



**LEXICAL, CULTURAL AND GRAMMATICAL  
TRANSLATION PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED BY  
SENIOR PALESTINIAN EFL LEARNERS AT THE  
ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY OF GAZA, PALESTINE**

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## **Dedication**

I dedicate this study to my beloved wife and children who accompanied me through the entire journey of this study, and who have always been there for me at times of need and stress.

I also dedicate this study to my dear mother, brothers and sisters who have been a source of inspiration, love and support.

Finally, I dedicate this work to the memory of my beloved father who spent his life giving me his utmost care and love.

## **List of Abbreviations**

IUG	Islamic University of Gaza
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
TFL	Teaching Foreign Languages
SLT	Source Language Text
TLT	Target Language Text
SL	Source Language
TL	Target Language
TQA	Translation Quality Assessment
OALD	Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary
TE	Translation Equivalence
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
CA	Classical Arabic
COA	Colloquial Arabic
SVO	Subject Verb Object
VSO	Verb Subject Object
ST	Source Text
TT	Target Text
TC	Target Culture
TS	Translation Studies

## **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to investigate, analyze and classify the lexical, cultural and grammatical problems encountered by senior Palestinian EFL university learners in their English-Arabic translations and to find out any gender differences regarding their translation problems. The translation test used in this empirical study consisted of 18 texts covering three types: descriptive, argumentative and instructional. These texts were translated by 28 students chosen randomly from the Department of English at the Islamic University of Gaza. The students also responded to a questionnaire regarding the level of difficulty of each translated text. The analysis of students' translations was based on the linguistic judgments of a group of Arabic specialists including the researcher's assessment, a rater's assessment, the target readership assessment and the work of a professional translator. The results showed that Palestinian EFL student translators committed errors on three levels: lexical, cultural and grammatical. The most frequent errors were grammatical errors, followed by lexical errors and cultural errors. Grammatical errors were mainly attributed to linguistic differences between English and Arabic as well as students' lack of linguistic competence. Lexical errors were mainly attributed to students' tendency to adopt literal translation and their total dependence on existing bilingual dictionaries. Cultural errors on the other hand resulted from students' unfamiliarity with the source language culture and lack of knowledge of the target culture. The study also revealed that male students committed more errors than female students at lexical and grammatical levels. However, male students committed fewer errors than female students at the cultural level. The results of the questionnaire showed that argumentative texts were regarded by students as the most difficult, followed by instructional and finally descriptive texts.

## Chapter One: Introduction

### 1.1. Introduction and background

Translation from one language to another frequently causes errors which result in miscommunication of the original text. Errors often result from language transfer which assumes a one-to-one correspondence of literal meaning between two languages (Wallmach & Kruger, 1999). Language transfer creates negative effects in translation by introducing unnatural sentences which may often be incomprehensible or inadequate to the readers of the target language. This phenomenon, called "translationese" by Nida (1964), is created by a translator's excessive fidelity toward the source language and is now viewed as one of the main problems in translation.

In translating from English into Arabic the translator is dealing with two languages that are unrelated both linguistically and culturally. Dickins et al (2002: 29) state: "translating involves not two languages, but a transfer from one culture to another". The same view is shared by Mailhac (1995: 1) who maintains that effective communication can be achieved if translation is capable of bridging the gap not only between languages but also between cultures. In translating into Arabic the translator may face linguistic and cultural difficulties that would lead to the distortion of the work to be translated or would affect the readers' response in the target language. For example, in Arabic the word **بومة** has many negative connotations and is always seen as a symbol of bad luck, while in English, 'owl' has positive and favourable associations, and is seen as a symbol of wisdom and grace. According to Nida (1964), there is no semantic unit that has exactly the same meaning in two different utterances; there are no complete synonyms within a language; and there is no exact correspondence between related words in different languages. Thus, a word-for-word translation that closely follows the form of the source language is of little or no value to the readers of the target language. For example, to translate the English expressions: 'He is as wise as an owl' or 'He is a wise old owl' into Arabic as **هو حكيم كالبومة** would be unacceptable because of the negative connotations of **بومة** in Arabic.

One means of assessing whether translation problems have been overcome is by deciding the extent to which the translated target text effectively fulfills its intended role in the target language and culture rather than just evaluating it in terms of an accurate rendering of the source text. In this light, a 'good' translation is one which is acceptable, 'adequate', or

'functionally appropriate' to the native speakers of the target language, as Schaffner (1998) noted. The judgment of qualified target language experts of the translated material is one of the most significant criteria to determine the quality of the translation.

English is now a major international language, and the demand for translation from other languages into English has steadily increased. With the expansion of international interactions, an increasing number of materials have been translated from English to Arabic and vice versa. In Palestine the demand for translation has increased very rapidly. According to El Fagawi (2000), this is due to the Palestinians' belief that English has become the language of international negotiation through which they can tell the world about their problem. This motivational interest in English and especially in translation increased after the Oslo Agreement between the Palestinians and the Israelis. As a result, Gaza and the West Bank have become a major focus of international media attention, with large numbers of journalists from all over the world visiting the area to cover the political situation. These journalists are willing to listen to all Palestinians, including ordinary people in the street. At the same time, the Palestinian people have shown much interest in talking with these journalists about their painful experiences with the occupation. In most cases, the journalistic delegations hire local interpreters in order to facilitate their communication with ordinary people.

Despite the importance of English as a major international language, relatively little is known about what interferes with and distorts communication between Arabic and English. In other words, Arab translators into English/Arabic are confronted with linguistic and cultural difficulties that can have a negative effect on their translations. Thus, it would be useful to investigate various types of lexical, cultural, and grammatical translation problems faced by senior Palestinian EFL learners and view them in terms of the judgment of qualified experts in Arabic.

## **1.2. Statement of the problem**

This study investigates lexical, cultural and grammatical problems faced by senior Palestinian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners and views them in terms of acceptability as judged by a panel of qualified experts in Arabic. This linguistic judgment by qualified experts in Arabic should be effective in identifying, analyzing and classifying lexical, cultural and grammatical problems. EFL learners are defined as those who learn

English as a foreign language. The EFL learners selected for this study were twenty-eight students chosen randomly from a total population of 500 students in the Department of English, Islamic University of Gaza (henceforth IUG), in the academic year 2007-2008. They were asked to translate 18 texts covering three types of texts: descriptive, argumentative and instructional (cf. Section 2.10. The Text Typological Model). The analysis of these texts will provide the researcher with empirical evidence of the lexical, cultural and grammatical problems most frequently encountered by senior Palestinian EFL learners.

The qualified experts in Arabic are a native speaker of Arabic, who has long experience in teaching Arabic at university, an Arab professional translator, who has both professional and teaching experience and a native speaker of English, who is a professor of Arabic at the University of Salford and the supervisor of the author of this study. The variables examined in this study are types of lexical, cultural and grammatical problems faced by senior Palestinian EFL learners in English-Arabic translation and the acceptability of the translated texts when assessed by a panel of qualified experts in Arabic. Acceptability is defined as:

A term used by Toury (1980, 1995) to denote one of the two tendencies in translated texts. According to Toury, any translated text occupies a position between the two poles of adequacy: adherence to the linguistic and textual norms of the source system and acceptability or adherence to those of the target system. Translations which lean towards acceptability can thus be thought of as fulfilling the requirement of reading as an original written in the TL than that of reading as the original, and consequently generally have a more natural feel (Shuttleworth, M. and Cowie M. 1997: 2-3).

### **1.3. Research questions**

This study aims at identifying, analyzing, and classifying types of lexical, cultural and grammatical problems in Palestinian EFL university students' English-Arabic translation and viewing them in terms of acceptability as judged by a group of qualified experts in Arabic. Specifically, the study addresses the following questions:

1. What types of lexical errors are most frequently committed by senior Palestinian EFL learners?
2. What types of cultural errors are most frequently committed by senior Palestinian EFL learners?



3. What types of grammatical errors are most frequently committed by senior Palestinian EFL learners?
4. Is there any gender difference regarding the translation errors committed by the subjects of this study?

#### **1.4. Research hypotheses**

Since English and Arabic have different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, i.e. English is an Indo-European language, whereas Arabic belongs to the Semitic languages, senior Palestinian EFL learners are expected to experience different translation problems. The first hypothesis is that students at the IUG are expected to encounter lexical problems due to differences in the lexical systems of the two languages. Lexical issues such as synonymy, denotation, connotation, collocations, polysemy and idioms are expected to cause problems for Palestinian learners. The second hypothesis is that students are expected to face cultural difficulties due to the cultural differences between English and Arabic. The third hypothesis is that Palestinian EFL learners are expected to face grammatical problems due to the difference in the linguistic systems of the two languages. Grammatical issues such as word order, passive, articles, punctuation, and conjunctions are expected to cause problems for Palestinian learners. The fourth hypothesis is that students at the Department of English, IUG are expected to show gender differences regarding lexical, cultural and grammatical problems.

#### **1.5. Need for the research**

English is now a major international language and the demand for translation has steadily increased. Moreover, English is the language of instruction at local and international universities, which means that a large number of materials are translated into English as well as other languages including Arabic. However, the lack of qualified translators and the absence of effective and systematic training in translation theory have led to erroneous translations. In this regard, Masoud (1988: 10) is right when she says:

More often than not, new translators dive into translation work thinking that because they speak two languages, they are qualified for the task.

Masoud's statement makes it clear that translators depend on their language experience to practise translation, a view which is also shared by Baker (1992: 4), who states:

Translators need to develop an ability to stand back and reflect on what they do and how they do it. Like doctors and engineers, they have to prove to themselves as well as others that they are in control of what they do; that they do not just translate well because they have a 'flair' for translation, but rather because, like other professionals, they made a conscious effort to understand various aspects of their work (ibid: 4).

In the Department of English, IUG (where the author of this study worked as a lecturer of English for 10 years), the two translation modules which are a major requirement of the degree of BA in English Language and Literature are taught by specialists in EFL and linguistics; none of them has a qualification in translation. Given this situation, the graduates of the departments of English will join the profession of translation dependent on their intuition and experience, without possessing the training and theoretical tools needed for this job.

This study investigates lexical, cultural and grammatical problems encountered by Palestinian EFL learners in English-Arabic translation. The findings of this study are intended to draw the attention of those specialists in the field of translation training and syllabus design to the actual translation problems encountered by Palestinian students. The outcomes of this study will contribute to developing the teaching of translation in Palestinian universities in particular and in Arab universities in general.

Research in translation problems remains ongoing while students continue to commit a wide range of translation errors. A number of studies have discussed translation problems encountered by Arab translators. Some of these have discussed one aspect of the most common translation problems between English and Arabic, e.g. Bahumaid (2006), Al Jabr (2006), Abu Ssaydeh (2004), Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003), Saraireh (2001). (cf. Literature Review: section 2.9.1 and section 2.9.3). Others have discussed different types of English-Arabic translation problems such as Al Kenai (1985), Ghazala (1995), Al Ghussain (2003), Deeb (2005) and Abbadi (2007) (cf. Literature Review: section 2.9.2). Unlike previous studies, the present study will focus on the lexical, cultural and grammatical problems encountered by senior Palestinian EFL learners and view them in terms of their acceptability to qualified experts in Arabic. This linguistic judgment of qualified experts in Arabic will be important in identifying, analyzing and classifying types of lexical, cultural and grammatical problems in the Palestinian EFL students' English-Arabic translations. The

study will provide a detailed analysis of the translation strategies employed by the student translators in dealing with various lexical, cultural and grammatical problems. Based on the analysis of three types of texts, namely descriptive, argumentative and instructional, this study will acquaint Arab translators in general and Palestinian translation students in particular with the most challenging translation problems that they might encounter when translating these types of texts.

## **1.6. Thesis Structure**

This study consists of seven chapters organized as follows:

Chapter One presents the statement of the problem, the general research questions, the hypotheses, the need for the research and the structure of the thesis.

Chapter Two is a review of the literature, and is divided into six sections. The first section deals with the relation between language and translation. The second section focuses on the concept of equivalence in translation and the difference between equivalence and adequacy. The third section discusses the two concepts of translation competence and performance in addition to TQA models, namely equivalence-based approaches, functional approaches and Nord's model of functionality and loyalty. The fourth section discusses definitions and types of translation errors and problems in addition to TQA criteria. The fifth section reviews some previous studies carried out in translation problems, particularly translation problems encountered by Arab translators. The sixth section discusses the Text Typological Model in translation.

Chapter Three discusses lexical, cultural and grammatical symmetries and asymmetries in English and Arabic. Lexical issues such as denotation, connotation, synonymy, homonymy and polysemy, collocation, idioms, neologisms and oligosemy are illustrated in both English and Arabic. The cultural issues in English and Arabic discussed are kinship, gender, mythology, ecology, politics, and colour. The chapter also focuses on the problems that may arise in translating cultural references as well as the procedures and strategies used in the translation of culture with particular reference to the strategies employed by Ivir (1987), Newmark (1988) and Mailhac (1995). Grammatical issues including word order, passive voice, conditional sentences, adjectival construction and syntactic ambiguity are compared with illustrative examples.

Chapter Four outlines the methodology used in this study. Specifically, the chapter focuses on the type of research, the context of the study (i.e. the IUG English Department and translation courses), the subjects of the research, the translation texts and the selection criteria, instruments of data collection (e.g. including a translation test, a researcher's assessment, a rater's assessment, a target readership assessment, a professional translator's model translation and a student questionnaire), research design and the procedure.

Chapter Five presents the findings reached in the analysis of students' translations and provides both a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the lexical and cultural problems faced by senior Palestinian EFL learners.

Chapter Six presents the findings reached in the analysis of students' translations and provides both a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the grammatical problems faced by senior Palestinian EFL learners.

Chapter Seven discusses the findings of the study and compares them with previous studies on translation problems with specific reference to English-Arabic translation problems. It also presents the limitations of this study and provides some recommendations for further studies in the field.

## **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

### **2.1. Introduction**

This chapter is a review of the literature, and is divided into six sections. The first section deals with the relation between language and translation. The second section focuses on the concept of equivalence in translation and the difference between equivalence and adequacy. The third section discusses the two concepts of translation competence and performance in addition to TQA models, namely equivalence-based approaches, functional approaches and Nord's model of functionality and loyalty. The fourth section discusses definitions and types of translation errors and problems in addition to TQA criteria. The fifth section reviews some previous studies carried out in translation problems, particularly translation problems encountered by Arab translators. The sixth section discusses the Text Typological Model in translation.

### **2.2. Language and translation**

It is axiomatic that there is a strong relation between language and translation, both of which benefit from the other, to the point that any development in the study of one of them requires a development in the study of the other. In the preface to his book *Linguistic Theory of Translation*, Catford (1965) summarises the mutual influence between language and translation as follows:

Since translation has to do with language, the analysis and description of translation processes must make considerable use of categories set up for the description of languages. It must, in other words, draw upon a theory of language - a general linguistic theory.

Historically, a number of linguistic schools have paid significant attention to translation problems, trying to formulate translation procedures from different perspectives. Scholars, such as de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Wilss (1982), and Reiss (1978 and 1981) Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997) called for a theory of translating associated with rigorous methods that the translator could employ to arrive at precise and systematic results. In addition, many translation theorists such as Catford, Nida, Hartmann, are linguists.

Despite this influence and the strong relation between language and translation studies,

linguists differ in their point of view concerning translation and whether linguistics is the only factor to be considered in addressing the translation problems facing the translator. On the one hand, a scholar such as Bell (1991: xv) claims that translation theorists and linguists are going their own separate ways. Pergnier (Quoted in Fawcett, 1997: 2) warns that there are some translation theorists who would like to liberate translation completely from linguistics despite the developments in linguistics that have brought the discipline much closer to their concerns. On the other hand, some linguists have assumed that translation problems can be dealt with using certain language procedures. For example, Nida (1969) suggests that Chomsky's transformational generative grammar be used in dealing with translation problems. His approach to translation can be summarized as follows:

1. Reduce the source text to its structurally simplest and most semantically evident kernels using the four categories of 'object', 'event', 'abstraction', and 'relation'.
2. Transfer the meaning from source language to receptor language at a structurally simple level.
3. Generate the stylistically and semantically equivalent expression in the receptor language.

Nida devised a back-transformation model, consisting of the procedures of analysis, deep structure, transfer, and restructuring, identifying model kernel sentences as the transitional stage between SL and TL structures to explain the process of translation.

In addition, the 'theory of meaning' forms the bulk of works by Nida (1975), Newmark (1988), and Bell (1991), among others. Concepts such as denotation, connotation, semantic fields, presupposition and entailment have been the focus of many translation theorists. For example, Bassnett (1980: 21-30) provides a semantic-based comparison between the Italian and English words for 'butter'. (cf. 3.3.1. Translation and culture). According to Fawcett (1998: 122), such cultural incompatibilities between languages are the bread and butter of many works on linguistics and translation, stating that translation has benefited from text linguistic approaches such as register analysis (tenor, mode, and domain), discourse analysis (thematic structure, coherence and cohesion) and pragmatic analysis (speech acts, Gricean principles, language and text functions) (ibid: 123-4).

From a linguistic point of view, Catford's linguistic theory of translation (1965) remains one of the very few truly original attempts to give a systematic description of translation despite its main weakness of not going beyond the sentence to incorporate the text as a unit of

meaning (ibid: 121). Catford was influenced by Halliday's grammatical rank scale, supporting and improving Halliday's distinction between language levels. His main contribution in the field of translation theory is the introduction of the concepts of types and shifts of translation. Catford (1965: 73-80) divides translation shifts into two types: level shifts, where the SL item at one linguistic level (e.g. grammar) has a TL equivalent at a different level (e.g. lexis), and category shifts, which he divides into four types:

1. Structure-shifts, which involve a grammatical change between the structure of the ST and that of the TT;
2. Class-shifts, when a SL item is translated with a TL item which belongs to a different grammatical class, e.g. a verb may be translated with a noun;
3. Unit-shifts, which involve changes in rank; and
4. Intra-system shifts, which occur when the SL and TL possess systems which approximately correspond formally in their constitution, but which involve the selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system, for instance, when the SL singular becomes a TL plural.

Catford classifies types of translation in accordance with three factors: extent, level of language, and rank.

1. In terms of the extent of translation, Catford distinguishes between full translation and partial translation. In full translation the entire text is submitted to the translation process: "every part of the SL text is replaced by TL text material" (ibid: 21). In partial translation "some part or parts of the SL text are left untranslated" (ibid).
2. In terms of the levels of language involved in translation, a distinction is drawn between total translation and restricted translation. Total translation is a translation in which all levels of the SL text (phonology, graphology, grammar and lexis) are replaced by TL material. Equivalence in this type is in practice only achieved at the level of grammar and lexis. Catford, therefore, defines total translation as "the replacement of SL grammar and lexis by equivalent TL grammar and lexis with consequential replacement of SL phonology/graphology by (non-equivalent) TL phonology/graphology" (ibid: 22). Restricted translation involves "the replacement of SL textual material by equivalent TL textual material at only one level" (ibid: 22). Translation can be performed at the

phonological or at the graphological level, or at only one of the two levels of grammar and lexis. Catford believes that restricted translation at only the grammatical level or a lexical level is difficult if not impossible because of the interdependence of grammar and lexis. He also stresses that there can be no restricted translation at the inter-level of context because “there is no way in which we can replace SL “contextual units” by equivalent TL “contextual units” without simultaneously replacing SL grammatical/lexical units by equivalent TL grammatical/lexical unit” (ibid: 22).

3. In terms of the grammatical or phonological rank at which translation equivalence is established, Catford distinguishes between rank-bound translation and unbounded translation. In rank-bound translation, there is a deliberate attempt to consistently select TL equivalents at the same rank in the hierarchy of grammatical units, for example at the rank of morpheme, word, group, clause or sentence (ibid: 24). Unbounded translation involves equivalences which shift freely up and down the rank scale, “but tend to be at the higher ranks - sometimes between larger units than the sentence” (ibid: 25). Catford says that the distinction between bound and unbounded translation partly correlates with the popular terms: free, literal, and word-for-word translation. A free translation is always unbound. Word-for-word translation generally means what it says, i.e. it is essentially rank-bound at word-rank, but it may include some morpheme-morpheme equivalences. Literal translation lies between these two extremes; it may start from a word-for-word translation, but makes changes in conformity with TL grammar. These changes include inserting additional words, changing structures at any rank, etc. The following examples are adapted from Catford (1965: 24) to illustrate this correlation.

Type of translation	SL text	TL text
1. Word -for- word translation	It's raining cats and dogs.	هي تمطر قطط وكلاب
2. Literal translation	It's raining cats and dogs.	تمطر قططاً وكلاباً
3. A relatively free translation (Functional equivalence)	It's raining cats and dogs.	تمطر بغزارة/ تمطر كالفواه القرب

**Table 1: Examples of free, literal, and word-for-word translation**

As the three examples demonstrate, the translator in the first translation handles the sentence word by word. Such a method of translation can be useful in throwing light on the nature of the SL lexis and grammar, since it slavishly follows the SL grammatical structure. However, word-for-word translation is a bad general translation technique because it uses TL



equivalents which are not appropriate to their location in the TL text, and which are not justified by the interchangeability of SL and TL texts in one and the same situation (ibid: 25). In the second type the translation is also word oriented, but the translator adopts the TL grammar. In the third type, using a relatively free translation, the reader is given as clearly as possible the intended meaning of the source message in the target language communicative act as well as the correct structure of the Arabic sentence.

It can be added that Catford's two types of word-for-word translation and literal translation correspond roughly to Nida's formal correspondence and dynamic equivalence, respectively (cf. Equivalence, section 2.3.3).

### **2.3. The notion of equivalence**

Historically, equivalence has represented one of the essential problems facing translation theory, since translation deals with two languages, each of which has its own characteristic features at the levels of phonetics, phonology, grammar, semantics, culture, etc. Catford believes that the nature and conditions of translation equivalence is the central problem of translation theory, while Fawcett (1997) more skeptically describes equivalence as "a concept that has probably cost the lives of more trees than any other in translation studies" (ibid: 53).

Most definitions of translation mention the concept of equivalence as a key factor in the process of rendering a text from one language into another. For example, Hartmann and Stork (1972: 173) define translation as "the replacement of a representation of a text in one language by the representation of an equivalent text in a second language". Catford (1965: 20) defines translation as "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by an equivalent textual material in another language (TL)". According to Nida and Taber (1969), "translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (ibid: 12).

It is noticeable that these definitions of translation focus on one particular goal: the obtaining of equivalence from language or textual material A to language or textual material B. However, one has to wonder to what extent, when translation theorists talk about the concept of equivalence, they mean the same thing.

The notion of equivalence has caused a lot of controversy in translation studies, and many

different theories have emerged regarding equivalence. Some innovative theorists such as Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), Jakobson (1966), Nida (1964) Nida and Taber (1969/1982), Catford (1965), House (1977/1981), Hatim and Mason (1990), Reiss (1978, 1981) Koller (1995), Bassnett (1980/2004), and Baker (1992) have studied equivalence in relation to the translation process, using different approaches, and have provided fruitful ideas for further study on this topic. These scholars may be divided into two main groups. The first group includes some scholars who are in favour of a linguistic approach to translation and who sometimes seem to forget that translation is not just a matter of linguistics or linguistic matching and that there are other factors which affect translation work. The second group regard translation equivalence as being essentially a transfer of the message from the source culture to the target culture and adopt a pragmatic/semantic or functionally oriented approach to translation. They state that when a message is translated from the source language to the target language, the translator is also dealing with two different cultures at the same time. This group of theorists believes that not only linguistics but also culture determine the type of equivalence to be achieved.

The following section aims at investigating these various views regarding the concept of equivalence in order to establish a definition which can be applied to the subsequent sections of the study.

### **2.3.1. Vinay and Darbelnet**

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) use the term 'equivalence' in a restricted sense to refer to cases where languages describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means. In her article 'Equivalence in Translation: Between Myth and Reality', Leonardi (2000) maintains that Vinay and Darbelnet view equivalence-oriented translation as a procedure which involves repeating the same image or situation as in the source language, while using completely different wording. They suggest that if this procedure is applied during the translation process, it can maintain the stylistic impact of the SL text in the TL text. According to Vinay and Darbelnet, equivalence is therefore the ideal method when the translator has to deal with proverbs, idioms, clichés, nominal or adjectival phrases and the onomatopoeia of animal sounds.

With regard to equivalent expressions between language pairs, Vinay and Darbelnet (ibid: 255) claim that they are acceptable as long as they are listed in a bilingual dictionary as 'full

equivalents'. However, they note that glossaries and collections of idiomatic expressions 'can never be exhaustive' (ibid: 266). They conclude that "the need for creating equivalences arises from the situation, and it is in the situation of the SL text that translators have to look for a solution" (ibid: 255). They argue that even if the semantic equivalent of an expression in the SL text is quoted in a dictionary or a glossary, it is not enough, and it does not guarantee a successful translation. They provide a number of examples to support their theory. They argue, for example, that 'Take one' is a fixed expression which may have as an equivalent French translation 'Prenez-en un'. However, if the expression appeared as a notice next to a basket of free samples in a large store, the translator would have to look for an equivalent term in a similar situation and use the expression 'Échantillon gratuit' (ibid: 255-256).

It seems that what Vinay and Darbelnet call equivalence is roughly similar to what Hervey and Higgins (1992) call communicative translation, "where in a given situation, the ST uses an SL expression standard for that situation, and that the TT uses a TL expression standard for an equivalent target culture situation" (ibid: 21).

### **2.3.2. Jakobson's study of equivalence**

Jakobson's study of equivalence gave new impetus to the theoretical analysis of translation. In his semiotic approach to language, Jakobson (1966: 233) suggests three kinds of translation:

1. Intralingual translation or 'rewording'. This is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language. Translation of a word in this case uses either another, more or less synonymous word, or resorts to a circumlocution.
2. Interlingual translation or 'translation proper'. This is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language. There is ordinarily no full equivalence between code-units, although messages may serve as adequate interpretations of alien code units or message. This kind of translation is a form of reported speech in that it involves two equivalent messages in two different codes.
3. Intersemiotic translation or 'transmutation'. This is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of a nonverbal sign system. No linguistic specimen may be interpreted by the science of language without a translation of its signs into other signs of the same system or into signs of another system.

Jakobson believes that the concept of equivalence seems problematic between words belonging to different languages. He thinks that there is ordinarily no semantic equivalence and particularly denotative equivalence between code-units of two languages. For example, the English word 'cheese' is not identical to the Russian 'syr', the Spanish 'queso', or the German 'Kaese' due to the different code unit. The Russian word 'syr' does not include the concept of 'cottage cheese'. The Russian word for 'cottage cheese' is 'tvarok' and not 'syr'. However, Jakobson believes that translation is not impossible even with languages that are grammatically different. In other words, the translator may face the problem of not finding a translation equivalent. He acknowledges that "whenever there is a deficiency, terminology may be qualified and amplified by loanwords or loan-translations, neologisms or semantic shifts and, finally, by circumlocutions" (ibid: 234).

It can be concluded that both Vinay and Darbelnet's and Jakobson's theories of translation stress the fact that, whenever simple linguistic transfer involving TL words and phrases in their standard senses is no longer suitable to carry out a translation, the translator can rely on other procedures such as loan-translations, neologisms and the like. Both theories recognize the limitations of a linguistic theory and argue that a translation can never be impossible since there are several methods that the translator can choose to go beyond the standard resources of the TL (Leonardi 2000).

### **2.3.3. Nida and Taber: Formal and dynamic equivalence**

Nida and Taber (1969, 1982) distinguish between two types of equivalence: formal equivalence (or formal correspondence) and dynamic equivalence (or functional equivalence). According to Nida (1964: 159), "Formal correspondence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content". In such a translation "one is concerned with such correspondences as poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence, and concept to concept" (ibid: 159). Nida calls this translation a 'gloss translation', which aims to allow the reader to understand as much of the SL context as possible (ibid: 159). In formal equivalence, the translator also attempts to reproduce as literally and meaningfully as possible the form and content of the original. In doing so, a formally equivalent translation attempts to reproduce several formal elements, including: (1) grammatical units, (2) consistency in word usage, and (3) meanings in terms of the source context.

Unlike formal equivalence, dynamic equivalence is based upon 'the principle of equivalent

effect', i.e. that the relationship between TL receiver and TL message should aim at being the same as that between the original receivers and the SL message. (ibid: 159). Nida and Taber define a dynamic equivalent as "the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message" (ibid: 166). According to them, this definition contains three essential terms: (1) equivalent, which points towards the source language message, (2) natural, which points towards the receptor language, and (3) closest, which binds the two orientations together on the basis of the highest degree of approximation (ibid: 166). A well-known example provided by Nida is his rendering of the Biblical *greet one another with a holy kiss* as *give one another a hearty handshake all around*, of which Nida says the latter "quite naturally translates" the former (1964: 166).

Nida's dynamic equivalence has come in for criticism. For instance, Bassnett (1980) believes that "translation involves more than replacement of lexical and grammatical items between languages... . Once the translator moves away from close linguistic equivalence, the problems of determining the exact nature of the level of equivalence aimed for begin to emerge". She adds that "the principle of equivalent effect which has enjoyed great popularity in certain cultures at certain times involves us in areas of speculation and at times can lead to very dubious conclusions" (ibid: 32-33). Another criticism comes from Dickins et al (2002: 19) who believe that dynamic equivalence gives student translators with exceptional mother-tongue facility freedom to write more or less anything as long as it sounds good, which will reflect negatively on the ST message content. In Bassnett's view, "equivalence in translation, then, should not be approached as a search for sameness, since sameness cannot even exist between two TL versions of the same text, let alone between the SL and the TL version" (Bassnett, 1980: 36).

#### **2.3.4. Catford's approach to translation equivalence**

Applying a more linguistic-based approach to translation, Catford's approach to translation equivalence (1965) took another direction from that of Nida and Taber. Influenced by the linguistic work of Firth and Halliday, he refined Halliday's grammatical 'rank-scale' approach to develop the hypothesis that equivalence in translation depends upon the availability of formal correspondence between linguistic items at different structural levels and ranks, particularly at the sentence level. Catford's main contribution in the field of translation theory is the introduction of the concepts of types and shifts of translation

(cf. Section 2.2. Language and translation).

One of the problems with Catford's formal correspondence, despite its being a useful tool for comparative linguistics, is that it is not really relevant in terms of assessing translation equivalence between ST and TT. This pushed theorists to turn to Catford's other dimension of correspondence, namely textual equivalence, which he defines as "any TL text or portion of text which is observed to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text" (ibid: 27). Catford goes on to state that textual equivalence is achieved when the source and target items are "interchangeable in a given situation..." (ibid: 49). This happens, according to Catford, when "an SL and a TL text or item are relatable to (at least some of) the same features of substance" (ibid: 50). For this purpose, Catford used a process of commutation, whereby a competent bilingual informant or translator is consulted on the translation of various sentences whose ST items are changed in order to observe "what changes if any occur in the TL text as a consequence" (ibid: 28).

Catford has faced scathing criticism for his linguistic theory of translation. For example, Snell-Hornby (1988) argues that Catford's definition of textual equivalence is 'circular', and his reliance on bilingual informants is 'hopelessly inadequate'. In addition, his example sentences are 'isolated and even absurdly simplistic' (ibid 19-20). She considers the concept of equivalence to be an illusion. Snell-Hornby does not believe that linguistics is the only discipline which enables people to carry out a translation, since translating involves different cultures and different situations which do not always correlate. Bassnett (1980) also criticized Catford's theory of translation describing it as restricted since it implies a narrow theory of meaning (ibid: 16-17). Fawcett (1997) believes that Catford's definition of equivalence, despite having a façade of scientific respectability, hides a notorious vagueness and a suspect methodology, adding that much of his text on restricted translation seems to be motivated by a desire for theoretical completeness, which is out of touch with what most translators have to do (ibid: 56).

### **2.3.5. Newmark's communicative and semantic translation**

Newmark (1981) introduced communicative and semantic translation as a replacement for old terms, such as free and literal, faithful and beautiful, and exact and natural translation. He (1981) defines communicative and semantic translation as follows:

Communicative translation attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original. Semantic translation attempts to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original (ibid: 39).

Newmark's notion of communicative translation resembles Nida's dynamic equivalence in the effect it is trying to create on the TT reader, while semantic translation has similarities to Nida's formal equivalence. However, Newmark distances himself from the full principle of equivalent effect, saying that effect 'is inoperant if the text is out of TL space and time' (ibid: 69). According to Newmark (1988) 'equivalent effect' in translation is "the desirable result, rather than the aim of any translation." He points out that effect is unlikely in two cases: (a) if the purpose of the SL text is to affect and the TL translation is to inform (or vice versa); (b) if there is a pronounced cultural gap between the SL the TL text (ibid: 48).

Regarding the distinction between communicative and semantic translation, Newmark (1981: 42) says "In communicative translation one has the right to correct or improve the logic; to replace clumsy with elegant, or at least functional, syntactic structures; to remove obscurities; to eliminate repetition and tautology; to exclude the less likely interpretations of an ambiguity ... Further, one has the right to correct mistakes of fact and slips, normally stating what one has done in a footnote ... all such corrections and improvements are usually inadmissible in semantic translation (ibid: 42). Another difference is that communicative translation emphasizes the force or the effect, while semantic translation focuses on the content of the message. Newmark recommends communicative translation, because it tends to be smoother, simpler, clearer, and more direct. A semantic translation, however, tends to be more complex, more detailed, more concentrated, and pursues the thought-process rather than the intention of the transmitter (ibid: 39). The following example adapted from Newmark's (1981) illustrates the main difference between communicative and semantic translation:

(SL) الرجاء عدم الاقتراب من الحديقة.

Semantic translation: Walking on the turf is forbidden. /It is forbidden to walk on the turf.

Communicative translation: Keep off the grass.

This example shows that semantic translation only concentrates on the content of the message of the text, while communicative translation emphasizes the force or effect of the message. Newmark adds that in certain contexts communicative translation is mandatory,

particularly where semantic translation would be more informative but less effective (ibid: 39).

In brief, the semantic approach to translation which is based on text analysis and syntactic structures or as Catford (1965) puts it “formal correspondence” is inferior to the communicative approach which examines the text in its relevant contexts as an act of communication with the purpose of maintaining its pragmatic force through extra-sentential features that can achieve discourse coherence.

### **2.3.6. Hatim and Mason**

Hatim and Mason (1990: 8) state that complete equivalence in terms of a formally or dynamically equivalent target-language version of a source-language text cannot be achieved in translation, particularly between languages which are culturally remote, such as Arabic and English. Alternatively, they suggest that ‘adequacy’ is an appropriate notion that can be judged in terms of specifications of the particular translation task to be performed and in terms of the users’ needs.

### **2.3.7. Baker’s approach of Equivalence**

Baker (1992) studies equivalence at different levels, including all different aspects of translation. Combining the linguistic and the communicative approach, Baker distinguishes between equivalence that can appear at word level and above word level, when translating from one language into another. She believes that the translator has to look at the word as a single unit in order to find a direct equivalent term in the TL. However, words may have different meanings and might consist of a number of morphemes. Translators also have to pay attention to a number of factors when considering a single word, such as number, gender and tense (ibid: 11-12).

In respect of grammatical equivalence Baker says that each language has its own grammar or structure which differs from that of other languages. This property may pose problems in terms of finding a direct correspondence in the TL. Baker points out that such differences may force the translator either to add or to omit information in the TL, because of the lack of particular grammatical categories in the TL itself. Baker focuses on number, tense, voice, person and gender as grammatical categories which may cause problems in translation



(ibid: 82). In textual equivalence the translator looks at equivalence in terms of information and cohesion. The importance of texture in translation comes from the notion that it works as a guideline for the comprehension and analysis of the ST, which may help the translator in producing a cohesive and coherent TT. In respect of this type of translation, Baker believes that three factors should be taken into account: the target audience, the purpose of the translation and the text type (ibid: 119). Finally, Baker's pragmatic equivalence refers to implicatures and strategies of avoidance during the translation process. The role of translators is to indicate what is behind the words or to work out implied meanings in order to get the ST message across in the TT. In her words, "the role of the translator is to recreate the author's intention in another culture to help the TC readers to understand it clearly" (ibid: 217).

### **2.3.8. Koller's linguistic-oriented approach**

Using a linguistic-oriented approach, Koller (1995: 196-7) states that there should be an equivalence relation between the source-language text and target-language text. To investigate this relation he suggests the following equivalence frameworks:

1. Denotative equivalence. This is related to the extra linguistic circumstances conveyed by the source text.
2. Connotative equivalence. This is related to lexical choices, especially between near-synonyms. The connotative values are conveyed by the source text via the mode of verbalization.
3. Text-normative equivalence. This is related to parallel texts in the target language. In other words, it aims at following the norms and patterns required by each text or by each language in a variety of communicative situations.
4. Pragmatic equivalence. This is oriented towards the receiver of the text or message, and tries to create a given effect on the TL receiver in the same way the source language does on the source language receiver. This resembles Nida's dynamic equivalence.
5. Formal equivalence. Unlike Nida's formal equivalence this type of equivalence is related to the form and aesthetics of the text including word plays and the individual stylistic features of the ST. This is achieved by creating an analogous form in the TL, using the possibilities of the target language in relation to its norms or even creating new ones.

Despite its importance in translation, Koller believes that equivalence is relative. It is determined by a series of linguistic-textual and extra-linguistic factors and conditions which are partly contradictory and frequently difficult to reconcile with one another. He adds that the equivalence-oriented approach seems to be of little importance to historical translation studies, and it is used in the analysis of contemporary translations with some cases of text reproduction and text production presenting difficulties for systematization.

### **2.3.9. Dickins et al's textual matrices model**

Dickins et al (2002: 19) summarize the different definitions of equivalence under two main categories: descriptive and prescriptive. "Descriptively, equivalence denotes the relationship between ST features and TT features that are seen as directly corresponding to one another, regardless of the quality of the TT. Prescriptively, equivalence denotes the relationship between an SL expression and the canonic TL rendering of it as required, for example, by a teacher" (ibid: 19). They add that "to think of equivalence to imply sameness is a problem in translation because that cannot be particularly achieved in translation". As an alternative they suggest the aim should be 'to minimize difference' between the ST and the TT rather than 'to maximize sameness'; the former implies what one might save from the ST, rather than what is to be put into the TT, while the latter implies complete sameness between the ST and the TT (ibid: 20).

In their analysis of equivalence, Dickins et al (ibid: 5) adopt a schema consisting of five textual matrices:

1. Genre matrix: This matrix deals with different textual variables such as literary (short story, etc.), religious (Quranic commentary, etc.), philosophical (essays on good and evil, etc.), empirical (scientific paper, balance sheet, etc.), persuasive (law, advertisement, etc.), hybrid (sermon, parody, job contract, etc.) and oral vs. written (dialogue, song, subtitles, etc.).
2. Cultural matrix: This matrix deals with some cultural options in translation, such as exoticism (wholesale foreignness), calque (idiom translated literally, etc.), cultural borrowing (name of historical movement, etc.), communicative translation (public notices, proverbs, etc.) and cultural transplantation (Romeo recast as *قيس*, etc.).



As the figure shows, the translator should be aware of both conversational and conventional implicatures in order to negotiate the pragmatic meaning of the ST and establish its coherence as well as to re-negotiate this meaning into a TL code 'in line with TL expectancy norms' (ibid: 152).

### **2.3.11. Lotfipour-Saedi**

Lotfipour-Saedi (1990) develops a discourse-based model that intends to bring about translation equivalence (henceforth TE). His model hinges on seven discursal factors, namely vocabulary, structure, texture, sentence meaning vs. utterance meaning, language varieties, cognitive effect and aesthetic effect. At the vocabulary level Lotfipour-Saedi distinguishes between six types of meaning: denotative, connotative, collocative, contrastive (paradigmatic), stylistic, and implicative. At the structural level he argues that the structural resources available to different languages for conveying meanings are not always parallel and identical. For example, not all languages have case-endings to show case relations. Even the structural resources and elements which are considered to be identical across languages may vary in terms of their function and communicative value. At the text level textual features including thematization strategies, textual cohesion, schematic structures and paralinguistic features should be taken into account in the translation process. At the pragmatic level Lotfipour-Saedi distinguishes between sentence meaning and utterance meaning; the former derives from the pure linguistic elements contained in the sentence, and the latter is realized through an interaction between linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. At the level of language variety stylistic variation constitutes a part of the wider scope of meaning which has an effect on the message. Lotfipour-Saedi also refers to the cognitive effect that the text may have on the cognitive processes of its recipient, e.g. the degree of comprehensibility and recallability. Finally, the aesthetic effect of the text refers to a set of phonological (e.g. rhyming, poetic meters, alliteration), structural (structural parallelism) and semantic (e.g. symbols, metaphors, irony, etc) patterns imposed upon the linguistic code which add a new dimension of meaning, especially in literary texts. Lotfipour-Saedi asserts that TE should be characterized in terms of a negotiatory interaction of all these factors, as these factors interact with one another for the materialization of the communicative value of a text and the surface text acts as the embodiment of this interactive process. He stresses the

interactive nature of these factors, saying that “these conditions do not act in isolation from one another; but they rather interact with one another for establishing the TE” (ibid: 390).

## 2.4. Equivalence and adequacy

Distinguishing between equivalence and adequacy, Reiss (1983: 301) defines adequacy as follows:

Adequacy is simply appropriateness. Appropriateness is nothing in itself: it has to be seen in relation to an action... Adequacy is thus a relation between means and purpose, and is thereby process-oriented. On the other hand, she defines equivalence as a relation between two products, the source and the receptor texts.

She sees adequacy as the decisive factor in the translation process, while equivalence is the relationship between a source and target text which have similar communicative functions in different cultures.

Quoted in (Sanchez-Ortiz, 1999) Reiss and Vermeer describe the relationship between adequacy and equivalence as a relation between two things which are different. They define equivalence as a term which “embraces relationships not just between separate units but also between whole texts. Equivalence on the level of units does not necessarily imply equivalence on the level of texts, and vice versa. Besides, equivalence of texts goes beyond their linguistic manifestation into cultural dimension. Adequacy, on the other hand, refers to the correspondence of linguistic units in the source text with linguistic units in the target text, and is therefore taken to be the basic parameter of the translation process” (ibid: 94). Quoted in Nord (1997: 35-6), Reiss (1983/1989) refers to adequacy as “a dynamic concept related to the process of translation action and referring to the goal-oriented selection of signs that are considered appropriate for the communicative purpose defined in the translation assignment... Equivalence, on the other hand, is a static, result-oriented concept describing a relationship of equal communicative value between two texts or, on lower ranks, between words, phrases, sentences, syntactic structures and so on”.

For Komissarov (Sanchez-Ortiz, ibid: 95) the concepts of equivalence and adequacy are different but closely related. He defines ‘equivalent translation’ as “the correspondence of two linguistic units that can be equivalent with one another” and ‘adequate translation’ as the broader term of the two, [...] often used as a synonym for ‘good translation’, a

translation that has achieved the required optimal level of interlanguage communication under certain given conditions.

## 2.5. Conclusion

The previous discussion on equivalence has focused on two major approaches to equivalence:

1. 'Individual level' approaches to equivalence. These approaches look at equivalence from the perspective of different individual levels. Thus Koller, for example, identifies denotative, connotative, text-normative, pragmatic, and formal equivalence. Dickins et al's 'textual matrices' model implies that they identify phonic/graphic equivalence, prosodic equivalence, grammatical equivalence, sentential equivalence, discourse equivalence, intertextual equivalence (all of these within the formal matrix), generic equivalence, semantic equivalence (denotative and connotative), varietal equivalence, and cultural equivalence.

2. 'Composite level' approaches to equivalence. These approaches look at equivalence from the perspective of the grouping together of levels, and focus on different 'grouped levels' of equivalence. A good example is Nida and Taber's formal equivalence vs. dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence prioritises equivalence at 'lower' levels of analysis: phonological, grammatical and denotative levels. Dynamic equivalence prioritises equivalence at 'higher' levels of analysis: denotative level, connotative level, genre, culture, etc. Newmark's semantic vs. communicative translation is another example of a composite level approach. Semantic translation concentrates on the content of the message of the text, while communicative translation emphasizes the force or effect of the message.

The notion of 'composite level' presupposes the notion of individual levels: we can only talk about dynamic equivalence, for example, if we are able to identify the various individual levels which dynamic equivalence involves.

3. In addition to equivalence, the section has also dealt with the notion of adequacy. Equivalence can be regarded as a descriptive notion (although, as noted, it is not, in fact, always regarded in this way), i.e. in describing an ST and a TT as equivalent to one another in certain ways, we are simply saying that they are significantly similar to one another at certain levels, phonological level, grammatical level, etc. Adequacy, by contrast, has an intrinsically prescriptive aspect. In saying that a TT is an adequate translation of an ST, one

is saying that the TT is as it ought to be: we should choose adequate translations rather than inadequate ones. Thus, adequacy deals with how acceptable or appropriate a translation is to its context of occurrence.

In conclusion, the three notions: (1) individual level equivalence, (2) composite-level equivalence, and (3) adequacy together provide the model which will be used in the practical analysis chapters of this thesis (cf. Chapter Six and Chapter Seven). Together with these three notions the current thesis will make use of Dickins et al's textual matrices model. For example, in analysing any individual translation decision, this model will allow us to say at what individual level or levels there is equivalence and whether this is more oriented towards 'formal equivalence' or 'dynamic equivalence'. More importantly, in looking at a section of text (e.g. a paragraph), or even a whole text, we can say whether the general orientation is towards formal or dynamic equivalence.

## **2.6. Translation quality assessment (TQA)**

“A Translator is severely criticized if he makes a mistake, but only faintly praised when he succeeds”  
(Nida 1964: 155).

### **2.6.1. Introduction**

Research in translation has shown that the concepts of translating have changed over time. As part of the translation process, the field of TQA has also witnessed considerable changes. In the pre-linguistic era of translation studies, for example, reference was often made to such vague concepts as the spirit and flavour of the ST as opposed to the natural flow of the TT. This traditional paradox can best be summed up in the words of Cicero: , “a translation should be free ... a translation should be literal” (House 1981: 2).

In addition, studies in translation quality assessment (House 1977; Wilss 1982; Hatim and Mason 1990, and Baker 1992) have ventured to introduce objectivity instead of subjective impressionism in judging translation quality. To this end, attempts have been made to develop an elaborate set of parameters, procedures and well-defined metlanguage in order to construct a model for translation assessment. However, this approach is not without its drawbacks. According to House (1981: 64), “it seems unlikely that translation quality assessment can ever be objectified in the manner of natural science.” Sager (1989) also maintains that “there are no absolute standards of translation quality but only more or less appropriate translations for the purpose for which they are intended” (ibid: 91).

In the following sections the main issues in TQA including translation competence, translation performance, criteria for TQA, existing models of TQA, errors and problems in translation and text typology will be discussed.

### **2.6.2. Translation competence**

The translator’s competence plays a key role in translation as Hatim and Mason (1990) state, “To study translations in isolation from the factors affecting their production is consequently to miss out an important dimension of the phenomenon” (ibid: 13). Therefore, the translator should be equipped with the expertise and knowledge that enable him/her to assess the quality of translations appropriately and effectively.



The translator's competence is of direct relevance to translation quality assessment. According to Campbell (1998), the quality of the translated text is a reflection of the translator's competence (ibid: 8). This view is shared by Honig (1998), who states that "only with this knowledge can a translator produce a TT that is appropriately structured and formulated in order to effectively fulfil its intended purpose for its addressees" (Quoted in Schaffner 1998: 3). Quoted in Campbell (1998: 11), Wilss (1976) defines translation competence as:

The ability to reproduce technical, common language and literary texts adequately in the target language which constitutes the overriding learning target on which all curricular components are focused.

