, self-check exercises as shown in some international syllabuses "*Grammar Spot*", and detailed explanations in the grammar reference followed by extensive practice activities. (30%) do agree substantiating the percentage shown in first option, while (9.2%) are neutral which also reinforces the first and second choices. (8.3%) disagree and (2.5%) strongly disagree, however the last two options can be considered inconsequential in relation to the first three choices.

Figure (4): Percentages distribution of the first hypothesis phrases:

Table (4.1): Chi-square test results:

Trend	Median	P-value	Chi-square value	Items	No
To strongly agree	5	0.000	97.833	Relativization concept is not adequately	1

				introduced and explained in preparatory year English language program.	
To agree	4	0.000	67.333	The syllabus presents examples of relative clauses that do not reflect authentic communicative language.	2
To strongly agree	5	0.000	123.250	Even if the examples of relative clauses contained in the syllabus were numerous, they do not enrich students' grammatical repertoire.	3
To agree	4	0.000	83.167	Examples of relative clauses were not combined in universal topics selected from a wide variety of material to account for the language cultural dimension.	4
To strongly agree	5	0.000	93.583	.Generally, the course lacks an in-depth	5

				treatment of grammar with clear presentations followed by extensive practice activities.	
To agree	4	0.000	454.017	Hypothesis	

From the tables above:

- The value of chi-square for the first item is (97.833) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and still referring to the table (4.1), this indicates that the difference are great as reflected in level (5%) the thing which safely leads to saying that the majority is in favor of the option “strongly agree”, which further solidifies the hypotheses of the present research.
- The value of chi-square for the second item is (67.333) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and with reference to table (4.1) that value indicates that the positive attitude is apparently towards “agree”.
- The value of chi-square for the third item is (123.250) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and likewise with reference to table (4.1) it indicates beyond doubt that there are significant differences at the level (5%) between answers of study and the respondents are strongly in favor of “strongly agree”.
- The value of chi-square for the fourth item is (83.167) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and again as regards table (4.1) this shows that there are considerable variations at the level (5%) in relation to the choices which conspicuously favors the option “agree”.

- The value of chi-square for the fifth phrase is (93.583) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05), and owing to table (4.1), this indicates that there are significant differences at the level (5%) made by respondents and in favor of “strongly agree”.
- The value of chi-square for all items in the first hypothesis is (454.017), with (p-value =0.000 < 0.05) and according to table (4.1) o and figure (4), this indicates that there are noteworthy variations at the level (5%) in relation to the overall choices and in favor of “agree”.

It is with great emphasis can safely be said that the figures and p-values indicate beyond doubt that the first item or hypothesis which stipulates that “relativization concept is not adequately introduced and explained in preparatory year English language program”, has been shown to be in favor of “strongly agree”

Table (4.2) Part two on tutors:

FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGES						
No.	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6	Tutors teaching preparatory year students do not have enough training to handle the material effectively	68 56.7%	29 24.2%	12 10%	4 3.3%	7 5.8%
7	Tutors do not have enough exposure to staff development programs which aims at developing their professional career.	61 50.8%	37 30.8%	3 2.5%	11 9.2%	8 6.7%
8	To Enrich their teaching career,	65 54.2%	18 15%	5 4.2%	16 13.3%	16 13.3%

	English language tutors have to be sent abroad to live in an English-speaking community.					
9	The prospect of the overall deterioration, namely social, political and financial made tutors apathetic to training.	64 53.3%	35 29.2%	3 2.5%	13 10.8%	5 4.2%
10	Students' poor abilities and indifference to learning has in general, negatively affected tutors.	84 70%	24 20%	5 4.2%	2 1.7%	5 4.2%
HYPOTHESES		342 57%	143 23.8%	28 4.7%	46 7.7%	41 6.8%

As shown above in table (4.2) (item 6) the majority of the respondents (56.7%) strongly agree that tutors teaching preparatory year students do not have enough training to handle the material effectively, (24.3) agree whereas (10%) remained neutral, (3.4%) disagree and (5.8%) strongly disagree with the statement. This result reflects a sad situation that the teaching of English at preparatory year is handed over to less proficient agents which aggravates the already deteriorating situation even more. Educational polices at different universities should consider seriously the question of the English language which has become a lingua franca and the first language science and learning.