In addition, Pym's (1992: 281) definition of translation competence is based on:

(1)The ability to generate a target-text series of more than one viable term (target text <sub>1</sub>, target text <sub>2</sub>, target text <sub>n</sub> etc.) for a source text, and (2) The ability to select only one target text from this series, quickly and with justified confidence, and to propose this target text as a replacement of source text for a specific purpose and reader.

Both definitions show that the translator's skills and knowledge are integral parts in producing an effective TT.

The translator's competence has also attracted the concern of translation theorists such as Toury (1984), Bell (1991), Hatim and Mason (1997), etc. Toury (1984), for example, suggests that bilinguals have an 'innate translation competence comprising bilingual and interlingual ability', as well as 'transfer competence' (ibid 189-90). Bell (1991: 36-42) proposes three ways in which translator competence might be achieved. First, is an 'ideal bilingual competence', which would conceive of the translator as "an idealized, flawlessly performing system". Second is "to characterize translator competence as an 'expert system' containing a knowledge base and an inference mechanism". Finally, there is communicative competence, which is subdivided into: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence (ibid: 38-41). Hatim and Mason's (1997: 205) model of translator abilities consists of three categories: source text processing, target text processing and transfer skills. Their analysis is comparable to Bachman's (1990) analysis of communicative language ability, which he defines under three broad categories of knowledge and skills, namely, organizational competence (including grammatical competence and textual competence); pragmatic competence (including illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence,

e. g register, dialect); strategic competence (including judging relevance, effectiveness and efficiency; forming plans for the achievement of communicative goals). Nord, in Dollerup and Loddegaard (1992: 47), lists the essential competences required of a translator as: competence of text reception and analysis, research competence, transfer competence, competence of text production, competence of translation quality assessment, and, of course, linguistic and cultural competence both on the source and the target side, which is the main prerequisite of translation activity.

### **2.6.3. Translation performance**

Another important element of translation quality assessment is translation performance, which Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997: 124) define as:

Following Chomsky's (1965) dichotomy, Toury uses the term performance to describe instances of actual translation (i.e. existing TTs) as opposed to the system of translational possibilities which exist between any potential SL and TL (known as translation competence). The term applies specifically to the type of interlingual communication known as translation.

In this study students' performance (translation product) will be judged in terms of acceptability by a group of qualified specialists in Arabic. This linguistic judgment of Arabic specialists will be essential in identifying, analyzing and classifying types of lexical, cultural and grammatical problems.

### **2.6.4 Translation quality assessment models**

Lauscher, who (2000: 162) defines TQA as a situation in which:

an evaluating person compares an actual target text to a more or less explicit, 'ideal' version of the target text, in terms of which the actual target text is rated and judged....

divides TQA approaches into equivalence-based approaches and functional approaches.

#### **2.6.4.1. Equivalence-based approaches**

According to Lauscher (2000: 151), “equivalence-based translation theories view translation as the attempt to reproduce the source text as closely as possible” Nord, in Dollerup and Loddegaard (1992: 40) states that in an equivalence-based approach to translation “the target text is subordinate to the source text”. For example, Nida and Taber (1969) distinguish between formal and dynamic equivalence (cf. section 2.3.3 Formal and dynamic equivalence) and Koller’s (1995) equivalence list includes denotative, connotative, pragmatic, textual and formal-aesthetic equivalence (cf. section 2.3.8. Koller’s linguistic-oriented approach). Nida’s (1964:159) ‘dynamic equivalence principle’ states that “the manner in which receptors of the translation text respond to the translation text must be equivalent to the manner in which the receptors of the source text respond to the source text”. However, the question is whether this criterion can be tested empirically to produce objective quality statements; otherwise, it will remain “mentalistic and needs further definition” (Newmark 1974: 64). Later studies by Nida and Taber (1969: 168-173) suggested the use of cloze tests (i.e. asking recipients to fill gaps representing words deleted in the TT) to measure the degree of comprehensibility and predictability without reference to the ST. In other instances, recipients were given alternative TT versions for comparison. Yet, in the absence of an ST and the lack of an objective yardstick for translation, quality is likely to be subject to impressions and personal background. This is particularly true for many TT readers who have no knowledge of metalanguage terms to use in describing their reaction.

Koller’s (1974) linguistic model of translation quality assessment involves three stages: (1) source text criticism with a view to transferability into the target language; (2) translation comparison in which the particular methods of translation used in the production of the given translation text are described; and (3) evaluation of the translation according to new criteria such as ‘adequate’ or ‘not adequate’. Yet Koller’s model did not go beyond a very general outline with no suggestions for operationalization (House 1981: 22).

Quoted in (Lauscher 2000: 151), Reiss believes that a translation is deemed good if it achieves optimum equivalence, that is if “considering the linguistic and situational context, the linguistic and stylistic level and the intention of the author, target text and target text units have the same value as the text unit in the source language”. She uses three categories

to assess optimum equivalence: (1) text type, (2) linguistic instructions, and (3) extralinguistic determinants (ibid: 151).

Despite being a comprehensive, systematic model of text analysis for translation and translation evaluation, Reiss's model suffers from the vagueness of 'optimum equivalence' as the yardstick for good translations. Her notion of 'optimum equivalence' offers a somewhat circular definition of equivalence in terms of texts and text elements being of equal value. In addition, Reiss's model cannot be applied to all texts. She herself points out that her approach is not applicable to translations that serve other functions than providing an equivalent reproduction of the source text, or to translations that address a different audience in the target culture (Nord 1997: 152).

House's (1977/1981 and 1997) model of translation quality assessment is based on pragmatic theories of language use, specifically speech act theory, and functional and contextual views of language, and textual considerations. Her functional equivalence serves as the yardstick for a 'good', or 'appropriate translation', which is achieved through two parameters: genre and register (House 1997: 31-32). Following Halliday, House subdivides register into field, tenor and mode and correlates it with lexical, syntactic and textual elements (ibid 42). Her evaluation procedure consists of: (1) establishing a source text profile along the operational-enabling parameters against which the target text is measured; (2) establishing the function of the source text; (3) comparing source text profile with target text; and (4) providing a statement of quality that lists, in addition to errors, the matches and mismatches along the parameters of genre and register, and comments on the translation strategy (ibid: 42).

In evaluating the relative match between ST and TT, House makes a distinction between dimensional mismatches or covertly erroneous errors, and non-dimensional mismatches or overtly erroneous errors, the latter type of errors comprising both mismatches of the denotative meanings of ST and TT elements and breaches of the target language system.

On the basis of the results of her study, House distinguishes between overt translation and covert translation. An overt translation is called for whenever an ST is source-culture linked and has independent status in the source language community. A covert translation on the other hand is called for whenever an ST is not source-culture linked, and does not have independent status in the source language community; a covert translation is not marked pragmatically as a TT of an ST, but might equally well have been created in its own right (House 1981, 189-194). In cases where functional equivalence cannot be achieved, House suggests a second level function to be posited as a criterion for adequate translation.

However, Lauscher, (2000), quoting van Dijk and Kintsch, states that House's functional equivalence seems problematic because interpretation of texts is not only linguistic but is also subject to influences which are cultural, social and individual, and lie outside the text (ibid: 154).

#### **2.6.4.2. Functional approaches**

"Functional approaches to translation evaluation see translation as a process of text production on the basis of a source text, and the target text is considered as a text in its own right" (ibid: 156). According to Schaffner (1998: 9-10), most functional approaches to evaluation are based on Vermeer's Skopos Theory where purpose (Skopos) of translation can no longer be deduced from the source text but depends on the expectations and needs of the target readers. Quoted in Lauscher (2000) Ammann (1990), whose model of the evaluation of literary translations is based on skopos theory, maintains that a good translation is one that allows the target reader to reach a coherent interpretation of the target text. Using the scenes-and-frames approach, Ammann proposes an evaluation procedure in which the critic first determines the function and coherence of the target text, as well as the function and coherence of the source text, before proceeding to compare coherence between source text and target text. Skopos theory has been criticised for advocating arbitrariness and discarding the value of the source text. However, Schaffner (ibid: 10) states that Skopos Theory never maintains that the purpose of a text should always be changed in translation, particularly in literary translations of Western cultures where a literary text remains embedded in the source culture.

#### **2.6.4.3. Nord's model of functionality and loyalty**

Nord's (1992) model represents an intermediate position between an equivalence-based approach and a functionalist approach. The model is based on the concept of functionality and loyalty in which the translator has to take account of both the source text-in-situation and the translation skopos (functional purpose). The model takes account of both the intratextual and the extratextual factors of communication, two integral factors in pragmatic text theory. Extratextual factors refer to the communicative situation and include seven factors: the author or the sender of the text, the sender's intention, the addressee or

recipient the text is directed at, the medium or channel the text is communicated by, the place and the time of text production or reception and the motive for communication. Intratextual factors on the other hand refer to the text itself and include information about the subject matter the text deals with, the information or content presented in the text, the knowledge presuppositions made by the author, the composition of the text, the non-linguistic or paralinguistic elements accompanying the text, the lexical and linguistic characteristics found in the text and the suprasegmental features of intonation and prosody. Nord also points out that assessment is a matter of grading errors, and she suggests a hierarchy of errors dependent on text function, with extratextual (pragmatic and cultural) errors generally being given more weight than intratextual (linguistic) ones.

Based on the intrinsic interdependence of extratextual and intratextual factors, the description of one should provide valuable information about the other which will enable "the translator to decide whether and in what respect the source-text material has to be adapted to the target situation and what procedures of adaptation will produce an adequate target text" (ibid: 45). However, Nord's model has been criticized for failing to satisfy the requirements of practicality for evaluation and for equating adequacy with near perfection (McAlester, 2000: 233).

## **2.7. Criteria for translation quality assessment**

Lauscher (2000) asserts the importance of establishing a list of criteria for a good translation applicable to all translations, adding that by such criteria it should be possible to make prescriptive judgements about individual translations being 'good' or 'bad' (ibid: 150). Hatim and Mason (1990: 5) also assert that "A common set of categories or parameters is needed and a set of terms for referring to them, a metalanguage for translation studies".

It is worth noting that TQA criteria are different, depending on the purpose of the assessment and on the theoretical framework used by the assessors. In the words of House (1997: 1) "Evaluating the quality of a translation presupposes a theory of translation". Thus different views of translation lead to different concepts of translational quality, and hence different ways of assessing it" (ibid: 1). Sager (1989: 91-101), for example, divides translation quality criteria into: major criteria and marginal criteria. Major criteria include appropriateness (which includes accuracy, intelligibility, functional adequacy and formal representation), dependent texts or derived texts, and considerations of time and effort.

Marginal criteria include disponibility (speed and availability of translators for less common languages and highly specialized subjects) and storing translation versus repeating a translation when the need arises. Masoud (1988: 19-24) lists eight criteria for a good translation:

1. A good translation is easily understood.
2. A good translation is fluent and smooth.
3. A good translation is idiomatic.
4. A good translation conveys, to some extent, the literary subtleties of the original.
5. A good translation distinguishes between the metaphorical and the literal.
6. A good translation reconstructs the cultural/historical context of the original.
7. A good translation makes explicit what is implicit in abbreviations, and in allusions to sayings, songs, and all nursery rhymes.
8. Above all, a good translation will convey as much as possible the meaning of the original.

Masoud's criteria assert one important fact that every judgement has a subjective component but at the same time they deny the idea of having one right translation for every text. In addition, her criteria can be used as major criteria to distinguish between an acceptable and an unacceptable translation.

Larson's definition of translation (1998) presupposes that a good translation is one that communicates to the target language speakers the same meaning as is understood by the speakers of the source language, and evokes the same response the source text attempts to evoke. The same view is shared by Newmark (1993), who describes a good translation as one that produces "an equivalent pragmatic effect on the reader rather than a denotatively equivalent version" (ibid: 128). He (1991) adds that "a translation has to be as accurate as possible, as economical as possible, in denotation and connotation, referentially and pragmatically" (ibid: 111). Brunette (2000) asserts that assessment criteria or parameters should be easy to understand, practical, limited in number, and verifiable, i.e. based on successful use of an assessment procedure. Her four criteria include logic, purpose, context and language norms (ibid: 174-180).

## **2.8. Errors and problems in translation**

### **2. 8.1. Translation errors: Definitions and classifications**

When assessing students' translations a large number of errors are observed. In general, errors have their own effect on the intended meaning of the translated texts, preventing them from functioning adequately. However, errors are now also looked at as a device that learners use and from which they can learn (Corder, 1967); they supply means by which teachers can assess learning and teaching and determine priorities for future effort (Richards & Sampson, 1974).

In translation studies, errors have been referred to as mistranslations (Newmark 1991, Lauscher 2000), defects (Pym 1992), mismatches or breaches (House 1981, Hatim and Mason 1997), deficiencies (Kusmaul 1995) and an offence against norms (Wilss 1982, Kupsch-Losereit 1985). Newmark, who (1993: 128) defines an error in translation as:

a case where a back translation or a segment of the translator's version would indisputably produce a segment of a text differing from the original segment,

attributed errors to the translator's ignorance or incompetence, the translator's concept of translation, and the translator placing more emphasis on readability or raciness than on accuracy (ibid: 118 ).

From a functional point of view, Kupsch-Losereit in (Nord 1997) defines a translation error as an offence against:

1. the function of the translation,
2. the coherence of the text,
3. the text type or the text form,
4. linguistic conventions,
5. culture-and situation-specific conventions and conditions and
6. the language system''(ibid: 73).

This view is shared by Nord (1997: 74), who states that:

"If the purpose of a translation is to achieve a particular function for the target addressee, anything that obstructs the achievement of this purpose is a translation error."



However, Nord (ibid) believes that fewer linguistic and translation errors are likely to be made if the original linguistic and cultural setting is correctly analyzed and a translation brief defining the intended function of the target text is given.

For Pym (1992: 281) a translation error or defect occurs if any of the two components of translation competence is violated:

- (1) The ability to generate a target-text series of more than one viable term (target text <sub>1</sub>, target text <sub>2</sub>, target text <sub>n</sub> etc.) for a source text, and
- (2) The ability to select only one target text from this series, quickly and with justified confidence, and to propose this target text as a replacement of source text for a specific purpose and reader.

However, Pym also attributes errors to other factors such as lack of comprehension, inappropriateness to readership, and misuse of time. He also believes that errors can also be located on numerous levels: language, pragmatic, culture, etc. Pym (1993) makes a distinction between errors and mistakes. A mistake “is where a particular choice is wrong when it should have been right, and there are no shades in between, there are no clines”. A mistake is “binary since it only involves a choice between a right and a wrong possibility” (ibid: 102). On the other hand, translational errors are non-binary: “they result from situations where there is no-clear-cut separation of right from wrong”. “In translational errors there is always a “but”. “And this “but” can lead to another possible translation, which might be almost right “but”, and so on.” (ibid: 102). In English language teaching Corder (1967) and James (1998) use the self-correctability criterion to distinguish between errors and mistakes. An error cannot be self-corrected because of the learner’s insufficient knowledge in the target language, but a mistake can be. An error is thus frequent or systematic and therefore more serious than a mistake. However, mistakes can become true translational problems if they are not corrected very quickly (Pym, 1993: 102).

Newmark (1993) has a different view concerning the errors-mistakes distinction. He divides mistakes into misleading and nuanced mistakes. Misleading mistakes can be (a) referential, i.e. misstatements of facts, and (b) linguistic. Nuanced mistakes are (a) stylistic, i.e. mistakes of usage or of register, where inappropriate language is used for a particular topic or occasion, and (b) lexical, where an unnecessary synonym or paraphrase is used. He regards nuanced mistakes as errors which could become mistakes in authoritative and expressive texts (Ibid: 30). Newmark summarizes the main difference between mistakes and errors as follows:

Errors relate to 'meaning'; 'mistakes' relate to message; errors may be personal, harmless, make little difference either way (not to the author, not to the reader), are sometimes in the taste area (ibid: 30).

In English language teaching a distinction is often made between interlingual and intralingual errors. Interlingual errors or interference errors occur when the systems or subsystems of two languages are different. In other words, when the structure of the first language is different from that of the second language, it interferes or prevents the learner from acquiring the second language (Corder, 1971). Intralingual errors are errors that have nothing to do with the student's first language. This kind of error involves generalizations from the second language because of partial exposure to the target language or insufficient learning, complexity of the target language structure, absence of motivation, etc. In addition, the learner might develop uses that correspond neither to the mother tongue nor to the target language (Richards, 1971).

In classifying translation errors most classifications of errors adopt a two-way distinction of error categorization. For example, Pym (1992) divides errors into: binary and non-binary errors. A binary error "opposes a wrong answer to the right answer", while a non-binary error "requires that the target text actually selected be opposed to at least one further target text<sub>2</sub>, which could also have been selected, and then to possible wrong answers" (ibid: 282).

A similar distinction to Pym's dichotomy is Honig's (1998) therapeutic and diagnostic errors. A therapeutic evaluative error is regarded as symptomatic of the student's surmised transfer competence, which in turn affects his translational competence. A diagnostic evaluative error on the other hand focuses on the effect a translated text has on its addressees. In other words, if the error cannot be perceived by a relevant user of the translation, it is not considered an error (Quoted in Schaffner 1998: 4-26).

House (1981) makes a distinction between overtly erroneous errors and covertly erroneous errors. Overtly erroneous errors result either from a mismatch of the denotative meaning of ST and TT elements, or from a breach of the target language system. Covertly erroneous errors on the other hand are those mismatches which result from the translator's failure to fulfil the requirements of a dimensional and a functional match in the TT. Overtly erroneous errors include (a) cases of overtly erroneous breaches of the denotative meaning (which include omission, additions and substituting: consisting of either wrong selections or wrong combinations of elements) and (b) cases of overtly erroneous breaches of the target

language system (which include cases of ungrammaticality and cases of dubious acceptability).

Hatim and Mason (1997) divide errors into language errors and text level errors, the first comprising errors in grammar, vocabulary and spelling and the second including register errors (e. g formality vs. informality of a text), pragmatic errors (contextual factors governing a text) and semiotic errors (mishandling discourse, text and genre). While language errors may be attributed to the translator's language competence, text errors may be ascribed to problems in textual competence (ibid: 164). Sager's (1989) list of language errors includes errors caused by inadequate knowledge of the vocabulary, orthography, morphology or syntax of the target language, while his list of text errors includes errors resulting from the misinterpretation of the text or inadequate expression.

Bastin (2000: 236) also adopts a two-way distinction approach, dividing errors into meaning-based errors and language-based errors. The first can be attributed to faulty analysis of the source text, while the second may be attributed to inadequate mastery of the target language.

On the other hand, Nord (1997: 75-6) divides errors into four types, namely pragmatic translation errors (caused by inadequate solutions to pragmatic translation problems such as a lack of receiver orientation), cultural translation errors (due to an inadequate decision with regard to reproduction or adaptation of culture-specific conventions), linguistic translation errors (caused by an inadequate translation when the focus is on language structures) and text-specific translation errors (related to a text-specific translation problem).

Although the present study adopts the two-way distinction of error categorization, namely errors relating to language and those relating to the text, the hybrid nature of errors makes different types of errors "perpetually mixed and numerous cases straddled the presupposed distinctions" (Pym: 1992: 282).

### **2.8.2. Translation Problems: Definitions and classifications**

Problems in translation studies have been referred to as obstacles and difficulty (Ghazala 1995, Jabak 2007), difficulties and problems (Newmark, 1981, 1993), and difficulties (Nord 1997). Nord differentiates between translation problems and translation difficulties. Translation problems are objective or at least intersubjective, while translation difficulties are subjective, i.e. they refer to the subjective difficulties facing a particular translator or

trainee in a translation process because of his/her deficient linguistic, cultural or translational competence (ibid: 64).

Nord (1992 and 1997) divides translation problems into four types: pragmatic translation problems (which arise from the particular transfer situation with its specific contrast of source language vs. target language recipients, source language vs. target language medium, source language vs. target language function, etc.); cultural translation problems (which are a result of the differences in culture-specific habits, expectations, norms and conventions concerning verbal and other behaviour, such as text-type conventions, general norms of style, norms of measuring, formal conventions of making certain elements in a text, etc.); linguistic translation problems (which are due to the structural differences between two languages, e.g. in lexis, sentence structure and suprasegmental features; cognates or false friends, one-to-many or one-to-zero equivalences, markers of indirect speech are examples of linguistic problems) and text-specific translation problems (which belong to specific translation problems whose occurrence in a particular text is a special case; figures of speech, metaphors, individual word creations or puns are examples of such problems).

One of the persistent problems of translation is the problem of interference, which is relevant to a one-to-one correspondence of literal meaning between two languages (Wallmach and Kruger, 1999). In translation, the lexical items and grammatical forms of the source language may in practice greatly influence the choice of lexical items and grammatical forms in the target language. The result will be forms that seem to be strange and foreign to the readers of the target language. Newmark (1981) categorizes several features of interference: "(a) collocations with similar forms in source language and target language but different meanings; (b) source language syntactic structures that are superimposed on the target language; (c) source language word order that is inappropriately reproduced; (d) primary meaning of a word interfering with appropriate contextual meaning; (e) stylistic predilections of the translator; and (f) the translator's idiolect" (ibid: 123).

## **2.9. Empirical studies in English-Arabic translation problems**

In addition to the previous theoretical studies, a number of empirical studies have been carried out identifying, analysing and classifying different translation problems, particularly English-Arabic translation problems. These empirical studies were divided into three categories:

### **2.9.1. MA theses**

Here, I review a number of recent MA theses. The coverage is not intended to be exhaustive, but to give an idea of the orientation in current research. All the recent MA studies on English-Arabic translation considered have focused on one single type of translation problem, e.g. cultural, lexical or syntactic. For example, Al Tal's (2007) study focused on some lexical and cultural problems involved in the translation of an Arabic dialectal text into English. Lexical problems included synonyms, homonyms, and lexical repetition, while culture-specific problems focused on cultural issues such as food, clothes and dress, proverbs and sayings and religious expressions. Al Tal concluded that an Arabic dialectal text can be translated into English if translators pay attention to the form and function of the SL dialect and select the appropriate strategies to preserve the function of the ST dialect.

Almubarak (2007) discussed the problems of cultural references in the English translation of Mahfouz's novel *Middaq Alley*. In analyzing these cultural references the researcher used Ivir's strategies, namely cultural borrowing, definition, substitution, lexical creation, literal translation, omission and addition. She also made use of Venuti's concepts of foreignization and domestication along with explanation and generalization. The study showed that some culture-bound words, especially those pertaining to Quranic and other religious expressions, idioms, metaphors and common expressions were very hard to translate. The researcher attributed this difficulty to the idiosyncrasy of Arabic cultural references which are derived from the Islamic culture. Almubarak came to the conclusion that literary translators should have both the theoretical knowledge and the practical skills to give a proper translation with the maximum cultural information.

Al-Samaraaie (2007) studied some stylistic and textual problems that were encountered by two groups of Arab students of translation when they translated Arabic literary texts into

English. The stylistic problems included literal translation, inexact translation (under-translation and over-translation), and L1 interference. The textual problems included compounding, wordiness, and fragmentation. The researcher attributed these problems to the linguistic differences between English and Arabic, the complexity of the target language and the influence of the subjects' mother tongue, calling upon departments of English and translation in the Arab world to seriously consider training programmes aimed at improving students' command of the English language.

Laib (2005) discussed cultural problems in literary translation by analyzing the English translation of Yasmina Khadra's *'Wolf Dreams'*. The researcher pointed out that literary texts present particular challenges to the translator, since he/she is dealing with two different cultures, concluding that a translator must become a good negotiator between source and target cultures in order to accomplish this task most appropriately.

Bartlett (2005) analyzed linguistic and cultural equivalence in the English translation of the Spanish novel *Como Agua Para Chocolate*. Bartlett found that linguistic equivalence can be achieved at a number of lexical and syntactic levels, while cultural equivalence is not easy to achieve due to the inherent differences between Spanish and English cultures. She added that a translator's decision in this respect should be made between foreignization and domestication and called for more studies to be done on other subcategories of equivalence.

Mehrach (1985) divides the translation problems encountered by a Moroccan trainee translator into semantic, syntactic and textual problems. Semantic problems are sub-divided into word concepts, redundancy, metaphor, clichés, and vogue word. Syntactic problems include word order, articles, prepositions, number, tense and voice (passive vs. active). Textual problems are subdivided into text type (expository vs. argumentative), cohesion (conjunction, lexical cohesion) and divisibility, i.e. the restructuring of either a sentence or a paragraph. Though the study discussed some translation problems relating to a political discourse text, more problems could have been discussed if more texts and more subjects had been involved. As Campbell (1998:19) says, "Studies based on a large corpus of literature would give better results".

## 2.9.2. PhD theses

After an extensive survey in the University Library and British libraries, the researcher came up with five dissertations dealing with English-Arabic translation problems. These studies will be discussed with reference to their significant findings.

One of the earliest attempts to study translation problems among Arab learners of English was carried out by Al Kenai (1985). In his thesis, *Some Linguistic and Cultural Problems of English-Arabic Translation and their Implications for a Strategy of Arabization*, Al Kenai embarked on a discussion of the history of Arabic and the factors that led to the decline of the language and its culture. According to Al Kenai, this deterioration can be attributed to the following causes:

Firstly, the recurrent invasions of Muslim lands by East-Asiatic hordes in the 11<sup>th</sup> century. The Seljuks, a Turkish-speaking people, encouraged Persian as the language of state and literature.

Secondly, the barbaric attacks of the Mongol hordes on the Eastern parts of the Muslim world during the 13<sup>th</sup> century. These attacks culminated in the ravaging of Baghdad and the burning of its central library in 1258.

Thirdly, during the four centuries of the Turkish reign of the Arab World, Arabic was supplanted by Turkish in administration and was no longer the only language of Islam.

Fourthly, with the advent of European colonization in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, English and French became the dominant languages, while Arabic was relegated to a marginal position and was driven back to the domain of the sacred.

Fifthly, the emergence of Modern Standard Arabic (henceforth MSA), as a new form of Arabic combining both classical Arabic (henceforth CA) and colloquial Arabic (henceforth COA), has had a negative impact on the structure of the language as a whole. MSA uses syntactic, lexical and stylistic features that are considered to be linguistic departures from the traditions of CA. At the syntactic level, for example, the use of declension or case-endings has been minimized, and the basic Arabic word order has come closer to English SVO, and instead of the analytic (inflectional) nature of CA, MSA is becoming synthetic.

According to Al Kenai, this period of stagnation and hibernation has resulted in lexical deficiency that has prevented Arabic from coping with new advances in the world, leaving it as a mere container of foreign knowledge and technology. Arab translators and Arabic Language Academies have had to develop new methods to cope with this shortcoming in

lexical terminology. Using semantic extension, derivation by analogy, compounding and improvisation, a large number of new terms have been generated. However, these newly created terms have not met the demands created by the rapidly developing sciences and growing terminologies in the west. This can be blamed, according to Al Kenai, on the lack of agreement between the various Arabic-speaking countries and the existence of different dialects in different Arab countries. He identified several other factors including the so-called rigidity of CA, the lack of qualified Arabic-speaking teachers, inappropriate Arabic text books and instructional materials and incompetent translators, which have led to the existence of spectroglossia, a situation in the Arab world, where colloquial dialects are used along with the most highly codified, superposed CA.

Another part of the study was devoted to discussing the processes of assimilation and transliteration of loan words. In this regard, Al Kenai referred to two opposing schools. The first school were the conservatives who opposed assimilation on the grounds that it could lead to an excess of foreign words that might ultimately cause harm to the spirit of the language, insisting that the method of derivation from Arabic roots was the most secure way to safeguard the purity and integrity of the language. The second school were the modernists who encouraged the use of foreign words, claiming that this procedure has the advantage of guaranteeing the preservation of their intended meanings. In dealing with borrowed words the modernists have two alternatives:

1. Direct borrowing by means of phonological and graphological adaptations of the foreign forms (transliteration).
2. Indirect borrowing or loan-translations, i.e. words modeled more or less closely on foreign ones, though consisting of native speech-material. The extent of borrowed word by means of either alternative is determined by:
  - a. The degree of difference between Arabic and the source language.
  - b. The extent of cultural contact and the degree of scientific or artistic achievement of the source language, e.g. Italian as the language of music and plastic arts, French as the language of fashion and diplomacy, and English and German of engineering and modern sciences.
  - c. The degree of lexical deficiency: Generally, colloquial dialects are more flexible than MSA in accepting loanwords. The dialects are primarily spoken, and there is no insistence by any body or authority that they should be kept pure.



Regarding the attitude of the Egyptian Academy, Al Kenai says that the academy has adopted a moderate attitude, permitting the adoption of foreign words if they follow the early Arabs' methods. However, the Academy has realized that total elimination of loanwords cannot be achieved since the validity of any proposed equivalent is not determined by a single decision.

Another relevant issue in the study is literal translation or calques. Al Kenai, among many other Arab researchers, believes that literal translation is one of the major problems facing Arab translators and has become common in journalistic writing. Quoted in Al Kenai (169), Ibrahim Al Yaziji (1856-1889) maintains that media language contains hundreds of semantic and stylistic irregularities employed by journals and newspapers. For example, there is a tendency among journalists to use the conditional **إن** and the temporal **إذا** with the meaning of 'whether' or 'if', e.g.

. انظر إذا كان علي في داره . 'See if Ali is at home'.

Another stylistic peculiarity is the excessive use of the relative pronoun **الذي** 'who' or 'which' and the frequent use of **يوجد** 'there is', which Jurji Zaydan (quoted in Al Kenai) refers to as a new development in MSA. For example, the addition of **يوجد** 'there is' in the sentence **يوجد في بلاد الحجاز عدة جبال.** 'There are several mountains in Hijaz.' is a straight translation of English, and therefore it can be deleted without causing any harm to the structure or meaning of the Arabic sentence.

The following table contains some of the most common literally translated terms in media, as shown in this study (ibid: 169-171).

English political term	Literal Arabic equivalent
play a role	يلعب دوراً
under the auspices of	تحت رعاية
the relations deteriorated	تدهورت العلاقات
a stumbling block	حجر عثرة
to protest against	يحتج ضد
well-informed sources	مصادر موثوقة
final touches	اللمسات الأخيرة
kill time	يقتل الوقت
envoy extraordinary	سفير فوق العادة
behind the scenes	من وراء الكواليس

**Table 3: Most common literally translated terms in media**

Al Kenai believes that it is virtually futile to try to replace these expressions with other equivalents since most of them have become an essential part of everyday language.

With regard to transliteration, he believes that Arab translators can have recourse to transliteration if a word has no equivalent in Arabic, or when such an equivalent is opaque or not popular enough. He attributes the difficulty of transliteration to the numerous phonological and graphological differences between English, an Indo-European language, and Arabic, a Semitic language.

In discussing the cultural problems that can often result in cultural unintelligibility in English-Arabic translation, Al Kenai considers cultural terminology pertaining to food and cooking, articles of clothing, building, seating, transport, kinship systems, religious terms, politics, weather and temperature, colour terms, idiomatic expressions, collocations and proverbs. He believes that the key to solving these problems lies in the ability of translators to understand what the people of the source culture mean by these terms; bilingual dictionaries usually fall short of providing the contextual and the connotative meaning of these cultural terms.

Regarding stylistic incompatibilities Al Kenai refers to two main problems: textual incompatibilities and translation shifts. The former result from the frequent use of conjunctions such as 'and', 'من جانب آخر' or 'علي صعيد آخر' 'on the other hand', 'كما' 'also, and 'أما' 'as for', the unsystematic use of punctuation marks and the lack of adherence to paragraph division. In addition, journalists working in English-Arabic translation often avoid translating English cohesive elements by their possible Arabic equivalents. This will lead to repeating the same lexical item or items making the translated text much longer than the source text. On the other hand translation shift results when English informal style is rendered into standard Arabic. Al Kenai gives two reasons for a style shift. The first is cultural style shift, which may occur when the translator is required to replace a certain type of style by another in order to readjust his translation to the general frame of the TL culture. The second reason is related to the diglossic nature of the Arabic language, where a formal style is used in all Arabic translations. Al Kenai criticized Arab translators for replacing English informal style by Arabic formal style, calling upon them and language specialists to narrow the gap resulting from such a shift by incorporating both the formality of MSA and the informality of colloquial Arabic in their Arabic translations.

Al Kenai's study concentrated on some linguistic and cultural problems with the general aim of investigating their implications for the formulation of a workable strategy of Arabization. In particular, the study focused on spectroglossia and its effects on Arabization and the state of hibernation the Arabic language has come through. The study also focused

on evaluating programmes of teaching foreign languages (TFL) in the Arab World and their role in upgrading the level of translations. In addition, the study drew the Arab speaker's attention to the possibility of using Arabic not only as a medium of elegant expression which is employed primarily to talk about abstract topics of religion and morality, but also as a language which can communicate straightforward facts and yet can be used informally outside the classroom. According to Al Kenai, this can be achieved by:

First, changing the Arab speakers' attitude towards their language, i.e. before Arab students can be persuaded that Arabic is an adequate replacement for foreign languages, it will be necessary to show them that Arabic can give them access to material of the same quality as that available through these languages.

Second, the provision of attractive and appealing material in Arabic which suits the taste of the general public.

Al Kenai also supported the view that Arabization, production of Arabic texts, and improving the techniques of teaching the Arabic language should proceed simultaneously with the strengthening of teaching foreign languages, so that Arab scholars may be kept abreast of developments in their fields.

Ghazala (1995) was the next scholar to study translation problems among Arab learners and suggested solutions to solve these problems. He classified translation problems into grammatical, lexical, stylistic and phonological problems. The following is a list of the grammatical, lexical and stylistic translation problems as indicated in the table of contents.

Grammatical problems	Lexical problems	Stylistic Problems
Verb to "Be"	Literal translation	Formality vs. informality
Verb to "Do"	Synonymy	Fronting
Verb to "Have"	Polysemy and monosemy	Parallelism
Modals	Collocation	Ambiguity
Questions	Special fixed phrase: idioms and proverbs	Complex vs. simple style
Negation	Figurative language: translation of metaphors	Short sentences
Nominal sentences vs. verbal sentences	Technical translation: Arabization	Long sentences
Word order	Proper names	Passive vs. active
Personal pronouns	Titles	Repetition and variation
Present participle vs. gerund	Political establishments	Redundancy
Past participle	Geographical terms	Expressivity, context and readership
Adjectives	UN acronyms	Nominalization vs. verbalization
Tenses	Translation of culture	Irony
Conditional sentences		Punctuation marks
Word classes		
Articles		
Sentence connectors		

**Table 4: Translation errors detected in Ghazala's study**

As shown below the examples used by Ghazala are isolated and decontextualized. Most of the problems involved in his study are basic grammatical errors that novice translators might make.

1. I am a student. \*(أنا أكون طالبا) (p. 28).
2. She is kind. \*(هي تكون طيبة) (p. 28).
3. The food was eaten. \*(كان أكل الطعام) (p. 30).
4. The diplomat left for London. \*(الدبلوماسي غادر إلى لندن) (p. 49).

Another important study discussing English-Arabic translation problems was conducted by Al Ghussain (2003). She discussed the linguistic and cultural problems encountered by senior students in the English Department at Al Azhar University, Palestine. The researcher used a translation sample consisting of seven female students who were asked to translate twenty-six texts representing different aspects of Western culture. The translation sample consisted of ten political texts, ten social texts and six religious texts. The study indicated that students' linguistic problems included word order, connectors, active and passive, emphatic particles, tenses, transliteration and loan words, proper noun equivalents, singular and plural, classifiers, punctuation, definiteness and indefiniteness, acronyms, metaphors, puns, collocation, polysemy, adverbs, grammatical errors, and use of colloquial Arabic. Translation problems at the cultural level showed that certain political, social and religious culture-bound expressions constituted the greatest challenges for the student translators due to differences in the source and target cultures. According to Al Ghussain, the linguistic difficulties were attributed to the differences between the English and Arabic linguistic systems and students' tendency towards literal translation. For instance, in translating the 10 political texts, the researcher found that 71% of the total of 203 sentences was translated by nominal sentences, and 29% were translated by verbal sentences. This, according to Al Ghussain, is an indication of the students' tendency towards literal translation. This tendency will also be investigated in the translation sample of the present study. The cultural problems on the other hand were attributed to the students' lack of familiarity with Western social life in addition to differences between the source and target cultures.

Though the study discussed the cultural and linguistic problems encountered by Al Azhar University students, other problems of idioms, lexical inconsistency and its effect on the process of standardization in Arabic, repetition and parallelism, problems relating to structural levels across the two languages and text type, problems of cohesion and

coherence, etc. were not included. In her assessment of students' erroneous translations, Al Ghussain depended on her intuition and experience in identifying and analyzing the translated texts. In other words, she did not make explicit use of native speakers of Arabic to determine the acceptability of the translated texts. Unlike her study the present study will indicate that the linguistic judgments of translated texts as decided by qualified specialists of Arabic are one of the most significant criteria in determining the quality of the translation through identifying, analyzing and classifying lexical, cultural and grammatical problems. In addition, most of the texts used in Al Ghussain's translation test sample dealt with one type of genre: expository texts, e. g. political, social and religious texts. However, more translation problems could have been identified if other types of texts, e.g. argumentative, descriptive, and narrative had been included. The translation problems resulting from these different types of texts will reflect the greatest challenges that Palestinian EFL learners face in English-Arabic translation. Identifying, analyzing and classifying these translation problems and the appropriate strategies for dealing with them will provide a solid foundation for a translation syllabus based on the findings of this empirical study. In terms of the population sample, Al Ghussain used a small number of participants; only seven female students participated in the test sample. None of their male colleagues took part in the study, preventing the researcher from looking at the translation problems encountered by both sexes. Although students in Gaza universities study on two separate campuses, a sample including both male and female senior students would give more reliability to the research findings. In the present study the gender issue will be investigated by looking at the translations carried out by 28 male and female students chosen randomly from a total population of 500 students at the IUG English Department. The inclusion of both male and female students will provide corroborating evidence regarding one of the four hypotheses of the study, i.e. the existence of gender differences regarding translation problems. The strategies used by the researcher to analyze cultural references were confined to addition, omission and cultural transplantation. Other strategies such as borrowing, defining the elements of culture, substitution, and lexical creation (cf. 3.3.3. Procedures and strategies for the translation of culture) were not used.

One of the most extensive studies investigating translation problems in translating from English into Arabic was carried out by Deeb (2005). Motivated by the desire to discuss the practical problems confronted by students of translation and the lack of a detailed classification of problems of translation, Deeb provided a taxonomy of problems

encountered by Arab students translating from English into Arabic. The taxonomy was a result of two studies: the researcher's case study and the multi-subject main study. The aim of the first study was to generate a provisional taxonomy of translation problems that could be used as a hypothetical model to be tested in the second multi-subject study. To do this, the researcher adopted the self-experiment method in which she played the role of the subject by translating nineteen texts from Duff's book *Translation* (1989). The aim of the second study was to test the translation problems provisionally identified in the pre-study against a multi-category group of subjects: Seventy-four undergraduate and post-graduate students studying English and translation at the Academy of Graduate Studies at Al Fateh University, Libya translated the same collection of texts used in the first study. However, not all her subjects translated the same number of texts. The final taxonomy of problems based on the analysis of data in the two studies is shown below.

Supra-categories	Main categories	Sub-categories	Sub-sub-categories	
Problems of comprehension and problems of production: ST&TT	Micro/language problems	Grammar	Morphology	
			Prepositions	
			Tense	
			Articles	
			Word order	
			Passive	
			Negation	
		Vocabulary	Conditionals	
			Polysemy	
			Divergence	
			Derivation	
			Technical terms	
			Proper nouns	
			Compounds	
			Collocations	
	Phrasal verbs			
	Fixed Expressions			
	Connotative meaning			
	Spelling	Synonyms		
		Near-Synonyms		
		Word formation		
		Lexical voids		
		Arabization		
	Macro /lexi-level problems	Rhetorical and Stylistic Devices	Invention	
			Morphological spelling	
			Dialect influence and hypercorrection	
			Slips	
			Metaphor and simile	
		Cohesion	Repetition and parallelism	
			Satire	
			Irony	
			Puns and alliteration	
			Reference	
Substitution				
Ellipsis				
Conjunctions				
Register and style		Theme and rheme		
		Paragraphing		
		Graphic/orthographic marks		
		Background Knowledge		
		Culture	SL culture-bound item/s	
	TL cultural values interference			
Humour				
Religion				
Politics				
Problems of transfer process	Strategies	Problem realization and mental search for solutions		
		Physical search for solutions		
		Drafting and editing		
		Back translation		
	Techniques	Addition	Addition of information	
			Addition of stress	
			Alternative translations	
			Expansion	
		Omission	Omission of items	
			Omission of section/s	
Analogy and coining				
Other process factors				

Table 5: Translation errors detected in Deeb's study

With regard to the results, the study showed that vocabulary errors came first with a total score of 8.32% followed by errors in grammar with a total score of 3.5% .While lexical errors are attributed to the fact that vocabulary items represent the core element around which the whole text revolves and students' tendency to translate over-literally, grammatical errors are blamed on students' tendency to follow the ST grammatical system, the difficulty of ST grammar and the complex system of Arabic grammar. Other findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. With reference to the relation between translating experience and subjects' translation problems, the study revealed that postgraduates performed much better than their undergraduate counterparts. In Deeb's view this is mainly because postgraduates are more advanced in SL comprehension, more experienced in handling language issues, and more efficient in using translation strategies.
2. Despite such terms being limited in number, Deeb found that students were inconsistent in translating technical terms. Sometimes they tended to Arabicize the loan word, and sometimes they transliterated it. This inconsistency, attributed by most Arab translation specialists to the ongoing conflict between purists and innovators and the lack of coordination between the several Arabic Language Academies with regard to the standardization of the terms used, correlates with Saraireh's (2001) findings.
3. Students' translations reflected a tendency towards explicitness rather than implicitness, which Deeb, among others, attributed to the fact that Arabic is an explicative language while English is more implicative. Being too explicit can lead translators to include information that does not exist and is not intended to be inferred in the SL text.
4. Concerning ranking the difficulty of problems, the study showed that text-level errors are more severe than individual language errors, and accordingly are more difficult to solve, as they jeopardize the comprehension of the TT. The study also showed that the availability of an equivalent proved to be a crucial criterion in identifying the difficulty in translation. However, the availability of an equivalent is of no use if the student is not aware of its existence or lacks the skill to search for it.

Despite being one of the most comprehensive studies of English-Arabic translation, the translation problems investigated in the study were restricted by the text types in Duff's book *Translation* (1989). These texts were characterised by their brevity and minimal surrounding contexts. In her evaluation of the translation teaching material used in



translation training programmes in Libya, the researcher criticised the texts for being quite short and for adopting either too “micro” or too “macro” an approach, adding that “students need experience with longer texts” (ibid: 348). In addition, the texts used in the study were mainly selected to test general features of English rather than features related to specific text-types (ibid: 273). In her discussion of cultural references Deeb acknowledged that cultural references represented a small proportion of the overall range of possible cultural references (ibid: 299). In the present study cultural problems will be discussed in detail with reference to the strategies of Ivir, Newmark and Mailhac. The study will investigate the most common strategies adopted by Palestinian EFL students in translating cultural references. The linguistic context of the participants as Palestinians who have been living under the Israeli occupation for five decades may generate some specific lexical, cultural and grammatical problems. Finally, working in accordance with Deeb’s recommendations to carry out further translation studies, particularly among Arab translators, this study will investigate gender difference regarding common translation problems, a variable that has not been investigated in previous studies.

Abbadi (2007) investigated translation problems encountered by professional translators in Jordan. She collected her data from the translations of 100 argumentative political texts translated by 100 certified professional translators in Jordan. Using a corpus-based analysis Abbadi divided the translation problems found in her study into three main categories: lexical, grammatical and textual, as can be seen in Table 6 below:

Lexical errors	Translation Errors	
	Literal translation	
	Synonyms	
	Omissions	
	Compounds	
	Collocations	
	Proper nouns	
	Addition	
	Political terms	
	Idioms	
	Acronyms	
	Culture specific	
	Grammatical errors	Word order
		Articles (definite/indefinite)
Agreement		
Prepositions		
Case ending		
Passive		
Word formation		
Tense		
Pronouns		
Text level errors	Punctuation	
	Typographical errors	
	Omission	
	Cohesion	
	Spelling	
	Paragraphing	
	Coherence	
	Headlines	

**Table 6: Translation errors detected in Abbadi's study**

Though Abbadi's study has contributed significantly to the field of English-Arabic translation, particularly in relation to translation problems encountered by Arab professional translators, the use of corpus analysis in her study has its own shortcomings. In this regard, Abbadi (2007) quotes Baker and McEnery as saying "having a wider view may mean that subtleties of language are overlooked" and they further add that "any data retrieved from such an analysis is not self explanatory" (ibid: 83). Abbadi also acknowledged the limitations of the corpus analysis in her study on the fact that it did not offer 100% accuracy and that it only identified omissions (ibid: 245).

### **2.9.3. Academic articles**

Following a thorough investigation of the most recent articles on English-Arabic translation, the researcher came up with a considerable number of articles which discuss one aspect of the most common translation problems between English and Arabic. Bahumaid (2006)

investigated problems of collocations in English-Arabic and Arabic-English translation and the procedures employed by translators in rendering them. The data were collected from four informants who had practised translation for different periods of time. They were asked to translate 30 sentences that contained 15 English collocations and 11 Arabic ones in addition to four Arabic phrases which have certain English collocations as their equivalents. The results showed the informants' below average performance in translating collocation from English to Arabic and vice versa. The researcher attributed this to (1) the lack of a precise specification of what constitutes a collocation in English lexical studies; (2) the fact that collocations are very difficult to render from English into Arabic and vice versa even for qualified and experienced translators; (3) the non-existence of Arabic-English collocational dictionaries; and (4) the lack of proper training in handling collocations at translator training institutions in the Arab world. He called upon Arab institutes and colleges of translation to include in their study plan a compulsory course on collocations.

Al Jabr (2006) studied the problems syntactically-complex sentences pose for Arab translation students and prescribed some strategies that may help learners overcome them. Ten students majoring in English and translation at the Faculty of Foreign Languages and Translation, Ajman University, UAE were asked to translate ten multi-clausal sentences representing five distinct genres, namely fictional narrative, journalistic, commercial, legal and academic. The students were divided into two groups: a control and an experimental group, each consisting of five students. The control group students were asked to translate the ten sentences without any prior explanation of the above strategies. On the other hand, the experimental group students had an hour and a half session in which the sentences were analyzed and explained to them using three strategies: sentence analysis, questions formation and sentence division. The results showed that the experimental group students found the given sentences in both languages much easier to interpret and translate. However, both groups found the English sentences much more difficult to translate than their Arabic counterparts. This, according to Al-Jabr, may be due to the fact that English favours subordination, while Arabic generally prefers coordination. In other words, in Arabic sentences, subjects are rarely separated by intervening clauses or phrases from their verbs. In terms of genre, legal discourse posited the greatest challenge, next came academic, narrative, journalistic and commercial respectively. In respect of the Arabic sentences, on the other hand, both groups found fictional narrative sentences the easiest, next came journalistic, commercial, academic and legal respectively. The researcher recommended that

teachers of translation and authors should pay due attention to the problems of syntactically complex sentences and encourage their students to choose the appropriate strategies that may help them overcome them.

Abu-Ssaydeh (2004) examined the strategies employed by Arab translators when rendering English idioms into Arabic. The sample consisted of two hundred and fifty-three idioms randomly collected from several issues of the Arabic version of Newsweek, a weekly publication of the Kuwait-based Dar Al-Watan. The study showed that paraphrasing is statistically the most common strategy used by Arab translators (around 42%), followed by borrowings (around 23%), literal translations (around 17%) and substitution (13%), with omission, compensation and other strategies being of significantly less importance. The researcher attributed the high percentage of paraphrasing to the different idiomatic systems and the divergent historical affiliations of the two languages. He recommended that translator training courses should focus on improving the lexical competence of translators, particularly in areas related to idioms, multi-word units and metaphors, calling for the development of Arabic language corpora, as a crucial factor for the documentation and verification of the lexical, syntactic, and semantic changes which the Arabic language is undergoing at present.

Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) examined Arab students' competence with some English collocational sequences and the strategies they employed when translating the target collocations from the native language into the target language. The data consisted of a two-form translation test of 16 Arabic collocations of the verb كسر 'he broke'. The first form included the English translation in a multiple-choice format to test the subjects' recognition skill, whereas the other form was given as a free translation task to test their production skill. The two tests were administered to two groups of EFL university students (38 graduates and 32 third-year undergraduates) from the Department of English at Yarmouk University, Jordan. The study revealed that the students at both graduate and undergraduate levels faced difficulty with English collocations in both reception and production. However, the students' proficiency in the receptive task was significantly better than in the productive task, and graduates outperformed undergraduates quite remarkably in both receptive and productive skills. The study also showed that the subjects employed twelve communicative strategies to convey the English meaning of collocations. These strategies include avoidance (11.61%), literal translation (7.59%), substitution (2.86%), overgeneralization (1.34%), quasi-morphological similarity (0.04%), assumed synonymity (1.88%), derivativeness

(0.02%), idiomaticalness (1.70%), verbosity (1.70%), paraphrase and circumlocution (15.63%), graphic ambiguity (1.07%) and false interlingual assumptions (4.91%). The researchers called for a more constructive instructional focus on the phenomenon of collocation in English at both school and university levels.

Abdel-Hafiz (2003) examined the pragmatic and linguistic problems involved in the English translation of Naguib Mahfouz's *The Thief and the Dogs*. The data involving the pragmatic and linguistic problems were collected by comparing two English translations of the novel with the original text. The pragmatic translation problems were focused on the translators' ignorance of the contextual factors and violation of speech acts, the maxims of the politeness principle and types of inferencing (e.g. conventional implicatures and presuppositions). The linguistic problems on the other hand were discussed on two levels: the lexical and syntactic. At the lexical level the researcher identified the problems of unnecessary addition of lexical items, lexical inconsistency and the difference between denotative and connotative meanings. The translators' problems at the syntactic level included explicit reference in Arabic vs. implicit reference in English, confusion in using the past perfect and the past simple, definiteness and indefiniteness, genitive constructions and active and passive constructions. The researcher called upon translators to take these pragmatic and linguistic factors into consideration in order to produce a TT which is culturally and linguistically acceptable.

Sarairh (2001) discussed the problem of inconsistency in technical terminology and its effect on the process of standardization in Arabic. He divided inconsistency into three types: (1) Cases in which Arabic synonyms are employed to refer alternately to a concept that has been introduced in Arabic although that concept has been exclusively assigned a certain Arabic signifier but not any of that signifier's synonyms. For example, 'vaccination': تلقيح/ تطعيم and 'syringe' محقنة, محقان, حاقنة, ابرة and نيدل (i.e. 'needle'); (2) Cases in which inconsistency occurs when the translator employs Arabic and non-Arabic items in the translation (i.e. loan forms and their Arabic equivalent are alternately used) to refer to the same borrowed concept whether in the same text or in different texts; for example, 'telephone' هاتف / تلفون , 'radio' راديو/مذياع ; and (3) Cases in which different derivations of the same basic Arabic word are alternately employed in the TL to refer to the same concept in the SL. For example, 'chemical' كيميائي , كيماري , and كيمي , 'filtration' ترشيح , ارتشاح , and ترشح . To test the accuracy of the above translations the researcher used the reverse translation method where sixteen students were divided into two groups, each containing

eight students. One group was asked to translate into English selected extracts with different Arabic items for 'filtration'. The other group was given the same texts but with one Arabic lexical item, namely ترشيح. The first group provided awkward translations because they were puzzled about the alteration, while the second group did not face any difficulty in rendering the lexical item. To avoid inconsistency in technical terminology, the researcher called for more coordination among the several Arabic Language Academies in their efforts to produce acceptable translations to be used by all technical translators throughout the Arab world.

Using a discourse-based approach Jabr (2001) examined Arab translators' problems at the discourse level, particularly those relating to the textual and the structural level across language and text type. The data was collected from three translated texts representing three different text types: expository, instructional and argumentative. The first two texts were translated from Arabic into English by academic/professional translators, while the third one was translated from English into Arabic by three graduate students who were involved in an MA programme in translation and applied linguistics at Birzeit University, Palestine. The analysis revealed that the translators of the first two texts adopted a word-for-word method by copying the syntactic structures and the sentence-boundaries and inter-sentential relations of the ST. Specifically, the translations at the structural level showed violations of the lexico-grammatical elements and the standards of cohesion and coherence. At the structural level, the translators did not maintain the structures of the expository and instructional texts. On the other hand, the translations of the third text showed an awareness of the rhetorical function of the given text despite their differences in lexico-grammatical choices. However, the translators showed disagreement in using inter-sentential connectives and pronominal references. At the structural level, only one student deviated from the sequence and paragraphing order of the ST. The researcher called upon Arab translation institutions and universities to include programmes that expose Arab would-be translators to a variety of text types in both languages.

El-Shiyab (2001) investigated the semantic and linguistic functions of two punctuation marks, namely the semicolon and the colon and their problematic nature in translation. The data consisted of a questionnaire distributed to 20 MA translation students in the English Department at Yarmouk University, Jordan. The students were asked to translate four texts from English into Arabic. The results showed that most of students were not aware of the semantic and pragmatic functions of punctuation marks in general and the semicolon and

the colon in particular. The researcher attributed the problematic nature of these punctuation marks to the interference of Arabic as the students seemed to be influenced by the writing patterns of their native language. He also maintained that the students were not only unfamiliar with the way most punctuation marks are used in English in general and the semicolon and the colon in particular, but they are also not familiar with the punctuation marks used in their own language, calling for more contrastive studies to be done on punctuation marks from a linguistic as well as translation point of view.

Farghal (1995) studied some lexical and discursal problems encountered by advanced Arab translation students in English-Arabic translation. Fifteen students were asked to translate an English political text as an integral part of the course requirements leading to an MA English-Arabic translation at Yarmouk University in Jordan. The study showed that students' lexical problems were related to culture-bound metaphors and lexical gaps, while the discursal ones focused on their inability to distinguish between the personal 'you' at the sentence level and the impersonal one at the discourse level. Others are related to students' failure to mark the thought-relationship between sentences in the two languages. The researcher attributed these problems to literal translation and students' tendency towards formal translation in addition to lexical and discursal differences between English and Arabic which frequently result in uninterpretable translations. The researcher came to the conclusion that achieving an equivalent effect in translation depends on several factors including the type of text and the closeness or remoteness of the SL and the TL. He called for translation teachers and practitioners to be sensitized to the subtleties of lexis and discourse, and the resulting interaction between them.

Unlike the previous studies, the majority of which focused on one aspect of general translation problems e.g., cultural, lexical, grammatical, or pragmatic, the present study deals with three types of translation problems, namely lexical, cultural and grammatical. The inclusion of cultural problems will focus on one of the most difficult problems facing Arab translators in general and Palestinian student translators in particular. Aziz (1982) maintains that cultural problems often pose a greater difficulty for a translator than do linguistic ones. El Sheikh (1977: 452-3) states that non-equivalence of culture may make translation more difficult than non-equivalence of grammatical categories. In other words problems of beliefs, traditions and social norms are subtler and more numerous than problems of grammar and lexicon. In addition, a group of qualified specialists of Arabic will be involved in judging the acceptability of students' translated texts. This linguistic

judgment of the qualified specialists in Arabic will be effective in identifying, analyzing and classifying types of lexical, cultural and grammatical problems. The outcomes reached in this study will provide Arab translators in general and Palestinian translators in particular with various techniques and strategies to cope with these three types of problems.

## 2.10. The Text Typological Model

De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 3) define a text as:

A COMMUNICATIVE OCCURRENCE which meets seven standards of TEXTUALITY. If any of these standards is not considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative.

According to De Beaugrande and Dressler, the seven standards of textuality are cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality (cf. *ibid* 48-208). The interaction of these standards with each other makes communication efficient. However, if a text lacks any of these standards it will not be considered communicative.

The Text Typological Model of translation consists of four components. They are:

1) Context is a crucial element which determines the structure of the text. According to Hatim (1984:147), context almost causally determines the shape of the text's hierarchic structure, which in turn determines the kind of texture devices used to make the text operational. To deal with texts effectively, Hatim maintains that three aspects of context have to be taken into consideration: pragmatics (implicatures-speech acts), semiotics (a text as a sign which interacts with other signs) and communicative transaction. Hatim adds:

It is this pragma-semio-communicative decision on the part of discourse users, and the acceptance of such a decision by discourse receivers, which constitute optimum conditions for the successful realization of the text in question (*ibid*: 147).

These three contextual domains of activity work together with other contextual variables such as: field of discourse (i.e. what the text is going to be about), tenor of discourse (whether a text is formal, semi-formal or informal) and the mode of discourse (whether the text is to be read, or to be listened to, etc).

2) Structure refers to the way a text is organized. This kind of organization is hierarchical, and it is within this hierarchy that a number of elements (e.g. grammatical clauses or



phrases) combine to form larger sequences (supra-sentential entities) which combine to form texts.

3) Texture is the way various elements of a discourse hang together to form bigger chunks of language. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976: 2): "A text has texture, and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text... the texture is provided by the cohesive relation". It is the structure of text - determined by the context- which motivates the deployment of the various devices of texture. These devices include cohesion, theme-rheme progression and the kinds of information collectively used in 'charting routes' for the discovery of structure and text. Consider the following example from the source texts:

"We the undersigned call upon the British government: ...to apply pressure through the UN for Israel to respect the UN resolutions requiring its withdrawal from the territories it illegally occupied in 1967" (Text Eleven).

It is obvious that both 'its' and 'it' refer back to (are anaphoric with) 'Israel'. These anaphoric functions of 'its' and 'it' give cohesion to the sentence. The texture is provided by the cohesive relation which exists between 'its', 'it' and 'Israel'. According to Shaheen,

"Understanding structure and texture is very useful for students as it enables them to achieve an objective reading of the SLT. As a result, the students will be able to preserve the SL text type by finding the closest equivalence in the TL, with the least possible modifications to the SL" (1991: 38).

4) Text type: Different text typologies have been proposed, each addressing texts from a different perspective. For example, Bühler's (1934) typology of texts is based on language function. It suggests three functions of language: the expressive, focusing on the author's mind (e.g. literary work, etc); the informative, focusing on the extralinguistic reality (e.g. scientific report, news reports, etc); and the vocative, focusing on the receiver's response (e.g. instructions, publicity, etc.) (Newmark 1988: 40). Werlich's (1976) typology, which is based on a rhetorical purpose, suggests three function types of text. The first is the expository text, with its three subtypes: descriptive, focusing on object and relation in space; narrative, focusing on events and relations in time and conceptual, focusing on concepts and relations in terms of either analysis or synthesis. The second type is the argumentative, with its two subtypes: overt argumentation (e.g. the counter-argumentative "letter to the editor") or covert argumentation (e.g. the case-making propaganda tract). The third type is the instructional, with its two subtypes: instruction with option (e.g. advertising) or instruction

with no option (e.g. treaties, contracts and other binding legal documents) (Hatim and Mason, 1990: 153-8).

Hatim and Mason (ibid: 150-3) maintain that identifying the text type enables the translator to find the best equivalence at both the macro-and micro-textual levels of the text. They acknowledge the importance of using a text-linguistic approach to the classification of texts as an effective tool for selecting, grading and presenting materials for the training of the translator. They believe that 'different text types seem to place different demands on the translator, with certain types and forms being more demanding than others' (ibid: 177-193). Holding the same view, Shaheen (1991: 37-47) stresses the significance of a text typology approach to translating, adding that this approach helps the translator to achieve an objective reading of the SLT and to produce a closely corresponding TLT, preserving the SL text type. Snell-Hornby (1992: 17) also maintains that translator trainers should present students with a representative cross-section of subject areas and text types in order to properly prepare them for entering the translation profession. However, a major problem with text typology is the hybrid nature of many texts, i.e. some parts of the overall text may be best classified as belonging to one text type (for example, the expository), while others may be best classified as belonging to another text type (for example, the argumentative). According to Hatim (1997: 41), texts also tend to manifest different features that are difficult to attribute to a certain text type. Newmark (1988: 42) also states that classifying texts into 'expressive', 'informative' and 'vocative' is only used to show the emphasis or thrust of a text or what Werlich (1976) calls dominant contextual focus (Quoted in Hatim and Mason, 1990: 145).

It is within this model that a number of lexical, cultural and grammatical problems can be adequately identified and explained. The Text Typological Model can provide a plausible explanation of problems committed not only at the levels of syntax and lexis but at the level of discourse as well.

## 2.11. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the relation between language and translation, the concept of equivalence in translation and the difference between equivalence and adequacy, translation quality assessment models, definitions and classifications of translation problems and errors with specific focus on English-Arabic translation problems and the Text Typological Model. The discussion of two approaches to equivalence, namely 'Individual level' approaches and 'Composite level' approaches as well as adequacy together provide the model which will be used in the practical analysis chapters of this thesis (cf. Chapter Six and Chapter Seven). For example, in analysing any individual translation decision, this model will allow us to say at what individual level or levels there is equivalence and whether this is more oriented towards 'formal equivalence' or 'dynamic equivalence'. More importantly, in looking at a section of text (e.g. a paragraph), or even a whole text, we can suggest whether the general orientation is towards formal or dynamic equivalence. In the following chapter a number of lexical, cultural and grammatical areas of symmetry and asymmetry between English and Arabic will be discussed. In addition, translation techniques will be suggested to provide analytical insights into methods for dealing with the translation problems faced by students at the IUG.

## **Chapter Three: Lexical, cultural and grammatical symmetries and asymmetries between English and Arabic**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Languages may be similar in certain aspects by virtue of the fact that they are all linguistic, as opposed to non-linguistic, semiotic systems. However, even closely related languages may differ in many ways. For example, though almost all western European languages are both linguistically and culturally related, they show many linguistic and cultural differences. For instance, the word 'large' appears in English and French, but with a different denotation in the two languages: in French the word signifies 'wide'. In Spanish, the lexical item 'largo' is not the equivalent of 'large' in English but of 'long'. The English word 'butter' and the Italian term 'burro' refer to the product made from milk. However, the two words do not have the same signification within their separate cultural contexts. In Italian 'burro' - normally light coloured and unsalted - is used for spreading on bread and less frequently in cooking (Bassnett, 1980: 26). According to Bassnett, the butter-burro translation serves as a reminder of the validity of Sapir's statement that each language represents a separate reality (ibid: 27).

The above-mentioned examples show that discrepancy exists between languages which are genetically and culturally closely related. However, the situation is likely to be much more pronounced when the source language and the target language are genetically as well as culturally unrelated, as in the case of Arabic and English.

This chapter is going to discuss some lexical, cultural and grammatical symmetries and asymmetries between English and Arabic. Examples representing lexical, cultural and grammatical structures will be analyzed to identify areas of symmetry and asymmetry in the two languages. In addition, translation techniques will be suggested to provide the translators with some tips in dealing with translation problems.

### **3.2. Lexical symmetries and asymmetries**

This chapter will consider both primary meaning (denotation) as well as secondary meaning (connotation) in language. In addition to denotation and connotation this chapter will discuss other lexical areas which may cause difficulty for the English/Arabic/English

translator. These include synonymy, homonymy and polysemy, collocation, idioms, neologisms and oligosemy. Each of these lexical areas will be presented with examples from English and Arabic with the problematic issues highlighted.

### 3.2.1. Denotation

Lexical items have both denotative and connotative meanings. The denotative meaning, also known as the cognitive, propositional, conceptual or literal meaning, is "that kind of meaning which is fully supported by ordinary semantic conventions" (Dickins et al, 2002: 52). For example, the denotative meaning of the word 'window' refers to a particular kind of aperture in a wall or roof. It would be inaccurate to use 'window' to refer to other things than the particular references of the relevant sense of the word.

Dictionaries seek to define meaning. However, dictionaries have their own problems. One of these is that "they impose, by abstraction and crystallization of one or more core senses, a rigidity of meaning that words do not often show in reality, and partly because, once words are put into a context, their denotative meanings become more flexible" (ibid: 52). These two reasons - the rigidity of meaning and the flexibility of words in contexts - make it difficult for the translator to determine the exact denotative meaning in any text including the most soberly informative texts.

Intralingually, English shows some forms of semantic equivalence including full synonymy. For example, 'my mother's father' and 'my maternal grandfather' are synonyms of one another. In other words, in every specific instance of use, 'my mother's father' and 'my maternal grandfather' include and exclude exactly the same referents (Dickins et al, 2002: 53). However, full synonymy is exceptional, both intralingually and interlingually.

In his/her attempt to find the closest equivalent to translate the denotative meaning of a source language item, the translator usually faces difficulty in finding a full target language synonym. An example which illustrates the difficulty the translator may face in finding an appropriate equivalent is the English term 'uncle' as compared to the Arabic terms **خال** and **عم**. In English the term 'uncle' has a greater range of meanings than the Arabic terms **خال** and **عم**, as 'uncle' refers both to a father's brother and mother's brother. The relationship between 'uncle' and **خال** and between 'uncle' and **عم** is known as hyperonymy and hyponymy. According to Dickins et al, hyperonymy or superordination refers to an expression with a wider, less specific, range of denotative meaning. Hyponymy on the other

hand refers to an expression with a narrow, more specific range of denotative meaning. Therefore *خال* or *عم* are both hyponyms of the English term 'uncle' (ibid: 55).

Translating by a hyponym implies that the target language expression has a narrower and a more specific denotative meaning than the source language word. Dickins et al (2002: 56) call translation which involves the use of TT hyponym particularizing translation or particularization. In translating from English to Arabic, the target word *خال* is more specific than the source word 'uncle', adding the particulars not present in the source language expression.

Another example which shows lexical differences between English and Arabic and may therefore create lexical translation problems is the lexical item 'cousin'. In English 'cousin' can have eight different Arabic equivalents:

1. Cousin: *ابن العم* 'the son of the father's brother'
2. Cousin: *ابنة العم* 'the daughter of the father's brother'
3. Cousin: *ابن العممة* 'the son of the father's sister'
4. Cousin: *ابنة العممة* 'the daughter of the father's sister'
5. Cousin: *ابن الخال* 'the son of the mother's brother'
6. Cousin: *ابنة الخال* 'the daughter of the mother's brother'
7. Cousin: *ابن الخالة* 'the son of the mother's sister'
8. Cousin: *ابنة الخالة* 'the daughter of the mother's sister'

All of the above eight Arabic terms are hyponyms of English 'cousin'.

The previous discussion has shown that there are semantic differences between English and Arabic that the translator should be familiar with. The translator should look for the appropriate target language hyperonym or hyponym when there is no full target language synonym for a certain language expression.

### 3.2.2. Connotation

Unlike denotative meaning connotative meaning is described as "the communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual content" (Leech, 1974: 14). As Leech states, the word 'woman' is defined conceptually by

three properties 'human', 'female', 'adult'. In addition, the word includes other psychological and social properties such as 'gregarious', 'subject to maternal instinct'. Leech maintains that 'woman' has the putative properties of being frail, prone to tears, and emotional. He (ibid: 14) distinguishes between connotative meaning and conceptual (denotative) meaning in the following ways:

1. Connotative meanings are associated with the real world experience one associates with an expression when one uses or hears it. Therefore, the boundary between connotative and conceptual meaning is coincident with the boundary between language and the real world.
2. Connotations are relatively unstable; they vary considerably according to culture, historical period, and the experience of the individual. Leech believes that all speakers of a particular language share the same conceptual (denotative) framework just as they share the same syntax. In Leech's view, the overall conceptual framework is common to all languages and is a universal property of the human mind.
3. Connotative meaning is indeterminate and open-ended in the same way as our knowledge and beliefs about the universe are open-ended. In other words any characteristic of the referent identified subjectively or objectively, may contribute to the connotative meaning of the expression which denotes it. In contrast the conceptual meaning of a word or sentence can be codified in terms of a limited set of symbols, and the semantic representation of a sentence can be specified by means of a finite number of rules.

Expressive meaning, as Baker (1992) calls it, refers to the speaker's feelings or attitude rather than to what words or utterances refer to. In her opinion the two expressions 'do not complain' and 'do not whinge' have the same denotative meaning, but they differ in their connotative meaning. Unlike, 'complain', 'whinge' suggests that the speaker finds the action annoying (ibid: 13).

Based on Leech's classification of meaning (1974: 26), Dickins et al (2002: 66-74) distinguish five major types of connotative meanings, as follows:

1. Attitudinal meaning: the expression does not merely denote the referent in a neutral way, but also hints at some attitude to it. For instance, 'the police', 'the filth' and 'the boys in blue' have the same denotative meaning. However, the expressions have different connotative meanings. 'The police' is a neutral expression, 'the filth' has pejorative overtones while 'the boys in blue' has affectionate ones. In the following example, the

translator has used the term 'lady' rather than 'woman' since 'lady' has overtones of respect.

أه يا بيروت..... يا أنثاي من بين ملايين النساء  
Ah Beirut....my lady amongst millions of women.

2. Associative meaning may consist of expectations that are rightly or wrongly associated with the referent of the expression. For example, the term 'Crusade' has strongly positive associations in English, whereas its Arabic equivalent حملة صليبية has negative associations, since the word is associated with the Crusades to Palestine in the Middle Ages. Conversely, the term جهاد in Arabic has positive associations, since the word is associated with one of the five pillars of Islam, and those who are killed in the cause of Allah are rewarded with heaven on the Day of Judgement. On the contrary, the term جهاد has negative associations in the West, since the word is connected with international extremist organizations, especially after the September 11 attacks.

3. Affective meaning is related to the emotive effect worked on the addressee by the choice of expression. For instance, the two expressions 'silence please', and 'shut up', or الرجاء الصمت and أسكت in Arabic share the same denotative meaning of 'be quiet'. However, the speaker's attitude to the listener produces a different affective impact, with the first utterance producing a polite effect and the second one producing an impolite one. Therefore, the translator should choose a suitable lexical item that produces the same effect on the TL reader as that intended by the author of the original text on the SL reader.

4. Allusive meaning occurs when an expression evokes an associated saying or quotation in such a way that the meaning of that saying or quotation becomes part of the overall meaning of the expression. For example, the oath الالتزام التام بالإخلاص و الثقة والسمع والطاعة في العسر و اليسر , which members of the Muslim Brotherhood swore to their leader, Hassan Al Banna, alludes to the Quranic verses: إن مع العسر يسرا. إن مع العسر يسرا (Chapter: 94, Verses 5 and 6).

5. Reflected meaning is the meaning given to the expression over and above the denotative meaning which it has in that context by the fact that it also calls to mind another meaning of the same word or phrase. For example, the word 'rat' in 'John was a rat' has two meanings: the first denotative meaning is someone who deserts his friends, and the second connotative reflected meaning is the animal 'rat'. In Arabic to call someone حمار means denotatively



'stupid'. The word حمار also refers to the animal 'donkey', which in this context provides a connotative reflected meaning\*.

Connotative meanings may differ from one place to another. Larson (1998) states that connotative meanings of lexical items differ from one culture to another, since the people of a given culture look at things from their own perspective. Many words which look like they are equivalent are not; they have special connotations (ibid, 149). For example, the lexical item بومة and the English word 'owl' have the same denotative meaning. As mentioned in (Section 1.1), both of them refer to the same class of bird. However, the two words have different connotative meanings. In Arabic the word بومة has many negative connotations and is always seen as a symbol of bad luck, while in English, 'owl' has positive and favourable associations. To translate the English expressions: 'He is as wise as an owl' or 'He is a wise old owl.' into Arabic as هو حكيم كالبومة would be unacceptable because of its negative connotations in Arabic. The English expressions are rendered into Arabic as هو حكيم 'He is wise'. Problems in translation may arise when the translator does not take into account the different connotations of lexical items in the source and target language. Therefore, the translator may need to explain the connotative meaning of the lexical item in the form of a footnote or a definition within the text in order for the target language reader to understand the favourable or unfavourable connotations of the source language item.

Connotative meanings may vary from one text type to another. For example, literary and religious texts make significant use of connotative meaning, as universality of terms used in these texts are not the norm. On the other hand, the terms used in scientific and technical texts are typically universal and thus entail one-to-one correspondence. According to Newmark (1981: 132) if the emphasis of the text is on information, clarity, simplicity and orderly arrangements are the qualities required for conveying the information and achieving a similar effect on the target language reader as the source language author produced on the original reader. However, if the text attempts to persuade or direct the reader, the affective function is likely to dominate the informative function. Finally, if there is a nuance of persuasion, encouragement, scandal, optimism, pessimism, or determent, the reader is likely to react more strongly to it than to the information the text relates to. Newmark concludes that "the essential element that must be translated is the affective/persuasive, which takes precedence over the informative. It is the peculiar flavour, which in speech is the tone, not

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For further information on other types of connotative meaning, see Dickins et al (2002: 66-74).

the words, which has to be conveyed" (ibid: 132-3). In order to convey the source language message to the target reader the translator should have a good knowledge of text types. This knowledge will enable the translator to choose the most appropriate equivalent in terms of denotative and connotative meaning in the target language.

### 3.2.3. Collocation

As one of seven categories of meaning, Leech (1974: 20) defines collocative meaning as "the associations a word acquires on account of the meaning of words which tend to occur in its environment". Leech exemplifies 'pretty' and 'handsome' and the collocates of each. These words share the common grounds of 'good looking', but they are differentiated by the range of nouns with which they are likely to co-occur. 'Pretty' collocates with 'girl', 'boy', 'woman', 'flower', while 'handsome' collocates with 'boy', 'man', 'vessel', etc. Baker (1992: 47) states that "collocations are often semantically arbitrary co-occurrence restrictions which do not follow logically from the propositional meaning of the word". She says that the propositional (denotative) meaning of a word does not always determine the collocational patterning. For example, English speakers typically 'pay a visit' but less typically 'make a visit' and they do not 'perform a visit'. Another example of collocation in English is 'rancid' and 'addled'. Though the two words have the same denotative meaning, they have different collocational patterning. 'Addled' collocates with 'eggs', while 'rancid' collocates with 'butter' (ibid: 47). As the previous examples show collocation is not merely a matter of association of ideas, but as Bollinger, quoted in Emery (1991: 59) says: "a collocation may involve normal senses of all the words in a string but without the easy possibility of substituting some other word with the same meaning."

Collocations and idioms are different from each other in many ways. Baker (1992) states that idioms and fixed expressions are at the extreme end of the scale from collocations in the areas of flexibility and transparency of meaning. They are frozen patterns of language which allow little or no variation in form and their meanings cannot be deduced from the meanings of their constituent elements. For example, 'bury the hatchet' means 'to become friendly again after a disagreement or a quarrel' (ibid: 63). Bahumaid (2006) maintains that many collocations share with idioms the two features of unpermitted permutations or insertion of an additional element within the collocating items. However, unlike idioms, the meanings of the elements of a collocation are reflected in the meaning of the collocation as a whole

(ibid: 134). Cruse (1986) draws a distinction between collocations and idioms. According to Cruse, collocations refer to “sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur, but which are nonetheless fully transparent in the sense that each lexical constituent is also a semantic constituent” (ibid: 40). Examples of collocations include ‘fine weather’, ‘torrential rain’, ‘light drizzle’, and ‘high winds’. Cruse maintains that collocations have a kind of semantic cohesion where the constituent elements are mutually selective, adding that “the semantic cohesion of a collocation is the more marked if the meaning carried by one or more of its constituent elements is highly restricted contextually, and different from its meaning in more neutral contexts” (ibid: 40). For instance, the word ‘heavy’ in ‘a heavy drinker’, ‘a heavy smoker’, and ‘heavy on petrol’ requires fairly narrowly defined contextual conditions which requires the selection of the notion of ‘consumption’ in the immediate environment. On the other hand, idioms are characterized by lexical complexity, i.e. they consist of more than one single lexical constituent, and single minimal signification, i.e. they have single minimal semantic constituents. A minimal semantic constituent is indivisible into semantic constituents. Therefore, expressions like to ‘pull someone’s leg’, ‘to have a bee in one’s bonnet’, ‘to kick the bucket’, and ‘to cook someone’s goose’ are examples of idioms (ibid: 37).

Collocations differ from one language into another. According to Baker (1992: 49) English and Arabic use different collocational patterns that reflect the preferences of each community for certain modes of expression and certain linguistic configurations. For example, the English ‘deliver’ collocates with ‘letter’, ‘speech’, ‘news’, ‘blow’, ‘verdict’, ‘a baby’. Arabic, on the other hand, uses different verbs, as shown in the following examples:

English Collocation	Arabic equivalent
deliver a letter/telegram	يسلم خطابا   تلفرافا
deliver a speech/lecture	يلقي خطبة   محاضرة
deliver news	ينقل أخبارا
deliver a blow	يوجه ضربة
deliver a verdict	يصدر حكما
deliver a baby	يولد امرأة

Table 7: A set of collocations in English and Arabic

In the following set of collocations the English ‘catch’ collocates with ‘fish’, ‘cold’, ‘train’, ‘fire’. Arabic, on the other hand, uses different verbs, as shown in the following examples:

English Collocation	Arabic equivalent
catch a fish	بصطاد سمكة
catch a cold	بصاب بنزلة برد
catch a train	يلحق بالقطار
catch fire	تشتعل فيه النار

**Table 8: A set of collocations in English and Arabic**

The previous examples of collocations show that English and Arabic use different collocational patterning. In Zughoul's (1991: 52) own words: "what collocates in one language does not necessarily collocate in another".

Baker (1992) maintains that collocations are a direct reflection of the material, social, or moral environment in which they occur. For example, the English collocation 'law and order' reflects the high value that English speakers place on order, while a typical collocation in Arabic القانون والتقاليد 'law and convention/tradition' reflects the high respect accorded by Arabs to the concept of tradition. According to Dickins et al (2002: 71) the two languages also have different collocations in the use of conjoined phrases. For instance, the English equivalent of أصحاب النفوذ و أهل الود would be 'the rich and powerful', rather than 'the powerful and rich', while the collocation من دمه ولحمه is equivalent to 'his own flesh and blood', rather than 'his own blood and flesh'. Other examples include 'life and death' الموت والحياة and 'day and night' ليل نهار.

Collocations constitute a major problem for translators. As Newmark (1988:180) maintains "The translator will be caught every time, not by his grammar, which is probably suspiciously 'better' than an educated native's, not by his vocabulary, which may well be wider, but by his unacceptable or improbable collocations". In translating from English into Arabic or vice versa the translator faces the difficult task of finding appropriate collocations in the target language, as he is dealing with two languages that are linguistically and culturally distinct. Therefore, the translator should pay considerable attention to the collocational differences between the two languages in order to choose the appropriate collocation in the target language. A translator who renders 'shake hands' as يهز الأيدي would give an erroneous translation. The Arabic equivalent for the English collocation 'shake hands' is يصافح, which is not a collocation in Arabic.

### 3.2.4. Synonymy

All semanticists agree that two or more words are said to be synonymous when they show partial or total similarity of meaning. Lyons (1995: 60), for example, defines 'synonyms' as two or more words that have the same meaning or similar meanings in some or all of their uses. He distinguishes between near-synonymy and absolute synonymy. Near-synonymy refers to expressions that are more or less similar, but not identical, in meaning, e.g. 'mist' and 'fog', 'stream' and 'brook', and 'dive' and 'plunge'. Absolute synonymy refers to two or more expressions that are identical in meaning, both descriptively (denotatively) and non-descriptively (connotatively) and that they are used interchangeably in all contexts. Lyons maintains that absolute synonymy does not typically exist in natural languages as there are many words which are synonymous in one or more, but not all, of their meanings (ibid: 60-5).

Larson (1998: 172) maintains that the choice of the correct synonym depends on several factors including the collocational range of each of the synonymous items as well as the connotative overtones associated with each of them. For instance, 'the police', 'the filth' and 'the boys in blue' are synonyms but cannot be used interchangeably in most contexts; the expressions have different connotative meanings. 'The police' is a neutral expression, 'the filth' has pejorative overtones while 'the boys in blue' has affectionate ones. Larson adds that it is very important that the translator be aware of the very minute differences in meaning between words and near synonyms so as to choose the word that has the right connotations (ibid: 79).

Two or more synonymous words or expressions may differ in style. For example, 'die', 'pass away', 'kick the bucket', 'decease' and 'croak' differ with regard to the degree of formality and/or politeness. In Arabic, the lexical item توفي is more formal than مات. The choice could have major social consequences in displaying piety or disrespect towards the deceased (Farghal 1994: 60). Other euphemistic expressions of death are انتقل إلى رحمة الله and انتقل إلى جوار ربه. The two expressions can be translated into English as 'passed away'; a term that would roughly convey the intended meaning of the Arabic expressions in an appropriate way. According to Farghal (ibid), such ideational equivalence - roughly semantic equivalence - may be the only convenient option for the translator if formal and

functional equivalence would sound odd or awkward\*.

Synonyms in the same language may differ from one geographical area to another. For instance, the English words 'lift', 'lorry', and 'windscreen' are 'elevator', 'truck', and 'windshield' in American English respectively. The issue becomes more complicated when dealing with two languages that are culturally distant such as Arabic and English. The two languages are rich in synonymy, making the task of choosing an appropriate translation very difficult and even bewildering. According to Lobner (2002: 154), "The ubiquitous polysemy of the vast majority of words suggests that - with the exception of number terms- there are almost no two expressions from different languages that have the same overall meaning". For example, the word *رحمة* is roughly rendered in English as 'mercy'. However, the word *رحمة* has other meanings, as is shown in the following verses of the Quran:

يُبَشِّرُهُمْ رَبُّهُمْ بِرَحْمَةٍ مِنْهُ وَرِضْوَانٍ وَجَنَّاتٍ لَهُمْ فِيهَا نَعِيمٌ مُّقِيمٌ.

(Chapter, 9, Verse, 21)

"Their Lord doth give them glad tidings of a Mercy from Himself, of his good pleasure, and of Gardens for them, Wherein are delights that endure" (Ali 1977: 444).

فَلَمَّا جَاءَ أَمْرُنَا نَجَّيْنَا صَالِحًا وَالَّذِينَ آمَنُوا مَعَهُ بِرَحْمَةٍ مِنَّا وَمِن خِزْيِ يَوْمِئِذٍ إِنَّ رَبَّكَ هُوَ الْقَوِيُّ الْعَزِيزُ.

(Chapter 11, Verse, 66)

"When Our Decree issued, We saved Salih and those who believed with him, by a special Grace from Ourselves and from the ignominy of that Day. For thy Lord-He is the Strong One, and Able to enforce His Will" (ibid: 532).

وَإخْفِضْ لَهُمَا جَنَاحَ الذُّلِّ مِنَ الرَّحْمَةِ وَقُلْ رَبِّ ارْحَمْهُمَا كَمَا رَبَّيَانِي صَغِيرًا.

(Chapter, 17, Verse, 24)

"And, out of kindness, lower to them the wing of humility, and say "My Lord ! bestow on them thy Mercy even as they cherished me in childhood" (ibid : 701).

وَإِذَا أَنْقَضْنَا الرَّحْمَةَ فَرَحُوا بِهَا وَإِنْ نَصَبْنَاهُمْ سِنِينَ بِمَا قَدَّمْت أَيْدِيهِمْ إِذَا هُمْ يَقْنَطُونَ.

(Chapter, 30, Verse, 36)

"When We give men a taste of Mercy, they exult thereat: and when some evil afflicts them because of what their (own) hands have sent forth, behold, they are in despair!" (ibid: 1061).

Here, the word *رحمة* is rendered differently in each of the four verses of the Quran. In the first verse the word has the meaning of 'mercy' which is roughly equivalent to the English

For further details about ideational equivalence in translation, see Farghal (1994: 60).

word. However, the word differs from the English word in the other verses. The word *رحمة* is rendered as 'a special grace', 'kindness', 'a taste of mercy' respectively. None of these meanings matches the English word 'mercy'. Thus, the translator should consult the context of the source language item before choosing the right equivalent in the target language.

In conclusion, one must recognize that synonymy is often difficult to assess, particularly when the element in question has different features of meaning. To choose the right equivalent the translator should be familiar not only with the denotative but also the connotative meaning of the lexical item.

### **3.2.5. Polysemy and homonymy**

Palmer (1981: 100) defines polysemy as "the case in which the same word may have a set of different meanings". As a source of ambiguity, Palmer (*ibid*) acknowledges the difficulty of determining whether two putative meanings are the same or different and, therefore, determining exactly how many meanings a word has. Another difficulty, as Palmer maintains, is whether there is polysemy (one word with several meanings) or homonymy (several words with the same form). According to Palmer, "a polysemic item has a single dictionary entry, while a homonymous one has a separate entry for each of the homonyms" (*ibid*: 100-1). Another major criterion used by most lexicographers to distinguish between polysemy and homonymy is 'relatedness' of meaning. According to Saeed (2003) 'relatedness' refers to the speaker's intuitions, and what is known about the historical development of the items or etymology (*ibid*: 64-5). However, Saeed, among others, does not believe that 'relatedness' of meaning can be a decisive and straightforward criterion in distinguishing between polysemy and homonymy, since native speakers differ in their intuitions, and historical fact and their intuitions may contradict each other (*ibid*).

Like most lexicographers, a number of semanticists think that the distinction between polysemy and homonymy seems to be quite arbitrary. They base their conclusions on the fact that it is not possible to specify the origin of words in an objective way; nor do they find it logical to consider words with totally different meanings as polysemic on the grounds of the fact that they have the same origin. According to Lyons (1995), the etymological criterion typically supports native speakers' intuitions about particular lexemes. For example, most native speakers of English regard the two lexical items 'bat' (furry mammal with membranous wings) and 'bat' (implement for striking a ball in

certain games) as homonyms. The two words are historically unrelated, the former being derived from a regional variant of Middle English 'bakke', and the latter from Old English 'batt' meaning 'club, cudgel'. However, the etymological criterion falls short of supporting the speakers' intuitions about other lexical items. For example, most native speakers of English regard the two homonymous items: 'sole' (bottom of foot or shoe) and 'sole' (a kind of fish) as semantically unrelated though they have come from the same origin (ibid: 58-9).

Polysemy may be used for poetic purposes. Poets frequently play with words in order to add beauty to the nature of their poetic speech. One kind of meaning which is highly exploited by poets is reflected meaning. As noted in (Section 3.2.2. Connotation), Dickins et al (2002: 72) define reflective meaning as "a form of meaning in which a single word has two or more senses, and its use in a particular context in one of its senses conjures up at least one of its other senses". They (ibid) think that reflective meaning is a function of polysemy, i.e. the existence of two or more denotative meanings in a single word. For example, the word 'rat' in 'John was a rat' has two meanings: the first particular denotative meaning is someone who deserts his friends or associates, and the second basic denotative meaning of the animal 'rat'. Likewise, حمار in Arabic metaphorically means 'stupid'. The word also refers to the basic denotative meaning of the animal 'donkey'.

The sense in which a polysemous word is being used can typically be deduced from the context. However, the linguistic context does not always resolve the ambiguity of homonymous or polysemous forms, as is shown in the following verse from the Holy Quran:

وانت حل بهذا البلد (Chapter 90, verse 2)

"And you are free (from sin, and to punish the enemies of Islam on the Day of conquest) in this city Makkah" (Al Hilali and Khan: 1996: 835-836)

According to Ilyas (1989), the homonymous and/or polysemous form حل has been taken by the commentators of the Holy Quran as signifying: 'dwelling', 'free to act', and 'exposed to harm'. The term was given different renditions by the translators of the Holy Quran. Sale, Rodwell, Palmer, Ali, Arberry define حل as 'resides' 'dwell', 'a dweller', 'free from attack' and 'a lodger' respectively (ibid: 119). As the above translation shows Al Hilali and Khan define حل as 'free from sin, and to punish the enemies of Islam on the Day of the conquest'. Ilyas maintains that when more than one of the meanings of a polysemic word match the



context, it becomes problematic for the translator to find one specific equivalent. The translator in such circumstances has to make use of the extra-linguistic context (context of situation) or any useful information (grammatical features) in his/her endeavour to select the correct equivalent. However, if the translator's attempt with regard to the context of situation fails, s/he may resort either to an arbitrary choice with an explanatory footnote in which s/he has to make his/her uncertainty about the equivalent clear to the reader, or to employ transference of the SL form and use an explanatory footnote (ibid: 119). On the other hand, when a polysemous sign is used ambiguously on purpose by the author, the translator has no right to resolve the ambiguity, but should instead try to reproduce the same ambiguity or a similar one in order to fulfil the function of the intended ambiguity either by rewriting the SL word and making use of an explanatory footnote, or by rendering the functionally relevant ambiguous SL form by a different but corresponding TL form that may serve the same function. For example, the polysemous word 'bank' can be effectively rendered either by implanting the English polysemous sign in the TL rendering it as:

إن الكلمة الانجليزية 'bank' مثال جيد على المشترك اللفظي.  
(The English word 'bank' is a good example of polysemy)

or by substituting the English polysemous sign 'bank' by the Arabic polysemous sign عين if it were to be translated into Arabic (Ibid:118-9).

إن الكلمة العربية "عين" مثال جيد على المشترك اللفظي.  
(The Arabic word عين is a good example of polysemy)

According to Al Mujam Al Waseet (1973: 641) the lexical item عين has several meanings including 'eye', 'spring of water', 'spy', 'notable person', and 'head of army'.

### 3.2.6. Oligosemy

Catford (1965) refers to 'oligosemy' as a kind of linguistic untranslatability, such that "If an SL item has a particularly restricted range of meaning it may not be possible to match this restriction in the TL" (ibid: 96). 'Oligosemy' is thus a function of a particular hyperonymy-hyponymy relationship between words or phrases in two languages, where a translation into the TT involves a hyperonym /superordinate. According to Catford, the Russian lexical item 'prisla' signifies 'to arrive on foot', i.e. arrival is restricted to the form of walking only.

English has no lexical item with a correspondingly restricted range of textual meanings. In his view, the English lexical term 'come' may be a perfect translation equivalent; however, this restriction of meaning of the word 'prisla' may itself be a functionally relevant feature of the situation. Catford maintains that when such narrowing of the denotation is functionally relevant it may become problematic for the translator unless the TL happens to have an equivalent oligosemy (ibid: 98).

An example of oligosemy in Arabic is the lexical term *زكاة*, which is typically rendered as 'alms', 'poor-due', 'charity' or 'alms-giving'. All these English terms apply to any act of voluntary, unselfish giving of anything useful in any amount. However, such meanings would more closely correspond to the Arabic term *صدقة*. The word *زكاة* is something quite different. According to Al Azzam (2005), "Sadaqa and Zakat have different associative emotive effects as the way each is performed causes favourable or unfavourable feelings on the part of the person paying this due and the person receiving it. In other words, persons paying Zakat cannot necessarily expect gratitude as what they pay is the right of the needy to their wealth, and the needy do not feel hesitant in taking this right; Sadaqa, on the other hand, as a voluntary form of alms, can be expected to induce gratitude on the part of the receiver" (ibid: 91-92).

To translate the lexical item *زكاة* as 'alms' in English falls short of conveying the religious and cultural connotations associated with the lexical item. The word *زكاة* does not match any of the above English terms. Therefore, in a context where the precise denotation is important, the word may be transliterated and explained in a footnote.

### 3.2.7. Neologisms

According to Kharma (1997: 31), a neologism is a word or phrase which has been recently created to apply to new concepts, or to reshape older ideas in a newer linguistic form. Neologisms are useful in identifying inventions, new phenomena or old ideas which have taken on a new cultural context. The term *ايميل* 'e-mail' is an example of a neologism. Neologisms have become accepted parts of the language. Whether a neologism continues as a part of the language depends on many factors including acceptance by the public, acceptance by linguistic experts and incorporation into dictionaries. Language experts (not linguists) sometimes object to a neologism on the grounds that a suitable term for the thing described already exists in the language, while non-experts describe neologism as abuse and

ignorance of the language. On the other hand, proponents of neologism see it as being useful, and also helping the language to grow and change.

In Arabic neologisms are one of the translator's greatest difficulties. They come in thousands, and no central academy or institution is capable of dealing with such numbers quickly enough to inform the translator of the appropriate terms to be used in a certain context. In industry, technology, mass media, sciences, and dialects new items are constantly being created, causing a difficulty for translators especially in developing countries. Arabic, which is not linguistically related to Greek or Latin, faces a special difficulty in creating equivalent terms to those created in the West. In Arabic borrowing is not encouraged but academies cannot keep up with the flood of new terms. Even if they could, there is no central authority in the Arab world to generalize their use in all Arab countries (ibid: 31).

According to Beeston (2006: 104-5), Arabic has been fairly resistant to the importation of foreign words, and the prevailing tendency in Arabic has always been to assign new senses to existing words, or to make new coinages from the existing resources of the language. The assignment of new senses to existing words is normally achieved by adding a new specific limitation within the generalized semantic field of the word. For example, the lexical item طائر has the generalized sense of 'flyer' (as substantive) or 'flying' (as adjective), and particularized senses of 'bird' and 'omen'. Its modern use for 'aviator' is simply an addition of a new particularized sense within the pre-existing semantic range. Similarly, the modern usage ذرة 'atom' (with ذري 'atomic') has not eliminated the older sense 'speck of dust'. Evolving new coinages on the other hand is achieved by two common methods: the use of the 'feminine' termination and the use of the derivational morphemes -ي and -ية, for items in which they were not used at all, or at best only rarely, in the older language. For example, تنابز 'a creeper' has generated دبابة 'tank', since 'a (feminine) creeping thing', though theoretically possible, was not in fact in usage earlier. Similarly, the derivational terms رمزي 'symbolist' and رمزية 'symbolism' are generated from the older رمز 'a sign'. As for English compound nouns which are derived from Latin or Greek, Beeston adds that these compound nouns are typically rendered in Standard Arabic by an annexion structure. For example, the prefix re- is rendered by رد 'return (of)' or إعادة 'repetition (of)', as in رد الفعل 'reaction' and إعادة النظر 'reconsideration'. Similarly, most of the 'ologies' are rendered by علم 'science' e.g. 'biology' علم الأحياء, though there are a few direct borrowings such as جيولوجيا 'geology'. Beeston further adds that the Arab Academies of Cairo and Damascus have exerted much

effort to devise new coinages from the resources of Arabic. However, the recommendations issued by these academies have not always won general public acceptance. For example, the official coinage هاتف 'telephone' has not ousted the loan word تلفون from popular usage, as the word is widely used in the Arabs' daily life (ibid:105).

To conclude, despite all the efforts involved in translating neologisms, the number of borrowed or loan terms is far greater than the number of those properly translated and promulgated. People including specialists cannot wait for official translations; they simply borrow. The translator from English into Arabic has to find out what is acceptable at the time and use it with reservation until something better comes up.

### 3.2.8. Idioms

An idiom is a special phrase whose meaning cannot be easily deduced from the direct meaning of its words. Nunberg et al (1994: 492) identify the following characteristics of idioms:

1. **Conventionality:** Idioms are conventionalized, i.e. their meaning or use cannot be predicted, or at least entirely predicted, on the basis of a knowledge of the independent conventions that determine the use of their constituents when they appear in isolation from one another.
2. **Inflexibility:** Unlike freely composed expressions, idioms appear only in a limited number of syntactic frames or constructions. For example, 'the breeze was shot' and 'the breeze is hard to shoot', are unacceptable. The accepted form of the idiom is 'shoot the breeze'.
3. **Figuration:** Idioms typically involve metaphors (take the bull by the horns); metonymies (lend a hand, count heads); hyperboles (not worth the paper it's printed on), or other kinds of figuration.
4. **Proverbiality:** Idioms are used to describe and explain a recurrent situation of particular social interest, such as becoming restless or divulging a secret.
5. **Informality:** Idioms are associated with relatively informal or colloquial registers and with popular speech and oral culture.
6. **Affect:** Idioms imply an affective stance toward the things they denote. Idioms can refer to a certain kind of fixed phrase like 'shoot the breeze' or to a variety of a language related to conversational usage of native speakers. For example, 'I will be flying to Paris' is more

idiomatic than 'I will be taking an airplane to Paris tomorrow'. However, some idioms do not involve figuration. For example, the idiom 'by dint of' contains an item which does not occur in other contexts. In addition, not all idioms have literal meanings that denote concrete things and relations (e.g. malice aforethought). Nunberg et al add that when a fixed expression lacks several of these properties, it will no longer be called an idiom. Examples might be collocations like 'tax and spend', 'resist temptation', or 'right to life' (ibid: 493-4) (cf. collocations, section 3.2.3 and section 5.2.9).