Item (7) shows that the greater parts of the respondents have opted for (50.8%) strongly agree that as long as the problem is partly brought about by lack of training and that tutors do not have enough exposure to staff

development programs which aims at developing their professional career, something must be done to improve that unwelcoming reality. (30.8%) agree, (2.5%) neutral, (9.2%) disagree, while (6.7%) of the respondents of strongly disagree.

As far as item (8) is concerned it is understandable that the majority of the respondents have had clear preference for (54.2%) and hence strongly agree that to Enrich their teaching career, English language tutors have to be sent abroad to live in an English –speaking community.

(15%) agree (4.2%) neutral, (13.3%) disagree and the same percentage strongly favors “agree”.

This result indicates that swap the situation for better the old policies of staff training at western universities have to be adhered to again. Many funds are actually funneled into the internal training channels without producing the desired effect. The situation could have improved if the funds have been transferred in favor of external training.

As for item (9) it is clear that the majority of the respondents (53.3%) strongly agree that the prospect of the overall deterioration, namely social, political and financial made tutors apathetic to training. Though the said hypothesis is not solid enough it is partly true that unless their basic needs of life amenities are attended to, tutors are not likely to be at relaxed situation in their classroom setting. (29.2%) agree (2.5%) neutral (10.8%) disagree, and (4.2%) strongly disagree with the said item.

This result shows that the above cited factors ought to be taken into consideration should the teaching situation improve.

As regards item (10) the bulk of the respondents have opted for strongly agree, that is (70%) that Students’ poor abilities and indifference to learning has in general, negatively affected tutors. Undoubtedly, handling indifferent students is immensely problematic and can at times become very depressing. Tutors will be totally unable to provide sorts of remedies. (20%) agree, (1.6%) disagree, (4.2%) neutral and the same percentage strongly disagree with the cited item.

The value of chi-square for all the items in the second hypothesis is (583.283), with (p-value = 0.000 < 0.05), and with reference to table (4.2)

and figure (4.2.1), this indicates that there is significant difference at the level (5%) between the choices the respondents opted for towards strongly agree. This situation further confirms the strength of the hypotheses. The figure (4.2.1) below is drawn to show the result in further practical levels.

Table (4.3) Part three on students:

FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES							
No	Item	Strongl y agree	Agree	Neutra l	Disagre e	Strongl y disagree e	
11	Students come to university with dreadfully poor standards of English with no room for improvement, whatsoever, due to bad teaching at secondary schools.	84 70%	21 17.5%	4 3.3%	5 4.2%	6 5.0%	
12	The prospect of an unwelcoming future particularly unemployment has further weakened the students' spirits and desire to learn.	71 59.2%	38 31.7%	5 4.2%	5 4.2%	1 0.8%	
13	Use of Arabic as medium of instruction at Sudanese	80 66.7%	31 25.8%	4 3.3%	2 1.7%	3 2.5%	

	universities has had the effect of making students indifferent to learning English.					
14	learning environment at university is not hospitable to help students practice their English language	74 61.7%	38 31.7%	3 2.5%	3 2.5%	2 1.7%
15	Broadly speaking, students are not good independent learners	60 50%	34 28.3%	17 14.2%	2 1.7%	7 5.8%
HYPOTHESES		369 61.5%	162 27%	33 5.5%	17 2.8%	19 3.2%

As shown in table (4.3) item (11) the majority of the respondents opted for (70%) strongly agree which confirms the hypothesis that preparatory year students come to university with dreadfully poor standards of English with no room for improvement, whatsoever, due to bad teaching at secondary schools. (17.5%) agree, (3.3%) neutral, (4.2%) disagree, whereas (5%) strongly disagree with the said item. This situation calls for quick remedy, namely teacher training at the secondary schools.

As far as item (12) is concerned the majority of the respondents have chosen the slot (59.25%) strongly agree that the prospect of an unwelcoming future particularly unemployment has further weakened the students' spirits and desire to learn. Though this parameter is not that strong, it generated many voices and the majority of respondents believed it to be one of the strongest reasons behind the worsening situations as

seen from their option for strongly agree. (31.7%) agree, (4.2%) neutral, the same percentage ticked disagree whereas only (0.8%) strongly disagree.

Item (13) reflects that the majority of the respondents (66.7%) strongly agree that the use of Arabic as medium of instruction at Sudanese universities has had the effect of making students indifferent to learning English. (25.8%) agree, (3.3%) neutral, (1.7%) disagree and (2.5%) strongly disagree. The problem of Arabicsation has been drastically felt only recently. English was the medium of instruction at the secondary schools and universities. However, after it ceased to be the language of teaching at the secondary schools, the standards started to lower quite significantly. The problem is to a greater extent connected with the intermediate or primary schools, too. In the late 1980s teacher training for intermediate school teachers has come to a halt as a number of universities has been opened. However, these universities have failed to give the strong training dose previously administered by teacher training institutes.

In connection with item (14) it is obvious that the majority of the subjects (61.7%) strongly agree that learning environment at university is not hospitable to help students practice their English language. (31.7%) agree, (2.5%) neutral, the same percentage goes for disagree, while (1.7%) strongly disagree with the said item. This problem can be solved through what is currently known as the English language clubs, where students are provided the chance to practice their English with their peers in a fairly welcoming atmosphere.

As long as item (15) is concerned we can see that the majority of the respondents (50%) strongly agree that broadly speaking, students are not good independent learners (28.3%) agree, (14.2%) neutral, (1.7%) disagree whereas (5.8%) strongly disagree. Despite pleasant situation provided by modern technology where tools of learning are accessible, students showed no signs of benefiting the said situation. Even if they had the chance to attend Western movies in English, they would never link that good situation with learning. They have at home lots of very advanced

gadgets which can positively be used as tools for learning; however, they use them as time wasting tools.

Figure (4.2.2): Percentage distribution of the third part on the students:

Table (4.4) Table (4-7): Chi-square test results:

Trend	Median	P-value	Chi-square value	Phrases	No
To strongly agree	5	0.000	195.583	Inclusion of literature books within the syllabus affects positively the students' speaking ability.	1
To strongly agree	5	0.000	152.333	Literature books enrich the students' vocabulary which improves oral performance.	2
To strongly agree	5	0.000	187.917	Literature books contain enjoyable stories which encourage the students to read eagerly.	3
To strongly agree	5	0.000	169.250	Literature books enable students to use the words contextually, cohesively and coherently.	4
To strongly agree	5	0.000	92.417	Literature books expose students to various target language communicative situations.	5
To strongly agree	5	0.000	767.867	Hypothesis	

From the table above:

- The value of chi-square for the first item is (195.583) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and with reference to table (4-4), this indicates that there is significant differences at the level (5%) between respondents choices in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the second item is (152.333) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and owing to o table (4-4), this indicates that there is a noteworthy divergence at the level (5%) in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the third item is (187.917) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and as regards table (4-4), this reflects that there are significant variations at the level (5%) favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fourth item is (169.250) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and in relation to table (4-4), this shows that there are significant differences at the level (5%) in favor of strongly agree.
- The value of chi-square for the fifth item is (92.417) with (p-value=0.000 < 0.05) and depending on the table (4-4), this indicates that there is a significant disparity at the level (5%) in favor of strongly agree.