Idiomatic expressions differ from one language to another, and such differences can be serious pitfalls for translators, who may not recognize their idiomatic nature and therefore produce literal equivalents which may be vague and meaningless. For example, the idiomatic expression 'spill the beans' can be translated into Arabic as يفشى السر. However, a word-for-word translation would give a strange and erroneous rendering, e.g. يسكب الفاصوليا. Even native speakers of English may be unable to assign a meaning to certain English idioms. However, this does not mean that an idiom is non-translatable. Everything is translatable, but not necessarily in the same way. Baker (1992: 72-78) suggests the following strategies for translating idioms:

1. Using an idiom of similar meaning and form. The translator should concentrate on the meaning of the idiom and try to find an idiom in the TL that roughly gives the same meaning as that of the source language idiom e.g.

- a. 'In the twinkling of an eye' في لمح البصر
- b. 'A stone's throw' على مرمى حجر
- c. 'As beautiful as a lark' أحلى من البدر

The above three examples clearly show that it is possible to find a match because these idioms can be found in most communities. Abu-Ssaydeh (2004: 118) maintains that using such a strategy "retains not only the lexical constituency, the semantic content and the brevity of the SL idiom but also the effect it may have on the text receiver." However, the translator has to be careful about the register. He/She cannot, for instance, use a vulgar or colloquial idiom in the TL as a match for an idiom in the SL belonging to a higher register.

2. Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form. The translator should look for a target language idiom that has the same function as that of the original though the lexical items are different, e.g.

- a. 'When pigs fly' حتى يدخل الجمل في سم الخياط (lit. until the camel passes through the eye of the needle)\*
- b. 'Give him a free rein' أطلق له الحبل علي الغارب (lit. to put the rope of the camel on the top of its hump).
- c. 'Carry coals to Newcastle' كناقل التمر إلى هجر (carry dates to Hajar, a city that is famed for its dates) or informally راح يبيع المية في حارة السقايين (carry water to the quarters of water-carriers).

3. Translation by paraphrase; this strategy can be used when a match cannot be found in the target language or when it becomes inappropriate to use idiomatic language due to stylistic differences between the SL and TL. Abu-Ssaydeh (2004: 119) maintains that paraphrasing tends to be the safest and the most commonly used strategy when the two cultures and the language pair are very different. However, the impact of this strategy is evident in that the idiomaticity of the idiom will be sacrificed and the cultural significance associated with it will be lost in the target text (ibid: 119), e.g.

- a. 'Keep his finger on the pulse' راقب الوضع بدقة (lit. watch the situation very carefully).
- b. 'Mend fences' سوي الخلافات مع (lit. settle differences with).
- c. 'Play ball' نفذ أو أطاع التعليمات ( lit. carry out or obey instructions).

4. Some idioms might be rendered literally, as they are widely used in both languages. For example,

- a. 'Experience is the best teacher' الخبرة خير معلم
- b. 'The ball is in the European court' أصبحت الكرة في الملعب الأوروبي
- c. 'Two sides of the same coin' وجهان لعملة واحدة

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English has a similar usage going back to a saying of Jesus in the Gospels: "It is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of God" (Matthew 19: 23-24).

On the other hand, Homeidi (2004) believes that the strategy of compensation\* can be very effective in translating some culturally bound expressions such as idioms, since this will allow the translator to supply the information required to make the processing of the idiom or other similar phrases possible in the target language. Without such intervention the purpose of translation as an act of cross-cultural communication is not respected and the target language reader will not get access to the message expressed in the source text (ibid: 24).

As the above examples show, idioms cannot typically be translated in a literal way because such a translation would be inexpressive and awkward. The translator should always look for a suitable idiom that gives the same semantic value as well as appropriate cultural connotations in the target language. In order not to give an erroneous translation of an idiom, the translator may sometimes need to provide target language readers with a footnote explaining the figurative meaning of the idiom.

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Hervey and Higgins (1992: 248) define compensation as "the technique of making up for the translation loss of important ST features by approximating their effects in the TT through means other than those used in the ST". The term can also refer to broader issues in TS but we are using here Hervey and Higgins' definition for the purpose of our study.

### 3.3. Cultural symmetries and asymmetries

#### 3.3.1. Translation and Culture

As between language and translation (cf. Section 2.2), there is a strong relation between culture and translation, since the former is partly expressed through language and the two aspects are parts of a whole, and cannot operate independently. Languages are sometimes described as the spokesmen of cultures. Culture refers to the social values, traditions, customs and knowledge acquired by man in his society. Newmark (1988: 94) defines culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression". Following Sapir's view that "all cultural behaviour is patterned", Lado (1957: 111) defines culture as "structured systems of patterned behaviour". He also quotes cultural anthropologists, who define culture as "all those historically created designs for living explicit and implicit, rational, irrational, and non-rational, which exist at any given time as potential guides for the behaviour of men. Traits, elements, or better, patterns of culture in this definition are organized or structured into a system or a set of systems, which, because it is historically created, is therefore open and subject to constant change" (ibid: 111).

Lado believes that these cultural patterns are in turn made up of substitutable elements such as performer, act, objects, setting, time, manner, purpose, etc. These elements, though always unique and always different, are identified into 'sames' and 'differents' within certain moulds which are cultural patterns also. These 'sames' have characteristic features in each culture and are usually of various classes. One such class in many cultures consists of items treated as static units, for example, men, women, children, doctor, nurse, etc. Another class is constituted by items treated as processes, for example, to rest, to study, to fish, to run, etc. Still another includes items treated as qualities as, for example, fast, slow, good, bad, etc (ibid: 112).

These two definitions by Newmark and Lado imply that language and culture are fully interrelated, for language reflects the interests, ideas, customs, and other cultural aspects of a community. Each language manifests culturally important areas whether religious, aesthetic, social, ritual, etc. Arabic, for instance, has a variety of names for dates, camels, swords, lions, horses, clouds, rain, winds, etc. English, on the other hand, has a variety of linguistic signs associated with the sea. Eskimos distinguish between various types of snow



which reflect their environment (softly-falling snow, dry packed snow, wet-packed snow, powder snow, drifting snow, etc). Some dialects of the Highland Quechua Indians, whose diet is based mainly on potatoes, have more than two hundred different words for potatoes (Ilyas, 1989: 123). The Waunana of the Chaco of Colombia take the spleen to be the seat of emotions, and the English phrase 'my sweetheart' would be expressed by them as 'my spleen' (ibid: 123). In the male-oriented Latin American society, 'parents' are called 'padres', i.e. fathers, but are called 'mothers' in the Indian society of the Paraguayan Chaco which is female-oriented. The Navajos, an Indian tribe living in the southwestern part of the United states, have no word for 'fisher' or 'yoke', since fishing is a taboo for them and their cattle are raised only for the sake of their hide and meat, not for ploughing. Hence, the Navajos have no experience of yoked cattle that are used for ploughing a farm; nor do they have any experience of fishing (ibid).

These instances highlight the fact that things which look similar in two different languages may on closer inspection have different meanings. This also implies that translation between languages of distinct cultures is more difficult than carrying out translation between languages that are culturally related or similar. This does not imply, however, that translation between languages that are culturally similar is a straight-forward activity. In fact it presents some serious pitfalls to translators as well, though fewer than those involved in translation between languages of different cultures. For example, the English lexical item 'butter' is taken to be the translation equivalent of the Italian 'burro'. However, in certain contexts they are not equivalent. The two items do not seem to have the same cultural value, since 'burro' is light-coloured, unsalted, used primarily for cooking, and has no associations of high status, whereas 'butter' is bright yellow, salted, used for eating with bread, and has a high status (Bassnet, 1980: 26). In English one 'takes' a walk, in French, one 'makes' a walk; and in Spanish one 'gives' a walk. In English, one 'takes' an examination; in Italian, one 'gives' it; but in French one 'suffers' it.

Catford (1965:98-99) distinguishes between two types of untranslatability: linguistic and cultural. 'Linguistic untranslatability' occurs when the TL feature, text or item has no formally corresponding feature, text or item of the SL features due to differences between the source language and the target language. 'Cultural untranslatability', on the other hand, occurs when a situational feature, functionally relevant for the SL text, is completely absent from the culture of which the TL is a part. Catford thinks that cultural untranslatability is usually less absolute than linguistic untranslatability. According to Catford, the Japanese

lexical item 'yukata' involves pitfalls for translators because of its cultural untranslatability. 'Yukata' may be rendered into English as 'dressing-gown', 'bath-robe', 'house-coat', 'pyjamas', or 'night gown'. However, the contextual meaning of 'yukata' includes, for example, features such as 'loose robe bound by a sash, worn by either men or women, supplied to guests in a Japanese inn or hotel, worn in the evening indoors or out of doors in the street or cafe, worn in bed...', etc. The English lexical items 'dressing-gown', 'bath-robe', 'house-coat', 'pyjamas', and 'night gown' are not relatable to the full range of situational features of the lexical item 'yukata', and there are likely texts where no possible English translation equivalent exists. For instance, no English garment is worn both in bed and in the street (except in emergencies) and certainly no garment (apart from a dressing-gown, perhaps) is supplied by English hotels to their guests (ibid: 100). Arabic, like English does not have a full equivalent of 'yukata' despite the fact that the Arabic term دشداشة shares some situational features with those of 'yukata', since it is also a loose robe that can be worn by both men and women, indoors and outdoors, as well as in bed. However, it is not, for example, supplied by Arab hotels to guests (Ilyas, 1989: 124).

Catford suggests that an appropriate rendering for the term 'yukata' would be to transfer the SL item into the TL text, leaving its contextual meaning to emerge from the co-text or else explaining it in a footnote. He also suggests the lexical item 'kimono' as a translation equivalent, since this originally Japanese lexical item is already 'naturalized' as a loan-word in English - though 'yukata' and 'kimono' do not mean the same in Japanese.

The previous examples have made it clear that lexical items differ not only in their denotation but also in their cultural significance, as people in different cultures look at things from their own perspective. Therefore, the translator's knowledge of the linguistic system and culture of both languages are among the most important factors in translation between languages. Any sort of linguistic or cultural incompatibility can lead to the distortion of the work to be translated and thus affect the readers' response in the target language.

Following Newmark's (1988: 95) classification of cultural references, the following discussion focuses on certain cultural issues in Arabic and English, namely kinship, gender, mythology, ecology, politics, and colour. The discussion also focuses on the problems that may arise in translating cultural references as well as the procedures and strategies used in the translation of culture.

### 3.3.2. Classification of cultural references

#### 3.3.2.1. Kinship terms

Kinship terms are a rich area of cultural differences between English and Arabic. We can consider Arabic kinship terms not only from the perspective of lexical correspondence (cf. Section 3.2.1. Denotation), but also from the perspective of cultural difference. For instance, Arabic distinguishes between the brother of one's father عم and the brother of one's mother خال. English, on the other hand, does not draw such a distinction; the kinship term 'uncle' is used to refer to both. In Arabic a similar distinction is drawn between the sister of one's father عمّة, and the sister of one's mother خالة. However, English makes use of one kinship term to refer to both, 'aunt'.

In contrast to English, Arabic makes use of kinship terms in an extended sense in addressing a person who is not a relative at all, such as calling an older person عمي literally, 'my uncle' or any male person أخي, literally, 'my brother'. Another example of cultural difference is that a married woman in English is called by her husband's name, whereas in Arabic, a married lady keeps her family name. She also keeps her father's name (second name) and her grandfather's name (third name).

#### 3.3.2.2. Gender

Gender is another problem in translation between Arabic and English. Arabic has only two genders, masculine and feminine. Male people and animals are masculine, while female people and animals are feminine. Words for entities which are neither male nor female are variously masculine or feminine. English, by contrast, has natural gender. Thus the Arabic شمس 'sun' and قمر 'moon' are feminine and masculine respectively, whereas in English they are both neuter. Such differences in gender between the two items can sometimes be highly significant and problematic in translation, when they are used with certain cultural connotations.

#### 3.3.2.3. Mythology

Mythology is another rich area of cultural divergence between English and Arabic, since

myths are culture-bound. In literary works, for example, it is often the case that a symbolic use is made of mythical figures and notions that rarely have an obvious translation equivalent when translation is carried out between languages of unrelated cultures. The following two examples involve mythical figures that may cause problems for translators. The first example, an extract from *Macbeth*, makes reference to 'Gorgon', a terrible mythical Greek monster that makes whoever looks at it blind. In the translation the translator has deleted the name of the creature and substituted the phrase meaning الخطب الجلل because of the fact that there is no TL equivalent for it in Arabic.

Macduff: "Approach the chamber and destroy your sight with a new Gorgon"  
(*Macbeth*, Act 2, scene 3). ادخلا الغرفة واعميا بما تريان من الخطب الجلل (Ilyas : 1989: 127).

In the second example, an extract from *King Lear*, the translator has appropriately rendered the mythical figure of the last line. He also supports his translation with an explanatory footnote in order to make up for the fact that the mythical image does not have a standard translation equivalent in Arabic.

Lear: "Death, traitor, nothing could have subdued nature.  
To such a lowness but his unkind daughters.  
Is it the fashion that discarded fathers?  
Should have thus little mercy on their flesh?  
Judicious punishment, 't was this flesh begot.  
Those pelican daughters"  
(*King Lear*, Act 3, scene 4).

هذا هو جسد الذي استولد بنات البجع أولئك.  
(من المعتقدات القديمة أن البجع إذا رأت صغارها ستموت تضرب خاضرتها فيسيل دمها لتسقيه صغارها فتنتعش و تحيي - وأما لير فيوحي أن صغار البجع تضرب والديها وتمتص حياتهما) (ibid: 127)

(Traditionally, a pelican pecks itself until it bleeds so that it can give life to its children. However, *King Lear*'s daughters are treating their father very cruelly.)

### 3.3.2.4. Ecological features

Ecological features too differ in English and Arabic. Arabic, for instance, belongs to an area of hot and very dry climate, whereas English belongs originally to an area of cold and wet

climate. A translator of English-Arabic texts may come across some problematic ecological-based idioms and expressions. Some such items acquire different connotations in the two languages. What may be a connotatively favourable expression in Arabic could have a negative sense in English, and vice versa. Some Arabic expressions that are associated with coldness have a metaphorical sense such as *قِرَّةُ العَيْنِ*, which literally designates 'coolness of the eye', whereas the equivalent ecological English expressions that have favourable connotations are usually associated with warmth, e.g. 'He was given a warm welcome' or 'He is a warm-hearted person' meaning 'kind'. In Arabic expressions whose basic (literal) sense denotes warmth typically have a negative secondary metaphorical sense such as *سَخَنَتْ عَيْنُهُ*, which literally signifies: 'May your eyes be hot', i.e. may harm be done to you. In Arabic *خَبِيرٌ يَثْلُجُ الصَّدُورَ*, which literally means 'news that freezes the breast', is in fact happy news. The English equivalent is perhaps: 'to warm the cockles of one's heart'. According to Nida and Taber (1969: 92), "the nature of the surroundings has its effect on the connotations of terms used by people". When translators come across such expressions, they have to select a suitable equivalent in order to give an exact rendering".

In the following verse the idiomatic expression *قِرَّةُ أَعْيُنِ* is rendered as 'joy or delight':

فلا تعلم نفس ما أخفى لهم من قرة أعين جزاء بما كانوا يعملون  
(سورة: 32، آية: 17)

'No person knows what is kept hidden for them of joy as  
a reward for what they used to do'  
(Al Hilali and Khan 1996: 557).

According to Muhammad (1981, quoted in Ilyas, 1989: 128-9), Arabic has various names for varieties of clouds, rain, and winds. In classical Arabic, poetry in particular, newly formed clouds are called *نَشَى*. Clouds which move across the sky are called *سَحَاب*. Clouds which lightly cover the sky are called *غَمَام*. Clouds which are thought likely to bring rain are called *مَخِيلَة*, *قَنيف*, *حَمَل*, *غَدِيق*, or *حَوْلَاء*. A cloud which is white is called *مَزَن*; if it is dark-red it is called *مَكْفَهْر*; if the cloud is thick and covers the whole sky it is called *سَد*. As for varieties of rain, the initial period of rain is called *مَبْلَد* or *وَسْمِي*, *عَهَاد*, *وَبَل*, *رَش*, *طَش*, *جَلْبَاب* or *حَرِيصَة*, *سَاحِيَة*, *سَحِيْتَة*, *سَحِيْفَة*, *عَز* و *عَبَاب*, *غَدَق*, *جُود*. Heavy rain is called *دَثَّة* or *دِهَان*. Continuous rain is known as *هَضْب* or *دِيمَة*, *أَغْصَان*, but if it is continual it is given the names *وَدَق* or *وَابِل*. If the drops of the rain are big, the rain is called *رَثَاث*, *وَلِي*, *تَبَعَة*, *يَعْلُول*. If the drops are very small, it is called *رَذَاذ* or *قَطَقَط*, *طَل*. If the rainfall is scattered, it is

known as نفضة or نجو . Rain that follows a drought is called غيث and that which turns the ground green is called حباء or مربع. Winds also have various names. A very light wind (i.e. breeze) is called ريدانة , نسيم or رهاء , while a strong wind is called سيهواء , عاصف , مجافيل , مجافل or حواشك , نوج , زفافة , هجوم , نؤوج , زعزع , شيهوج . If the wind is continuous, it is called سوافي or أعاصير , وهوجاء , ذاريات , دروج , and if it is dusty, it is called لوجوج or حرجوج . Cold winds are called عرية , صرصر , نعور , بليل , شفان , خريق , حرجن , while hot winds are called بوارح or شمال , خجوج , حرور , هيف , سموم .

The majority of the above names that are given to clouds, winds and rain belong to Classical Arabic (i.e. few of them are common in contemporary Arabic), but some of them have become constituents of some idiomatic expressions. An example, إنما هو كبرق literally 'He is like barren lightning', which may be the functional equivalent of the English expression: 'He builds castles in the air'. Another idiom which involves a meteorological reference is برق لو كان له مطر literally: 'Had this lightning been followed by rain', which may be regarded as functionally equivalent to the English expression: 'fine words butter no parsnips'; حر الشمس يلجئ إلى مجلس السوء literally: 'The sun's heat drives one to join bad council', which may be regarded as the functional equivalent of the English expression 'between the devil and the deep sea'.

### 3.3.2.5. Political terms

Political terms constitute another important area of cultural difference between English and Arabic. For instance, the Arabic political terms قطرية and قومية do not have denotatively identical equivalents in English, nor can they be appropriately understood and distinguished from each other unless the translator explains them in a footnote, or paraphrases them. The same applies to such terms as المجلس الوطني literally: 'national assembly', the equivalent of which in English is perhaps 'parliament'; مجلس الشعب literally: 'people's council', the rough equivalent of which in English is perhaps 'city council'; العمل الشعبي literally: 'popular work', the rough equivalent of which in English is perhaps 'voluntary work drive'.

### 3.3.2.6. Colour terms

Colour terms constitute another interesting area of cultural divergence between languages, both in their primary literal meaning and in metaphorical and other secondary senses. According to Berlin and Kay's hypothesis (1969), there is a universal set of exactly eleven colour categories, from which each language takes a subset. These colour categories are: 'black', 'white', 'red', 'green', 'yellow', 'blue', 'brown', 'purple', 'pink', 'orange', and 'grey'. They distinguish between basic colour terms and secondary colour terms. Lyons (1977) maintains that the most important conclusion to be made of the Berlin and Kay's hypothesis - despite being subject to criticism - is that a distinction should be drawn between the central or focal denotation of a lexeme and its total denotation. Two languages, Lyons states, might differ with respect to the boundaries that they draw in a denotational continuum but they may be in agreement with respect to what is central or focal in the denotation of roughly equivalent words (ibid: 246-7).

In English the colour term 'white' refers to something which is 'brown' when collocating with tea or coffee, 'yellow' when in collocation with wine, and 'pink' in relation to people. Arabic does not differentiate between 'white tea' and 'black tea' in terms of colour, but by mentioning شاي شاي 'tea' alone and شاي بالحليب 'tea with milk'. The colour term 'blue' is often favourable in English, and carries positive connotations, as the British have a natural preference for a clear blue sky, and the colour signals good weather as well as a good water source (Stallwood, 2007). However, the colour أزرق in Arabic is in general not much favoured and has some negative connotations. But, according to Watson (2004: 256), the colour أزرق refers to freshness in central Yemen in general and other modern Arabic dialects, including Iraqi, Negev Bedouin and Sudanese. In Arabic the colour 'green' has positive connotations. Even in French the colour term 'brown' does not appeal much to the French because of its negative associations and overtones. The colour term 'brown' in English can be the equivalent of 'brun', 'marron', or 'jaune' in French. The Hindi colour 'pila' can be translated into English as 'yellow', 'orange', or 'brown' (Lyons, 1977: 254).

The colour system in English and Welsh lacks coincidence. According to the Danish linguist Louis Hjelmslev (1963: 53), 'green' in Welsh is *gwyrdd* or *glas*, 'blue' is *glas*, 'gray' is *glas* or *llwyd*, and 'brown' is *llwyd*. In other words, the part of the spectrum covered by the word 'green' is intersected in Welsh by a line that assigns part of it to the same area as 'blue', while the English boundary between 'green' and 'blue' is not found in

Welsh. In addition, Welsh lacks the English boundary between 'blue' and 'gray', and likewise the English boundary between 'gray' and 'brown'. On the other hand, the area that is covered by English 'gray' is intersected in Welsh so that half of it is referred to by the same area as 'blue' and half by the same area as 'brown'. The following diagram shows the Welsh colour spectrum.

		<i>gwyrdd</i>
<i>green</i>		
<i>blue</i>		<i>glas</i>
<i>Gray</i>		<i>llwyd</i>
<i>Brown</i>		

**Table 9: The Welsh colour spectrum**

With regard to the translation of colour expressions between English and Arabic, there is some degree of similarity between the two linguistic systems in metaphorical uses of colour terms, as shown in the following table:

English	Arabic equivalent
beat someone black	ضربه حتى اسود
black heart	قلب اسود
white lie	كذبه بيضاء
blue belt	حزام ازرق
yellow bile	الصفراء
black day	يوم اسود
in the black	له سواد كثير
the blues	الزرقاء
green light	ضوء اخضر

**Table 10: Similarities in colour expressions in English and Arabic**



Many cases of such overlap or agreement are the outcome of transference and cultural adaptation. In addition, non-equivalent colour expressions are encountered in English and Arabic. Such instances can be serious pitfalls for translators unless they are aware of the difference in meaning that underlies the similarity of expression and collocation. For example, 'black-faced' in English designates fury, whereas its counterpart in Arabic وجهه أسود signifies humiliation and disgrace. In the following verse of the Quran, the constituents تبيض وجوه (literally: faces become white) and وتسود وجوه (literally: faces become black), have the idiomatic signification of 'some being triumphant' and 'others being abased or shame-faced' respectively. The word وجوه, which literally means 'faces', is used as a synecdoche for persons in this instance.

يوم تبيض وجوه وتسود وجوه فأما الذين اسودت وجوههم أكفرتم بعد إيمانكم فذوقوا العذاب بما كنتم تكفرون وأما الذين ابيضت وجوههم ففي رحمة الله هم فيها خالدون" (سورة: 3 آية: 106).

"On the Day (i.e. the Day of Resurrection) when some faces will become white and some faces will become black; as for those whose faces will become black (to them will be said): "Did you reject Faith after accepting it? Then taste the torment (in the Hell) for rejecting Faith. "And for those whose faces will become white, they will be in Allah's Mercy (Paradise), therein they shall dwell for ever" (Al Hilali and Khan 1996: 88).

English has a wider variety of culture-specific secondary sense expressions which do not have a TL equivalent but should either be transferred or paraphrased, as shown below:

English expression	Arabic equivalent
white elephant	مكلف وغير مفيد
white-livered	جبان
blue Peter	رأية إقلاع السفينة
blue-collar	عامل مصنع
blue film	فلم داعر
red-handed	متلبساً الجريمة
green-horn	ساذج
sees pink elephants	يشعل جذا
white paper	تقرير حكومي في بريطانيا يتضمن معلومات
blue-blooded	ارستقراطي
bolt from/out of the blue	علي حين غرة
blue-jacket	بحار
red-tape (bureaucracy)	روتين

Table 11: Differences in colour expressions in English and Arabic

Unless the translator is aware of the idiomatic nature of such colour expressions, he/she is likely to produce literal translations which will render the TL version inaccurately. Therefore, the translator should in the first place look for corresponding equivalent colour expressions in the TL such as:

- a. He is in the black. له سواد كثير.
- b. He became green with fear. اخضر / اصفر / خوفاً.

If the translator cannot find a corresponding metaphorical colour expression in the TL, he should resort to a non-corresponding metaphorical colour expression, e.g. 'His hair turned grey' اشتعل الرأس شيباً.

Another solution for the translator who cannot find a corresponding or a non-corresponding equivalent colour expression in the TL is to try to render the SL by paraphrasing its communicative function, giving a denotative equivalent without regard to the ST metaphoricality, e.g. 'black vomit' الحمى الصفراء.

### 3.3.3. Procedures and strategies for the translation of culture

Since culture specific items are peculiar to a certain linguistic community, translators are usually confronted with words or phrases that are difficult to translate using a simple denotative equivalent. The approach to the translation of cultural words varies from one linguistic community to another. According to Kharma (1997: 10), translating cultural terms between English and Arabic depends on several factors. Firstly, Arabic is the vehicle of a non-Western culture. Secondly, Arabic is linguistically unrelated to any of the languages of Europe. While European languages can easily borrow new terms because of the similarities in orthography, lexis and structure, Arabic cannot always do so for linguistic and cultural reasons. Linguistically, English and Arabic are unrelated; the former is an Indo-European language, while the latter is Semitic. The two languages have different linguistic systems, in orthography, lexis and structure. The two languages belong to different cultures, exhibiting different habits in food, kinds of clothes, kinship terms, colour terms, drinking habits, etc. These cultural differences may pose significant difficulties for Arab translators.

Faced with these linguistic and cultural differences, the translator should employ different

procedures in dealing with cultural problems in translation. Many prominent translation theorists have suggested specific procedures and strategies for translating cultural references. For example, Venuti (1995) discusses two types of translating strategy: domestication and foreignization. On the one hand, domestication involves translating in a transparent, fluent, invisible style in order to minimize the foreignness of the ST, leaving the reader in peace and moving the author towards him. However, for Venuti the term 'domestication' has negative connotations as it is identified with a policy common in dominant cultures which are "aggressively monolingual, unreceptive to the foreign" (ibid: 15); it can create stereotypes for foreign cultures, which may have such consequences as ethnic discrimination, colonialism and geopolitical confrontations. It is thus important to consider whether the resulting representations of foreign cultures in translated texts are ethical (Venuti 1998b: 67).

Foreignization, on the other hand, is a type of translation in which a TT is produced which retains some of the foreignness of the original text. Here, the translator leaves the writer in peace and moves the reader towards the writer. The ultimate goal of foreignization, according to Venuti, is to resist ethnocentrism and racism, cultural narcissism and imperialism, in the interest of democratic geopolitical relations (Venuti 1995: 20). In addition, it aims at highlighting the foreign identity of the ST and protecting it from the ideological dominance of the target culture (ibid, 305-6). In Venuti's view foreignizing or minoritizing translation involves cultivating a varied and heterogeneous discourse (Venuti 1998b: 11).

Venuti (1998a) maintains that a domesticating strategy can be used in technical translation, where a translation is mainly intended to support scientific research, geopolitical negotiation, and economic change. On the other hand, a foreignizing strategy can be applied to literary translation, where the focus of translation is on linguistic effects that exceed simple communication and are measured against domestic literary values, both canonical and marginal (ibid: 244)\*.

In addition to domestication and foreignization, the strategies and procedures proposed by Ivir (1987), Newmark (1988) and Mailhac (1995) will be discussed as they are the most common and practically applied strategies.

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For further discussion on foreignization and domestication, see Munday (2001, 144-160)

### 3.3.3.1. Ivir's procedures for the translation of cultural references

Ivir (1987) suggests seven procedures to tackle cultural issues in translation:

#### 3.3.3.1.1. Borrowing

Borrowing is the importation of the source language expression into the target language (ibid: 37). It can stand by itself or it can be combined with definition and substitution to give more appropriate explanations. One of the advantages of borrowing is that it can be used freely in all the contexts and collocations in which it is used in the SL. It can also be used as an effective vehicle for the transmission of cultural information. However, there are certain restrictions on borrowing which prevent it from being applied in all cases of cultural gaps. First, it makes sense only if there is a need for it in the target culture to ensure it is more than once used. Another difficulty is that "the form of the source language expression must be that it can be easily integrated into the target language phonologically and morphologically" (ibid: 37). Finally, borrowing will be more difficult if the translation is done into a puristic language than into one that is relatively open to foreign influences (ibid: 38). Arab translators should take this last point into consideration when borrowing English terms; they are usually faced with two opposing camps: those who encourage borrowing to keep up with the rapid development, and those who oppose it due to the influence of the foreign culture on the source culture. Examples of borrowing from English include 'cricket' كريكيت, 'the Congress' الكونجرس الأمريكي or the Arabicized form (مجلس النواب الأمريكي), '10 Downing Street' داوونينج ستريت '10 جينز' jeans', etc.

#### 3.3.3.1.2. Defining the elements of culture

Defining the elements of culture means "reducing the unknown to the known and the unshared to the shared" (ibid: 38). In other words, it is a procedure aimed at making the target culture people aware of what they do not know. It can give the necessary cultural information provided that the translator focuses on the information relevant for the act of communication at hand (ibid: 39). A definition can be given in the body of the text or in a footnote. However, translation by definition has its drawbacks. One of the drawbacks of

translation by definition is its “unwieldiness”. For this reason Ivir suggests that definition is a complementary procedure which should be used in combination with other procedures such as borrowing. Another disadvantage is that definitions always result in overtranslation, drawing attention to themselves in a way that the corresponding non-definitional source language expressions do not (ibid: 39).

#### 3.3.3.1.3. Literal translation

Literal translation is considered one of the commonest methods of cultural transference and spread of influence from one culture to another (ibid: 39). It has the advantages of being faithful and transparent in the target language, allowing the speakers of the TL to understand the concept as the original is understood by speakers of the source language (ibid: 39). However, literal translation is not always the best solution for overcoming translation problems. In Ivir’s words, it “will not in itself be sufficiently transparent to fill the gap” particularly if the extra-linguistic realities of the two cultures are different (Ivir: 40). As Newmark (1988: 70) states “a common object will usually have a one-to-one literal translation if there is cultural overlap”. Therefore, the absence of such a cultural overlap between English and Arabic will often lead to erroneous translations between the two languages. For example, *تمطر قططا وكلابا* does not convey the intended message of the SL: ‘It’s raining cats and dogs’. The translator can opt for other translational procedures to render the sentence appropriately. This sentence can be rendered functionally as *تمطر بغزارة* or *تمطر كإفواه القرب*. Ivir adds that literal translation should not be used if it would clash with an existing expression in the target language, especially if it has a meaning different from that intended by the original meaning. In his words “various degrees of unidiomaticity or unnaturalness result from literal translation” (ibid: 40).

#### 3.3.3.1.4. Substitution

Substitution is defined as “a translation procedure used by the translator in cases where two cultures display a partial overlap rather than a clear-cut presence vs. absence of a certain element of culture” (ibid: 41). In other words, a source language expression can be replaced by a target language expression provided that the TL receivers have no difficulty understanding such terms and identifying their concepts (ibid: 42). For example, the English

cliché 'as busy as a bee' is translated into colloquial Arabic as *زى أم العروس* and the proverb 'Like mother like daughter' as *اقلب الجرة على ثمها بتطلع البنت لأمها*. The main drawback of substitution is that "it identifies concepts which are not identical, eliminating the 'strangeness' of the foreign culture and treating foreign-culture concepts as its own" (Ibid: 42).

### 3.3.3.1.5. Lexical creation

Lexical creation is a translation strategy that involves the coining of new lexical items in the TL to stand for the SL culture-specific elements (ibid: 43). It is typically used by the translator when the other translation strategies, namely literal translation, borrowing, definition, and substitution are not available for communicative reasons (ibid: 44). Lexical creation takes a variety of forms: lexical inventions, word formation, semantic extension, and new collocations. Examples of lexical creation in English include 'poor-tax' or 'poor-dues' for *الزكاة*, 'breast-brother' for *الأخ بالرضاعة*, and 'co-wife' for *الضرة*. Arabic examples include *عيد الشكر* for 'Thanksgiving', *عيد الحب* for 'Valentines Day', and *حكومة الظل* for 'shadow government'. According to Farghal and Shunnaq (1999), lexical creation contributes to the enrichment of the TL lexis, adding that it may be considered a hyponym of descriptive translation as well as Arabicization, which is specifically called for in the lexicalization in the TL of culture-specific items (ibid: 29). However, lexical creation greatly challenges the translator's ingenuity on the one hand and the receiver's power of comprehension on the other (Ivir 1987: 43). He adds that the translator will not be sure whether his/her contribution to the native language will catch on, since its ultimate fate will not be clear until much later. In addition, the cultural neutrality of the newly created lexical items has the disadvantage of masking the cultural provenance of the element in question (ibid: 43).

### 3.3.3.1.6. Omission

Omission is necessitated by the nature of the communicative situation in which a cultural element appears (ibid: 44). Ivir adds that the translator can use this strategy when s/he thinks that translating the cultural term may affect the communicative situation rather than contributing to the faithfulness of the translation. For example, the Arabic compliment *هنينا*,

usually said before or while eating, can either be rendered into English as 'I hope that you like it'/'enjoy your meal' or it can be left out. Ivir believes that saying anything where the source culture prefers to say nothing would give more emphasis to this element than the original sender intended (ibid: 44). According to Dickins et al (2002: 23), cultural difference between English and Arabic is an area in which simple omission may be a reasonable strategy. For example, the phrase بابا الفاتيكان يوحنا بولس الثاني is likely to be most reasonably translated as 'Pope John-Paul II' with the omission of any equivalent of the ST الفاتيكان. Baker (1992: 40-42) also believes the translator can use this strategy if the meaning conveyed by an item or an expression is not significant to the development of the text. However, she stresses the fact that translators should use this strategy only as a last resort to produce a smooth and readable translation (ibid: 42).

### **3.3.3.1.7. Addition**

Addition is a necessary procedure to convey the implicit elements of culture (Ivir 1987: 45). The translator can add information to bridge the cultural gap between the sender and the receiver. Ivir adds that communication would be impossible if no extra information were added to make things clear. Dickins et al (ibid: 24) state that in Arabic/English translation addition occurs in general and in specific contexts. For example, to translate the phrase منذ الهيمنة التركية, the translator should add a concept of time since the word 'hegemony' does not involve the concept of time, as does the word هيمنة in Arabic (ibid: 24). The phrase can best be rendered into English as: 'Ever since the days of Turkish hegemony'.

### **3.3.3.2. Newmark's procedures for the translation of cultural references**

Newmark (1988, 68-91) suggests twelve procedures for tackling cultural problems in translation. They include:

#### **3.3.3.2.1. Transference**

This is the process of transferring a SL word to a TL text by adapting the SL pronunciation.

This applies mainly to literary texts since it offers local colour and atmosphere, and in a specialist text it helps the reader to identify the referent in the other text without any difficulty. However, transference blocks comprehension by emphasising the SL culture and excluding the message. Examples include 'cricket' and 'Elysee' when transferred into Arabic as كريكت and إليزيه respectively.

#### **3.3.3.2.2. Cultural equivalence**

This involves supplying a TL equivalent for a SL cultural term, expression or concept. This procedure can be effectively used when the target language has a corresponding equivalent that gives a meaning deemed to be sufficiently similar to that of the source language expression, e.g. English 'A level' is translated as توجيهي.

#### **3.3.3.2.3. Neutralization (i.e. functional or descriptive equivalent)**

This aims at deculturalizing a cultural word making the SL word neutralized and generalized in the TL, e.g. 'Westminster' مبنی البرلمان البريطاني, 'baccalaureate': 'French secondary school leaving exam'.

#### **3.3.3.2.4. Literal translation**

This is sometimes used to provide a literal TL equivalent for a SL cultural term, e.g. 'the White House' البيت الأبيض. This cultural political term has become common in the target culture due to the effect of mass media. However, literal translation can result in ambiguous translations, making it difficult for the target reader to understand the meaning of the cultural item.

#### **3.3.3.2.5. Label**

This is a provisional translation suggested usually for new institutional terms and is often made in inverted commas. If accepted, the item will be standardized in the TL. Otherwise, it will be removed and replaced by another term, e.g. 'television' الرائي/ المرناة.



### 3.3.3.2.6. Naturalization

The newly transferred items are adapted to the phonology and perhaps the morphology of the TL. For example, 'democracy' ديمقراطية and 'olympics' الألعاب الاولمبية employ Arabic phonological forms. Similarly, the Arabic words 'Hajj' حج and 'Intifada' انتفاضة have been naturalized in English.

### 3.3.3.2.7. Componential analysis

This is a comparison of the SL word with the TL word in terms of their senses in order to produce a close approximation between the two items e.g. 'The British Council', which is 'an official organization for promoting English language and culture overseas', is paraphrased in Arabic as المركز الثقافي البريطاني: منظمة رسمية تروج للغة الانجليزية وثقافتها. Componential analysis excludes the culture and highlights the message; however, it is not economical and does not have the pragmatic impact of the original.

### 3.3.3.2.8. Deletion

A word or an item of the SL cultural expression can be omitted if the omission does not affect the comprehensibility of the general meaning in the target language, e.g. 'Christmas' is translated as عيد الميلاد instead of عيد ميلاد المسيح.

### 3.3.3.2.9. Couplet

This is a combination of two translation procedures, most frequently in the form of transference followed by an explanation, e.g. الشبكة الدولية للمعلومات (الإنترنت).

### 3.3.3.2.10. Accepted standard translation

A number of English cultural terms in computer, telecommunication, and technology have acquired an Arabic equivalent which is now a part of everyday Arabic, e.g. software and hardware, برامج الحاسب and معدات الحاسب.

### 3.3.3.2.11. Paraphrase, gloss, notes, etc.

This is a kind of explanation used to provide clarification for ambiguous cultural terms, e.g. 'ham', شرايح لحم الخنزير, 'steak' شرايح لحم البقر, etc.

### 3.3.3.2.12. Classifier

This is when a word is added, often a generic noun, to classify a cultural item, e.g. 'Wales' مقاطعة ويلز.

### 3.3.3.3. Mailhac's procedures for the translation of cultural references

Mailhac (1995) suggests a number of procedures that the translator can use in the translation of cultural references. Basing his analysis on Ivir's (1987) and Newmark's (1988) strategies for translating cultural references, Mailhac distinguishes two types of procedures: text-level procedures and cultural-reference procedures. Text-level procedures include three options:

1. Cultural transplantation (cf. Hervey and Higgins 1992: 30-31): a situation in which the source culture setting is converted into a target culture one.
2. Exoticism (cf. Hervey and Higgins 1992: 30) with minimum presence of the translator: The target reader is treated like a source reader and the target text must read like a source text. The pragmatic space within which the translator operates is comparable to what would be allowed by shared information assumed for the source reader.
3. Exoticism with maximum presence of the translator: The translator adds information for the benefit of the target reader and the pragmatic space within which the translator operates is what is allowed by shared information assumed for the target reader.

As the three options indicate only through cultural transplantation can the translator achieve cultural equivalence. However, this procedure will also pave the way for a TT that differs significantly from the source text giving a TT that can be better called an adaptation than a true translation. On the other hand the use of exoticism makes it impossible to

achieve an equivalent effect on the target reader in the case of culture-specific references. In other words, the target reader will experience a sense of 'dépaysement' where the source reader only perceives a familiar world (Mailhac, 1996: 2).

On the other hand, cultural reference procedures include:

1. Cultural borrowing
2. Literal translation
3. Definition
4. Cultural substitution
5. Lexical creation
6. Deliberate omission
7. Compensation
8. A footnote
9. A combination of procedures

Though Mailhac's list does not differ greatly from that of Newmark's and Ivir's, it includes a few changes. For example, Mailhac claims that Newmark's category of 'naturalization' roughly corresponds to 'cultural borrowing' and therefore all cultural references classified as 'naturalised equivalents' would correspond to cultural borrowings. Newmark's categories of 'neutralization', 'functional equivalent' and 'componential analysis' are used to refer to the same procedure, namely 'definition'. In addition, Newmark's category of 'footnotes', which is used together with 'gloss' and 'paraphrase', is treated by Mailhac as a separate type of procedure. Mailhac states that a footnote holds a very special status as it represents the last resort when everything else has failed and the translator feels obliged to break the illusion of his/her absence (ibid: 5).

As far as Ivir's list is concerned, Mailhac claims that Ivir's category of 'addition' will often be indistinguishable from 'a combination of procedures', adding that Ivir's category of 'footnotes' should be treated as a separate type of procedure and not as a variation of the definition procedure. In addition, 'compensation', which doesn't figure on Ivir's list, should be considered as a procedure, as this will allow the translator to deal with 'additions' which do not constitute combinations of other procedures (ibid: 5-6).

Based on his analysis of these procedures and the strategies under which a particular

procedure is used, Mailhac (1996: 3-10) suggests the following criteria to assess the translation of cultural references:

1. Pragmatic coherence: This criterion is violated when the constraints imposed by the communication are ignored and the information provided does not match the pragmatic space available. In this case the translator has no choice but to opt for exoticism and plunge the target reader into the source language culture.
2. Situational coherence: The cultural reference is perceived as incoherent when it is rendered differently on two or more occasions, giving different meanings to the situation.
3. Cultural coherence and transparency: The two criteria are violated by unsatisfactory equivalents including incoherence, distortions and losses.
4. Stylistic equivalence: This is violated when cultural references are retained in the target culture, and the use of footnotes makes the text comparatively more cumbersome and heavier to process.
5. The formal accuracy of cultural borrowings: This is violated by the use of incorrect spelling of the source language cultural references.
6. The functional equivalence of the cultural reference: This varies depending on the type of the text. In literary texts, for example, mistranslations occur when the literary functions of the text (e.g. contribution to characterization, imagery, structure, etc.) are not rendered properly.

Mailhac recommends that a degree of descriptive adequacy for a typology of errors in the translation of cultural references will give the criteria credibility not only as verification tools at the revision stage, but also as parameters coming into play when determining strategies (ibid: 10).

On the basis of this discussion of culture and translation, it can be said that translation of cultural terms is not an easy task and requires the translator to have good knowledge of both cultures involved. There is no unique solution that can be utilized by the translator for a given cultural element. Instead, the translator chooses from among the possible procedures by considering the nature of the cultural item to be translated and the nature of the communicative process in which it appears. Unlike linguistic difficulties, which can sometimes be solved through context, cultural terms are independent and cannot typically be transmitted with the help of context. Ivir's strategies can be used in translating cultural

terms and overcoming cultural difficulties facing the translator. Newmark (1988: 102) also maintains that translation of cultural terms is based on the readership, and requires many different translation techniques according to the level of education, including transference, cultural equivalents, literal translation, paraphrase and naturalisation. Whatever strategies are chosen for the translation of culture the translator should strive to avoid exacerbating tensions created by past colonialism, by ensuring that no negative stereotyping due to ignorance of the source culture occurs in the translation.

In analyzing the cultural references encountered by the subjects of this study, a combination of these procedures and strategies will be used, depending on the nature of the cultural reference and its communicative function in the source text and the target text.

### 3.4. Grammatical symmetries and asymmetries

Languages vary considerably in their grammatical devices. That all, or at least the great majority of languages have nouns to designate objects or concepts, verbs to express actions or events, abstract terms to designate qualities, and relational words to signify relations does not necessarily imply that these devices are utilised in the same way in different languages. Languages may vary in terms of gender, parts of speech, tense, word order, voice, etc. For instance, word order plays a central role in distinguishing subject from object in English: 'Bill saw John' and 'John saw Bill' do not have the same meaning in English and "Bill" and "John" differ syntactically in the two sentences. In Arabic, word order is also important but case and mood endings independently designate the functions of words in the construction of sentences. Arabic has three case endings: nominative (subjective), accusative (objective) and genitive (prepositional). These cases are essential in Arabic grammar because they normally identify the grammatical function, which is identified, not by their position in the clause, as is normally the case in English, but by their grammatical case, as is shown in the following examples:

1. أكل الرجل التفاحة.      The man ate the apple.
2. أكل التفاحة الرجل.      The man ate the apple.

English and Arabic differ in many other syntactic aspects. The passive in English is agentive, but in Arabic it is not. There is no "to be-like" and "to have-like" auxiliary verb in Arabic, but a variety of particles and modal verbs for the designation of such meanings as are designated by the English auxiliary forms. In English conditional sentences, tense determines the type of condition; the imperfect implies probability, and the past perfect impossibility. In Arabic the particles *إن* and *إذا* correspond to open condition, and *لو* to rejected condition. Adjectival constructions differ in English and Arabic in both word-order and inflection. Arabic is a language of post-modification, though it may allow pre-modification in certain cases (for numerals, quantifiers, and demonstratives). English allows both pre-modification and post-modification. The former, which is standard with simple adjectival structures, is more common than post-modification, which occurs with relative clauses and with some complex adjectival forms. For instance, it is more natural in English to say 'The UK is a European country' than 'The UK is a country that is European' unless emphasis is involved. In some cases, English allows a predicative adjective but not normally

an attributive one. For instance, one normally says 'The woman is asleep', while the corresponding attributive adjectival construction 'the asleep woman' is a marginal usage. In other cases one has to use an attributive adjective, not a predicative one. For example, one normally says 'the main reason' and 'the top shelf', but not 'the reason is main' or 'the shelf is top'. However, some predicative and attributive adjectives are convertible: 'The man was mad' readily gives 'the mad man' in the sense of 'insane' (Bolinger, 1967: 13).

Word-order may affect the denotation of some adjectival constructions in English. For instance, 'The man is responsible' may signify 'trustworthy' or 'to blame'; but 'the responsible man' signifies 'trustworthy', whereas 'the man responsible' designates 'to blame' (ibid: 4). The order qualified-qualifier as in 'the man responsible' refers to an occasion rather than to a characteristic. On the other hand, the attributive word-order such as 'the responsible man' refers to a characteristic or to a relatively permanent state of affairs (ibid: 3).

The following discussion will focus on syntactic ambiguity and the role of the translator in dealing with ambiguous sentences, as such ambiguities may become pitfalls and are difficult to handle. Ilyas (1989: 120) divides syntactic ambiguities into the following categories:

### 3.4.1. Structural ambiguity

This is a common feature of natural languages, and may result from the groupment of the constituents within the sentence structure. For example, the English example: 'He hit the boy with the stick' is ambiguous'. The ambiguity lies in whether the act of hitting was carried out by the use of a stick, or that the boy who was hit was carrying a stick. Therefore, the sentence could be translated into Arabic in two ways:

1. The boy was hit by a stick. ضرب الولد بالعصا
2. The boy who was hit was carrying a stick. ضرب الولد ذو العصا

However, if this ambiguity is not sorted out, the translator will not be able to spot these differences, and is likely to give an inappropriate rendition.