The value of chi-square for all the items in the third hypothesis is (767.867), with (p-value =0.000 < 0.05) and as regards table (4.4) and figure (4.2.3), this indicates that there is a significant dissimilarity at the level (5%) in favor of strongly agree.

It follows from that analysis and figures that reconsidering the situation of the students in any educational reform particularly in connection with improvement of English language syllabuses is of very enormous importance.

Chapter Five

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data collected by the different tools adopted in the study. It will also discuss the results of the analysis with the purpose of answering the research questions and testing the

hypotheses. Judging by the statistical analysis indicated in the previous chapter all the findings are in favor of the hypotheses.

The conventional dichotomy employed for data classification is adopted here, too

- Input data
- Output data

The input data is concerned with the instruments used by the researcher to collect data, namely the questionnaire, composition writing, multiple choice questions and translation among others. The output is then the results derived from the participant's performance or reaction to the input.

As it was stated earlier in the present chapter will demonstrate the conclusion the researcher has arrived at, and will also make suggestions for further studies to be conducted on the said field patch up the gaps left by the present research. Presumably, there are always in any study aspects that would definitely, escape the researchers, notice and would hence go unattended to judging by the overall treatments and statistical analysis conducted on the two previous chapters, the question of relativization needs to seriously taken into consideration when designing preparatory English Language program. The present situation reflects total absence of rigorous handling of the issue in question.

Reviewing a number of syllabuses employed across the different Sudanese universities, the sections devoted to discussing relativization are dreadfully poor. Very few tutors if any draw the student's attention to the equivalent in Arabic. The question of handling relativization through the medium of translation from Arabic into English and vice versa is essential due to the fact of the great disparity involved in the two systems.

One of the dualities involved Arabic relativization. This has proved to be so problematic to many students when they tried to render sentences from Arabic into English.

As far as the experimentation and data collection instruments are concerned, the problem was shown to be multifaceted including very sensitive element as teacher training. On basis of the questionnaire

passed to tutors, quite a good number of respondents agreed that teaching at the preparatory level is assigned to tutors who have barely received any kind of training to handle the English program effectively. Training will continue to pose the drastic plight to the teaching operation, as even when tutors are involved in any in-service training course, the syllabus is heavily theoretical and academic and hardly pedagogical .

At this juncture, it would be greatly advisable that all those expected to be entrusted with the teaching of the preparatory program be given an adequate dose of training in handling the syllabus .An exposure to training programs as TKT can have a positive effect on the overall teaching operation.

Prospective tutors should also be given a thorough demo on the syllabus and how it can be best presented and handled draining their attention to manipulating specific components such as relativization in a way that enhances their students understanding of the subject.

A kind of peer teaching can also be much effective if attended by some senior veteran lecturers to help iron out the most important elements pertaining to the teaching and the contents of the syllabus as regards relativization. Such kinds of friendly sessions will also have the effect of provoking interesting ideas and bringing about much admirable insights. This will all help improve the syllabus itself as the weaknesses will be noted down to be rectified in the coming versions of the syllabus. Some the attendees have of course taken part in designing the syllabus.

One of the hypotheses the current study seeks to explore is the whether relativization can be handled along contrastive study lines involving the element of translation to clarify the points of difficulty found in the two languages in questions.

The researcher has observed that the performance of the experiment group has improved to a large extent after receiving thorough treatment of relativization through translation. Almost all satisfactory responses garnered in the study have been produced by those who trained to translating relative clauses before taking the proper test. It follows from

that translation can play a central role in bridging the gap created by the sheer disparity observed to exist amongst the two languages.

The issue of translation reflected a significant fact that some of the students confused the plural with dual aspects of relativization in Arabic.

Example of ams ? ana/:qa:baltu walda:nil la a:ni darasu:ma? This reflects that some the weaknesses are chronic of fossilized dating to secondary and basic schools .Such kind of problem has been encountered across the study which only entails that the origin of the crisis goes to stages of education before university level. Indeed, it is not only the relativization that is badly affected by the deteriorating factors, but all other parts of speech. Therefore, it would be greatly useful if a number of studies are to be conducted on the nouns, adjectives and so on along contrastive lines with the inclusion of translation.