A well-known ambiguous construction in English is illustrated by 'They are flying planes'. Here, the translator has to decide whether 'flying' is to be grouped with 'are' to form part of

the present progressive tense or taken as a participle that modifies 'plane'. According to the first option, the translation would be *إنها طائرات محلقة*, but it would be *إنهم يحلقون بالطائرات*, according to the second option.

Another example of syntactic ambiguity is the use of the gerund or participle (i.e. verb plus -ing) at the beginning of the sentence. For instance, the English example: 'Visiting aunts can be a nuisance'. The ambiguity lies in whether 'visiting' is a participle that modifies the noun 'aunts' in which the modified noun functions as the subject of the sentence or that 'visiting' is a gerund which functions as the subject of the sentence. According to the first option, the translation would be *زيارة المرء لعماته* but it would be *اللاتي يزرن المرء يزعهنه* (الخالات), according to the second option.

In Arabic, ambiguity is rare, since case endings designate the position of each word in the construction of sentences. In the following verse, misunderstanding of the Arabic syntax would lead to the distortion of meaning.

وَأَذَانٌ مِّنَ اللَّهِ وَرَسُولِهِ إِلَى النَّاسِ يَوْمَ الْحَجِّ الْأَكْبَرِ أَنَّ اللَّهَ بَرِيءٌ مِّنَ الْمُشْرِكِينَ وَرَسُولُهُ إِن تَابْتُمْ فَهُوَ خَيْرٌ لَّكُمْ وَإِن تَوَلَّيْتُمْ فَاعْلَمُوا أَنَّكُمْ غَيْرُ مُعْجِزِي اللَّهِ وَبَشِّرِ الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا بِعَذَابِ أَلِيمٍ (سورة: 9 آية: 3).

"And a declaration from Allah and His messenger to mankind on the greatest day (the 10<sup>th</sup> of Dhul-Hijjah - the 12<sup>th</sup> month of the Islamic calendar) that Allah is free from obligation to the idolaters, and so is His messenger. So, if you repent, it will be better for you; but if you turn away, then know that you cannot escape Allah. Give tidings (O Muhammad) of a painful torment to those who disbelieve" (Al Hilali and Khan 1996: 243).

A misunderstanding of the structure of the phrase *إن الله بريء من المشركين ورسوله* would lead to a very serious distortion of the meaning of the verse under discussion. Thus if the verse were read as *إن الله بريء من المشركين ورسوله* it would mean 'Allah is free from obligation to the idolaters and the prophet'. The corresponding unmarked sentence to the actual structure of this verse is *إن الله ورسوله بريئان من المشركين* 'Allah and His prophet are free from obligation to the idolaters'. Such ambiguity in Arabic is avoided by the accurate use and interpretation of case endings. This translation problem reveals the fact that a correct understanding of syntax can be an important element in translation.

Ambiguity may also result from the occurrence of some adverbs at the end of a negative sentence. For example, 'John did not hit Mary on the head hard' may have the following interpretations:



1. John hit Mary on the head but not hard.

This would translate into Arabic as: لم يضرب جون رأس ميري بقوة.

2. John hit other parts of Mary's body hard.

This would be rendered into Arabic as: إن ضرب جون لميري لم يكن على رأسها.

3. John did not hit Mary at all.

The translation of this into Arabic would be: لم يضرب جون ميري مطلقا.

### 3.4.2. Potential ellipsis

Potential elliptical constituents are sometimes the source of syntactic ambiguity. For example, the ambiguity in 'The policeman was ordered to stop drinking' lies in the possibility of having an elliptical element after the verb 'stop'. Such elliptical elements could be 'himself' or 'others'. According to the first option, the sentence would translate into Arabic as: أمر الشرطي بالامتناع عن الشرب 'The policeman was ordered himself not to drink'. But if the second option is intended, the translation into Arabic would be: أمر الشرطي بمنع تناول المشروبات 'The policeman should stop others from drinking.'

However, if nothing in the context is found to guide the translator, or the ambiguity is intended on purpose on the part of the source language author or speaker, the translator has ideally to produce the same ambiguity in the TL. Therefore, this sentence should be rendered into Arabic as: أمر الشرطي بعدم جواز تناول المشروبات .

### 3.4.3. Indeterminacy of the pronominal reference

In this case of ambiguity, the referent of the pronoun is not specific. This may sometimes result in an inaccurate rendering when the translator chooses the wrong target language pronoun. For instance, the pronoun 'she' in 'Jane asked her aunt if she could go with her to the party.' may refer to 'Jane' or to 'the aunt'. If the translator opts for the first possibility, the translation into Arabic would be:

سالت جين عمتها (خالتها). أسمح لها بمرافقتها إلى الحفلة.

But if the translator goes for the second option, the translation will be along the lines:

However, if the indeterminacy of the pronouns is intentional on the part of the SL author and speaker, the translator should try to reproduce a similar pronominal indeterminacy in the TL, e.g. سألت جين عمته (خالته) أباإمكان مرافقتها إلى الحفلة؟

#### 3.4.4. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed lexical, cultural and grammatical symmetries and asymmetries in English and Arabic. The areas of lexical symmetry and asymmetry discussed include denotation or the primary meaning of word, connotation (the secondary meaning) in addition to synonymy, homonymy and polysemy, collocation, idioms, neologisms and oligosemy. The areas of cultural symmetry and asymmetry discussed include translation and culture, and cultural issues in English and Arabics such as kinship, gender, mythology, ecology, politics, and colour. The procedures and strategies used in the translation of culture, particularly those proposed by Ivir (1987), Newmark (1988) and Mailhac (1995) are also included as these are the most widely used and practical procedures and strategies. The areas of grammatical symmetry and asymmetry focus on some syntactic aspects of English and Arabic such as adjectival constructions, the passive, word order and syntactic ambiguity including structural ambiguity, potential ellipsis and indeterminacy of the pronominal reference. The discussion of areas of symmetry and asymmetry between English and Arabic provides the researcher with the main similarities and differences in lexical, cultural and grammatical aspects between English and Arabic. This will form the basis for the practical analysis chapters by providing methodological references that the researcher can rely on in identifying lexical, cultural and grammatical difficulties in English-Arabic translation. In the following chapter, Chapter Four, the methodology adopted in this study will be described.

## **Chapter Four: Methodology**

### **4.1. Introduction**

This chapter discusses the methodology employed in this study in order to achieve the objectives of the study, as outlined in Chapter One (cf. Section 1.3). Specifically, the chapter focuses on the type of research, the context of the study (e.g. the IUG English Department and translation courses), the subjects of the research, the translation texts and the selection criteria, instruments of data collection including a translation test, a researcher's assessment, a rater's assessment, a target readership assessment, a professional translator's model translation and a student questionnaire, research design and the procedure.

### **4.2. Type of research**

This research adopts Kussmaul's (1995: 4) product-oriented approach. The approach consists of three stages: description of errors (looking at the symptoms), finding the reasons for the errors (diagnosis) and pedagogical help (therapy). The present research starts by describing types of lexical, cultural and grammatical problems encountered by senior Palestinian EFL learners at the Islamic University of Gaza (cf. Chapter Five and Chapter Six), trying to find the reasons behind their errors (cf. Chapter Five and Chapter Six) and finally suggesting some pedagogical help for them to cope with these errors (Chapter Five, Chapter Six, and Chapter Seven).

### **4.3. Context of the Study**

#### **4.3.1. Islamic University of Gaza**

The Islamic University of Gaza (henceforth IUG), located in Gaza City, is an independent Palestinian institution, supervised by the Palestinian Ministry of Higher Education. It was the first higher educational institution to be established in Gaza during the Israeli occupation. The IUG began in 1978 with three schools and currently has more than eight schools awarding BA, BSc, MA, MSc, MEd, and higher diplomas in more than 30

disciplines. The IUG is a member of many associations including the International Association of Universities, Community of Mediterranean Universities, Association of Arab Universities, and Association of Islamic Universities. The mission of the IUG is to provide high quality education to Palestinian students, particularly those living in the Gaza Strip (more than a million people), to encourage academic and scientific research, and to offer degree and non-degree programmes that meet the needs of the local community in the Gaza Strip (Islamic University of Gaza, 2008-9).

#### **4. 3. 2. IUG English Department and translation courses**

According to the head of the English Department, Dr. Kamal Mourtaga (personal communication, April, 2009), there were around 1104 students specializing in English in the year 2008/2009. The population includes 188 male students and 916 female students. To obtain a bachelor degree, students are required to complete 140 credit hours of coursework, including 37 credit hours as a university requirement, 15 credit hours as a school requirement, and 88 credit hours as a major requirement. The major requirement includes two translation courses: ENGL A 1243 - Translation (I) and ENGL B 3255 - Translation (II). Students have to take these two courses according to the order stated in the university catalogue, i.e. all students have to take Translation (I) before Translation (II). Generally, ENGL A 1243 is taken by junior students in the first semester, while ENGL B 3255 is taken by senior students in the first semester.

As stated in the 2008/2009 undergraduate catalogue, ENGL A 1243 is an introduction to English-Arabic translation. It aims to introduce students to basic translation skills and to consolidate their knowledge of English through providing them with appropriate training in translating simple, compound and complex English sentences into Arabic, using a variety of text-types that include high frequency vocabulary and expressions. In addition, the course concentrates on the discussion of a number of grammatical issues that are typically problematic for Arab learners. ENGL B 3255 aims at developing the students' translation skills and heightening their sensitivity to words, sentences and texts. It is designed to train students in translating a variety of Arabic and English text types selected from different fields of human endeavour, particularly those related to our contemporary world (Islamic University of Gaza, 2008-9).

#### **4.4. Subjects of the study**

The subjects of this study were selected from the total population of 500 senior Palestinian EFL learners enrolled in the Department of English, the Islamic University of Gaza in the academic year 2007-2008. The population included approximately 20 % males and 80 % females. Thirty students were selected using the systematic random sampling method. However, only twenty-eight students were able to carry out the translation task. They were 14 male students and 14 female students. All subjects had already studied two translation courses. Students were roughly 20 years old, and their socio-economic backgrounds were similar, since all of them were from the Gaza Strip - a densely populated small area of over a million people, and all of them suffered from the same socio-economic hardships. In addition, the participants' academic level was roughly the same since all of them were admitted to the university according to a fixed graduate point average in their general secondary certificates. Before entering the university, the subjects had received eight to ten years of instruction of English either attending public or private schools. During this eight-to-ten-year period, English was the only foreign language taught, students receiving six forty-five minute classes a week. Moreover, English was a compulsory school subject that accounted for a high ratio of the total pass grade in the final general exams of both junior and senior high stages. According to Al Masri (1993: 16-17) English was given equal weight with Arabic, with each language accounting for 25% of the two general examinations. Eight to ten years of English instruction represents a major part of the curriculum. However, in relation to time and weight allocated for learning English, the students' English proficiency is still very low (Al-Masri, 1993; Kharm & Hajjaj, 1989).

#### **4.5. Translation texts**

The translation texts selected for this study consist of 18 source texts of short to medium length covering three text types : descriptive, argumentative and instructional. The three types of texts follow Werlich's (1976) text typology: expository (e.g. descriptive, narrative and conceptual), argumentative (e.g. overt argumentation and covert argumentation) and instructional (cf. the text typological approach, section 2.10). The texts were selected through close monitoring of British newspapers and the BBC, particularly Radio 5. The

selected topics were immigration, binge-drinking, the property market, global warming, the Kyoto Protocol and the Arab-Israeli conflict.

(A list of the source texts used in this study together with their publication details is provided in Appendix A).

In selecting the source language translation texts the following criteria have been taken into account:

1. The texts cover the kind of topics that would-be translators will be dealing with most frequently. In addition, the participants are Palestinians who are in day-to-day contact with international news agencies which cover the political situation and the life of Palestinians living under the occupation.
2. A variety of text types were chosen, on the basis that this will acquaint Palestinian translators in general and translation students in particular with the most challenging translation problems that they might encounter when translating these types of texts.
3. The texts are of the kinds that pose the greatest challenges to Palestinian Arab translators, since they are dealing with two languages that are unrelated, both linguistically and culturally.

#### **4.6. Data Collection**

In addition to the 18 source texts the researcher used other instruments of data collection. These instruments include a translation test, a researcher's assessment, a rater's assessment, a target readership assessment, a professional translator's model translation and a student questionnaire. The translation test consisted of the 18 texts of medium size translated by 28 students from the Department of English, Islamic University of Gaza. The translation test was carried out in two separate sessions within a period of two weeks. In each session students translated between 8 and 9 texts using dictionaries. No time limit was given. This helped students concentrate on their translation task and complete their task without any undue pressure. The other data collection instruments included:

##### **4.6.1. The researcher's assessment**

The researcher has an MA in Applied Linguistics and ten years of teaching experience at the Department of English, Islamic University of Gaza. He also attended several MA English-

Arabic translation modules at the University of Salford, and participated in translation workshops and seminars held at the University of Salford and other British universities. The researcher analysed the translated texts by identifying, describing and explaining the lexical, cultural and grammatical translation problems encountered by senior Palestinian EFL learners. The following is a sample of a student error identification form taken from the translation of source text 3 (cf. Source texts are provided in Appendix A):

Student No.	Type of error	Source Text	Target Text	Model Translation	
<b>I. Lexical errors</b>					
28	<b>a. Wrong word choice or wrong lexis (unacceptable translations)</b>	It is an all too <u>familiar</u> paradox.  All crime is <u>down</u> 32 per cent over the past decade.  The crime figures show the risk of falling victim to <u>an offence</u> is <u>going down</u> .	على رغم التشابه إلا أنها متناقضة  من هنا فإن كل الجرائم ما دون 32% تعتبر ضمن العقد الفائت.  الجريمة تظهر الضرر بل الخطر الناجم عن وقوع الضحية في مخالفة قانونية لحد التورط.	إنه لتناقض ما لوف جدا.  أن المستوى الكلي للجريمة انخفض بنسبة 32% خلال العقد الماضي.  تظهر أرقام الجريمة انخفاضاً في خطر الوقوع ضحية لهجوم.	
	<b>b. Word choice (partially acceptable translations)</b>	The <u>public</u> fear	الخوف العامي	خوف الجمهور	
	<b>c. Proper nouns</b>	<u>Wales</u>	وجاراتها في المناطق الجبلية	مقاطعة ويلز	
	<b>d. Compounds</b>	But nearly <u>two-thirds</u> of people  <u>Police figures</u>  The authoritative <u>British Crime Survey</u> of <u>offending levels</u>	وبينما هناك حوالي 32% من الناس رجال الشرطة  السلطات البريطانية لدراسة وتقصى الجريمة على كافة مستويات المجتمع	يظل ما يقارب ثلثي الناس أرقام الشرطة  المصحح الرسمي للجريمة البريطانية لمستويات الاعتداء	
	<b>e. Alternative translation</b>	Do not reflect  The same trend	لم يعكسوا أو يظهروا الحقيقة  نفس النزعة أو الاتجاه	لا تعكس  نفس الميل	
	<b>f. Omission</b>	No equivalent for "September"			
	<b>g. Addition</b>	It is not credible to argue that the police figures do not reflect the reality of the situation.	ومن غير المعقول أن نختلف أو نجادل على أن رجال الشرطة لم يعكسوا أو يظهروا الحقيقة في الموقف وذلك على الدوام.	ولا يصح الجدل بأن أرقام الشرطة لا تعكس واقع الحال.	
	<b>II. Grammatical errors</b>				
	<b>a. Agreement</b>	But nearly two-thirds of people believe crime is increasing.	وبينما هناك حوالي 32% من الناس يعتقد أن الجريمة قد ازدادت.	يظل ما يقارب ثلثي الناس يعتقدون أن معدل الجريمة في ازدياد.	
	<b>b. Case ending</b>	But the public fear of crime remains as high as ever.	لكن الخوف العامي من الجريمة يبقى مرتفع نوعاً ما	وفي نفس الوقت يظل فيه خوف الجمهور مرتفعاً كما كان من قبل.	
<b>c. Word order</b>	The crime figures show the risk of falling victim to an offence is going down.	الجريمة تظهر الضرر بل الخطر الناجم عن وقوع الضحية في مخالفة قانونية لحد التورط	تظهر أرقام الجريمة انخفاضاً في خطر الوقوع ضحية لهجوم.		

Table 12: Student error identification form



#### **4.6.2. The rater's assessment**

The rater involved in the assessment of the translated texts is a native speaker of English and a professor of Arabic at the University of Salford and the supervisor of the author of this study. The rater has long experience in teaching translation and linguistics at British universities, and he has also supervised a considerable number of Arab PhD students. The rater and researcher met on a weekly basis to discuss the translation errors identified by the researcher. The discussion focused on issues related to the identification and categorization of translation errors. In most cases there was unanimous agreement on all issues raised in the discussion.

#### **4.6.3. The target readership assessment**

To complement the assessment carried out by the researcher and the rater the translated texts were given to a native speaker of Arabic who has experience in teaching Arabic at university level (cf. Brunette 2000: 173). The native speaker was informed about the main objective of the research and was asked to identify all grammatical and stylistic errors in students' translations. The feedback given by the native speaker of Arabic was so effective that further translation errors were identified.

#### **4.6.4. The professional translator**

The professional translator provided a model translation which was used as a model against which students' translations were assessed (cf. Lauscher 2000: 163). The professional translator has long experience in teaching translation at the Islamic University of Gaza. He has also worked as a professional translator in some Arab and international organizations. He is currently doing a PhD in translation and linguistics at the University of Salford. The professional translation is provided in Appendix B.

#### **4.6.5. The student questionnaire**

The student questionnaire was designed to identify the difficulty of each text. Students were asked first to translate the 18 texts and second to rate the difficulty of each text by choosing

one of the five options provided under each text (very difficult, difficult, moderate, easy and very easy) (cf. Results of student translators' responses to the questionnaire, section 6.15).

#### **4.7. Design**

This study used a descriptive research design, employing an English-Arabic translation test in the research. A descriptive research design was appropriate for this study because the study involved determining and describing grammatical and semantic deviances in Palestinian EFL learners' English-Arabic translation. Ethical issues were not a significant problem in this study because the translation test was administered after students consented to participate in this study by signing a consent form (cf. Appendix D).

#### **4.8. Procedure**

Before conducting the study, the researcher submitted an Ethical Permission form to carry out research to the IUG chancellor for approval to conduct a study involving human subjects. This was accepted by the IUG. Then, the head of the IUG English Department was contacted in order to give permission to conduct the study as well as to get his assistance in identifying the total population of students and randomly selecting thirty students of them (cf. Limitation of the study, section 7.7). Furthermore, the researcher worked with the contact to arrange a time for the selected students to take the test as well as a room, location, and date for administering the test. Before administering the test, the researcher obtained consent from the 28 students who participated in this study by having them read and sign a consent form (cf. Consent form is provided in Appendix D).

To ensure that the main study ran smoothly, the researcher carried out a pilot study with students at the English Department, Islamic University of Gaza. The pilot study aimed to identify the most frequent lexical, cultural and grammatical problems encountered by senior Palestinian EFL students, to check the validity of both the objectives and the hypotheses of the main study, to identify any potential problems that might arise before carrying out the main study and make changes accordingly, to familiarize the researcher with the terminology and phraseology used in analyzing translated texts, and to provide a test case for the analytical framework to be adopted in the main study.

11 students participated in the study and were asked to translate three texts from English into Arabic. The three texts were taken from English newspapers and they discussed issues related to the Middle East, an interview with a former British Home Office secretary and Japan's economic development. The results showed that students encountered problems at the lexical, cultural and grammatical levels, as can be seen below:

Main categories	Sub-categories
A. Lexical problems	Wrong equivalence
	Polysemy
	Collocations
	Lexical misunderstanding
	Graphic misunderstanding
	Translation by addition
	Translation by omission
	Overtranslation
	Transliteration
B. Cultural problems	Reflection of TL cultural values
C. Grammatical problems	Nominal vs. verbal sentences
	Discourse markers
	Case ending
	Subject-verb concord
	Gender-numeral concord
	Word order
	Passive
	Tenses
	Wrong reference
	Punctuation
	Classifiers
	Colloquial Arabic
	Definiteness and indefiniteness
	Prepositions
Singular and plural	

**Table 13: Students' errors detected in the pilot study**

Before conducting the main study two advisers from the Department of English held a preliminary instruction session for all the participants in order to explain the purpose of the study, the nature and number of texts they were going to translate, and the monetary reward they were going to get. In addition, student translators were told to use dictionaries when translating the required texts. Then the instructors listened to the participants' questions related to the samples. Most of the questions were about whether there was any relationship between this work and the courses they were studying. The advisers made it clear to the students that the test had no effect on their course grade and assured them that the translation task was for research purposes only. For the sake of anonymity, the participants were asked not to write their names or ID numbers on the answer sheets. Following this

assurance all the students seemed comfortable, and the translation test ran smoothly. In the first session, the advisers numbered the answer sheets from 1 to 14 for female translators and from 16 to 28 for male translators. This numbering was very important in order to give each participant his/her own sheet in the second session to continue his/her work. The work atmosphere was very comfortable for all students who came during the weekend, and therefore, away from any pressure from their study and classes. Generally, student translators finished the work within 4 to 6 hours depending on individual differences among them. All the assignments were handwritten. When asked about the level of the translated texts, all of the student translators agreed that the texts varied in their level of difficulty. (cf. Appendix C: Results of students' responses to the questionnaire).

The translated texts were collected and sent later to the researcher. Upon receiving the translated texts the researcher began analyzing the texts, identifying every error in them. In his analysis of the translated texts, the researcher used a three-point rating scale. The rating scale consists of: 'acceptable translation', 'partially acceptable translation' and 'unacceptable translation'. 'Acceptable translations' are judged in terms of meaning and linguistic functions, i.e. translation equivalence conveys the whole intended meaning of the SL message. 'Partially acceptable translations' are also judged in terms of meaning and linguistic functions, i.e. translation equivalence does not exactly convey the whole intended meaning of the SL message. 'Unacceptable translations', are cases where translation equivalence does not convey the intended meaning of the SL message due to semantic and / or syntactic deviances. The analysis of the translations was also based on the model translation provided by the professional translator and the feedback and analysis of all grammatical and stylistic errors provided by the native speaker of Arabic. The researcher also held weekly meetings with the rater to discuss issues related to the identification and categorization of translation errors provided by the researcher (cf. Section 4.6.1 the researcher's assessment). In most cases there was unanimous agreement on all issues raised in the discussion. After identifying and classifying all categories of lexical, cultural and grammatical errors and their sub-categories, the researcher provided the percentage of each category and the frequency of each error. Each sub-category error type was explained with erroneous examples from the students' translations, and further examples showing students' erroneous translations with model translations provided by the professional translator were given at the end of each section.

In classifying errors into lexical, cultural and grammatical errors, the researcher made use of previous research studies on English-Arabic translation problems, particularly those carried out by Al Ghussain (2003), Deeb (2005) and Abbadi (2007). The following list summarizes the translation problems found in the analysis of students' translations:

Main categories	Sub-categories
A. Lexical errors	Wrong lexis
	Omission
	Compounds
	Colloquial Arabic
	Transliteration
	Polysemy
	Alternative translation
	Addition
	Collocations
	Acronyms
	Proper nouns
	Metaphors
	Graphic ambiguity
	Idioms
B. Cultural errors	Social culture
	Religious culture
	Political culture
	Background knowledge
	Behaviour
B. Grammatical errors	Punctuation
	Discourse markers
	Word order
	Case ending
	Referential ambiguity
	Agreement
	Spelling
	Articles
	Tense
	Prepositions
	Singular and plural
	Passive
	Cataphoric and anaphoric references

**Table 14: Students' errors detected in the main study**

#### **4.9. Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the methodology adopted in the study. Specifically the chapter discussed the research type, the context of the study, the subjects of the study, the translation texts, instruments of data collection, design and procedure. In the following chapter, Chapter Five, the lexical and cultural problems encountered by student translators will be presented.

## **Chapter Five: Presentation and analysis of lexical and cultural problems**

### **5.1. Introduction**

In this chapter the lexical and cultural problems encountered by the students of this study will be identified, classified and analyzed into two main categories: lexical and cultural problems. Each main category will be divided into sub-categories, and the total number of errors in each sub-category together with the total percentages of errors will be given. The discussion and classification of errors below will be sequenced according to the frequency of each error category. The discussion covers three types of texts: expository descriptive, instructional and argumentative. The lexical and cultural problems encountered by the subjects of this study and their sub-categories can be summarized as follows:

### **5.2. Lexical problems (4162 errors, 45 %)**

The general analysis of the translations has shown that students encountered many lexical problems. The high percentage of lexical problems may be attributed to students' tendency to translate literally and the difficulty they encounter in finding the appropriate Arabic equivalent for SL lexical items. Students' dependence on English-Arabic bilingual dictionaries as well as their lack of proof-reading skills can also be blamed for this high percentage. The lexical problems encountered by the subjects of this study include: wrong word choice (wrong lexis) (28.7%), omission (12.9%), compounds (11.5%), colloquial Arabic (9.7%), transliteration (7.3%), polysemy (5.7%), alternative translation (5.2%), addition (5.1%), collocations (4.1%), acronyms (3.4%), proper nouns (2.8%), metaphors (1.8%), graphic ambiguity (1.00%) and idioms (0.8%). Examples representing students' erroneous translations in these areas will be discussed under each sub-category followed by some suggested solutions.

#### **5.2.1. Wrong word choice (wrong lexis) (1193 errors, 28.7%)**

These errors refer to the semantically wrong word or phrase used by the student translator as an equivalent for the source language word or phrase. These errors produce translations that deviate from the intended meaning of the SL message leading to a distortion of the meaning

in the TT. The results revealed that the total number of errors involved in the use of wrong lexis was 1193 (28.7%). To illustrate this point, students gave different translations for the lexical item 'mortgages' in "The number of mortgages approved for homebuyers sank to a record low during October", Text Seven, as follows:

سجلت معدلات إغراق الرهن العقاري للبانعين المحليين خلال أكتوبر انخفاضاً واضحاً.  
سجل عدد الرهون المبرمة المسقطه لشراء البيوت انخفاضاً في شهر أكتوبر.  
عدد الصكوك يعتمد مع البانعين الغارقين في الديون خلال شهر أكتوبر.

As the above translations show the student translators gave different translations for the lexical item 'mortgage', e.g. الرهن العقاري 'property pledge', الرهون 'pawns, pledges' and الصكوك 'bonds'. These renderings fall short of conveying the intended meaning of the original message. The problem can be related to students' tendency to translate literally, and can also be blamed on English-Arabic bilingual dictionaries which fail to give cultural background knowledge. For example, the two equivalents given by Al Mawrid English-Arabic dictionary for 'mortgage', رهن عقاري and صك الرهن do not convey the intended meaning of the word. The meaning of this word relates to a British economic institution which forms part of British culture. According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (henceforth OALD), a mortgage is "a legal agreement by which a bank or similar organization lends you money to buy a house, etc; and you pay the money back over a particular number of years".

It is worth noting here that cultural items such as 'mortgage' and 'slowdown' will also be discussed under cultural problems (cf. Cultural problems, section 5.3).

Some students gave partially acceptable translations, as in:

إن عدد القروض العقارية الموافق عليها لشراء المنازل هبطت لتسجل انخفاضاً خلال شهر أكتوبر.  
أن هناك عدد من موافقات القروض العقارية لشراء البيوت يجب التسجيل في خلال شهر أكتوبر.  
عدد القروض العقارية الموافق عليها للمشتريين المحليين غرق إلي هبوط لم يعهد من قبل خلال شهر أكتوبر .

These renderings do not appropriately reflect the intended meaning of the original word since they lack the cultural and situational features of this expression. In addition, none of the students provided an explanatory note clarifying the cultural background of the word.

In the same text students faced difficulty in translating the economic-oriented expressions: 'slowdown' and 'cooling significantly'. The translations reflect students' preference for

literal translation. To illustrate this point, a large number of students translated 'slowdown' in "The number of mortgages approved for homebuyers sank to a record low during October, according to figures released by the British Bankers' Association that provide further evidence of a slowdown in the property market", as:

لقد انخفض عدد الرهونات الموافق عليها لمشتري المنازل انخفاضاً قياسياً خلال شهر أكتوبر و وفقاً للأرقام التي نشرتها جمعية (رابطة) البنوك البريطانية فهي تدل على التباطؤ في سوق الأملاك (الملكية). سجل عدد الرهون المبرمة المسقطه لشراء البيوت انخفاضاً في شهر أكتوبر. و نسبة إلى الإعداد التي نشرها الاتحاد المصرفي البريطاني و التي تعطي دليل آخر على تباطؤ في سوق الممتلكات.

As the translations show, 'slowdown' is translated literally as تباطؤ. This literal translation is not congruent with the specific meaning of the term. In this text, and according to OALD (2005: 1440), 'slowdown' means 'a reduction in speed or activity: a slowdown in economic growth'. One explanation for this type of error among student translators is the lack of specialized dictionaries. Students may have consulted non-specialized dictionaries such as Al Mawrid English-Arabic dictionary and so produced such erroneous translations. In the same way, the majority of students faced difficulty in translating the special term 'cooling significantly' in "Analysts said the data showed the 'troubled housing market' was now 'cooling significantly' and called on the Bank of England to cut interest rates", as can be seen in the following translations:

وقد أوضح المحللون أن المعطيات تشير إلى مشكلة التسوق البيتي، والآن هناك تجميد بشكل ملحوظ مما استدعى الاتصال بالبنك في إنجلترا لقطع الأرصدة والنسب الهامة. قال محللون بأن البيانات التي أظهرت سوق الإسكان و العقارات المضطرب بدأت تهدا بصورة واضحة و تطلب من بنك إنجلترا إلغاء معدلات الفائدة. فقد قال محللون إن قاعدة البيانات أظهرت أن سوق الإسكان المضطرب كان يبرد بشكل ملحوظ ، وطالبوا بنك إنجلترا بقطع معدلات الفائدة.

The translations of 'cooling significantly' as هناك تجميد بشكل ملحوظ and بدأت تهدا بصورة واضحة respectively are a clear indication of students' tendency to translate literally. While literal translation can work well in some types of texts, e.g. scientific texts, it can lead to erroneous translations in others. In translating literally students understand translation as the translation of individual words only without connecting them with the context (Deeb, 2005: 184).

Other students gave partially acceptable translations, as in:



و قال المحلون أن البيانات تظهر إدارة الأسواق المبللة أصبحت الآن ركوداً ذو أهمية و يسمى في بنوك انجلترا معدلات الأسهم المشطوبة.  
وقال محلل أن هذه البيانات أظهرت مشكلات تسويق المنازل كانت الآن "ركود مميز" ونادت في بنك بريطانيا لقطع المعدلات المستحسنة.

Although the Arabic equivalents ركود مميز and ركود ذو أهمية do capture the intended meaning of the source language, the two phrases sound odd and awkward in Arabic. In addition, the Arabic noun ركود does not collocate with the phrase 'with importance'.

Other students ignored the translation of the expression, e.g.:

والتحليل أوضحت بأن مشاكل المحلات التجارية وأوضحت أيضا الوضوح وأيضاً سميت بنك انجلترا لقطع نسب الاستمتاع.

Some students however gave acceptable translations such as:

ووفقا للمحللين فقد ظهرت البيانات فتورا واضحا لسوق العقارات المضطرب ودعوا البنك المركزي البريطاني لتقليص نسب الفائدة.  
وقد وضع المحللين أن المعلومات تبين أن المشكلة في السوق المحلية هي في الركود السائد.

The professional translator gave the following translation:

وقال المحلون بأن البيانات تظهر أن "سوق الإسكان المضطربة" تمر الآن بفترة "فتور ملحوظ" ودعوا مصرف بريطانيا إلى خفض أسعار الفائدة.

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
3	Crime figures show	فإن جدول الجرائم يشير	.. تظهر أرقام الجريمة
7	To cut interest rates...	لقطع الأرصدة والنسب الهامة	خفض أسعار الفائدة
7	A slowdown in the property market...	على الانخفاض البطيء في سوق التملك	انخفاض أنشطة سوق العقارات
7	The third drop in consecutive months	هو السقوط الثالث الذي تعاقب خلال أشهر.	وكان ثالث هبوط له في الشهور المتتالية .
7	The number of mortgages approved	فقد انخفض معدل استحسان العقارات.	عدد عقود التسليف العقاري المعتمدة
8	Check your bank statement	وراجع التصريحات الصادرة عن البنك.	التأكد من التقارير المصرفية
9	Speculators who had driven up prices	...من يقود الأسعار	المضاربون اللذين رفعوا الأسعار
10	Israel hit back with air strikes	وقد ضربت إسرائيل 9 أشخاص بأسلحتها الجوية الأرضية.	وقد ردت إسرائيل من جانبها بضربات جوية.

Table 15: Errors involving wrong word choice (wrong lexis)

## 5.2.2. Omission (539 errors 12.9%)

### 5.2.2.1. Appropriate omission

Sometimes the translator is obliged, by TL-specific conventions or other aspects of untranslatability, to omit some of the items in the SL. However, the translator should do his/her best to render those omitted parts in order not to affect the propositional content, or the overall meaning, of the ST. For example, two students acceptably omitted the source text item 'bank' in "First, keep an eye on your spending and check your bank statements", Text Eight, as follows:

البداية، ابق متيقظاً على إنفاك وافحص رصيدك باستمرار.  
أولاً: ابق على تواصل مع الممول الخاص بك وتفقد حسابك.

Here, the omission of the word 'bank' does not affect the general meaning of the message. In Arabic the word رصيد / حساب is a synecdoche which refers to 'bank statement'.

Another example of appropriate omission is students' translations of "Third, be careful with the credit card - if you're tempted to overdo it, leave the card at home", Text Eight as:

ثالثاً كن حذراً (حريصاً) في استخدام بطاقة الائتمان وإذا كنت ممن لا يسيطر على نفسه عند استخدامها اتركها في المنزل.  
ثالثاً: كن حذراً من البطاقات الائتمانية وإذا كنت من الهاوين لاستخدامها كثيراً فعليك تركها في البيت.  
ثالثاً: كن حذراً في التعامل مع بطاقة الائتمان، إذا لم تستطع التحكم بها جيداً فلتتركها في البيت.

The item 'card' is appropriately replaced by the anaphoric pronoun ها in اتركها 'leave it'. Anaphoric reference occurs in Arabic when a noun is mentioned first then followed by its pronoun (Abdul-Raof, 2001, 64).

### 5.2.2.2. Inappropriate omission

By inappropriate omission we simply mean omitting certain words, phrases or even sentences that need to be retained in the TL version. This may be attributed to carelessness or failure on the part of the translator to capture the intended meaning and convey it adequately in the TL. The analysis has shown that some students omitted key SL words, phrases or sentences resulting in distorted and non-equivalent translations. There were 539 (12.9%) omissions in the translations. By way of illustration, one student ignored the

translation of 'the Home Office' in "According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-07 compared with 49 in the previous year-an increase of 18%.", Text One, as follows:

ففي عام 7- 2006 هناك حوالي 58 قتل بسبب الأسلحة النارية مقارنة مع 49 حالة في السنة الماضية.

Here, the translator omitted a key phrase in the ST, which is unjustified. This omission not only affects the semantic equivalence but it also reduces the total meaning transferred into the TT. Surprisingly, there is nothing in the context to hinder the translation of this phrase. The whole propositional meaning of the sentence is retained once the omitted part is translated:

و بحسب وزارة الداخلية البريطانية ، تبين أن عدد حوادث القتل باستخدام السلاح الناري لسنة 2006-07 قد بلغ 58 حالة مقارنة ب 49 واقعة سجلت في السنة الماضية، أي بزيادة قدرها 18%.

Similarly, in their translations of "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths..." , Text One, many students ignored the cultural item 'gangsta rap', as shown below:

والمخدرات، سم/ مرض التحضر وسبب العنصرية،... ، غياب القوانين، الكل لوموا بسبب كثرة الموتى الذين قتلوا بالسلاح حديثاً.  
وتظهر النتائج أن ارتفاع تناول المخدرات بنسبة 18%، والفساد المدني والعنصرية...و غياب القانون أدت إلى ارتفاع حوادث القتل بالأسلحة.  
يظهر ارتفاع حوالي 18 % في المقاطعات الريفية، والمخدرات، العنصرية... وغياب في الدور السلبي أدى إلى توجيه اللوم إلى السلسلة الحديثة في وفيات السلاح.

Generally, the omission of basic information from the source text affects the total information transferred in the target language, which will then affect the target language reader's comprehension of the message of the text.

### 5.2.3. Compounds (477 errors, 11.5 %)

Compounding is a derivational process in which two words or more are combined to form a new term. Compounds are written as one word, sometimes hyphenated and sometimes remaining separate. English compounds constitute a considerable part of English vocabulary, new compounds being added to the English lexicon on a daily basis.

Compounds can be of any part of speech: compound nouns (e.g. goldsmith), compound adjectives (e.g. seasick), compound verbs (overcome), compound pronouns (yourself), compound adverbs (moreover), compound prepositions (in front of), compound conjunctions (whenever), compound numerals (twenty-two), a compound indefinite (another).

Using syntactic criteria, Quirk et al (1985: 1570-75) divide nominal compounds into six main groups:

1. Subject-verb: This takes three forms:
  - a. subject + deverbal nouns (e.g. sunrise, 'The sun rises')
  - b. verb + subject (e.g. flashlight, 'The light flashes')
  - c. verbal noun in -ing + subject (e.g. dancing girl, 'the girl dances')
2. Verb-object: This has the following forms:
  - a. object + deverbal noun (e.g. blood test, 'X tests blood')
  - b. object + verbal noun in -ing (e.g. fault-finding, 'X finds faults')
  - c. object + agential noun with -er (e.g. tax-payer, 'X pays taxes')
  - d. verb + object (e.g. punchcard, 'X punches the card')
  - e. verbal noun in -ing + object (e.g. chewing gum, 'X chews gum')
3. Verb-adverbial: This includes:
  - a. verbal noun in -ing + adverbial (e.g. swimming pool, 'X swims in the pool')
  - b. adverbial + verbal noun in -ing (e.g. day dreaming, 'X dreams during the day')
  - c. adverbial + agential noun in -er (e.g. babysitter, 'X sits with the baby')
  - d. adverbial + deverbal noun (e.g. homework, 'X works at home')
  - e. verb + adverbial (e.g. searchlight, 'X searches with a light')
4. Subject-object: This includes:
  - a. two nouns, one operating/powering the other (e.g. windmill, 'the wind operates the mill')
  - b. two nouns, one controls/working in connection with the other (e.g. security officer, 'The officer looks after security')
5. Subject-complement: This includes:
  - a. (two nouns such as girlfriend, 'the friend is a girl')
  - b. adjective + noun (e.g. darkroom, 'the room is dark')

c. two nouns, one resembling the other ( e.g. frogman, 'the man is like a frog')

6. 'Bahuvrihi' or exocentric compounds: These nouns are used metaphorically with specific cultural connotations, e.g. 'egghead' (a highly intellectual person), 'bonehead' (stubborn or stupid), 'highbrow' (an intellectual), 'hardhat' (a construction worker).

It is worth noting that a literal translation of these compounds will produce erroneous translations that fall short of conveying the denotation and sometimes the cultural associations of these compounds, e.g. رأس بيبضاوي for 'egghead' instead of the acceptable translation رفيع الثقافة 'a highly intellectual person', رأس عظمي for 'bonehead' instead of the correct translations عنيد 'stubborn' or أحمق 'stupid'.

Compounding (النحت أو التركيب المجزي) does not play such an important part in Arabic as in English. According to Hammad (1983), quoted in (Al Kenai, 1985: 141), classical philologists divide Arabic compound lexemes into four categories:

1. Verbal compounds: The formation of a compound that expresses an action which is usually expressed in a phrase: e.g. بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ 'to utter the invocation' 'In the Name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful'. Similarly, حمدل , حمد الله to say الحمد لله 'thanks be to Allah'. Also هرب 'flee' and ولى 'run away'.

2. Adjectival compounds: The formation of a compound that bears the meaning of the adjective form of two morphemes: e.g. برماني 'amphibian', from بر 'land' and ماء 'water', إمعة 'a yes-man' from إني 'I am' and مع 'with' or 'pro'.

3. Nominal compounds: e.g. حضرموت 'a city in Yemen' analyzed as being derived from حضر 'be present' and موت 'death', مجريات 'course of events' from ما 'what' and جرا 'happen'.

4. Relative pronouns: Compounds are formed from proper nouns by adding the relative suffix: ي , e.g. طبرخازي a man coming from طبرستان and خوارزم.

Al Kenai claims that compounds are rather few in both Classical Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic, and that most of the compound lexemes in Arabic are loanwords which are translated literally, especially in the field of chemistry, medicine, biology and physics, e.g. 'electromagnetic' كهرومغناطيسي, 'amphibian' برماني (ibid: 143-4).

The previous examination of the compounding systems of English and Arabic shows that each language forms its compounds differently. While compounding plays an important part in English, it is a less productive process in Arabic. Students' translations of English compounds showed that some compounds were translated straightforwardly while others proved to be difficult to translate. For example, students faced no difficulty in translating

English compounds such as 'occupied territories', 'international law', 'Middle East' as these words have closely corresponding equivalents in the target language, namely, الأراضي المحتلة, القانون الدولي, and الشرق الأوسط respectively. However, other compounds such as 'firearms-related homicide', 'world credit fiasco', 'global credit crunch', 'a new points-based system', 'low-skilled workers', 'United Nations-based bodies', and 'a climate-friendly future' constituted a real difficulty in translation. The general analysis has shown that compounds accounted for 477 (11.5%) errors. For example, some students translated the English phrase '58 firearms-related homicides' incorporating the compound 'firearms-related' in "According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-2007 compared with 49 in the previous year - an increase of 18%", Text One, as:

و وفقاً لوزارة الداخلية، فإن هناك زيادة في الاستخدام بمعدل 18%، حيث خلال العامين 2006-2007 هناك 58 قاتل يستخدمون السلاح الناري مقارنة بـ 49 شخص خلال السنة الماضية. و نسبة لوزارة الداخلية البريطانية فإن 58 سلاح ناري ارتبط بالقتل في عامي 2006 و 2007 مقارنة مع 49 في السنة السابقة أي أن هناك زيادة بنسبة 18%. وحسب وزارة الداخلية فإن نسبة المسلحين الذين ارتكبوا جرائم القتل المتعمد قد ارتفعت بنسبة 18%، حيث وصل عدد المسلحين سنة 2006-2007 إلى 58 مسلحاً مقارنة بـ 49 مسلحاً في السنوات السابقة.

The translations given as equivalents of '58 firearms-related homicides' are 58 قاتل يستخدمون السلاح الناري '58 firearms associated with killing', '58 killers using firearms', '58 سلاح ناري ارتبط بالقتل', '58 مسلحاً' and 'the number of armed people reached 58 in 2006-2007'. These renderings fall short of conveying the meaning of the source text, i.e. 58 homicides committed using firearms. The difficulty involved in translating this compound may be attributed to students' failure to analyze the constituents of the phrase. In other words, students were unable to distinguish between the compound modifier (firearms-related) and the head noun (homicides). According to Deeb (2005) and Kharmā and Hajjaj (1989), the difficulty of translating English compounds among Arab students is related to the presence of a lengthy grammatical structure which most commonly takes the form of strings of adjectives.

Some students gave partially acceptable translations such as:

و وفقاً لوزارة الداخلية البريطانية، فقد كان 58 عملية قتل بالسلاح في عامي 2006-2007 مقارنة بـ 49 في العام السابق، وهو ما يعني زيادة تقدر بـ 18%. ففي عام 2006-2007 هناك حوالي 58 قتل بسبب الأسلحة النارية مقارنة مع 49 حالة في السنة الماضية.

The above translations conveyed the intended meaning of the source text message, but they failed to adopt the correct rules of the TL. While in the first translation the translator came under the influence of colloquial Arabic قتل بالسلاح , in the second translation the translator opted for the wrong case of the noun قتيلا instead of قتيلا .

Some students however were able to get the meaning of the source text message and produced a good Arabic style, as in:

و حسب وزارة الداخلية البريطانية، وقعت 58 جريمة قتل بالسلاح الناري و ذلك في عامي 2006-2007 مقارنة ب 49 جريمة في العام الماضي، أي زيادة بمعدل 18%.  
و حسب وزارة الداخلية البريطانية، كانت هناك 58 جريمة قتل باستخدام الأسلحة النارية في 2006-2007 مقارنة بالسنة الماضية حيث كان العدد 49، أي زيادة بنسبة 18%.

In Text Fourteen, students faced difficulty in translating the English phrase 'a new points-based system' incorporating the compound 'points-based' in "Finally, a new points-based system for economic migrants will be introduced in the spring, only allowing them to come to this country if they have sufficient skills and qualifications". Two of students' translations are as follows:

أخيراً: سيقدم نظام اقتصادي جديد للمهاجرين خلال الربيع بحيث لايسمح إلا لذوي الكفاءات و القدرات لدخول هذه البلد.  
أخيراً: نقطة جديدة تتعلق بالنظام الاقتصادي للنازحين سيتم تقديمها في الربيع حيث سيتم السماح لهم بالدخول إلى الدولة إذا كان لديهم مهارات و مؤهلات كافية.

The students' translations of the English compound as 'a new economic system for immigrants', and 'a new point related to the economic system of immigrants' respectively do not convey the intended meaning of the SL item. This difficulty may be related to the non-existence of the newly adopted immigration system in Britain in the target culture. A few students however gave partially acceptable translations conveying the intended meaning of the ST, as in:

أخيراً، بخصوص المهاجرين الاقتصاديين ستقدم في الربيع قواعد جديدة تنظم دخولهم. فقط سيسمح لهم بالدخول إلى الدولة في حال كان لديهم المؤهلات و المهارات الكافية.  
و أخيراً: سيصدر في الربيع نظام جديد قائم على الهدف و الغرض للمهاجرين الذين يسعون لأغراض اقتصادية يقضي بالسماح لهم بالمجيء لهذه البلاد فقط إذا كانوا يمتلكون مهارات مؤثرة و كافية و مؤهلات.

The professional translator gave the following translation:

وأخيراً سوف يطبق في الربيع القادم نظاما يقوم على نقاط التميز على المهاجرين الاقتصاديين.

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
7	Analysts said the data showed the "troubled housing market"	وقال محلل أن هذه البيانات أظهرت مشكلات تسويق المنازل	وقال المحللون بأن البيانات تظهر أن "سوق الإسكان المضطربة"
2	and monitoring <u>online</u> <u>firearm</u> suppliers..	والتحكم في إمدادات السلاح المباشرة	ومراقبة موردي الأسلحة النارية عبر الشبكة الدولية للمعلومات، الإنترنت.
15	<u>low paid</u> British workers will pay the price of immigration	إن الدفع المنخفض للعمال البريطانيين سوف يدفع باتجاه الهجرة.	فإن العمال البريطانيين منخفضي الأجور سوف يسددون فاتورة هذه الهجرة.
17	Finally, review and enforcement of these commitments must be carried out by <u>United Nations-based</u> bodies	وأخيرا النظر وتطبيق هذه الاتفاقيات يجب أن تنفذ بالشخصيات الكبيرة في الأمم المتحدة.	وأخيرا على وكالات الأمم المتحدة المتخصصة مراجعة وتنفيذ هذه الالتزامات.
18	...which can deliver the stringent emissions reductions the <u>Intergovernmental Panel</u> on <u>Climate Change</u> (IPCC) tells us are needed.	وهناك هيئة تحكم للتغيرات الجوية من الضروري وجودها وذلك لاحتياجها.	وتفيد لجنة الحكومات المهمة بالتغير المناخي (IPCC) من أنه يلزم حينئذ التفاوض على إطار عالمي جديد والعمل على إقراره من أجل تحقيق عمليات خفض صارمة للإنبعاثات.

Table 16: Errors involving compounds

The previous discussion of the translation of English compounds has shown that some compounds were easy to render while others, especially those consisting of strings of adjectives, proved to be hard to handle. To translate English compounds into Arabic students used three main strategies: genitive constructions (إضافة) including improper genitives, paraphrasing and a noun and adjective structure. Examples of genitive forms include *العمال قليلو المهارة* and *العمال ضعيفو المواهب* as translation equivalents of 'low-skilled workers' in "First, low-skilled workers from the developing world will be barred from moving to Britain", Text Four. Examples of translation by paraphrasing can be found in the translation of 'a new points-based system' in "Finally, a new points-based system for economic migrants will be introduced in the spring, only allowing them to come to this country if they have sufficient skills and qualifications", Text Fourteen, as *نظام جديد قائم على* Examples of a noun and adjective structure include *القانون الدولي* for 'International law', Text Eleven and *الشرق الأوسط* for 'The Middle East', Text Twelve.

#### 5.2.4. Use of colloquial and colloquial-influenced Arabic (403 errors, 9.7 %)

Despite the fact that translation from English into Arabic might be less problematic for native speakers of Arabic who are expected to have good mastery of their mother tongue than for English native speakers, the translations at hand have shown numerous examples of



weak structure and poor style due to the use of colloquial and colloquial-influenced Arabic expressions. The use of such Arabic expressions may be attributed to the translator's lack of TL competence. The number of errors involved in the use of colloquial or colloquial-influenced Arabic was 403 (9.7%). In the following analysis, examples of colloquial and colloquial-influenced Arabic expressions are underlined, and suggested translations are given between brackets.

"Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths, with Tory leader David Cameron going so far as to blame a 'broken society'".

المخدرات والانحلال المدني والعنصرية وجرم العصابات وغياب دور القنود الايجابية كل هذه الأمور مسنولة عن الانفجار المفاجئ الحديث للقتل وكذلك فقد لام القائد ديفيد كامبرون العضو في حزب سياسي بريطاني المجتمع الناقص. (وقد عزى التقرير هذا الارتفاع الملحوظ مؤخرا في حوادث القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات وانحلال مجتمع المدينة والعنصرية وعصابات الراب -الموسيقى الصاخبة - وغياب نماذج السلوك المثالي، لدرجة أن السيد ديفيد كامبرون رئيس حزب المحافظين بلغ به الأمر إلى لوم ما أسماه بالمجتمع المفكك).

"This represents a fall of 37 per cent year on year and was the third drop in consecutive months" (Text: 7).

وهذا يمثل انخفاض بنسبة 37 % من سنة إلى سنة وكان هو الهبوط للمرة الثالثة خلال عدة شهور متواصلة. (ويمثل هذا الرقم انخفاضا بمعدل 37 % سنة بعد سنة وكان ثالث هبوط له في الشهور المتتالية).

"Secondly, the Bank of England interest rate has risen 9 times since 2003 and 5 times since August 2006" (Text: 9).

ثانيا: بنك إنجلترا يتمتع بارتفاع الأسعار 9 مرات منذ 2003 و 5 مرات في أغسطس 2006. (ارتفع معدل الفائدة في بنك إنجلترا تسع مرات منذ 2003 وخمس مرات منذ آب أغسطس من عام 2006).

"A report from the Office for National statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991" (Text: 4).

أوضح بالأمس المكتب التابع للإحصاء العام بأن 8,758 من الأناس قد ماتوا نتيجة إفراطهم في شرب الكحول المشروبات الكحولية في عام 2006 وقد تضاعف العدد في عام 1991. (أشار تقرير صادر عن مكتب الإحصاءات الوطنية نشر أمس أن 8,758 شخصا قد ماتوا بسبب الإسراف في شرب الخمر سنة 2006 ما يبلغ ضعف العدد المسجل سنة 1991).

"First, shops and supermarkets must stop selling alcohol below cost prices. This also

involves reducing sales to under-18s by bars, off-licences and retailers”.

أولاً: المحلات التجارية والسوبر ماركت يجب عليهم توقف بيع الكحول من أجل المال. هذا يتطلب أن يقلل من بيع هذه المشروبات للذين أعمارهم تقل عن 18 سنة والذين لم يتمكنوا من تحصيل الرخصة أو ليس معهم رخصة والبيع بالتجزئة.

(تمتنع الحوانيت والأسواق المركزية عن بيع الكحول بأقل من أسعار التكلفة ويتضمن هذا تقليل المبيعات لمن هم دون 18 في الحانات والمتاجر المرخصة لبيع الخمر (وليس لتناولها) والبائعين بالتجزئة).

“Third, be careful with the credit card-if you’re tempted to overdo it, leave the card at home” (Text: 8).

ثالثاً: كن حريص على استعمال بطاقة الائتمان إذا كنت من المبالغين في استعماله اترك الكرت في البيت. (وفي المقام الثالث عليك الحذر من بطاقة الائتمان المصرفية فلو اندفعت للمبالغة في استخدامها اتركها في البيت).

### 5.2.5. Transliteration (304 errors, 7.3%)

Transliteration is the transference of the English word into Arabic letters more or less as pronounced. Catford (1965: 43) defines transliteration or transference as “an operation in which the TL text, or rather, parts of the TL text, do have values set up in the SL: in other words, have SL meanings”. One of the disadvantages of transliteration is that it brings into the target language items that preserve the original SL cultural flavour, regardless of whether these items are understood by the target language reader or not.

There were 304 (7.3%) errors involving transliteration. Many of these errors occurred in translating proper nouns and culturally specific items (cf. cultural problems, section 5.3). For example, some students transliterated ‘Joseph’ in “Remember Joseph: ‘Seven years of plenty followed by seven years of famine”, Text Nine, as جوسف, or جوزيف, as in:

ولنتذكر مقوله جوسف سبعة سنوات من الوفرة يعقبها سبعة سنوات من المجاعة.  
وكما تذكر قول جوزيف: " سبعة سنين من الكثرة تتبعها سبعة سنين من الندرة (المجاعة).  
تذكر قول جوزيف " سبع سنوات من الرخاء ستتبع سبع سنوات من المجاعات".

Other students gave the correct Arabic equivalent, as in:

كما قال سيدنا يوسف " سبع سنين رخاء يتبعهن سبع سنين قحط "  
ولابد أن نتذكر قول النبي يوسف " سبع سنين خضرا يتبعهن سبع عجاف".  
وتذكر دائماً قول سيدنا يوسف عليه السلام " سبع سنوات من الخير يليهن سبع من القحط".

One student partially acceptably used a combination of transliteration and the Arabic equivalent, as follows:

تذكر قول جوزيف " يوسف" " سنوات الخير والكفاية تتبعها سنوات الجوع والفقر".

In Text Three students used transliteration in their translations of the cultural expression 'gangsta rap' in "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths...", as follows:

وترجع هذه الزيادة في الوفيات بسبب إطلاق النار إلى المخدرات والخمور ولعب " الجانجستا" وغياب القدوة ذات الدور الايجابي.  
وترجع أسباب هذا السيل الجاري من عمليات القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات ،الانحلال المدني، التميز العنصري و عقاب "gangsta" وغياب نماذج الدور الايجابي.  
وإن إساءة استخدام المخدرات وظهور التمرد والفساد والعنصرية وانتشار العصابات " جانجستا" أو عصابات النهب بالإضافة إلى غياب المثل الأعلى أوالقدوة العليا التي يحتذي بها كل ذلك يقع عليه اللوم في التضخم المتزايد لقتلى الأسلحة.

The transliterations of the above cultural item do not correctly or semi-correctly relay the meaning of the English item. This problem is a cultural mismatch, which is related to the non-existence of the cultural item in the Arab/ Muslim target culture. However, because of its non-existence in Arabic culture, the translator may transliterate the SL item and make use of a footnote or a brief in-text explanation to explain the contextual meaning of the source cultural item, as in:

وترجع أسباب هذا الارتفاع الملحوظ مؤخراً في حوادث القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات وانحلال مجتمع المدينة والعنصرية و فرق موسيقي الراب بالإضافة إلى غياب القدوة الحسنة.

(Gangsta rap is a type of modern music in which the words of a song are spoken to a steady rhythm. The words are usually aggressive and may be critical of women, OALD, 2005: 638).

In the same way eight students transliterated 'supermarkets' in, "First, shops and supermarkets must stop selling alcohol below cost prices", Text Five. Their translations are as follows:

أولاً: يجب على المحلات " supermarkets " أن تتوقف عن بيع الكحول بأقل من سعر التكلفة.  
أولاً: يجب على المحلات والسوبر ماركت أن توقف بيع الكحول بأقل من الثمن المطلوب.  
أولاً : المحلات والسوبر ماركات يجب أن توقف بيع الكحول أقل من ثمن التسعيرة.  
أولاً: المحلات التجارية والسوبر ماركت يجب عليهم توقف بيع الكحول من أجل المال.

أولا / يجب على المحلات والسوبر ماركت أن توقف بيع الكحول بأسعار منخفضة.  
 بداية، يجب على المحلات و السوبر ماركت إيقاف بيع الكحول بأقل من سعر التكلفة.  
 أولا : محلات البقالة و السوبر ماركت يجب أن توقف بيع الكحول بأقل من أسعار التكلفة.  
 أولا : يجب على المحلات و السوبر ماركتات التوقف عن بيع الكحول دون أي تكلفه.

T	ST	Arabic equivalent	Transliteration	Omission
2	mail	27	1	0
3	police	27	1	0
5	supermarkets	16	8	4
5	bars	20	1	7
7	banks	2	19	7
7	bankers	5	23	0
8	banks	10	14	4
8	bank	2	24	2
8	Bank	3	24	1
8	card	27	1	0
8	cash	22	1	5
9	bank	2	26	0
14	police	27	1	0
15	billion	8	19	1
15	£	15	1	12
16	1°C	5	22	1
16	1.8° F	0	21	7
17	baseline	23	1	4
17	technology	0	28	0
17	mechanism	25	2	1
18	protocol	13	15	0
18	protocol	9	17	2
18	protocol	11	17	0
18	protocol	11	16	1
18	legislation	27	1	0
	Total	337	304	59
	Percentages	48.1%	43.5%	8.4%

**Table 17: Students' use of transliteration**

Table 17 shows that 48.1 % of students gave the Arabic equivalent of the source language items, 43.5 % used transliteration while 8.4 % preferred to omit the source language item. Student translators should be encouraged to use genuine Arabic words - i.e. words derived from both an Arabic root and an Arabic pattern - as it will be easier for the target reader to understand Arabic words than ad hoc loan words.

### 5.2.6. Polysemy (236 errors, 5.7 %)

Polysemy (cf. section 3.2.5) is a misleading concept since each item not only has several meanings, but it also has a wide array of contextual meanings covering a whole range of

situational features (Catford: 1965: 96). In a particular context a SL word or expression may carry several meanings, and if the translator does not understand the whole context s/he is more likely to understand the SL word or expression wrongly, thus failing to produce the appropriate TL equivalent. The results showed that the total number of errors involved in the translation of polysemy was 236 (5.7%). For example, the lexical item 'bank' in "Analysts said the data showed the "troubled housing market" was now "cooling significantly" and called on the Bank of England to cut interest rates", Text Seven, is rendered as ضفة 'shore of a river' rather than مصرف 'a financial institution', as in the following:

أوضح المحللين إلى أن المعلومات تظهر أن المشكلة في السوق المحلية هي الآن مشكلة الركود السائد و يقال في الضفة البريطانية لقطع معدلات الاهتمام.

Only one student was able to translate the word using the most acceptable Arabic equivalent for 'bank', مصرف, as in:

وقد أوضح المحللون إلى أن البيانات تعرض "مشكلة تسويق البيوت" أصبح الآن "ركود خطير" و يطلق علي مصرف بريطانيا لقطع معدلات الفائدة.

The professional translator also gave the same Arabic equivalent, as in:

وقال المحللون بأن البيانات تظهر أن "سوق الإسكان المضطربة" تمر الآن بفترة "فتور ملحوظ" ودعوا مصرف بريطانيا إلى خفض أسعار الفائدة.

Other students tended to use the stylistically less acceptable loanword بنك, giving translations that are not congruent with TL norms, such as:

وقال محللون بأن البيانات التي أظهرت سوق الإسكان و العقارات المضطرب بدأت تهبط بصورة واضحة وتطلب من بنك إنجلترا إلغاء معدلات الفائدة.

The form بنك can be partially accepted as an equivalent for 'bank', since the item is widely used in Arab daily life. However, Arab students should be encouraged to use the Arabized form مصرف as the use of purely Arabic-based forms is generally considered preferable to the use of loanwords.

In the same example the verb 'called' was unacceptably translated as يطلق علي, يسمي, as in:

و قال المحلون أن البيانات تظهر إدارة الأسواق المبليلة أصبحت الآن ركوداً ذو أهمية و يسمى في بنوك إنجلترا معدلات الأسهم المشطوبة.  
و قد أوضح المحلون أن البيانات تعرض "مشكلة تسويق البيوت" أصبح الآن "ركود خطير" و يطلق على مصرف بريطانيا لقطع معدلات الفائدة.  
أوضح المحللين إلي أن المعلومات تظهر أن المشكلة في السوق المحلية هي الآن مشكلة الركود الساند و يقال في الضفة البريطانية بقطع معدلات الاهتمام.

Another example of polysemy in the same text is the verb 'sank' in "The number of mortgages approved for homebuyers sank to a record low during October". The term 'sank' was rendered literally as غرق 'drowned' rather than in its contextual sense 'fall', as in:

غرق/ هبط رقم تصديق القروض العقارية للمشتريين المحليين لتسجيل منخفض خلال شهر أكتوبر.  
سجلت معدلات إغراق الرهن العقاري للبانعين المحليين خلال أكتوبر انخفاضاً واضحاً.  
عدد القروض العقارية الموافق عليها للمشتريين المحليين غرق إلى هبوط لم يعهد من قبل خلال شهر أكتوبر.  
عدد الصكوك يعتمد مع البانعين الغارقين في الديون خلال شهر أكتوبر.

This difficulty of polysemy can be blamed on students' tendency to select the most common dictionary meaning of the word. Deeb (2005: 184) attributed the difficulty to Arab translators' tendency to deal with the word as a unit of translation rather than viewing it in connection with other elements in the co-text.

### 5.2.7. Alternative translations (216 errors, 5.2 %)

The students' translations have shown that some students tended to provide the target language reader with translation choices. This tendency to offer translation alternatives may be attributed to the translator's uncertainty about the appropriate translation of the item or items under discussion. The total number of errors related to alternative translations was 216 (5.2 %). For example, in Text Nine, one student gave nine alternative translations, as can be seen below:

#### SLT:

Firstly, what happened is that speculators, who had driven up prices by buying, buying, buying, stopped buying. Thus, prices dropped as demand fell away. Secondly, the Bank of England interest rate has risen 9 times since 2003 and 5 times since August 2006. The worldwide credit fiasco has resulted in the global credit crunch, the result of which is that

borrowers can't get the loans they obtained 6 months ago. And those who do get an offer of a loan, get it at higher rates than before. Thirdly, the Council of Mortgage Lenders forecasts 45,000 home repossessions next year. That will depress the market. Fourthly, the amount of debt in our society is literally astronomical and this will impact hugely in the coming economic downturn. As a society we have little savings to see us through. Remember Joseph: 'Seven years of plenty followed by seven years of famine'.

#### TLT:

أولاً ، الذي حدث هو أن المشتري ( المشاهد ) الذي تابعته (أغوته ) الأسعار بأن يشتري ويشترى ويشترى ، قد توقف عن الشراء ومع ذلك، انخفض السعر مع انخفاض الطلب. ثانياً: أن معدل أو نسبة الفائدة للبنك البريطاني ارتفعت بمعدل 9 مرات منذ عام 2003 و 5 مرات منذ أغسطس للعام 2006. إن انخفاض الرصيد العالمي ( إخفاقه ) أدى إلى انخفاض الرصيد بشكل إجمالي في العالم وهي النتيجة التي جعلت المستعبرين غير قادرين على الحصول على القروض التي احتفظوا بها من 6 شهور مضت فقط. وأولئك الذين يحصلون على عرض طلب للقرض ( يحصلون على القرض ) يحصلون عليه بمعدلات أعلى مما سبق .

ثالثاً : يتنبأ مجلس إقراض الرهن العقاري بإرجاع ( استرداد ) 45000 منزل السنة القادمة. وهذا سيؤدي إلى فشل/ إبطاء السوق. رابعاً: أن معدل الديون في مجتمعنا كبير جداً وأن هذا سيؤثر بشكل ضخم على انخفاض أو الركود الاقتصادي القادم. وكمجتمع فإن لدينا القليل من المدخرات التي يمكن أن نتطلع لها. وكما تذكر قول جوزيف : " سبعة سنين من الكثرة تتبعها سبعة سنين من الندرة ( المجاعة ) .

Students should avoid using alternative translations. They should be encouraged to give one translation option based on their understanding of the item or items of the ST.

#### 5.2.8. Addition (214 errors, 5.1 %)

##### 5.2.8.1. Appropriate addition

Appropriate addition involves adding one or more words to the SLT in order to make the meaning more explicit for the target language reader. This addition is necessary as the translator is dealing with two languages that are linguistically and culturally different. According to Emery (1987: 64), "Arabic tends to be more explicit than English: what is implicit in English has to be spelled out in Arabic". The general analysis has shown that students used addition in their translations. For example, some students translated 'Home Office' in "According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-07 compared with 49 in the previous year-an increase of 18%", as وزارة الداخلية البريطانية, as in:

ووفقاً لوزارة الداخلية البريطانية ، فقد كان 58 عملية قتل بالسلاح في عامي 2006-2007 مقارنة بـ 49 في العام السابق ، وهو ما يعني زيادة تقدر بـ 18% .  
تبعاً لوزارة الداخلية البريطانية كان هناك 58 حالة قتل للنفس باستخدام الأسلحة النارية في عام 2006-07 مقارنة بالحالات الـ 49 في السنة الماضية بزيادة 18% .  
وبحسب وزارة الداخلية البريطانية بأنه هناك ما يقارب 58 سلاح ناري كان له علاقة بجرائم القتل في عام 2006-07 مقارنة بـ 49 فقط في العام السابق. بمعدل زيادة 18% .

Some students used translation by addition to make explicit the implicit information inherent in the source text. For example, some students translated 'our' in 'Go back into history and there are complaints in Medieval Times about our love of quaffing vast quantities of Ale, and our love of rowdyism and violence', Text Six , as follows:

بالعودة إلى التاريخ البريطاني والعصور الوسطى نرى حب الشعب البريطاني الشديد للكحول وكيف أنهم ينهلون منه بكثرة إضافة إلى حبهيم للمشاعبات والعنف ، لذلك يطلق دائماً على البريطانيين بمدمني الكحول.  
لقد اشتهر الشعب البريطاني بالشرب المفرط وبالرجوع إلى تاريخ العصور الوسطى ندرك أن هذا الشعب قد عرف بالإدمان على شرب الخمر وحبهِ للمشاكسة والعنف.

In the above translations the possessive element 'our' has been replaced by الشعب البريطاني and its co-referential pronouns هم and هـ in حبهيم and حيه respectively. By doing this, the translators achieved a state of distancing with regard to the target reader.

However, some students did not use this strategy in translating culturally bound expressions. For example, none of the students added appropriate explanatory information in their translation of 'off-licence' in "First, shops and supermarkets must stop selling alcohol below cost prices. This also involves reducing sales to under-18s by bars, off-licences and retailers", Text Five, as in: . Similarly, in Text Nine, none of the students used translation by addition to translate the culturally specific expression 'home repossessions' in 'Thirdly, the Council of Mortgage Lenders forecasts 45,000 home repossessions next year', along the following lines:

قيام موظفين تابعين للجهات الدائنة أو الجهات القضائية باسترداد البيوت من أصحابها لعدم قدرتهم على تسديد مستحقاتهم المالية للشركات العقارية.

In their translations of geographical locations, the majority of students did not add explanatory information to make the text more understandable for the target language reader who is unlikely to know the geography of Britain. For example, only two students added geographical information to translate 'Wales' in 'During the past year the deliberate use of guns to take life has risen in England and Wales', Text One, as مقاطعة ويلز، ولاية ويلز .



However, it would be more appropriate to add further geographical information and translate this phrase along the following lines: مقاطعة ويلز في بريطانيا. By doing so the Arab target reader will realize that 'Wales' is part of the United Kingdom.

Another example of translation by addition is the use of lexical repetition. Dickins et al (2002: 108-9) define lexical repetition in Arabic as "The repetition of the same word or even the same phrase in a particular sense. Repetition of a single word is termed word repetition or lexical item repetition, while repetition of a whole phrase is termed phrase repetition". For example, one student used semantic repetition in the translation of "This represents a fall of 37 per cent year on year and was the third drop in consecutive months", Text Seven, as in:

وهذا يظهر انخفاض بمعدل 37 % لكل نسبة. وتعتبر هذا الانخفاض هو الثالث على أشهر متسلسلة.

The lexical item الانخفاض is repeated in the second clause. According to Dickins et al (ibid: 109), lexical item repetition functions not only as a stylistic feature, but also as a text-building device contributing to the general cohesion of the text.

#### 5.2.8.2. Inappropriate addition

Though it is sometimes appropriate to add words to the target text for clarity and stylistic reasons, addition is not always justified. The results showed that inappropriate additions accounted for 214 (5.1%) errors. One student, for example, translated 'ale' in "Go back into history and there are complaints in Medieval Times about our love of quaffing vast quantities of Ale, and our love of rowdyism and violence", Text Six, as:

وبالرجوع إلى التاريخ فقد كان هناك في العصور الوسطى يحبون الجعة بشكل واسع وخاصة الجعة الانجليزية الخفيفة وحبهم للفضافة والعنف.

The TL is unnecessarily repetitious, translating 'ale' as الجعة بشكل واسع وخاصة الجعة الخفيفة. The TL is unnecessarily repetitious, translating 'ale' as الجعة بشكل واسع وخاصة الجعة الخفيفة. It would perhaps be more appropriate to render 'ale' simply as الجعة, as in:

وبالعودة للعصور الوسطى فهناك الشكاوى المتعلقة بحب البريطانيين لشرب كميات كبيرة من الجعة وحبهم للفوضى والعنف.

In the same text one student translated 'complaints' and 'our love', as:

فلو رجعت قليلا بالتاريخ إلى الخلف إلى العصور الوسطى فلقد كان هنالك شكاوى وتذمرات كثيرة بشأن ولعنا وشغفنا  
بشرب كميات مهوله من المزر ( أحد أنواع الجعة ) وجبنا للمشاكسات والعنف.

The translator uses the syndetic doublets ولعنا وشغفنا and شكاوى وتذمرات for the translation of 'complaints' and 'love' respectively. As there is no emphasis here, it would be more appropriate if a single term were used. Similarly, one student translated 'deliberate' in "During the past year the deliberate use of guns to take life has risen in England and Wales, Text One, as المتعمد والممنهج, as illustrated below:

لقد تصاعدت حدة الاستخدام المتعمد والممنهج للسلاح في انجلترا ومقاطعة ويلز من أجل البقاء.

It would be more appropriate if a single term were used, as in:

شهد العام الماضي ارتفاعا في حالات القتل المتعمد بالسلاح في كل من انجلترا ومقاطعة ويلز.

In addition, one student began her translation of "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths..." Text One, with an introductory sentence, as follows:

هناك العديد من العوامل التي يوجه لها أصعب الاتهام لهذا الانفجار المفاجئ لقتلى السلاح وهي : المخدرات والانحلال المدني والعرقية والعصابات وغياب دور النموذج الايجابي.

The addition of the introductory phrase 'There are several factors which are blamed for' may be interpreted as an attempt by the translator to improve the style of writing in Arabic.

### 5.2.9. Collocations (173 errors, 4.1%)

Collocation (cf. collocation, section 3.2.3) is "a lexical relation of co-occurrence that binds words together with varying degrees of strength" (Bahumaid 2006: 133). The most striking examples of collocational difference involve synonyms and by extension near-synonyms. Baker (1992) and Dickins et al (2002) maintain that synonymous words in English and Arabic often differ in their collocational ranges, and that each language has its own

preferences for certain modes of expression and certain linguistic configurations. This view is also shared by Zughoul (1991: 52), who states that "what collocates in one language does not necessarily collocate in another". The notion of collocation can also be extended in a translation context to cover cases where there is a clear difference in range of meaning between an ST term and its literal TT equivalent. Thus, as will be discussed in more detail below, in addition to its more basic physical sense, 'broken' in English can be used to refer to a society, e.g. 'broken society'. In Arabic, by contrast, the basic literal equivalent of English 'broken' **مكسور** cannot be used to refer to society; **مجتمع مكسور** is an unacceptable collocation. The translations of English collocations have shown that students have a preference towards literal translation. As a result they introduced into the target language lexical combinations which are alien to the collocational ranges of their receptor language. The results indicated that the total number of errors found in the use of wrong collocation is 173 (4.1%). To illustrate this point, some students translated 'broken society' in "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths, with Tory leader David Cameron going so far as to blame a "broken society" , Text One , as **مجتمع المتكسر (المهشم) /مجتمع مكسور** as in :

فإن المخدرات، و الفساد الحضري (المدنية)، العنصرية، و قطع الطريق (السطو) وغياب الدور الايجابي للمثل العليا كان سبباً للفيض الأخذ من عمليات القتل بالسلاح، بالنسبة للقائد المحافظ **ديفيد كامرون** يذهب للوم ما أسماه "**مجتمع مكسور**".  
أدت المخدرات و الانهيار المدني و العنصرية و طرقة رجال العصابات وغياب الدور الايجابي المقتدي به إلى الازدياد المفاجئ لحالات الموت باستخدام البنادق حيث أسهب قائد توري: "**ديفيد كامرون**" في لوم ما أسماه **المجتمع المتكسر / المهشم**.

The translations given of 'broken society' are **مجتمع متكسر / مهشم** and **مجتمع مكسور** respectively. These translations are not appropriate to describe the lexical item **مجتمع**. The translations do not conform to the collocational restrictions of Arabic, i.e. the lexical item **مكسور** never occurs with **مجتمع**, nor of course, the lexical item **مجتمع**. The item **مكسور** occurs with, among other things, material objects such as doors, windows, glass, e.g. **باب مكسور** 'a broken door', **منحل ، فاسد** 'broken glass'. The lexical item **مجتمع** co-occurs, inter alia, with **مفكك** 'disintegrated', etc.

A partially acceptable equivalent of the collocation given by one student translator is **انحلال المجتمع وتفككه**. However, the same translator wrongly indicated that the Tory leader was behind all the problems inflicted upon British society, as he claimed below:

و لقد أدى هذا كله إلى توجيه أصبع الاتهام و اللوم إلى ديفيد كامبيرون و هو قائد حزب المحافظين البريطاني و الذي اعتبر مسئولاً عن انحلال المجتمع وتفككه.

Other students gave acceptable translations of the collocation 'broken society', such as مجتمع مفكك, as in:

السيد المحافظ ديفيد كامبيرون ذهب بعيداً للوم "مجتمع مفكك". حيث ذهب القائد في حزب المحافظين البريطاني ديفيد كامبيرون إلى أبعد من ذلك فعزى السبب إلى تفكك المجتمع.

The professional translator provided the following acceptable translation:

لدرجة أن السيد ديفيد كامبيرون رئيس حزب المحافظين بلغ به الأمر إلى لوم ما أسماه بالمجتمع المفكك.

In Text Four some students translated 'heavy drinking' in "Death rates rose in all age groups but the biggest increase for both sexes was among people aged 35 to 54, a legacy of heavy drinking in their 20s and early 30s" as الشرب الثقيل. Their translations are as follows:

فقد كان معدل الوفيات مرتفع في كافة فئات العمر بينما حاز الأفراد من الجنسين و من الفئة العمرية ما بين 35 إلى 54 سنة على النصيب الأكبر من هذا الارتفاع على نقيض ما هو معروف حيث أن الشرب الثقيل يتمثل في عمر ما بين 20 إلى 30 سنة. معدل الوفيات ترتفع في جميع طبقات الأعمار لكن العدد الأكبر من الجنسين كان ما بين عمر (35-45) بسبب الشرب الثقيل المتراكم في العشرينيات و بداية الثلاثينيات.

The choice of the lexical item ثقيل as an equivalent for 'heavy' is collocationally unacceptable. In Arabic the lexical item ثقيل never occurs in the lexical environment of شرب. To elucidate the fact that the translation equivalent given by the student translators is collocationally unacceptable, examples of the collocational range of شرب and ثقيل are given here:

شرب قليل 'light/little drinking'  
شرب معتدل 'moderate drinking'  
شرب كثير (الإفراط في الشرب) 'heavy/excessive drinking'

The lexical item ثقيل collocates, inter alia, with 'measurements', 'weights', 'industry', 'artillery', as in:

أحجام ثقيلة 'heavy measurements'  
أجسام /أوزان ثقيلة 'heavy weights'

صناعة ثقيلة 'heavy industry'  
مدفعية ثقيلة 'heavy artillery'

Al Mawrid Arabic-English Dictionary (1991: 401) also gives the following collocations for ثقيل:

ثقيل الدم أو الظل أو الروح 'antipathetic, repugnant'  
ثقيل السمع 'hard of hearing'  
ثقيل الفهم 'slow-witted/stupid'  
ثقيل الهضم 'indigestible'  
ماء ثقيل 'heavy water'

A possible translation of 'heavy drinking' which takes into consideration the dictates of the collocational patterns in Arabic would be: الإفراط في شرب الكحول .

A partially acceptable equivalent given by a student translator is 'to do much drinking'. However, the lexical item شرب refers to all kinds of drinking including water drinking. It would have been more appropriate if the translator had added the lexical item 'wine' to make it clearer to the target language reader that excessive alcohol intake has increased death rates among all British age groups. Other students gave acceptable translations as in:

المعدلات ارتفعت في جميع الأعمار. إلا أن الزيادة الأكبر في الجنسين كانت ممن تبلغ أعمارهم بين 35 و54 سنة نتيجة تناولهم المفرط للخمر وهم في سن العشرينات و بداية الثلاثينيات من أعمارهم.

The professional translator gave the following translation:

إذ ارتفعت معدلات الوفاة في كل المجموعات العمرية لكن الزيادة الأكبر عند الجنسين كان لدى الأفراد ما بين 35 و54 من العمر، متأثرين بميراث من الإسراف في تناول الخمر في سن العشرين وأوائل الثلاثين.

It can be concluded that the appropriateness of a translation equivalent is determined, among other things, by the dictates of the other items in the environment, i.e. the collocates. In translating English collocations into Arabic the translator should select a contextual translation equivalent that gives the meaning of the English collocation without recourse to word-for-word translation which leads to erroneous collocations in the TL. As Adul-Raof (2001: 29) says "some collocations are language specific. Therefore, lexical collocational errors take place between speakers of different languages when they put words together in the wrong context". In order not to violate the collocational restrictions of a specific word it

is often important for a language user to understand the componential semantic features of a given lexical item (ibid: 32).

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
1	Broken society	مجتمع مهشم / مكسور	مجتمع مفكك
4	Heavy drinking	الشرب الثقيل	الإسراف في تناول الخمر
12	They are creating a humanitarian catastrophe	فهم يصنعون كارثة إنسانية	فهم بذلك يخلقون مأساة إنسانية
6	Heavy boozing	التعاطي الكحولي الكثيف	الإسراف في شرب الكحول
7	To cut interest rates	لقطع نسب الاستمتاع	لخفض معدل الفائدة.
15	Enormous impacts	تأثيرات كثيرة	تأثيرات كبيرة/ آثار فادحة
6	Medieval Times	العصور المظلمة	العصور الوسطى
9	Credit crunch	سحق سوق الائتمان العالمي/ تهشيم السعر العالمي	أزمة ائتمانية عالمية
9	Prices dropped	سقطت الأسعار	هبطت أسعار الببوت

Table 18: Errors involving collocations

### 5.2.10. Acronyms (143 errors, 3.4%)

Acronyms are "a sequence of initial letters or syllables of two or more words denoting a single entity" (Newmark 1993: 138). Acronyms denote different types of things, e.g. international organizations (e.g. WHO, UN), national organizations (e.g. BM), private companies (e.g. GEC), geographical features (e.g. KL, TCR) or titles of books, (e.g. EB) (ibid: 138-9).

The results revealed that students made 143 (3.4%) errors in acronyms. In translating acronyms student translators used different translation strategies. For example, a large number of students acceptably translated the English acronym 'UK' in "There are probably as many as 3 to 4 million people in the UK who could be classed as 'Active Alcoholics', Text Six, as المملكة المتحدة and بريطانيا, as in:

وهناك أيضاً من ثلاث إلى أربع ملايين شخص في المملكة المتحدة صنّفوا على أنهم "مدمنون الكحول بدرجة كبيرة". إن حوالي 3 أو 4 ملايين شخص في بريطانيا يمكن أن يصنّفوا كـ "سكارى فعالين".

Four students however translated it unacceptably as بريطاني, as in:

يوجد حوالي من 3 إلى 4 مليون بريطاني يمكن تصنيفهم كمدأومي على الشرب.

The translation of 'UK' as بريطاني 'British' - suggesting in Arabic only non-immigrant UK citizens - is not appropriate as the UK is a multicultural country, where people are descended from different nationalities and cultures.

Another student translated the acronym unacceptably as 'الشعب البريطاني' 'the British people', as in:

و من المحتمل من 3-4 مليون من الشعب البريطاني يعتبرون من مدمنين الكحول.

One student translated 'UK' unacceptably as 'الولايات المتحدة', as:

هناك حوالي 3-4 ملايين من الولايات المتحدة يصنفون كفارمين في الكحول أو مدمني/ مدمنو كحول.

In Text Seven five students transliterated the English acronym 'BBA' in "The BBA said the number of customers granted home loans slumped by almost a fifth from 54,000 in September to just over 44,100", and gave the following unacceptable translations:

وتقول ال بي بي أي أن عدد الزبائن... هبط فجأة إلى خمس من 54000 في سبتمبر إلى 44100.  
قالت ال بي بي أي أن عدد الزبائن منح الوطن إعارات شهادات بنسبة خمس من 54000 في سبتمبر إلى 44100.  
و قال ال بي بي أي أن عدد الزبائن منح قروض المنهار بواسطة خمس من 54000 في سبتمبر/ أيلول إلى أكثر من 44100 بقليل.

Another student kept the acronym in its original Latin-script form and produced the following unacceptable translation:

و أضافت BBA أن عدد الزبائن الذين تسلموا منازل انخفض تقريبا الخمس من 54000 في سبتمبر إلى فقط 44100.

Another student confused the acronym BBA with BBC and translated it unacceptably as:

هيئة الإذاعة البريطانية قالت بأن عدد الزبون الذين يمنحون قروض للبيوت فإنها تسبب تهاويا في القروض على الأغلب 5 من 54 ألف في شهر 9 الي 44100.

Since local acronyms are not known to the target language reader, student translators should provide full translation of these acronyms, as illustrated by the professional translation below:

فقد قالت جمعية المصرفين البريطانيين بأن عدد المشترين الذين حصلوا على اعتمادات لقروض تسليف عقارية لشراء المنازل انخفض بمعدل الخمس تقريبا.

The borrowed form 'بنك' 'bank' has become common in Arab daily life. However, as mentioned before, students should be encouraged to use the purely Arabic-based form مصرف for considerations of linguistic purity.

In Text Eleven some students translated the English acronym 'UN' in "to apply pressure through the UN for Israel to respect the UN resolutions requiring its withdrawal from the territories it illegally occupied in 1967" acceptably as الأمم المتحدة /هيئة الأمم المتحدة, as illustrated below:

الضغط على إسرائيل من خلال الأمم المتحدة لاحترام قرارات الأمم المتحدة التي تقضي بانسحابها من الأراضي التي احتلت بطريقة غير شرعية عام 1967.

Other students also acceptably translated the first acronym as الأمم المتحدة but they omitted the second one to avoid repetition and to produce a good Arabic style, as in:

الضغط على الأمم المتحدة لكي تضغط بدورها على إسرائيل لكي تنسحب من الأراضي التي احتلتها بطريقة غير شرعية سنة 1967 .  
العمل على الضغط على إسرائيل من قبل الأمم المتحدة، وإجبارها على الانسحاب من جميع الأراضي المحتلة في عام 1967.

Although the translators omitted some important information found in the source text, namely, 'UN resolutions', student translators should be encouraged by these translations as they are viewed by the researcher as good attempts to produce idiomatic and communicative Arabic TTs.

T	ST	Translation in words/ Acceptable	Transliteration	English form	Omission	Translation in words/ Unacceptable
6	UK	21	0	0	1	6
7	BBA	10	2	3	0	13
11	EU	12	0	1	1	14
11	UN	23	0	0	0	5
11	UN	19	0	0	6	3
12	EU	23	0	0	0	5
12	US	27	0	0	0	1
12	US	23	2	0	1	2
12	EU	21	0	0	1	6
12	US	25	0	0	0	3
13	ONS	19	0	3	1	5
13	UK	22	0	0	2	4
17	GHG	24	1	1	0	2
17	GHG	25	0	1	1	1
17	CDM	13	0	0	1	14
18	GHG	16	1	1	1	9
18	IPCC	10	0	1	2	15
	Total	333	6	11	18	108
	Percentages	69.9%	1.3%	2.3%	3.8%	22.7%

Table 19: The translation of acronyms:



As the table shows students used a variety of translation strategies in translating English acronyms. The translation in words of English acronyms was the most frequent strategy employed by the subjects (92.6%); 69.9% of these translations were acceptable and 22.7 % were unacceptable. The second strategy was translation by omission which accounted for 3.8%, followed by retaining the English form in the target language at 2.3 % and finally transliteration at 1.3%.

#### 5.2.11. Proper nouns (116 errors, 2.8 %)

Proper nouns refer to names of people (e.g. Jacqui Smith), geographical terms (e.g. Wales), and titles (e.g. The Home Secretary). The general analysis has shown that students made 116 (2.8%) errors in the translation of proper nouns. For example, three students translated the geographical term 'Wales' in "During the past year the deliberate use of guns to take life has risen in England and Wales", Text One, as:

في طيات العام الماضي كان استخدام الأسلحة المعدمة للحياة متعمدا وذلك في انجلترا وجاراتها.  
من خلال السنوات الماضية لوحظ أن استخدام السلاح المتعمد للقتل ازداد في بريطانيا وأستراليا.  
خلال السنة الماضية فإن الاستخدام المتعمد للسلاح للقتل قد ازداد في انجلترا وأستراليا.

In Text Fourteen some students confused the personal feminine proper noun 'Jacqui' in "Jacqui Smith, the Home Secretary, announced the government's new policy to address increasing immigration rates" with the masculine proper noun 'Jack' producing erroneous translations, as in:

صرح وزير الداخلية، جاك سميث بأن سياسة الحكومة الجديدة لمعالجة معدلات الزيادة في الهجرة.  
أعلن السكرتير الداخلي جاك سميث أن الحكومة تنوى سياسة جديدة ترفع من خلالها معدلات الهجرة.  
لقد أعلن جاك سميث وزير الداخلية السياسية الجديدة للحكومة لمواجهة المعدلات المرتفعة للهجرة.

In the same text the title 'The Home Secretary' was unacceptably translated as:

أعلن جاكي سميث سكرتير وزارة الداخلية ، أن سياسة الحكومة الجديدة لمواجهة معدلات الهجرة الزائدة.  
أعلن السكرتير الداخلي جاك سميث أن الحكومة تنوى سياسة جديدة ترفع من خلالها معدلات الهجرة.  
أوضح جاكو سميث، سكرتير وزارة الداخلية أن سياسة الحكومة الجديدة أوضحت زيادة معدلات الهجرة.

In Text Ten two students translated the proper noun 'Israel' in "Israel hit back with air strikes and ground operations in which nine people, including three civilians, were killed", as follows:

حيث قامت دولة الاحتلال بالرد وذلك باستخدام الطيران الحربي والعمليات البرية مما أدى إلى مقتل تسعة فلسطينيين بينهم ثلاثة مدنيين. ومن جهتها قامت قوات الاحتلال الصهيوني بشن غارات جوية وعمليات برية راح على إثرها تسعة قتلى منهم ثلاثة مدنيين .

The translators' use of 'the occupying state' and 'the Zionist occupying forces' rather than the more neutral word 'Israel' relays a sense of emotiveness and shows that the translators are managing rather than monitoring. The renderings also reveal the translators' inexperience with different text-types. In an expository text (such as the one above) translators should only relay the piece of news as it is and not mistranslate it by managing the situation. According to Shunnaq (1998: 48) and Hatim (1997: 50) an expository text producer tends to monitor a situation, whereas in argumentative text a text producer tends to manage a situation guiding the receiver in a manner favourable to the text producer's goals.

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
9	Remember <u>Joseph</u> : 'Seven years of plenty followed by seven years of famine.'	ولنتذكر مقوله <u>جوسف</u> سبعة سنوات من الوفرة يعقبها سبعة سنوات من المجاعة.	وتصدق علينا رزيا ملك مصر حين أولها <u>يوسف</u> عليه السلام : سبع أعوام من الوفرة تتبعها سبع سنين عجاف.
10	The killings came after Palestinian militants yesterday fired a Katyusha rocket at the northern part of the Israeli town of <u>Ashkelon</u> .	القتل جاء بعد ضرب صواريخ كاتيوشا على الجزء الشمالي من إسرائيل بلدة <u>أشكيلون</u> .	وقع الحادث بعد أن أطلق مسلحون فلسطينيون صاروخا من طراز كاتيوشا على الجانب الشمالي من بلدة <u>عسقلان</u> .
10	<u>Israel</u> hit back with air strikes and ground operations in which nine people, including three civilians, were killed.	ومن جهتها قامت قوات الاحتلال الصهيوني بشن غارات جوية وعمليات برية راح على إثرها تسعة قتلى منهم ثلاثة مدنيين .	وقد ردت إسرائيل من جانبها بضربات جوية وعمليات أرضية أسفرت عن إصابة تسع أشخاص من ضمنهم ثلاث مدنيين قتلوا.
12	... <u>Europe</u> and the US are seeking to trample upon the democratic rights of the Palestinian people.	ويسعى كلا من الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة إلى الدوس على الحقوق الديمقراطية للشعب الفلسطيني.	...فإن أوروبا والولايات المتحدة تدوسان على الحقوق (الشرعية) الديمقراطية للشعب الفلسطيني.

Table 20: Errors involving proper nouns

T	ST	Arabic equivalent	Transliteration	Omission
1	England	28	0	0
1	Wales	3	24	1
1	David Cameron	0	27	1
6	Britain	28	0	0
3	Wales	3	25	0
6	Mediaeval Times	27	1	0
6	Britain	26	0	2
9	Bank of England	28	0	0
9	Joseph	17	8	3
10	Hamas	28	0	0
10	Gaza	22	0	6
10	Ashkelon	15	10	3
10	Israel	5	23	0
12	The Middle East	27	0	1
12	Europe	26	0	2
12	The West Bank	28	0	0
12	Geneva	28	0	0
13	London	1	27	0
14	Jacqui Smith	0	28	0
14	The Home Secretary	28	0	0
18	Kyoto	0	28	0
	Total	368	201	19
	Percentages	62.6 %	34.2%	3.2%

**Table 21: The translation of proper nouns**

Table 21 shows that 62.6% of students gave the Arabic equivalent of the source language proper nouns, 34.2% used transliteration while 3.2% preferred to omit the source language item.

### 5.2.12. Metaphors (75 errors, 1.8%)

A metaphor is “a figure of speech in which a word or phrase is used in a non-basic sense, this non-basic sense suggesting a likeness or analogy-whether real or not-with another more basic sense of the same word or phrase” (Dickins, 2005: 228). Metaphor is one of the most pervasive features of language, particularly literary language. According to Newmark (1988: 104), the purpose of metaphor is basically twofold. Its referential purpose is “to describe a mental process or state, a concept, a person, an object, a quality or an action more comprehensively and concisely than is possible in literal or physical language”. Its pragmatic purpose, which is simultaneous, is “to appeal to the senses, to interest, to clarify ‘graphically’, to please, to delight, to surprise” (ibid: 104).

Metaphors are classified differently by different scholars. Shamaa (1978) divides metaphors into four types: loan metaphors, archetypal metaphors, original or individual metaphors, and

culture-based metaphors. Loan metaphors are expressions which originated in European languages and have infiltrated into Arabic through literary contact, e.g. الياقات البيضاء 'white-collar workers'. Archetypal metaphors are based on archetypal symbols which draw on common human experiences and are independent of culture or language. Examples of archetypal metaphors in English and Arabic are: يوم أسود, 'a black day', عصر النور 'the Enlightenment', رأي النور 'He saw the light', etc. Original or individual metaphors emphasize the greater individual elements in the image as opposed to those based on archetypal or universal experience. According to Shamaa, original metaphors prove to be the most problematic in translation due to the incongruence of the semantics of formal features between languages. For example, to translate the Arabic metaphor غرقت في خضم الفكر literally as 'She drowned in the ocean of thought' would be understood by an English speaker as referring to all human thought. However, it is only through narrowing down the reference of the metaphor into something like 'She drowned in the ocean of her thought' or 'She sat completely engrossed in her thoughts' that a native speaker of English can perceive the domain of reference as being made to a particular thought (ibid: 138-9). The addition of the possessive pronoun 'her' makes the reference more specific. Culture-based metaphors refer to some aspects of the culture of a particular community. They reflect a great deal of the customs, interests, likes and dislikes of a certain language community. Shamaa claims that culture-bound metaphors represent the highest degree of untranslatability on the basis of literal rendering.

Dickins et al (2002: 147) make a distinction between lexicalized and non-lexicalized metaphors. Lexicalized metaphors refer to uses of language whose meaning is relatively clearly fixed, e.g. 'He is a rat' in the sense of 'a person who deserts his friends and associates' (ibid: 147). On the basis of Newmark (1988), Dickins et al divide lexicalized metaphors into dead metaphors, stock metaphors and recent metaphors. A dead metaphor is one which one does not normally realize as a metaphor, e.g. the 'arm' of a chair. A stock metaphor is one that is widely used as an idiom, e.g. 'throw a new light on'. A recent metaphor is a metaphorical neologism, e.g. 'head hunting' in the sense of 'recruitment'. Non-lexicalized metaphors refer to uses of language whose meaning is not clearly fixed, but vary from one context to another. They include conventionalized and original metaphors. Conventionalized non-lexicalized metaphors draw on either cultural or linguistic conventions, e.g. 'cross words', which echoes the existing English phrase 'cross swords', meaning to clash with, particularly in debate or discussion. Original metaphors (cf.

Shamaa's category of original, or individual metaphors, above) do not simply relate to any existing cultural or linguistic conventions. 'Tom is a tree' is an original metaphor whose meaning can only be interpreted from its context.

Concerning the transferability of metaphors, views range from those scholars who claim that metaphors cannot be translated word for word but can be rendered through different linguistic forms, to those at the other end of the spectrum who assert that metaphors can and should be translated word for word (cf. Shamaa, 1978: 123). One of the exponents of the former view is Eugene Nida (1964), who claims that a metaphor can often be best translated by a simile or by a non-metaphor. He goes on to say that some complex metaphors can be omitted if they impede the reader's understanding of the translated message. Newmark (1988:104) asserts that the translation of metaphor is the most important particular problem in translation, while Dickins et al (ibid: 146) state that metaphor poses the most challenging translation problems for an English-Arabic translator.