Student's grasp of Arabic relative clauses has considerably improved after they have been exposed to using translation to handle statements from both languages. As already stated, the possessive relative pronoun "whose" is present in English but does not exist in Arabic. Therefore, it lacks a direct equivalent in Arabic. The need of a direct correspondent and the differences between English and Arabic in terms of the possessive relative pronoun presented some difficulties to students when translating relative clauses that include whose. Such difficulty could have been avoided by studying contrastive linguistics before doing translating exercises.

"The detective is very clever. He met the boy and the girl whose father was killed and within twenty four hours he could know who the murderer was "

Some of the students translated the above sentence as follows:

It is clear from the above example and lots others at the appendices that a rigorous contrastive course in all the parts of speech is required should the tutors be able do their teaching job properly. The importance translation in imparting knowledge particularly in relation to languages that are immensely distant is undoubtedly great. Now a number of English

language teaching courses include an element of translation to help students understand those parts perfectly well,

5.1 Summary of findings and Recommendations

The research has called attention to the following findings:

- 1) Including an element of translation in handling structural and grammatical elements least of relativization is essential and highly required.
- 2) Contrastive analysis theory should not be ignored when designing preparatory year English language program.
- 3) Tutors entrusted with the teaching operation at the preparatory level should be exposed to a good dose of –crash course –training with the intention of drawing their attention to the crucial points to be taken care of through the teaching process. They should also be sent abroad to live and study for a time in an English speaking community for what is generally known as immersion learning. This will both have the effect of improving their grasp of the English language and broadening their scope of world knowledge.
- 4) Students should be trained to detect the differences and similarities between their L1 and L2 as this will help them get the most out of the English language course.
- 5) Updating the English language program not to ignore personalizing the practice tasks, whenever possible, as this will make the language and structures more memorable.
- 6) Writing activities should be designed in a way that reinforces correct language use.
- 7) The syllabus layout should be attractive text, well chosen that suit students age interests. This will make the effective teaching and effective learning. Contemporary feel to the teaching material is sure to hold the interest of learners and prevents boredom and indifference to learning.

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APPENDIX(1)
Sudan University of Science and Technology
College of Graduate Studies and Scientific Research
College of Languages

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear teacher:

In this study, the researcher seeks your opinions towards the teaching of relative pronouns through translation from English into Arabic and vice versa. The researcher would be grateful if you could give a hand by taking a short time to complete this questionnaire. Remember, there is no one correct answer. So please be as objective as possible and kindly mark each of the following items with the sign (√). All information will be confidential to the researcher. You are offered great thanks for participating, with a complete commitment to use your information in investigating this study.

Gender: male () female () Job: ()

Years of experience: ()

University

N O	ITEMS	OPTIONS			
		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	The English language syllabus followed at our universities give special attention to the teaching of relative clauses				
2	Relative clauses are included as part of the syllabus but overweighed by other items				
3.	The syllabus does not suggest a specific methodology for handling relative clauses				
4.	Relative clauses are not introduced properly across the syllabus				
5	The syllabus has totally neglected some types of relative clauses.				
6	Tutors hardly give the relative clauses the care they deserve				
7	Some tutors believe that students are not well placed to understand relative clauses				
8.	English relative clauses do not have exact Arabic equivalents				
9	Lack of				

	equivalents can account for the difficulty of translation				
10	Tutors hardly consider the question of translation in approaching the teaching of relative clauses				
11	Students come from secondary schools with shaky knowledge of relative clauses				
12	The idea of conception of Arabic relative clauses is blurred to some students				
13	Inability to handle Arabic relative clauses further complicated the understanding of English relative clauses				
14	Students can understand the conception of relative clauses in grammar lessons but fail to use them correctly in their writing products				
15	Difficulty experienced in understanding Arabic grammar is reflected in understanding English grammar in general.				