In their translations some students tended to translate source language metaphors literally rather than giving Arabic equivalents appropriate to the context. The total number of errors involved in the literal translation of metaphors was 75 (1.8%). To illustrate this point, three students translated the lexicalized metaphor 'the glue of our society' in "Already the glue of our society has been weakened under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures-some of whom have little intention of integrating with us", Text Fifteen, literally as الغراء , التصاق في مجتمعنا , غراء مجتمعنا , as in:

لقد ضعف إغراء مجتمعنا وذلك تحت أثر النمو المتزايد للمجتمعات من ثقافات مختلفة بعضهم لديهم قرار ضئيل في الاندماج معنا.  
الاتصاق في مجتمعنا سوف يضعف تحت التأثير نمو المجتمعات السريع في الثقافات.  
هذا الغراء الآن في مجتمعات أضعف أرضية عزز النمو المتزايد الاتصال مع جميع الثقافات المختلفة، بعضهم لديه نظرة بسيطة في الاندماج مع ثقافتنا.

The above literal translations produced by students to translate the SL metaphor do not give the required figurative meaning in the ST. In other words, word-for-word equivalence has created a far-fetched and almost incomprehensible image. In his study of the difficulties of translating Arabic metaphors into English, Shamaa (1978) claims that "to fail to reproduce some of the images found in the original text is to deprive the English reader of a deeper understanding of cultural and mental aspects hitherto unfamiliar to him. It also reduces his awareness of the writer's emotional experience and stylistic idiosyncrasies; the author's hallmarks, as it were, are removed" (ibid: 152).

Other students acceptably translated the source language metaphor as 'تماسك مجتمعا' the coherence of our society' as in:

و في الحال سيضعف تماسك مجتمعا تحت تأثير النمو السريع للجماعات متنوعة الثقافات و التي بعضها لا تعبر انتباها للاندماج معنا.  
و من الطبيعي إن يكون تماسك مجتمعا قد قل و ذلك بسبب التزايد السريع في أعداده و بسبب الثقافات المختلفة التي تقدم إليه و بعضهم ليس لديه الميول الكافية لكي يشترك معنا.

Though Arabic has a preference to use strongly emotive language, none of the students translated the SL metaphor using a TL metaphor having the same metaphorical force along the lines of النسيج الاجتماعي.

In Text Nine three students translated the source language metaphor 'to depress the market' in "Thirdly, the Council of Mortgage Lenders forecasts 45,000 home repossessions next year. That will depress the market" literally as سيحبط السوق, إحباط السوق, وهذا بدوره خلق هاجس من إحباط السوق, as in:

ثالثاً، يتنبأ مجلس مقرضي الرهن استرداد 45000 بيت السنة القادمة مما سيحبط السوق.  
ثالثاً: و قد تنبأت قنصلية المقرضين للرهن العقاري بأن حوالي 45000 منزل ستعاد ملكيتهم لأصحابهم في العام المقبل و هذا بدوره خلق هاجس من الإحباط للسوق.  
ثالثاً، يتنبأ مجلس إقراض الرهن العقاري بإرجاع 45000 منزل السنة القادمة. و هذا سيؤدي إلى فشل/ إحباط السوق.

Students' direct translations of the source language metaphor do not make any sense in Arabic. In addition, the lexical item يحبط does not collocate with سوق.

One student rendered the metaphor partially acceptably as يؤثر على السوق 'affect the market' as follows:

ثالثاً : القنصلية للقرض العقاري للمقرضين يتنبأ بـ 45 ألف لن يكون لهم ملكية " لن تكون لهم بيت" في العام القادم وهذا سوف يؤثر على السوق.

However, other students succeeded in giving the metaphorical sense of the source language metaphor and produced an acceptable equivalent, e.g. كساد السوق 'the stagnation of the market', as in:

ثالثاً ، تنبأ داننو قنصلية الرهان العقاري بان 45000 منزل سيتم إعادة ملكيتهم السنة القادمة. و هذا سيؤدي إلى كساد السوق.  
ثالثاً ، تنبأ مجلس مقرضي العقارات باسترداد ملكية 45 ألف بيت في السنة القادمة و هذا سيؤدي إلى كساد السوق.

The professional translator gave the following acceptable translation:

ثالثاً: يتوقع مجلس مقرضي الرهن العقاري إعادة تلك 45,000 بيت السنة المقبلة مما سيؤدي إلى انحسار السوق العقارية.

In Text Six a large number of students failed to correctly render the source language metaphor 'are storing up massive health problems' in "It is possibly true that as a society, we are storing up massive health problems in the community, as happened in the 18th Century". Their translations are as follows:

وقد يكون صحيحاً ما يقال بأننا كمجتمع نخزن مشكلات صحية ضخمة كما حدث أنفاً في القرن الثامن عشر. فإننا نعتبر مخازن لعدد ضخم من المشاكل الصحية في هذه المجتمعات كما حدث في القرن الثامن عشر الميلادي. وأن من الصحيح الممكن أنه من الممكن كمجتمع نخزن أو نجمع (نعرض) على أنفسنا الكثير من المشاكل الصحية كما حدث في القرن الثامن عشر (..)

Four students partially acceptably rendered the meaning of the metaphor as in:

وقد أدى هذا التعاطي المفرط في الشرب إلى تضخم المشكلات الصحية في المجتمع تماماً كما حدث في القرن الثامن عشر. إنه لمن الممكن أن يكون صحيحاً كمجتمع أننا نزيد مشاكل صحية هائلة في المجتمع كما حدث في القرن 18. وفي الحقيقة من الممكن أن يصبح المجتمع مليء بالمشاكل الصحية الكبيرة بسبب الخمر كما حدث في القرن الثامن عشر.

Only a few students acceptably rendered the correct meaning of the metaphor, as follows:

إنه من الممكن أن يمثل مجتمعا بأكمله إننا نواجه مشاكل صحية ضخمة في المجتمع وذلك كما حدث في القرن 18 عشر. ومن الصحيح المطلق كالمجتمع بأن الكحول تسبب مشاكل صحية ضخمة في المجتمع كما حصل في القرن الثامن عشر. وأيضا نعاني من مشاكل صحية كثيرة في المجتمعات، كما حدث في القرن 18. مما لا شك فيه كمجتمع انجليزي فإننا نعاني من كم هائل من المشاكل الصحية، كما حدث في القرن الثامن عشر للميلاد. وهذا التعاطي الهائل للكحول أدى بدوره إلى حدوث كثير من المشكلات الصحية تماماً كما كان الوضع عليه في القرن الثامن عشر.

The previous discussion shows clearly that students had difficulty in translating metaphors. Most of the translations of metaphor were rendered literally. These literal translations did not reproduce the stylistic and dynamic aspects of the original message. As Shama (1978:118) has put it "it [metaphor] transcends recognized literal meanings and thus entails

special translation problems". It is therefore necessary for translation students to understand the metaphor in its context other than its normal one.

### 5.2.13. Graphic ambiguity (40 errors, 1.00%)

This is a special type of error resulting from the students' inability to differentiate between two similar graphic forms. The total number of errors resulting from graphic ambiguity was 40 (1.00%). For example, one student confused 'suspension' in "The suspension of aid by the EU and the US, the withholding of Palestinian taxes by Israel, and Israel's illegal blockade are crimes against the Palestinian people", Text Twelve, with 'suspicion', as follows:

الشكوك حول المد الأوروبي والأمريكي، وحبس البضائع الفلسطينية على يد الإسرائيليين، والحصار الإسرائيلي غير القانوني كلها جرائم ضد الشعب الفلسطيني.

Another student confused 'remains' in "The crime figures show the risk of falling victim to an offence is going down, but the public fear of crime remains as high as ever", Text Three, with 'reminds', as follows:

تشكل الجريمة يعرض للخطر من سقوط الضحايا في الوقوع في الاسائة ولكن خوف الشعب من الجرائم يذكرهم بكثرتها دائماً.

Similarly, one student confused 'policies' in "As a result of the Protocol, governments have already put, and are continuing to put legislation and policies in place to meet their commitments", Text Eighteen, with 'police', as follows:

ونتيجة لهذا البروتوكول قامت الحكومة بوضع الآن وهي مستمرة بسن القوانين ونشر الشرطة لتنفيذ التزامهما.

These errors can be attributed either to the translators' failure to correctly distinguish between two similar graphic forms, i.e. poor reading techniques, or their inability to capture the intended meaning of the SL item and convey it appropriately in the TL.

Another student confused 'depress' in "That will depress the market" Text Nine, with 'press' as follows:

هذا سوف يضغط السوق.



T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
11	to end Britain's <u>arms</u> trade with Israel until it abides by international law	انتهاء الجيوش (armies) البريطانية المتاجرة مع إسرائيل حتى تكرها وتجبرها من خلال القانون الدولي .	إنهاء التجارة البريطانية للأسلحة مع إسرائيل حتى تلتزم الأخيرة بمقررات القانون الدولي.
12	The failure of our government to speak out against Israel's <u>oppression</u> of the Palestinian population is complicit with those actions of the EU, the US and Israel	ويرجع سبب فشلنا في الحكومة على الاعتراض والجدل العلني (opposition) ضد العمليات الإرهابية الإسرائيلية ضد الشعب الفلسطيني وهذا برمته يعتبر تواطؤ في مسار الأحداث الجارية في الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل	كما يعتبر فشل حكومتنا في الحديث بصراحة وبدون تردد ضد ظلم إسرائيل للسكان الفلسطينيين من قبل التواطؤ مع إجراءات الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل.
12	which regularly kills innocent children and other non-combatants in <u>violation</u> of the fourth Geneva convention.	وهو بالترتيب يقتل الأطفال الأبرياء وغير مقاتلين آخرين والعنف (violence) هذا في اتفاقية جنيف الرابعة.	التي ما انفكت تقتل الأبرياء من الأطفال وغير المقاتلين في انتهاك صريح لاتفاقية جنيف الرابعة.

Table 22: Errors involving graphic ambiguity

#### 5.2.14. Idioms (33 errors, 0.8%)

As defined in section 3.2.8 an idiom is a phrase whose meaning cannot be specifically deduced from the direct meaning of its words. Idioms differ from one language to another. Differences in idiomatic expressions between languages can be serious pitfalls for translators who may not recognize their idiomatic nature and therefore produce literal equivalents which may be vague and meaningless. In translating English idioms into Arabic the translator is expected to encounter difficulties as he or she is dealing with two languages that are linguistically and culturally unrelated. In the corpus of the study there are two instances of idioms: 'Keep an eye on', Text Eight and 'to see us through', Text Nine. The analysis of translations has shown that literal translation is the most common strategy employed by the subjects of this study in the translation of English idioms. This suggests that such lexical strings pose difficulties for the translator. Students made 33 (0.8%) errors in translating these two idioms. For example, through using literal translations some students produced erroneous translations of the English idiom 'Keep an eye on' in "First, keep an eye on your spending and check your bank statements", Text Eight, as in:

- أولاً: ابقى عينيك مفتوحتين على إنفاقك وتفقد كشف حسابك في البنك.  
أولاً: ضع عينيك على مصروفاتك وراجع البنك باستمرار.  
أولاً: ألق نظرة دوماً على مصروفاتك وراجع كشف حسابك بالبنك.  
أولاً: اجعل عينيك مفتوحتين عند قبضك للنقود وتمعن لتصرفات البنك.  
أولاً: ألقى نظرة على تمويلك، وافحص إفادتك البنكية .  
أولاً: اجعل عينيك مفتوحتين على مدخراتك و تفحص كشف حسابك.

The erroneous translations above may be attributed to students' unfamiliarity with English idioms and their failure to recognize a certain lexical chunk as an idiom. As Baker (1992: 65) states: "the first difficulty that a translator comes across is being able to recognize that s/he is dealing with an idiomatic expression". Similarly, a large number of students produced literal translations of the second English idiom (phrasal verb) 'to see ...through' in "As a society we have little savings to see us through", as in:

مجتمع فإنه لدينا القليل من المدخرات يمكننا في النظر من خلالها.  
ولكننا كمجتمع لدينا القليل مما نحفظه لنرى أنفسنا خلال الفترة القادمة.  
ونحن كمجتمع يجب علينا الادخار لرؤية من خلال.  
مجتمع نمتلك مدخرات قليلة نتطلع من خلالها.  
مجتمع وكدولة لدينا القليل من المدخرات لنظهر أنفسنا من خلالها.

Another significant strategy employed by the subjects of the study in the translation of English idioms is paraphrasing. Although paraphrasing entails a substantial loss of the cultural dimension of idioms, its impact on the receiver and its appealing brevity, it is the safest and the most commonly used strategy when the two cultures and the language pair in question are distant (Abu-Ssaydeh, 2004: 128). In the present study, some students used paraphrasing in their translation of the English idiom 'Keep an eye on' in "First, keep an eye on your spending and check your bank statements", Text Eight, as:

أولاً : عليك الانتباه لما تنفقه ومراجعة كشف حسابك المصرفي.  
(lit. you should pay attention to what you spend)  
أولاً: إن تراعى وتراقب مصاريفك وتتفقد بياناتك البنكية  
(lit. that you pay attention to and monitor your spending)  
أولاً: راقب عملية الإنفاق لديك ودقق في كشوف حسابك المصرفية.  
(lit. pay attention to the fact/operation of the spending with you)

Some students however omitted the idiom in their translations. For example, eight students ignored the translation of the English idiom (phrasal verb) 'to see ... through' in "As a society we have little savings to see us through", Text Nine, as in:

مجتمع ،لدينا توفير قليل للمستقبل....  
مجتمعاتنا لا تهتم كثيراً.  
كمية المال المدخر لدينا قليلة.  
كأي مجتمع يوجد لدينا بعض المدخرات.

This omission may be attributed to the translator's lack of linguistic competence and his/her inability to decipher the meaning of the English idiom.

T	ST	Literal translation	Paraphrasing	Omission
8	Keep an eye on	8	20	0
9	to see us through	17	3	8
	Total	25	23	8
	Percentages	44.6%	41.1%	14.3%

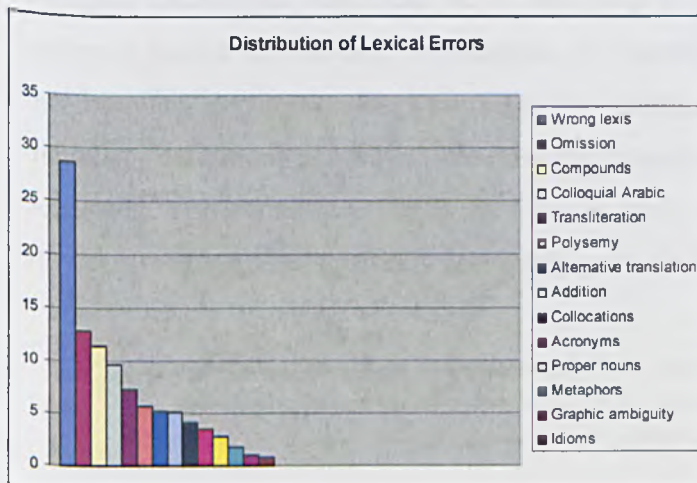
**Table 23: The translation of idioms**

As indicated in Table 23, literal translation ranks as the most common strategy used by student translators in the translation of English idioms at 44.6%. This is followed by paraphrasing at 41.1% and omission at 14.3%. These figures are indicative of the difficulty that the students of this study encountered in the translation of the two idioms. Therefore, translator training programmes should focus on improving the lexical competence of translators, particularly in areas related to idioms.

*Total: (4162) Females: 1892 , Males 2270*

No.	Type of error	Number	Percentages
1	Wrong lexis	1193	28.7 %
2	Omission	539	12.9 %
3	Compounds	477	11.5 %
4	Colloquial Arabic	403	9.7 %
5	Transliteration	304	7.3 %
6	Polysemy	236	5.7%
7	Alternative translation	216	5.2%
8	Addition	214	5.1%
9	Collocations	173	4.1%
10	Acronyms	143	3.4 %
11	Proper nouns	116	2.8%
12	Metaphors	75	1.8%
13	Graphic ambiguity	40	1.00%
14	Idioms	33	0.8 %
	Total	4162	100%

**Table 24: Summary of lexical errors**



**Table 25: Distribution of lexical errors**

### 5.3. Cultural Problems (327 errors, 3.5 %)

In addition to lexical problems student translators also encountered cultural problems. The number of cultural errors was 327 (3.5 %). These cover errors related to social culture, religious culture, political cultural, background knowledge and behaviour. 15 culture-specific items were analyzed and the strategies employed by the student translators were identified. The analysis of cultural errors is based on Nida (1964), Ivir (1987), Newmark (1988) and Mailhac (1995).

#### 5.3.1. Social culture

Social culture refers to the social customs, beliefs and traditions of people (Aziz: 1982: 27). Some cultural references pertaining to different aspects of British social life proved to be problematic for student translators. For example, some students translated the lexical item 'mortgages' in "The number of mortgages approved for home buyers sank to a record low during October" (cf. section 5.2.1), Text Seven, as:

عدد الرهونات المصادق عليها لمشتري البيوت غرق / هبط إلى مستوى منخفض خلال شهر أكتوبر.  
فقد انخفض معدل استحسان العقارات لدى المستثمرين إلى أقل مستوياته في شهر أكتوبر.  
عدد السكروك يعتمد مع البائعين الغارقين في الديون خلال شهر أكتوبر.

The translators' choice of رهونات , استحسان العقارات and سكروك as Arabic equivalents of the SL 'mortgage' does not convey the intended meaning of this culture-bound notion, which is not generally found in Arabic culture yet. This difficulty may also be attributed to existing bilingual dictionaries which can be of little help in providing the contextual meaning of culturally bound expressions. For example, Al Mawrid English-Arabic Dictionary provides the following decontextualized meanings for 'mortgage': رهن عقاري, رهن, رهن, صك الرهن. Such dictionary definitions not only fail to relay the contextual meaning of the item, but they also accentuate a referential gap that is not filled by such renderings due to cultural differences. However, some students partially acceptably gave the following renderings:

عدد القروض العقارية الموافق عليها للمشتريين المحليين غرق إلى هبوط لم يعهد من قبل خلال شهر أكتوبر.  
عدد القروض العقارية الموافق عليها للمشتريين المحليين غرق إلى هبوط لم يعهد من قبل خلال شهر أكتوبر.  
إن عدد القروض العقارية التي قبلت لبائعي البيوت انخفض إلى حد منخفض في شهر أكتوبر.

Though the above renderings capture the intended meaning of the ST, they do not give the cultural associations of the cultural item. The meaning would have been more explicit to the target language reader if the translators had provided a footnote or better a definition within the text explaining the meaning of 'mortgage' along the following lines: "a legal agreement by which a bank or similar organization lends money to the would-be owner of the house who will then pay the money back to the bank over a definite period of time" (OALD, 994).

In the same way, some students unacceptably translated 'the Home Office' in "According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-7 compared with 49 in the previous year - an increase of 18%", Text One, as: المكتب التابع للأمم المتحدة, طاقم التحرير أو, الحكومة البريطانية and موظفي التحريات as in:

طبقاً للمكتب التابع للأمم المتحدة أن هناك 58 حالة قتل أو جريمة قتل من الأسلحة النارية من عام 2006 وحتى 2007 مقارنة مع السنة السابقة بـ 49 حالة بحيث ازداد هذا العام إلى 18%.  
ووفقاً لطاقم التحرير أو موظفي التحريات هناك 58 حادث إطلاق نار مرتبطة بالقتل العمد في عامي 2006-2007 مقارنة بـ 49 حادث في السنة الماضية وتظهر النتائج أن ارتفاع تناول المخدرات بنسبة 18%.  
طبقاً لما أصدرته الحكومة البريطانية، أن هناك حوالي 58 من المقاتلين والمشاركين في جرائم القتل في شهر 2006/7 م مقارنة بـ 49 في السنوات الأخيرة يظهر ارتفاع حوالي 18%.

In Text 15 two students reflected the Palestinian emigration experience in their translations of "The new migration surges imply that new homes will have to be built to house the extra migrants", as the following translations show:

يشير النزوح إلى توجيه أو بناء البيوت لعدد أكبر للنازحين.  
تعنى موجة النزوح الجديدة ضمناً أنه يجب بناء بيوت جديدة لتأوي النازحين الزائدين.

The translators' choice of words such as 'displacement' and 'the displaced' as equivalents for 'migration' and 'migrants' respectively is a true reflection of the Palestinians' political problems. However, the term 'the displaced' refers to people who are forced to leave their homes, particularly as a result of fighting, while 'migrants' refers to people who come to live permanently in countries that are not originally their own. The choice of the two terms النزوح and النازحين as translation equivalents of 'immigration' and 'migrants' respectively is not suitable in this context.

Other students however rendered the two terms acceptably, as in:

إن موجة الهجرة الجديدة تشير إلى أن مساكن جديدة سوف تبني لإيواء أكبر قدر ممكن من المهاجرين.  
فموجات الهجرة الجديدة تتطلب بناء مباني جديدة لإيواء أكبر عدد من المهاجرين.



وقد ردت إسرائيل بغارات جوية وعمليات برية استشهد خلالها تسعة أشخاص من بينهم ثلاثة مدنيين. ردت إسرائيل بعمليات أرضية وضربات جوية وأسفر عن مقتل (استشهد) تسعة أشخاص من ضمنهم ثلاثة مدنيين.

The Arabic equivalents of 'were killed', استشهد and استشهد, carry favourable connotations for the Muslim reader. The translators seem to have been influenced not only by their religious backgrounds but also by the local Palestinian media which refers to Palestinians killed by Israeli soldiers as 'martyrs'.

### 5.3.3. Political culture

Cultures differ in their political terminology (Aziz: 1982: 28). Britain and the Arab World belong to two different political cultures. The former is a democratic country, while the latter is mainly ruled by one-party governments. Thus, political terms used in the two cultures are different, which may constitute a difficulty for the English-Arabic translator. The analysis of translated texts shows that students have difficulty in translating English political terms. This difficulty may be attributed to the differences in the source and target political systems. For example, in Text One some students translated 'Tory leader' in "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths, with Tory leader David Cameron going so far as to blame a "broken society", as المحافظ القائد, القائد توري and توري كامبيرون, as in:

المخدرات والانهيار المدني والعنصرية وعصابات السرقة وكذلك غياب نماذج الدور الإيجابي كانت سبباً في الازدياد المفاجئ لضحايا السلاح ، وذهب المحافظ القائد ديفيد كامبيرون إلى حد بعيد في اللوم بقوله أن ذلك يرجع إلى المجتمع المنهار.  
المخدرات، التفسخ الحضاري (انهيار المدنية) والعنصرية وتساعد قوة العصابات مع غياب الدور الإيجابي المنوط بالقوانين أو نماذج السلطة، بحيث يفهم سبب هذه الجرائم إلى ارتفاع وزيادة مفاجئة في الجرائم المتعلقة بالأسلحة النارية والقتل حديثاً (مؤخراً). بينما يتجه القائد توري ديفيد كامبيرون بعيداً عن ذلك من خلال لوم هذا المجتمع المنهار المتصدع. ويعزى كل من المخدرات والانهيار المدني والعنصرية وعصابات قطاع الطرق وغياب النماذج الإيجابية إلى سيل الأسلحة القاتلة مؤخراً. ويصل أيضاً توري كامبيرون إلى حد إلقاء اللوم على المجتمع المهلهل.

Other students omitted the term from their translations, as in:

المخدرات والانهيار المدني والعرقية والعصابات وغياب دور النموذج الإيجابي وأيضاً فإن ديفيد كامبيرون... ذهب إلى بعد من ذلك ليلوم " المجتمع المنشق".  
وكانت زيادة معدل انتشار المخدرات ، والتمدن، والانهيار بالإضافة إلى رواج فكرة العنصرية، هذا بالإضافة إلى غياب نماذج الدور الإيجابي سبباً للموت بالأسلحة النارية، لذلك أسرع ديفيد كامبيرون... بإلقاء اللوم على المجتمع السائب.

There is a possibility that the translators have dropped these words because they are not familiar with the British political system. The words, however, are relevant to the source text since they are uttered by the leader of the Conservative party, the second largest political party in Britain and the main opposition party at the moment.

However, other students acceptably translated the political term as قائد حزب المحافظين البريطاني, as in:

المخدرات وفساد المدن، العنصرية وجنحة العصابات إضافة إلى غياب المبادئ الأخلاقية الإيجابية كل هذه العوامل أدت إلى ازدياد نسبة القتل المسلح، وهو ما أشار إليه قائد حزب المحافظين البريطاني ديفيد كاميرون بأنها أسباب أدت إلى تفكك المجتمع. وترجع أسباب هذا السيل الجاري من عمليات القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات، الانحلال المدني، التميز العنصري، عقاب 'gangsta' وغياب نماذج الدور الإيجابي. ويلوم دافيد كاميرون "رئيس حزب المحافظين في بريطانيا" المجتمع المهدم".

#### 5.3.4. Background knowledge

The translations show that the majority of students lack cultural background knowledge. Their non-acquaintance with the SL cultural background led some student translators to render some culture-specific features in a literal way, thus missing the cultural significance of the SL text. For example, some students had difficulty in translating the cultural item 'home repossessions' in "Thirdly, the Council of Mortgage Lenders forecasts 45,000 home repossessions next year", Text Nine. Their translations are as follows:

ثالثاً، يتنبأ مجلس مقرضي الرهن استرداد 45000 بيت السنة القادمة.  
ثالثاً: توقع مجلس الرهن المقرض أن يتم استرجاع نحو 45000 منزل العام القادم.  
ثالثاً: قيادة مجلس العقارات يتنبأ بإعادة ملكية 45000 منزل السنة القادمة.

It is clear from these translations that the precise denotative meaning of the SL 'home repossessions' has not been properly reproduced by simply giving it literal translations such as استرداد and استرجاع ملكية respectively. None of the translators incorporated additional material to make the implicit associations in the SL more explicit in the TL, nor did they resort to explanatory footnotes to make up for the missing associations, as the following translation shows:

ثالثاً: يتوقع مجلس مقرضي العقارات البريطاني بأنه سيتم استرداد 45000 بيت العام القادم لعدم قيام أصحابها بتسديد مستحقاتهم المالية.



It is worth noting that in Britain homes are repossessed when homebuyers fail to pay back the money they owe to lending banks or building societies as agreed upon.

Other translations fall short of giving the meaning of 'home repossessions', interpreting the notion to mean something to be repossessed by homebuyers rather than by lending banks or building societies, as in:

ثالثاً : وقد تنبأت قنصلية المقرضين للرهن العقاري بأن حوالي 45000 منزل ستعاد ملكيتهم لأصحابهم في العام المقبل. ثالثاً ، تنبأ مجلس المانحين للعقارات بحوالي خمسة وأربعين ألف بيت سيتم تملكها للمشتريين في العام القادم.

In the same way, a large number of students gave literal translations of the cultural item 'off-licence', in "First, shops and supermarkets must stop selling alcohol below cost prices. This also involves reducing sales to under-18s by bars, off-licences and retailers", Text Five, as in:

أولاً: على المتاجر والمحلات أن توقف بيع الكحول بأقل من سعر التكلفة. وهذا أيضاً يتضمن تقليل المبيعات لمن هم تحت سن الثامنة عشر من قبل الحانات والغير ممتلكين لرخصة البيع وأصحاب المحلات من بائعي التجزئة. أولاً: يجب على المحلات والسوبر ماركت أن توقف بيع الكحول بأقل من الثمن المطلوب، وهذا يتطلب تقليل بيعها في الحانات لمن هم أقل من 18 سنة، وكذلك لمن لا تحصل على ترخيص الباعة أيضاً. أولاً: المحلات التجارية والسوبر ماركت يجب عليهم توقف بيع الكحول من أجل المال. هذا يتطلب أن يقلل من بيع هذه المشروبات للذين أعمارهم تقل عن 18 سنة، والذين لم يتمكنوا من الحصول الرخصة أو ليس معهم رخصة والبيع بالتجزئة.

It is clear that a literal Arabic rendering of the above instance, e.g. *الغير ممتلكين لرخصة البيع*, 'Those who do not have a licence to sell alcohol' is not equivalent to the English original. The problem is also one of cultural mismatch. Arabic does not have an exact equivalent which covers the whole semantic field of the word including its cultural aspect. A translation could be accepted only if it is followed by a footnote or an explanatory in-text phrase explaining the contextual meaning of the source cultural item, as in:

أولاً: على المحال التجارية والمتاجر الكبرى التوقف عن بيع المشروبات الكحولية بأقل من سعر التكلفة، ويشمل ذلك الحد من هذه المبيعات لمن هم دون سن الثامنة عشر في الحانات ومحلات بيع الخمر ومحلات البيع بالتجزئة.

(An off-licence is a shop that sells alcoholic drinks in bottles and cans to take away).

Other students omitted the cultural item in their translations, as in:

في البداية ، يجب على جميع المحلات التجارية وقف بيع الكحول، هذا يتضمن أيضاً منع بيع الكحول لمن هم دون سن الـ 18...  
أولاً : يجب على المحلات التجارية إيقاف بيع الكحول دون سعر التكلفة. وهذا أيضاً يتضمن تقليل البيع لمن هم دون 18 في الحانات... وبنوعوا التجزئة.

The researcher believes that most of the omissions made by the subjects of this study were a result of the avoidance strategy, i.e. students try to avoid difficult items by resorting to omission in their translations.

One student rendered 'off-licence' unacceptably as an adjective modifying the head word 'bars', e.g. الحانات غير المرخصة 'unlicenced bars', as in:

أولاً: يجب على الدكاكين والمحلات التجارية الضخمة التوقف عن بيع الكحول بسعر أقل من أسعار التكلفة. وهذا أيضاً يتضمن تقليل البيع لذوي الأعمار التي تقل عن 18 عام وذلك من الحانات غير المرخصة والتي تباع بالمفرق.

The translation of cultural expressions shows that some students lack geographical information of the source culture as well as the target culture. For example, two students translated 'Wales' in "During the past year, the deliberate use of guns to take life has risen in England and Wales", Text One, as استراليا:

من خلال السنوات الماضية لوحظ أن استخدام السلاح المتعمد للقتل ازداد في بريطانيا واستراليا.  
خلال السنة الماضية فإن الاستخدام المتعمد للسلاح للقتل قد ازداد في إنجلترا واستراليا.

Another student omitted the cultural reference in her translation:

أخذ الاستخدام المتداول " الكبير " للأسلحة النارية في بريطانيا... بالتزايد خلال السنة الماضية.

In Text Ten students rendered "The killings came after Palestinian militants yesterday fired a Katyusha rocket at the northern part of the Israeli town of Ashkelon - the longest reach yet by a Palestinian rocket", as follows:

وقد جاءت هذه الجريمة بعد أن أطلق مقاومون فلسطينيون صاروخ كاتيوشا أمس على عسقلان شمال إسرائيل وهو أبعد مدى وصل إليه صاروخ فلسطيني إلى الآن.  
وقد جاءت عملية القتل هذه عقب الحملة العسكرية التي قامت بها المقاومة الفلسطينية والتي اشتملت على إطلاق صاروخ كاتيوشا باتجاه شمال إسرائيل وهو أقصى بعد سجله صاروخ المقاومة حتى الآن ليصل مدينة عسقلان.  
ورداً على عمليات القتل الحادثة في القطاع قام المجاهدون الفلسطينيون بالرد على إسرائيل بإطلاق صواريخ كاتيوشا على شمال إسرائيل. وأكثر الصواريخ بعداً هي الصواريخ الفلسطينية.

The translations show that the translators were not familiar with the geography of their occupied country. They rendered 'Ashkelon' as a city in the northern part of Israel (Palestine) instead of a city in the southern part of the country. There is some possibility that the translators confused the rockets fired by the Palestinian militants on the southern part of Palestine and those fired by the Lebanese militants on the northern part of the country.

Some students also lack information about international currency. For example, three students confused the pound sterling with the Euro and the dollar in "The government has pointed to globalization as the cause, claiming that immigration may add £6 billion to production, but it adds a similar proportion to our population", Text Fifteen, with the US dollar and the Euro, as follows:

الحكومة أوضحت تعميم المشكلة بصعود الهجرة أضافت 6 بلايين دولار للإنتاج، ولكن أضافت مثل هذا العدد إلى عدد السكان.  
وحملت الحكومة العولمة المسؤولية عن ذلك مدعية بأن الهجرة قد تضيف 6 بلايين يورو لعائد الإنتاج ولكنها تضيف نفس الكمية إلى مجتمعنا.  
وأشارت الحكومة إلى أن هذه القضية العالمية قد تؤدي إلى زيادة نسبة الإنتاج إلى 6 بليون يورو.

Some students ignored the translation of the cultural item, as in:

أشارت الحكومة إلى أن العولمة هي السبب مدعية أن الهجرة قد تضيف 6 مليارات... للإنتاج، ولكنها أضافت نسبة مساوية لتعداد السكان.  
وقد أوضحت الحكومة أن السبب وراء ذلك يكمن في العولمة، مدعين أن الهجرة ممكن أن تزيد 6 بليون... للإنتاج.

Two students left the item in its Latin script form, as follows:

أشارت الحكومة إلى أن العولمة كسبب، كما تدعى أن الهجرة قد تضيف مبلغ £6 مليار لمجموع الإنتاج، ولكنها تضيف نفس النسبة إلى مجموع السكان.  
وقد أشارت الحكومة إلى العولمة كسبب في هذه المشكلة، مدعية أن هذه الهجرة يمكن أن تضيف حوالي £6 بليون للإنتاج.

Other students, however, acceptably translated the cultural item as الجنيه الإسترليني, as in:

وقد أشارت الحكومة إلى أن العولمة هي السبب في ذلك مدعية أن الهجرة لربما تضيف 6 بليون جنيه إسترليني للإنتاج، ولكنه يضيف نسبه مشابهه لنسبة عدد السكان.  
أعادت الحكومة السبب إلى العولمة مدعية أن الهجرة ستضيف نحو 6 بليون جنيه إسترليني إلى الإنتاج ونسبة متشابهة للكثافة السكانية.

### 5.3.5. Behaviour

Behaviour is related to the cultural values which a member of a certain society adheres to. One of the aspects of Arabic cultural values is the use of honorific expressions. They are a polite mode of address which reflect social relationships and emphasize differences between addresser and addressee (Shama, 1978:197). Arabic makes more use of honorific modes of address than does English. For example, Arabic forms of address such as *يا معالي الوزير* 'Literally: Your excellency the Minister', *يا حاج عبد الله* 'Literally: You pilgrim Abdullah', *أبو أحمد* 'Literally: the father of Ahmed', etc. are used as expressions of courtesy and praise, and tend to elevate the status of the person addressed. On the other hand, most English terms of address have an almost neutral honorific value such as 'mister' and to a lesser extent, 'sir'. The Arab translator should be aware of the differences in mode of address in English and Arabic. He or she should also be aware of the denotative and connotative meanings of terms and expressions related to beliefs, morals and aesthetics as he or she belongs to a culture that has its own system of address distinct from any other culture.

The translated texts have revealed that many students did not use the appropriate mode of address in their translations of 'Joseph' in "Remember Joseph: Seven years of plenty followed by seven years of famine", Text Nine, as the following translations show:

تذكروا يوسف " سبع سنوات رخاء يعقبهن سبع سنوات عجاف".  
وتذكر يوسف " سبع سنين من الرخاء يعقبهن سبع سنين عجاف".  
تذكر قول يوسف " سبع سنوات قحاط تتبع بسبع سنوات شداد".

Other students however used appropriate forms of address with the prophet's name, as in:

كما قال سيدنا يوسف " سبع سنين رخاء يتبعهن سبع سنين قحط".  
ولابد أن نتذكر قول النبي يوسف " سبع سنين خضرا يتبعهن سبع عجاف".  
وتذكر دائما قول سيدنا يوسف عليه السلام " سبع سنوات من الخير يليهن سبع من القحط".

As the translations show it would be presumptuous to address a superior or a senior without the use of a title or a special mode of address. Moreover, expressions such as *سيدنا* and *النبي* are usually placed before the names of prophets to show respect and appreciation.

### 5.3.6. Cultural transplantation

On a large scale “Cultural transplantation indicates the wholesale transplanting of the entire setting of the source text, resulting in the entire text being rewritten in an indigenous target culture setting” (Dickins et al 2002, 32). However, as Dickins et al (ibid: 32) also note, “It is not unusual to find examples of cultural transplantation on a small scale in translation”. The analysis of students’ translations showed that only one student used cultural transplantation in translating the SL cultural item: ‘that is the ‘64 Thousand Dollar Question!’ in “So there is a major problem now and it will continue. What is to be done about it, that is the ‘64 Thousand Dollar Question!’, Text Six, as:

لذلك توجد مشكلة كبيرة الآن وستستمر فماذا يمكننا فعله حيال ذلك فهذا سؤال المليون دولار!

Here, the translator substituted the SL expression ‘64 Thousand Dollar Question’ by the culturally corresponding TL expression, e.g. فهذا سؤال المليون دولار. The phrase, which has its roots in the Western-style Arabic television quiz show من سيربح المليون ‘Who will win a million’ equivalent to the British television show ‘Who Wants to Be a Millionaire?’, has become a catchphrase for a particularly difficult question or problem.

In addition to the previous qualitative analysis, the following quantitative analysis is based on students’ translations of 15 culture-specific expressions.

T	Cultural items	Literal translation	Transliteration	Omission	Addition	Cultural transplantation
1	The Home Office	18	0	1	9	0
1	Gangsta rap	16	6	6	0	0
1	Tory leader	15	5	4	4	0
5	Off-licences	22	0	6	0	0
5	The watershed	22	0	6	0	0
5	Mixers	22	0	6	0	0
5	Binge drinking	23	5	0	0	0
5	Retailers	24	0	4	0	0
6	Ale	21	4	0	3	0
6	Heavy boozing	27	0	1	0	0
6	The 64 Thousand dollar Question	26	0	1	0	1
7	Mortgages	28	0	0	0	0
9	The world credit fiasco	24	1	3	0	0
9	The global credit crunch	21	0	7	0	0
9	Home repossession	26	0	1	1	0
	Total	335	21	46	17	1
	Percentages	79.8%	5%	11%	4%	0.2%

**Table 26: Students' techniques used in translating cultural items**

As Table 26 shows literal translation is the most frequent strategy used by students to translate cultural expressions. This accounts for 79.8% of the total translations, followed by omission at 11%, transliteration at 5%, addition at 4% and cultural transplantation at 0.2%. The previous analysis - both qualitative and quantitative - of the translation of cultural expressions shows that translating cultural expressions is not an easy task. In most cases the source language cultural item does not have an equivalent item in the target culture because Arabic has not yet devised - or, has no need to devise- linguistic means to express these source cultural items. As a result of the absence of corresponding TL expressions, some students translated cultural items literally, conveying none of the many connotations that the English original items have. While some students omitted cultural items in their translations, others used transliteration, bringing into the target language items that preserve the original SL cultural flavour. These translations of culturally bound items have shown that Bassnett (1998: 79-81) is right when she says:

'But all sorts of things happens (sic) during translation. It may be that some words and phrases are untranslatable because they do not exist outside the source language. Or the form may be untranslatable...And it is important to recognize that the task of the translator is not to ignore cultural difference and to pretend that there is such a thing as universal truth and value free cultural exchange, but rather to be aware of those

differences. Through awareness, translators may find a way of helping readers across frontiers, some of which are heavily armed and dangerous to approach. Nevertheless, the translator always essentially works with language...Try as I may, I cannot take language out of culture or culture out of language.

### 5.3.7. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the lexical and cultural problems encountered by Palestinian EFL learners. At the lexical level the general analysis of the translations has shown that students committed 4162 errors (45% of the total). The most frequent lexical problem was wrong word choice or wrong lexis, where students committed 1193 errors (28.7%). These errors, which refer to the semantically wrong word or phrase used by the student translator as an equivalent for the source language word or phrase, produce translations that deviate from the intended meaning of the SL message leading to a distortion of the meaning. These errors may be attributed to students' tendency to translate literally and the difficulty they encountered in finding the appropriate Arabic equivalent for SL lexical items. Students' dependence on English-Arabic bilingual dictionaries as well as their lack of proof-reading skills may also explain this high percentage of errors. The second most frequent lexical problem was inappropriate omission, where students committed 539 errors (12.9%). Students' tendency to omit certain words, phrases or even sentences that need to be retained in the TL version may be due to the lack of linguistic competence and translation skills to unravel the meaning of the source language item. This can also be interpreted as a sign of carelessness or lack of awareness on the part of the translator who was asked to use all available dictionaries in the translation task. Students' errors in compounds - 477 errors (11.5%) – were ranked third in the total number of lexical errors committed by the subjects of this study. The difficulty involved in translating compounds may be attributed to students' failure to analyze the constituents of English compounds as some of these compounds consist of lengthy grammatical structures in the form of strings of adjectives. The use of colloquial and colloquial-influenced Arabic accounted for 403 errors (9.7%). These errors were a clear indication of the low level of students who were native speakers of Arabic and who were expected to have good mastery of their mother tongue. Errors in transliteration accounted for 304 (7.3%) of the errors; many of these errors occurred in translating proper nouns and culturally specific items. The use of transliteration in the translations has made it difficult for the target language reader to understand the source

language message. While some of these errors may be attributed to a cultural mismatch, which is related to the non-existence of the cultural item in the Arab/Muslim target culture, others result from a lack of translation skills to look for the meaning of the source language item and convey it appropriately in the target language. Students' errors in the translation of polysemy stood at 236 (5.7%). These errors, which resulted when a SL word or expression may carry several meanings in a particular context, arise from the translator not understanding the whole context and so producing an inappropriate TL equivalent for the source language item. Alternative translations accounted for 216 errors (5.2%). These errors, which resulted from a tendency among students to provide the target language reader with translation choices, may be attributed to the translator's uncertainty about the appropriate translation of the item or items under discussion. Inappropriate additions accounted for 214 errors (5.1%). These errors are attributed to a general tendency among students to add unnecessary information as in translating some culturally specific items. Other unnecessary additions were made to improve the style of writing in Arabic as Arabic tends to be more explicit than English. Errors in collocations, 173 errors (4.1%), are attributed to literal translation. By translating literally, students introduced into the target language lexical combinations which are alien to the collocational ranges of their receptor language. The differences in collocational ranges between English and Arabic can also be blamed as the two languages have their own preferences for certain modes of expression and certain linguistic configurations. Other errors were attributed to the difference in range of meaning between an ST term and its literal TT equivalent as in students' translation of the source language items 'broken society', where the basic literal equivalent of English 'broken' مكسور cannot be used to refer to 'society' in Arabic. There were 143 errors (3.4%) involving the wrong use of acronyms. These errors are attributed to the inappropriate strategies employed by student translators such as giving the wrong equivalent in Arabic (22.7%), translation by omission (3.8%), retaining the English form in the target language (2.3%) and finally transliteration (1.3%). Errors in proper nouns (116 errors, 2.8%) are attributed to two main reasons: students' unfamiliarity with the source language culture and their lack of knowledge of text types, particularly the two notions of managing and monitoring as seen in students' translations of 'Israel' as دولة الاحتلال 'the occupying state' and قوات الاحتلال الصهيوني 'The Zionist occupying forces' in an expository descriptive text rather than the more neutral word اسرائيل 'Israel'. Students' errors in metaphors (75 errors, 1.8%) were related to their tendency for word-for-word translation, which created a far-



fetches and almost alien image for the target language reader. Graphic ambiguity accounted for 40 errors (1.00%). These errors are attributed either to the translators' failure to correctly distinguish between two similar graphic forms, i.e. poor reading techniques, or their inability to capture the intended meaning of the SL item and convey it appropriately in the TL. Finally, students committed 33 errors (0.8%) involving idioms. These errors resulted from a lack of understanding of the idiomatic nature of source language idioms which led to literal equivalents which were vague and meaningless.

The chapter has also discussed the cultural problems encountered by Palestinian EFL learners. The total number of cultural errors was 327 errors (3.5%). Cultural references pertaining to different aspects of British social, political, and economic life proved to be problematic for student translators. Some of these errors may be partly attributed to the difference in social, political and economic aspects of culture between English and Arabic. Other cultural errors were the result of students' lack of cultural background knowledge and their unfamiliarity with some techniques used for translating cultural references. For example, the non-use of translation by addition, a footnote or a definition within the text to explain the source language cultural expressions have made it difficult for the target language reader to understand the cultural associations of these cultural expressions. The existing bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries, which are sometimes of little help in providing the contextual meaning of culturally bound expressions, can also be blamed. Other cultural errors were the result of students' unfamiliarity with the target culture as seen in their lack of knowledge of the geography of their own occupied country. In the following chapter, Chapter Six, the grammatical problems encountered by student translators will be presented.

## **Chapter Six: Presentation and analysis of grammatical problems**

### **6.1. Introduction**

In addition to the lexical and cultural problems discussed in Chapter Five student translators also experienced grammatical problems. The total number of grammatical errors committed in this study is 4764 (51.5% out of the total number of errors). Errors include punctuation (38.4%), discourse markers (12.8%), word order (11.5%), case ending (7.7%), referential ambiguity (7.6%), agreement (6.1%), spelling (5.1%), articles (2.8%), tenses (2.7%), prepositions (2.00%), singular and plural (1.8%), passive (1.2%), and cataphoric and anaphoric references (0.3%). Examples representing students' erroneous translations in these areas will be discussed under each sub-category followed by some suggested solutions.

### **6.2. Punctuation (1829 errors, 38.4%)**

English and Arabic differ in their use of punctuation as a cohesive marker. Baker (1992: 193) states that English relies on a heavily developed punctuation system to signal breaks and relations between chunks of information. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989: 185) state that punctuation marks were not used in classical Arabic, and that only a few are used in modern written Arabic today. They add that not only punctuation but also paragraphing are recent newcomers to Arabic writing, introduced mostly under the influence of Western culture. This view is shared by Badawi et al (2004: 22) who assert that Modern Written Arabic has adopted Western punctuation without abandoning some features of Classical Arabic, especially those related to coordination.

Due to the differences in the punctuation systems of English and Arabic, it is expected that Palestinian translation students will encounter problems in translating English punctuation marks into Arabic. The general analysis of translated texts has shown that the number of errors resulting from the wrong use of punctuation was 1829 (38.4%). To illustrate this point, consider the following example:

## SLT (1)

"During the past year the deliberate use of guns to take life has risen in England and Wales. According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-07 compared with 49 in the previous year - an increase of 18%. Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths, with Tory leader David Cameron going so far as to blame a "broken society".

## TLT

لقد ارتفع معدل الاستخدام المتعمد للبنادق في أخذ الثأر في كل من إنجلترا وويلز خلال السنوات الماضية. وتبعاً لإحصائيات وزارة الداخلية فإنه ازداد معدل حالات الموت / جرائم القتل باستخدام البنادق بنسبة 18 % في عام 2006/2007 عما كان عليه في السنوات السابقة فقد ذكرت الوزارة أن عدد تلك الجرائم كان 58 جريمة في العام 2006/2007 بينما كان 49 واحدة فقط في السنة الماضية أدت المخدرات والانهايار المدني والعنصرية وطريقة رجال العصابات وغياب الدور الايجابي المقتردى به إلى الازدياد المفاجئ لحالات الموت باستخدام البنادق حيث أسهب قائد ثوري " ديفيد كامرون " في لوم ما سماه المجتمع المتكسر المهشم

Apart from one single full stop punctuation marks are totally disregarded in the whole paragraph, including a full stop at the end. An acceptable use of punctuation marks can be seen in the following student's translation:

خلال العام الماضي، ازداد الاستخدام المتعمد للأسلحة بغرض القتل في كل من إنجلترا وويلز. وحسب ما صرحت به وزارة الداخلية، حصلت 58 جريمة متعلقة باستخدام الأسلحة النارية، وذلك في شهر 7 من العام 2006، مقارنة بـ 49 جريمة من نفس النوع للعام الذي سبقه، وهي زيادة تقدر بمعدل 18%. وإن إساءة استخدام المخدرات، وظهور التمرد، والفساد، والعنصرية، وانتشار العصابات "جانجستا" أو عصابات النهب، بالإضافة إلى غياب المثل الأعلى أو القوة العليا التي يحتذى بها، كل ذلك يقع عليه اللوم في التضخم المتزايد لقتلى الأسلحة، حيث يلقي القائد الثوري ديفيد كامرون باللوم على "المجتمع المنحل".