APPENDIX (2)

Instructions:-

Dear Students,

1-This pretest is designed to measure your abilities in the basic skills of translating relative clauses.

2Time allowed 2 hours.

3.Answer all questions

A. Write True or False for these sentences.

1. Relative clauses describe or give extra information about something.
2. We use relative pronouns like which, that, who and where at the beginning of relative clauses.
3. The information in relative clauses is always essential for understanding the sentence.
4. Some relative clauses give additional information which is not essential for understanding.
5. Relative clauses that give additional information are called 'defining'.
6. Relative clauses are always in the middle of a sentence.
7. We can use exactly the same relative pronouns in defining and nondefining relative clauses.
8. The punctuation is different for defining and non-defining clauses.

B. Write a relative pronoun (that, which, who, where, when or whose) to fill each gap.

1. That's the house _____ I was born.
2. My Auntie Ella, _____ is a journalist, is coming to visit next week.
3. People _____ like outdoor activities will love our holidays.
4. The early 1960s, _____ the Beatles first started, was a very exciting time in popular culture.
5. My essay on Shakespeare, _____ I found quite difficult, got a really good mark in the end.
6. The Mayans, _____ lived in Central America, built many stunning temples.
7. That's the girl _____ brother is in your class.

8. The snake _____ was in the garden last week belongs to our next-door neighbour.

C. Correct the mistakes with relative clauses or punctuation and write the sentences on the line below.

1. The Glastonbury Festival, which is held every June is the largest music festival in the world.

.....
2. I always get on well with people, who love animals.

.....
3. Let's go to the café which they sell pizza.

.....
4. Queensland and Victoria, that are Australian states, are named after Queen Victoria.

.....
5. I've got to text that boy which I was telling you about.

.....
6. That's the restaurant that my father met my mother.

.....
7. I've got a message from Thomas, who skis I'm going to borrow.

.....
8. At midnight when the fireworks start, the band is going to start playing.

D. Read the conversation carefully and find out the relative clause sentences:

Ollie: Hey, Daiz, you remember that Mum was talking about putting videos up on her blog?

Daisy: Yeah.

Ollie: Well, she's got the first one up. It looks pretty cool.

Daisy: Oh, right. Where is she at the moment? Peru, isn't it?

Ollie: I think she's in Bolivia now, but the video's from yesterday, when she was on the

Peruvian side of Lake Titicaca.

Daisy: OK, let's have a look.

Sophie: Hi, everyone. Today I'm visiting the floating Uros Islands on Lake Titicaca.

Sophie: The people who live here have had the same kind of lifestyle for hundreds of years. The amazing thing about these islands is that they are man-made and made out of plants. The islanders pick the tall reeds that grow at the sides of the lake and use them to make the islands. Every three months they have to put down new reeds. If they didn't, the islands would sink into the lake! Oh, yeah, and as I said, the islands float, so they have to be anchored to the bottom of the lake with rope, like a boat.

Daisy: Hey, it's really good!

Sophie: The islands are kind of bouncy to walk on, but they're pretty strong. The Uros people make fires, which they use for cooking. OK, there's a house made of reeds, but that grey thing, which you can see on the roof there, isn't very traditional. That's a solar panel - technology gets to every corner of the world nowadays.

Ollie: Mmm, it's a bit like a geography lesson, but it's interesting.

Daisy: Yeah, I think it's great.

Ollie: OK, let's write a nice comment and 'like' it.

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E.Translate the sentences below from English to Arabic:

The President of the United States, who is visiting Moscow, claimed that relations between the two countries were at their best for twenty years.

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2. The intermission, which lasts for fifteen minutes, comes halfway through the film.

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3. The man who stole my car was fined.

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4. The company that made it has gone bankrupt.

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