Compared with the previous paragraph the addition of proper punctuation marks such as the full stop (.), the comma (,) and quotation marks (" ") has made the Arabic text more readable. In addition, the replacement of the comma by the additive و makes it more cohesive. Without these punctuation marks the text would be ambiguous and confusing (cf. Ghazala, 2004: 231).

In the same text, many students misused the English comma, bringing into the TL structures that violate the conventions of Arabic, as in:

خلال السنة الماضية زاد استخدام السلاح في عمليات القتل في إنجلترا وويلز. وتبعاً لوزارة الداخلية في سنة 2006-2007 وجدت 58 قطعة سلاح متعلقة بعمليات قتل مقارنة بـ 49 سلاح في السنة الماضية. أي زيادة بنسبة 18%. وترجع أسباب هذا السيل الجاري من عمليات القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات، الانحلال المدني، التميز العنصري، عقاب "gangsta" وغياب نماذج الدور الايجابي، ويلوم دافيد كامبيرون "رئيس حزب المحافظين في بريطانيا" المجتمع المهودم".

As the above translated text shows, the translator uses the comma to separate items in a series and places the additive و only before the last item as the case in English. By keeping the commas as used in the original English text, the translator creates a distorted text that lacks cohesion. It would be more acceptable to repeat the additive و after each item in the series, as shown in the following translation:

وقد عزى التقرير هذا الارتفاع الملحوظ مؤخراً في حوادث القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات، وإنحلال مجتمع المدينة، والعنصرية، وعصابات الراب -الموسيقى الصاخبة - وغياب نماذج السلوك المثالي.

In the following translation the improper use of punctuation marks has resulted in sentence fragments (highlighted). Sentence fragments are incomplete sentences or parts of sentences (Oshima, A. and Hogue, A. 2006: 183). For example, the incorrect use of the comma and the full stop has made the text less understandable, a problem which may be attributed to students' failure to identify what is considered to be a sentence in Arabic.

لقد تصاعد استخدام السلاح المتعمد في قتل النفس (الحياة)، خلال السنة الماضية في إنجلترا وويلز حسب وزارة الداخلية البريطانية، وقعت 58 حالة جريمة قتل بالسلاح الناري وذلك في عامي 2006-2007 مقارنة بالـ 49 جريمة في العام الماضي. أي زيادة بمعدل 18% المخدرات، التفسخ الحضاري (انهيار المدنية) والعنصرية وتصاعد قوة العصابات مع غياب الدور الايجابي المنوط بالقوانين أو نماذج السلطة، بحيث يفهم سبب هذه الجرائم إلى ارتفاع وزيادة مفاجئة في الجرائم المتعلقة بالأسلحة النارية والقتل حديثاً (مؤخراً). بينما يتجه القائد توري وديفيد كامبيرون بعيداً عن ذلك من خلال لوم هذا المجتمع المنهار المتصدع.

The misuse of punctuation marks (i.e. the full stop) in the following translation has similarly resulted in sentence fragments.

SLT: (15)

"The huge increase in the population will have enormous impacts on the future of our society. The new migration surges imply that new homes will have to be built to house the extra migrants".

TLT

يشكل التعداد السكاني المتزايد خطراً كبيراً على مجتمعنا في المستقبل. وذلك لأن الزيادة الهائلة في عدد المهاجرين تستدعي بناء المزيد من البيوت من أجل إيواء أعداد المهاجرين المتزايدة.

The above discussion has shown that translating punctuation marks from English into Arabic has proved to be problematic for Palestinian student translators. It reveals that students are not aware of the way English punctuation marks are used. Some of them ignored punctuation marks, while others simply reproduced English punctuation marks producing structures that are alien to Arabic. Based on these results, translation instructors as well as instructors of writing should draw students' attention to the differences in punctuation systems between English and Arabic, illustrating the semantic, grammatical and pragmatic implications springing from the proper use of punctuation marks so as to maintain these implications in their translations (cf. El Shiyab, 2001, and Ghazala, 2004).

### **6.3. Discourse markers** (611 errors, 12.8 %)

Discourse markers play a major role in binding semantic units and sentences together, serving to achieve cohesion in a text. Dickins et al (2002: 128) define cohesion as "the transparent linking of sentences and larger sections of text by explicit discourse connectives like 'then', 'so', 'however', and so on. These act as signposts pointing out the thread of discourse running through the text".

There are different types of conjunctions or connectors, and the choice of conjunction depends on the nature of the relationship between these ideas. For instance, there are coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, etc. Coordinators link units of equal syntactic status. They combine two independent clauses into a compound sentence. Subordinators integrate a subordinate clause into a super-ordinate clause, creating a complex sentence. Baker (1992: 190-191) summarizes the main relations of conjunctions with examples of conjunctions used to realize each relation as:

1. Additive: and, or, also, in addition, furthermore, besides, similarly, likewise, by contrast, for instance;
2. Adversative: but, yet, however, instead, on the other hand, nevertheless, at any rate, as a matter of fact;
3. Causal: so, consequently, it follows, for, because, under the circumstances, for this reason;
4. Temporal: then, next, after that, on another occasion, in conclusion, an hour later, finally, at last;

5. Continuatives (miscellaneous): now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all.

Regarding subordinating conjunctions, English distinguishes four major types: nominal, relative, adverbial and comparative clauses. For example, adverbial clauses are introduced by subordinators which express different adverbial functions. The most common adverbial clauses are time, purpose, condition, concession, reason or cause, purpose, result, and manner. Adverbial clauses of time, for example, are introduced by subordinators such as 'when', 'as', 'since', 'before', 'as soon as', etc.

Aziz (1989, 210) states that Arabic has coordinating conjunctions such as و 'and', ف 'and', 'so', 'and then', ثم 'then', لكن، لكنْ 'but', بل 'but', 'but rather', أو 'or', أم 'or', and إما 'or'. The Arabic coordinating conjunction و, for example, is the most frequently used conjunctive particle. It expresses addition, contrast, result, and comment. According to Haywood and Nahmad (1995: 436), it is the rule rather than the exception to start a sentence with the additive و. The coordinating conjunction ف expresses both temporal sequence and result. Saeed and Farih (2006:19) identify five major functions of ف, namely explanatory, consequential, causal, sequential and adversative. The conjunctive particle ثم denotes temporal sequence; it differs from ف in that the event of the second clause does not immediately follow but there is a lapse of time, often implying the completion of the action, e.g. قرأت الكتاب ثم أعطيته إلى أخي 'I read the book then I gave it to my brother'. The conjunctions لكن and لكنْ express an adversative relation, e.g. أراد زيد أن يقول الكثير ولكن أخاه منعه. بل expresses two main senses: adversative relation and reformulation of what has been stated. The coordinator أو 'or' mainly expresses disjunction, where one alternative is to be chosen. أم is standardly used in questions to express alternative interrogation. The coordinator إما is normally used in correlative constructions, e.g. إما أن تقول الحق وإما (أو) أن تسكت 'Either say the truth or keep silent'.

Arabic and English have different ways of combining sentences. In general while English makes greater use of subordination, Arabic prefers coordination. In addition, while Arabic favours explicit cohesive markers to link sentences together, English makes common use of both implicit and explicit discourse markers. In the view of Blakemore (2002: 1), some of the thoughts are communicated explicitly, while others are communicated implicitly. In addition to the differences in the use of conjunctions between English and Arabic, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989:114) point out that coordination in English is achieved by means of punctuation, typically yielding fairly short sentences. In Arabic, by contrast, a paragraph can

frequently consist of one sentence. They added that not only punctuation but also paragraphing are recent newcomers to Arabic writing, introduced mostly under the influence of Western conventions (ibid: 185).

In the view of the above differences between English and Arabic, Arab students are expected to make frequent use of the additive **و** when they translate English connectors into Arabic. The general tendency among students to translate literally resulted in translations that do not conform with the textual forms of the target language. The total number of errors resulting from the wrong use of discourse markers was 611 (12.8%). To illustrate, consider the following translation by one of the students:

### SLT (16): 'Global Warming'

(1) Global warming is one of the biggest problems facing humankind in the next few decades. (2) In the past 150 years, global temperatures have risen approximately 1°C (1.8°F). (3) If temperatures continue to rise, the consequences could be catastrophic. (4) As the earth's temperature rises, polar ice will melt, causing the water level of the oceans to rise. (5) Rising ocean levels, in turn, will cause flooding along the coasts. (6) Global warming will also cause major changes in climate that will affect agriculture.

### TLT (16):

الاحتباس الحراري العالمي هو أحد المشاكل العظمى التي ستواجه البشرية في العقود القليلة القادمة. ارتفعت درجات الحرارة درجة مئوية واحدة في 150 سنة الماضية. إذا استمرت درجات الحرارة في الارتفاع ستكون العواقب وخيمة/كارثية. إذا ارتفعت درجة حرارة الأرض سينصهر الجليد القطبي وسيسبب ارتفاع مستوى مياه المحيطات. وفي المقابل، ارتفاع مستوى المحيطات سيؤدي إلى الفيضانات على طول السواحل. وسيسبب الاحتباس الحراري العالمي تغيرات أساسية في المناخ والتي بدورها ستؤثر على الزراعة.

The above translation lacks textual cohesion as some of the sentences are not properly connected. The students' frequent use of full stops has interrupted the flow of the target text. By following the SL structure, the translator failed to convey the implicit textual relations of the SL, creating what, following Baker (1992: 54), can be called calquing, or perhaps better, calquing by omission, showing that the translator is very much engrossed by the SL structure. In other words, when there is an explicit discourse marker in English, the translator often attempts to translate it, but when there is no explicit one, he/she does not insert discourse markers in Arabic. The same view has been emphasized by Shaheen (1991: 75) who says: "It is when there is no English connector to link two sentences, the second of which is meant to give more details or to explicate the first, that problems are created for

Arab students". The translator inappropriately used the adversative conjunction 'on the other hand' to join two sentences that do not signal such a relation. Failing to identify the logical relationship holding between the two sentences, the translator used the wrong connector. The two sentences can be appropriately connected with resultative connectors such as 'as a result', 'consequently', 'so', 'لذا (لهذا)', 'و عليه', 'as a result', as can be seen in the following translation:

(1) الاحتباس الحراري واحد من اكبر المشكلات التي تواجه البشرية في العقود القليلة القادمة. (2)، ففي السنوات 150 الماضية ارتفعت درجات الحرارة في العالم بما يقارب درجة واحدة سيلزية أي ما يعادل 1.8 فهرنهايت. (3)، فإذا استمرت الحرارة بالارتفاع فإن العواقب ستكون وخيمة، (4) فمع ارتفاع درجة حرارة الأرض، سيذوب الجليد القطبي مما سيؤدي إلى ارتفاع مستوى الماء في المحيطات، (5) وعليه فإن ارتفاع مستوى المحيطات سيتسبب بحدوث فيضانات على طول الساحل، وأيضا سوف يؤدي الاحتباس الحراري إلى تغيرات جووية في المناخ، مما سيؤثر على الزراعة.

In the above translation the translator used cohesive markers to link sentences together. The translator's choice of typical Arabic connectors such as 'so', 'and then', 'for', 'و', 'and', 'و عليه', 'as a result', and 'أيضا' 'also' has made the text more comprehensible. Baker (1992: 200) states that the use of explicit conjunctions makes the text more transparent. For instance, the translator acceptably used the resultative connector 'و عليه' 'as a result' to connect the fourth and the fifth sentences, making the intersentential relation more explicit. In other words, the provision of appropriate connectors makes the text a unified unit that can be easily comprehended. According to Saleh (1996: 50), "Readability and comprehension of any text depends on adequate understanding of how text parts go together and what relationships unify them into a meaningful whole".

The translations also revealed that students tended to use the additive 'و' more often than other Arabic connectors. To illustrate this point, one student repeated 'و' in nearly all of the following sentences of the text:

#### SLT (4)

A report from the office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991. Death rates rose in all age groups but the biggest increase for both sexes was among people aged 35 to 54, a legacy of heavy drinking in their 20s and early 30s. Death rates for women in this age group doubled from 7.2 to 14.8 per 100,000, a larger increase than for women in any other age group.



أظهر تقرير نشر أمس عن المكتب القومي للإحصاءات أن 8758 شخصاً توفوا من الإفراط من جراء تناولهم للكحول عام 2006 ، وقد كان ضعف هذا العدد خلال عام 1991م ، وقد ارتفع معدل الوفيات في جميع الأعمار ولكن كانت الزيادة الكبيرة من كلا الجنسين بين الأشخاص الذين تتراوح أعمارهم بين 35-54، وهذا تراث في الإفراط في الشرب في عمر 20-30 عام. معدل الوفيات لدى النساء في هذا السن الضعف من 7.2- 14.8 لكل 100.000 وهذه أكبر زيادة بالنسبة للنساء من أي مجموعة أخرى.

The above translation shows that the additive و is the most frequent connector used by the translator to achieve cohesion. Tables 39 and 40 show that و was used to connect 40.1% of clauses in descriptive texts and 24.7% in argumentative texts. One explanation of this high frequency of و may be attributed to students' unawareness of the difference in the semantic implications between English and Arabic connectors. As a result, students find it easy to repeat و in each sentence of the text. Shaheen (1991: 75) attributes Arab learners' problems in connectivity to the fact that Arabic tends to favour the frequent use of the additive conjunction و in place of the zero connector in English.

The translations also showed that some students used double connectors in their translations. They translated the source language connector and added the Arabic connector و , which is not normally permitted in Arabic. To illustrate this point, some students started their translations with the Arabic connector و then they added the Arabic equivalent of the English connector 'also' in "Global warming will also cause major changes in climate that will affect agriculture", Text Sixteen, as in:

وأيضاً سيسبب الانحباس الحراري تغيرات جذرية في المناخ مما سيؤثر على الزراعة.  
وأيضاً سوف يؤدي الاحترار العالمي إلى تغيرات جوية في المناخ مما سيؤثر على الزراعة.  
وسيسبب الاحتباس الحراري أيضاً تغيرات مناخية كبيرة مما سيؤثر في الزراعة.  
وكذلك سيحدث الانحباس الحراري تغيرات ضخمة في المناخ ستؤثر على الزراعة.

In the same text, one student used three additive connectors to translate "Global warming will also cause major changes in climate that will affect agriculture", as in:

وكما أن الاحتباس الحراري سوف يسبب أيضاً تغيرات عظمي في المناخ الذي بالنتيجة سوف يؤثر على الزراعة.

In the same text the conjunction 'also' was unacceptably rendered as the adversative connector من ناحية أخرى 'on the other hand', as follows:

أما من ناحية أخرى فإن ارتفاع درجات الحرارة سيؤدي إلى تغيرات في الطقس مما يؤثر على الزراعة.

The same conjunction was also unacceptably rendered as the resultative connector 'so', as follows:

ولذلك فإن الاحتباس الحراري سيؤدي إلى تغيرات مناخية قد تضر بالمجال الزراعي.

In Text Six twelve students used double connectors in their translation of "It is also true that more and more young people are turning up at Accident and Emergency units as a result of heavy boozing, or the related violence and accidents."

وكذلك، ثبت أن الكثير من الشباب تحولوا إلى وحدات الطوارئ بسبب الحوادث الناتجة من الإفراط في الشرب أو المتعلقة بالعنف والحوادث.  
 وأيضاً فإن هناك العديد من صغار السن الذين تحولون إلى أقسام الحوادث والطوارئ نتيجة الإفراط في الشرب أو أعمال العنف والحوادث.  
 وحقيقة أيضاً أن المزيد والمزيد من صغار السن يحاولون إلى أقسام الحوادث والطوارئ بسبب الخمر المركزة، أو بسبب العنف والحوادث المتعلقة بها.  
 وصحيح أيضاً أن المزيد والمزيد من الشباب الصغار يتوجهون إلى وحدات الطوارئ والحوادث كنتيجة حتمية للإفراط في الشرب أو ما يتعلق بها من عنف وحوادث.  
 ومن الصحيح أيضاً أن العديد من الأشخاص صغار السن ينقلون إلى وحدات الطوارئ والحوادث نتيجة الإفراط في تناول الكحول أو العنف والحوادث الأخرى.  
 ومما لاشك فيه أيضاً أن العديد من الصغار يتحولون بشكل مفاجئ لمثل تلك السلوكيات السيئة، كنتيجة لذلك فإن وحدات الطوارئ تبدل مجهودات كبيرة من أجل إسعاف هذه الحالات الثملة.  
 وأيضاً من الصحيح بأن الكثير والكثير من الشباب يعملون الحوادث ووحدات الطوارئ نتيجة للتعاطي الكحولي الكثيف أو يرجع إلى العنف والحوادث.  
 وأنه لصحيح أيضاً أن الكثير من الشباب اضطروا إلى الحوادث و وحدات الطوارئ نتيجة للشرب المفرط أو ما يتعلق بالحوادث و الأعمال العنيفة.  
 ومن الصحيح أيضاً أن الكثير من الناس يحضرون إلى وحدات الحوادث والطوارئ نتيجة للشرب الكثير أو أعمال العنف والحوادث المرتبطة بالشرب.  
 وأنه أيضاً من المحتمل صحته أنه الشباب الصغار اخرجوا الحادثة ولا وحدة الهجرة كنتيجة للسكر المفرط أو العنف المتقارب والحوادث العرضية.

The following tables show students' translations of connectors in argumentative and descriptive texts:

**A. Statistical analysis of students' translations of discourse markers in argumentative texts:**

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	1	12	15	0
Third sentence	13	5	10	0
Fourth sentence	*1	7	1	18
Fifth sentence	14	3	10	1
Sixth sentence	*9	8	10	0
Seventh sentence	3	7	18	0
Total	41	42	64	19

**Table 27 Use of discourse markers in 'The Shocking Truth' (Text: 3)**

One student or more omitted this sentence

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	9	6	13	0
Third sentence	10	4	14	0
Fourth sentence	10	4	13	1
Fifth sentence	*14	4	5	1
Sixth sentence	13	2	1	12
Seventh sentence	14	1	11	2
Eighth sentence	*1	18	3	3
Ninth sentence	6	5	17	0
Total	77	44	77	19

**Table 28: Use of discourse markers in 'Britain and Binge Drinking' (Text: 6)**

One student or more omitted this sentence

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	1	14	3	10
Third sentence	0	23	2	3
Fourth sentence	*6	4	15	2
Fifth sentence	*22	3	1	1
Sixth sentence	1	24	0	3
Seventh sentence	13	8	6	1
Eighth sentence	1	24	1	2
Ninth sentence	*4	14	2	6
Tenth sentence	*5	4	15	1
Total	53	118	45	29

**Table 29: Use of discourse markers in 'Property Market' (Text: 9)**

One student or more omitted this sentence

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	10	4	14	0
Third sentence	*6	6	12	3
Fourth sentence	4	8	11	5
Fifth sentence	4	4	18	2
Sixth sentence	4	6	17	1
Total	28	28	72	11

**Table 30: Use of discourse markers in 'End this Punishment of the Palestinians' (Text: 12)**

One student or more omitted this sentence

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	5	4	17	2
Third sentence	4	6	12	6
Fourth sentence	*13	2	11	0
Fifth sentence	*1	12	0	14
Sixth sentence	*2	17	3	5
Total	25	41	43	27

**Table 31: Use of discourse markers in 'We Must Act Now to Cut Immigrant Numbers' (Text: 15).**

One student or more omitted this sentence.

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	1	10	0	17
Third sentence	13	1	14	0
Fourth sentence	7	4	17	0
Fifth sentence	6	9	3	10
Total	27	24	34	27

**Table 32: Use of discourse markers in Kyoto Protocol: The Road Ahead' (Text: 18).**

**B. Statistical analysis of students' translations of discourse markers in descriptive texts:**

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	13	7	7	1
Third sentence	11	1	16	0
Total	24	8	23	1

**Table 33: Use of discourse markers in 'Britain's Gun Culture' (Text: 1).**

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	8	6	14	0
Third sentence	10	3	13	2
Total	18	9	27	2

**Table 34: Use of discourse markers in 'Middle-aged Binge Drinkers Dying in Record Number' (Text: 4).**

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	17	6	5	0
Third sentence	18	4	6	0
Fourth sentence	*17	2	8	0
Total	52	12	17	0

**Table 35: Use of discourse markers in 'Mortgage Approvals Dive as Market Cools' (Text: 7).**

One student or more omitted this sentence.

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	15	0	13	0
Third sentence	15	6	6	1
Total	30	6	19	1

**Table 36: Use of discourse markers in 'The Arab-Israeli Conflict' (Text: 10).**

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	10	7	11	0
Total	10	7	11	0

**Table 37: Use of discourse markers in 'Record Immigration Sees UK Population Soar' (Text: 13).**

No. of sentences	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
Second sentence	2	12	14	0
Third sentence	*14	6	6	0
Fourth sentence	5	14	7	2
Fifth sentence	*11	3	4	9
Sixth	0	7	10	11
Total	32	42	41	22

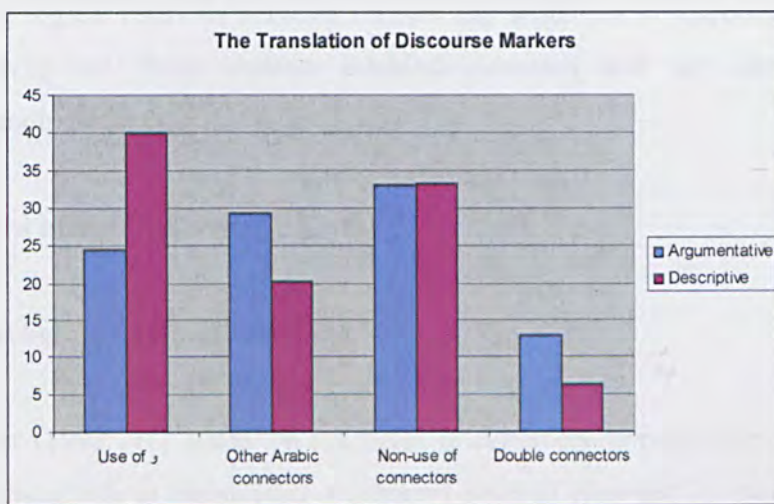
**Table 38: Use of discourse markers in 'Global Warming' (Text: 16).**

Text	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
3	41	42	64	19
6	77	44	77	19
9	53	118	45	29
12	28	28	72	11
15	25	41	43	27
18	27	24	34	27
Total	251	297	335	132
Percentage	24.7%	29.3%	33%	13%

**Table 39: Total number and percentages of use of discourse markers in argumentative texts.**

Text	Use of و	Use of other Arabic connectors	Non-use of connectors	Use of double connectors
1	24	8	23	1
4	18	9	27	2
7	52	12	17	0
10	30	6	19	1
13	10	7	11	0
16	32	42	41	22
Total	166	84	138	26
Percentage	40.1 %	20.3%	33.3%	6.3%

**Table 40: Total number and percentages of use of discourse markers in descriptive texts.**



**Table 41: Discourse markers in argumentative and descriptive texts**

As indicated in Tables 39 and 40 students tend to use the additive connector و more than other Arabic connectors. In descriptive texts the additive و constituted 40.1% of inter-clausal connectors while in argumentative texts it was recorded at 24.7%. Argumentative texts however differ from descriptive texts in their frequent use of other Arabic connectives (i.e. 29.3% vs. 20.3%). This results coincides with Dickins et al's (2002) findings that the general nature of argumentative texts is reflected in the widespread use of connectives expressing logical relations (e.g. *لذلك*, *إذن*, *رغم*, *حيث*, etc.), as well as the more basic connectives, such as *و*, and *ف*. Argumentative texts also have a higher percentage of double

connectors (13% vs. 6.3%). Argumentative and descriptive texts however both show a high percentage of non-use of connectors (33% vs. 33.3%). This tendency to render ST propositions without the use of connectors can be attributed to students' preference for literal translation. It can also be blamed on the failure of some students who lack TL competence and translational proficiency to realize the logical relationships holding implicitly between sentences. Lotfipour-Saidi (1990:394) has made it clear that "Any careless handling of cohesive elements of the SL text in the translation process would lead to a change in the degree of cohesiveness intended by the original author and such a change would certainly affect the discourse comprehension processes and, in the long run, the nature of the message to be negotiated through the text".

It is therefore the translator's duty to understand the linking between sentences where necessary making implicit relationships in the ST explicit in the TT according to norms and conventions. Arab students should be familiar with the differences between the connectivity systems of English and Arabic and the different ways connectors are used in the two languages. Translator training programmes should focus on the role that connectives play in signaling logical relations between clauses and sentences in discourse. Such awareness of connectivity will help students establish cohesion and help them achieve a better understanding of texts.

#### **6.4. Word order (549 errors, 11.5 %)**

##### **6.4.1 Verbal vs. nominal sentences**

As Baker (1992:110) states "Word order is extremely important in translation because it plays a major role in maintaining a coherent point of view and in orienting messages at text level". Word order is one of the main factors that distinguish one language structure from another. English has subject-verb-object sentence order, while Arabic most commonly has verb-subject-object sentence order. Such sentences, in which the verb precedes the subject, are known as verbal sentences in Arabic. In addition to verb-subject-object word order, verbal sentences may also exhibit verb-object-subject word order. As well as verbal sentences Arabic also has nominal sentences consisting of a predicand and a predicate. The predicand in nominal sentences is always itself nominal, but the predicate may be a verb (by extension a verb phrase), nominal, adjectival or adverbial. The standard word order in

nominal sentences is predicand-predicate, but predicate-predicand word order also occurs. As indicated in Table 54 the translations show that students have a tendency to use more nominal sentences than verbal sentences in Arabic. This can be attributed to students' preference for word-for-word translation of English elements. The number of errors resulting from the incorrect use of word order was 549 (11.5%). To illustrate this point, three students translated "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths", Text One, as:

المخدرات و الانحلال المدني و العنصرية و جرم العصابات و غياب دور القدوات الايجابية كل هذه الأمور مسنولة عن الانفجار المفاجئ الحديث للقتل.  
المخدرات و انحلال المجتمع ، العنصرية، عصابات الزاب و غياب الدور الايجابي للقانون، كلها تلام في ازدياد معدل وفيات السلاح مؤخرًا.  
المخدرات، و فساد المدن، العنصرية، وضجة العصابات، إضافة إلى غياب المبادئ الأخلاقية الايجابية كل هذه العوامل أدت إلى ازدياد نسبة القتل المسلح.

Other students used Arabic verbal sentences, as in:

أدت المخدرات و الانهيار المدني و العنصرية و طرفة رجال العصابات و غياب الدور الايجابي المقندي به إلى الازدياد المفاجئ لحالات الموت باستخدام البنادق.  
و ترجع أسباب هذا السيل الجاري من عمليات القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات، الانحلال المدني، التميز العنصري، عقاب gangsta و غياب نماذج الدور الإيجابي.  
و ترجع هذه الزيادة في الوفيات بسبب إطلاق النار إلى: المخدرات، والخمور ولعب الجانجستا و غياب القدوة ذات الدور الإيجابي .

Some students partially acceptably began their translations with the emphatic particle إن , as in:

وإن إساءة استخدام المخدرات و ظهور التمدين و الفساد و العنصرية و انتشار العصابات " جانجستا" أو عصابات النهب بالإضافة إلى غياب المثل العليا التي يحتذى بها كل ذلك يقع عليه اللوم في التضخم المتزايد لقتلى الأسلحة.  
فإن المخدرات، و الفساد الحضري (المدنية)، العنصرية، و قطع الطريق ( السطو) و غياب الدور الإيجابي للمثل العليا كان سببًا للفيض الأخذ من عمليات القتل بالسلاح.

The use of the emphatic particle إن and verbal and nominal sentences in the above translations reflect the flexibility of Arabic word order, in comparison to the more fixed word order of English. However, Arab student translators should be alerted not to misuse this flexibility by making use of one type of word order inappropriately at the expense of others.

In translating the first sentence in Text Sixteen, a large number of students started their translations of "Global warming is one of the biggest problems facing humankind in the

next few decades” with nominal sentences. This high percentage of nominal sentences may be related to the presence of the English copula which does not have a lexical equivalent in Arabic. There is a possibility that the presence of the English copula encouraged students to use verbless Arabic nominal sentences, as can be seen below:

إن الاحتباس الحراري العالمي واحدة من المشاكل الكبرى التي تواجه الإنسانية في العقود القليلة المقبلة.  
الاحتباس الحراري العالمي هو أحد المشاكل العظمى التي ستواجه البشرية في العقود القليلة القادمة.  
الاحتباس الحراري العالمي واحد من أكبر المشكلات التي تواجه البشرية في العقود القليلة القادمة.

As Table 45 shows twenty-seven students translated the first sentence in “Israeli troops today killed two Palestinian Hamas gunmen in Gaza, wounding three others”, Text Ten, using verbal sentences, as can be seen below:

قتل الجنود الإسرائيليون مسلحين ينتميان إلى حركة حماس اليوم في مدينة غزة وجرحوا ثلاثة آخرون.  
قامت قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي اليوم بقتل مسلحين فلسطينيين من حماس في غزة وجرحت ثلاثة آخرين.  
قتلت القوات العسكرية اليوم مقاومين من حماس في غزة ، وجرح ثلاثة آخرين.  
قامت القوات الإسرائيلية اليوم بقتل ناشطين مسلحين من حماس في غزة وجرحت ثلاثة آخرين.

This high usage of unmarked verbal sentences in students’ translations may be related to students’ familiarity with this type of political narrative discourse. As many Palestinian people are killed by Israeli troops on a regular basis, students are used to verbal sentences describing this kind of situation in original Arabic texts. According to Kaplan (1966) Leki (1991) and Connor (1996) discourse organization is seen by linguists as culture-oriented.

**Statistical analysis of the use of verbal and nominal sentences in descriptive texts:**

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	11	17
Second sentence	1	27
Third sentence	9	19
Total	21	63
Percentages	25%	75%

**Table 42: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in ‘Britain's Gun Culture’ (Text: 1).**

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	23	5
Second sentence	16	12
Third sentence	14	14
Total	53	31
Percentages	63.1%	36.9%

**Table 43: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in ‘Middle Aged Binge Drinkers Dying in Record Numbers’ (Text: 4).**



	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	14	14
Second sentence	26	2
Third sentence	4	24
Fourth sentence	21	*6
Total	65	46
Percentages	58.6%	41.4%

**Table 44: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'Mortgage Approvals Dive as Market Cools' (Text: 7)**  
One or more students did not translate this sentence

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	27	1
Second sentence	20	8
Third sentence	25	3
Total	72	12
Percentages	85.7%	14.3%

**Table 45: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'The Arab-Israeli Conflict' (Text: 10).**

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	21	7
Second sentence	7	21
Total	28	28
Percentages	50%	50%

**Table 46: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'Immigration' (Text: 13).**

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	11	17
Second sentence	1	27
Third sentence	1	*26
Fourth sentence	2	26
Fifth sentence	1	**21
Sixth sentence	9	19
Total	25	136
Percentages	15.5%	84.5%

**Table 47: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'Global Warming' (Text: 16).**

One or more students did not translate this sentence.

Sentence (4) and sentence (5) have been translated as one meaningful sentence.

**Statistical analysis of the use of verbal and nominal sentences in argumentative texts:**

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	0	*27
Second sentence	11	17
Third sentence	21	7
Fourth sentence	1	*26
Fifth sentence	0	28
Sixth sentence	14	*13
Seventh sentence	2	26
Total	49	144
Percentages	25.4%	74.6%

**Table 48: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'The Shocking Truth' (Text: 3).**

One or more students did not translate this sentence.

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	18	10
Second sentence	6	22
Third sentence	4	*23
Fourth sentence	2	26
Fifth sentence	14	*12
Sixth sentence	3	25
Seventh sentence	3	25
Eight sentence	7	21
Ninth sentence	1	27
Total	58	191
Percentages	23.3%	76.7%

**Table 49: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'Britain and Binge Drinking' (Text: 6).**  
One or more students did not translate this sentence.

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	1	27
Second sentence	12	16
Third sentence	11	17
Fourth sentence	7	*19
Fifth sentence	2	*25
Sixth sentence	15	13
Seventh sentence	10	18
Eighth sentence	3	25
Ninth sentence	0	*26
Tenth sentence	20	*5
Total	81	191
Percentages	29.8%	70.2%

**Table 50: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'Property Market' (Text: 9).**  
One or more students did not translate this sentence.

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	10	18
Second sentence	2	26
Third sentence	0	28
Fourth sentence	9	19
Fifth sentence	3	25
Sixth sentence	6	22
Total	30	138
Percentages	17.9%	82.1%

**Table 51: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'End this Punishment of the Palest inians' (Text: 12).**

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	7	21
Second sentence	5	23
Third sentence	6	22
Fourth sentence	23	*4
Fifth sentence	3	*24
Sixth sentence	3	*24
Total	47	118
Percentages	28.5%	71.5%

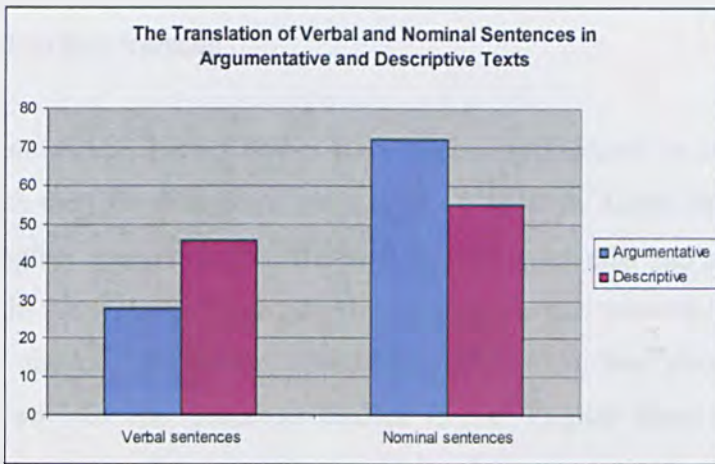
**Table 52: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'Immigration', (Text: 15).**  
One or more students did not translate this sentence.

	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
First sentence	20	8
Second sentence	0	28
Third sentence	22	6
Fourth sentence	14	14
Fifth sentence	11	17
Total	67	73
Percentages	47.9%	52.1%

**Table 53: Use of verbal and nominal sentences in 'Kyoto Protocol' (Text: 18)**

DESCRIPTIVE TEXTS			ARGUMENTATIVE TEXTS		
Text	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences	Text	Verbal sentences	Nominal sentences
1	21	63	13	49	144
4	53	31	6	58	191
7	65	46	9	81	191
10	72	12	12	30	138
13	28	28	15	47	118
16	25	136	18	67	73
Total	264	316		332	855
Percentages	45.5%	54.5%		28%	72%

**Table 54: Total number and percentages of verbal and nominal sentences in descriptive and argumentative Texts.**



**Table 55: Distribution of verbal and nominal sentences in descriptive and argumentative**

As table 54 above shows, students used both Arabic nominal and verbal sentences. In descriptive texts students used 264 (i.e. 45.5%) verbal sentences and 316 (i.e. 54.5%) nominal sentences. In argumentative texts students used 332 (i.e. 28%) verbal sentences and 855 (i.e.72%) nominal sentences. Out of 1767 nominal and verbal sentences in descriptive and argumentative texts students used 1171 nominal sentences (i.e. 66%) and 596 verbal sentences (i.e. 34%). This high percentage of nominal sentences could be explained by the students' tendency to translate literally. In addition it shows that students used more nominal sentences in argumentative texts than in descriptive texts. This result coincides with

Hatim's (1989, 1997) findings. According to Hatim (1989: 139), "the verbal clause type tends to predominate in texts whose focus is in non-evaluative exposition...whereas the nominal is characteristic of texts with an argumentative and evaluative focus". The same view is shared by Rosenhouse (1990), who asserts that there is a tendency in contemporary Arabic towards nominalization. Though this tendency can be seen, on one hand, as a form of development in Arabic, it is looked at, on the other, as an effect of translations from European languages. In strict linguistic terms, what determines the appropriateness of using nominal constructions rather than verbal ones is the function and context of discourse. Nominal sentences are properly used at the beginning of a text to indicate emphasis and importance. According to Dickins and Watson (1999:339-340), "any sentence which does not begin with a verb has the potential to display sentence-initial emphasis". The translations showed that some students used nominal sentences beginning with the emphatic particle **إن** and produced acceptable translations. Therefore, Arab student translators should be familiar with the word order of English and Arabic so that they can decide what acceptable structures they can choose from when they translate into the target language.

#### **6.4.2. Adverbial fronting**

English and Arabic have different ways of placing emphasis on certain elements in the text. In English the canonical word order is SVO, while in Arabic the canonical word order is VSO. English unmarked structure permits putting adverbs and adverbial clauses in initial position in the sentence. Such adverbial fronting is also possible in Arabic, but in Arabic it is more marked. According to Shaheen (1991:175), one reason why English favours fronting adverbs and adverbial clauses is that English starts with the least important elements, usually adverbs and adverbials of time, placing important and more salient information towards the end. Unlike English, Arabic starts with more important information and leaves the least important information to the end. However, the inflectional system of Arabic, where grammatical relations are marked by overt case markings, allows for a variety of word order permutations. Depending on these case markings, Arabic allows the fronting of different sentence elements. According to Amer (1996), five types of elements may be fronted in verbal sentences. These elements are: objects, adverbs, prepositional phrases, circumstantial accusative and causative objects. Examples representing each of these five types are illustrated below:

a. Object fronting

درساً شرح المدرس. (Literally: Lesson explained the teacher) 'It was the lesson that the teacher explained'.

b. Adverbial fronting

أمام البيت جلسنا. (Literally, in front of the house we sat) 'It was in front of the house that we sat'.

c. Fronting of prepositional phrases

في المدرسة كتبت. (Literally: In the school I wrote) 'It was in the school that I wrote'.

d. Fronting of circumstantial accusative

جرباً جئت. (Running I came)

e. Fronting of causative object

تقديراً لك جئت. (Literally: Out of respect for you that I came) 'It was out of respect for you that I came'.

The translations have shown that students followed the English word order introducing structures that violate TL conventions. For example, a large number of students translated "During the past year the deliberate use of guns to take life has risen in England and Wales", Text One, as follows:

خلال السنة الماضية ارتفع الاستخدام المتعمد للسلاح للدفاع عن النفس في إنجلترا وويلز.  
خلال السنة الماضية فإن الاستخدام المتعمد للسلاح للقتل قد ازداد في إنجلترا وأستراليا.  
خلال السنة الماضية زاد استخدام السلاح في عمليات القتل في إنجلترا وويلز.

In the above translations students kept the SL word order, producing a shift in focus. By fronting the adverbial phrase خلال السنة الماضية, the student translator has moved the emphasis to the adverbial phrase 'during the last year'. The occurrence of the adverbial phrase خلال السنة الماضية affects the style of the text, producing a style which does not fit the structure of the TT. Other students however gave unmarked renderings, reflecting a good style of Arabic, as in:

لقد ارتفع معدل الاستخدام المتعمد للأسلحة النارية التي تؤدي بالأرواح خلال السنوات الماضية في إنجلترا وويلز.  
ارتفع عدد ضحايا الاستخدام المتعمد للسلاح في إنجلترا وويلز خلال السنة الماضية.

The professional translator gave the following translation:

يفيد تقرير صادر عن وزارة الداخلية في المملكة المتحدة عن ارتفاع معدل الاستخدام العمدي للسلاح الناري في إنجلترا ومقاطعة ويلز خلال السنة الماضية.

Similarly, in Text Thirteen, some students unacceptably translated “Britain is currently experiencing its biggest influx of immigrants in history, according to the Office for National Statistics” as:

وفقاً لمكتب الإحصاء القومي، فإن بريطانيا تشهد حالياً التدفق الأكبر للمهاجرين في التاريخ.  
وفقاً لمكتب الإحصاء القومي فإن بريطانيا قد عاشت تجربة التدفق الأكبر للهجرة على مر التاريخ.

Fronting the adverbial phrase وفقاً لمكتب الإحصاء القومي produced a very marked rendering, which is not appropriate in this context in Arabic. Arabic, rather, favours the use of adverbials in a sentence-final position, as in:

تشهد بريطانيا حالياً أكبر تدفق من الوافدين في التاريخ، وفقاً لمكتب الإحصاء القومي.

The professional translator gave the following translation:

أفاد مكتب الإحصاء الوطني بأن بريطانيا تمر حالياً بأكثر تدفق للمهاجرين في التاريخ.

Another example of the influence of the ST word order is students' tendency to place some adverbs before the main verb as is the case in English. For example, one student placed the adverb أيضاً 'also' in “First, shops and supermarkets must stop selling alcohol below cost prices. This also involves reducing sales to under-18s by bars, off-licences and retailers”, Text Five, before the main verb يتضمن 'involve', as in:

وهذا أيضاً يتضمن تقليل البيع لذي الأعمار التي تقل عن 18 عام وذلك من الحانات غير المرخصة والتي تباع بالمفرق.

In Text Twelve one student placed the adverb 'regularly' before the main verb as in the source text. The student's translation of “They are creating a humanitarian catastrophe in Gaza and the West Bank and have emboldened Israel to sustain an unrelenting bomb and missile barrage, which regularly kills innocent children and other non-combatants”, is as follows:

وهو يخلقون كارثة إنسانية في كل من غزة والضفة الغربية وذلك يشجع إسرائيل على مواصلة القصف الصارم وإطلاق وابل الصواريخ التي بانتظام تقتل الأطفال الأبرياء وغيرهم من غير المقاتلين حيث أن في ذلك انتهاك لنص وثيقة جنيف الرابع الذي يحمي المدنيين تحت الاحتلال.

The wrong positioning of 'also' and 'regularly' before the main verb accentuates the translators' excessive fidelity toward the source language, which is now viewed as one of the main problems in translation.

Other students however placed the adverb after the main verb giving an acceptable Arabic style, as in:

إنهم يخلقون كارثة إنسانية في غزة والضفة الغربية مع تحريض إسرائيل على أن تبقى قصفها المدفعي المتواصل والقنابل والصواريخ بلا رحمة والتي تقتل بشكل منتظم أطفال أبرياء وآخرين عزل في انتهاك لاتفاقية جنيف الرابعة التي تنص على حماية المدنيين تحت الاحتلال.

وهي تخلق كارثة إنسانية في غزة والضفة الغربية وقد شجعت إسرائيل على استمرار القصف الوحشي والمدفعي المتواصل والذي يقتل بشكل متواصل الأطفال البرينين وآخرين غير مدنيين وهو خرق للبند الرابع من اتفاقية جنيف لحماية المدنيين وقت الاحتلال.

It is worth noting that the fronting of adverbs and adverbial clauses has become relatively common in Arabic due to the influence of translation from European languages. Ample examples of this transfer can currently be seen in many translated books, especially in the language of media. Therefore, Arab students should be familiar with norms of good style in both English and Arabic in order to avoid using structures that violate Arabic textual and discursal preferences.

#### 6.4.3. The emphatic particle إن

Dickins and Watson (1999: 419-428) distinguish two sorts of context where إن is used: (a) cases where the particle إن is stylistically normal and (b) cases where إن relays emphasis. In its stylistically normal use إن occurs as a resumptive particle to signal the start of the next major element in the clause or sentence, e.g.

و يكتمل هذا التقدير لقيمة الديمقراطية الوعي بأننا و من خلال نظامنا السياسي الديمقراطي بقدر ما حققناه من استجابة حضارية لمطالب العقل السياسي أو الفكر السياسي العربي فإننا نقدم البديل الذي طال انتظاره للخروج من واقع الانقسام العربي...

"This estimation of the value of democracy is made complete by the awareness that we - through our democratic political system, and the extent of our achievements in terms of a

cultural response to the demands of Arab political rationality and thought - are offering a long awaited alternative to escape from the facts of Arab division..." (ibid: 420). In the previous example the function of **إن** is the inclusion of new information, i.e. **فإننا نقدم البديل** الذي طال انتظاره للخروج من واقع الانقسام العربي... It is also common to find **إن** as a resumptive particle in the main clause of a conditional sentence, where this main clause does not have a main verb e.g. "Whatever the outcome, what is certain is that the policy of exporting the revolution..." (ibid: 420).

Dickins and Watson (ibid: 421) identify four types of emphatic **إن** (a) stress, (b) contrast, (c) scene setting, (d) linkage.

#### A. Stress:

The use of **إن** to mark stress may be regarded as either stressing the whole sentence or as stressing the predicate which occurs after the subject noun phrase introduced by **إن** as in:

لقد تحطم التمثال وسقط فوق زورق صغير و انكفا على وجهه إنه غارق على سطح الماء...

"The statue had been smashed and had fallen on the top of a small boat, and tumbled over its face. It was lying on the surface of the water..." (ibid: 421).

The most obvious cases of **إن** to mark stress for English speakers are those where translations involve an English stress-word such as 'indeed' and 'certainly', as in: **و إنه لنبي** "He is indeed the prophet of this community". However, there are many instances where the Arabic emphatic **إن** has no corresponding equivalent in English. These instances are related to exhortatory material, i.e. material in which the writer is presenting opinions which he or she wants the audience to agree with, as in:

لقد شاهدتهم هناك و القلق العصبي يأكل حياتهم على الرغم من كل مظاهر الثراء و النعمة ووسائل الراحة. **إن** متاعهم هياج عصبي و مرح حيواني و إنه يخيل إليك أنهم هاربون دائماً من أشباح تطاردهم، إنهم آلات تتحرك في جنون و سرعة و هياج لا يقر له قرار.

"I have seen them there, nervous anxiety eating up their lives despite the appearances of wealth and well-being, and the means for comfort. Their pleasure is nervous excitement, and animal enjoyment. You imagine that they are constantly fleeing from spectres which are pursuing them. They are machines which move in madness, speed, and excitement from which there is no respite" (ibid: 421-2).

**إن** also occurs in some prophetic sayings to stress the importance of Hadiths, as in: **إن من البيان** **إن** نفساً **إن** نموت حتى تستكمل رزقها"; "Some forms of speech are indeed magical"; لسخرأ



“A soul will never die until it fully receives all of its livelihood”; **إِنَّ اللَّهَ لَا يَنْظُرُ إِلَى صُورِكُمْ وَ** ‘Allah does not look at your appearance or wealth but looks at your heart and actions’ (Ibn Yusuf 2005: 51-56).

Other instances where **إِنَّ** can be used include important statements by political leaders, as in:

و حول رؤيته المستقبلية لحل المشكلات الاقتصادية في الجزائر قال حسين آية أحمد: **إِنَّ رَهَانَنَا كَانَ وَلَا يَزَالُ عَلَى أَنْ** الديمقراطية شرط من شروط التنمية...

“Regarding his vision for the future for solving the economic problems of Algeria, Hocine Ait-Ahmed said, “Our bet has been and remains that democracy is one of the conditions for development” (Dickins and Watson , 1999: 424).

#### B. Contrast

Emphatic **إِنَّ** is sometimes used to provide a contrast with some previous element in the text. This contrast is sometimes temporal, particularly where **إِنَّ** contrasts a subsequent state with previous actions, as in: **فِي بَورِ سَعِيدٍ قَابَلْتُ كَثِيرًا مِنَ النَّاسِ جَاءُوا مِنَ الشَّمَالِ وَالْجَنُوبِ.. كَلِمًا لِيُرَوْا مَاذَا فَعَلَ** . “In Port Said I met many people who had come from both north and south, all of them to see what the attack had done to this secure city. Everything in it was calm, the people and life...” (ibid: 425).

#### C. Scene-setting

**إِنَّ** is sometimes used to introduce a topic-sentence or topic-clause as in: **إِنَّ دُولَ الْعَالَمِ الثَّلَاثِ قَدْ** “The states of the third world have gone through a state of industrialization since the early 1950s”. In this example, **إِنَّ** introduces **دُولَ الْعَالَمِ الثَّلَاثِ** ‘the states of the third world’ as the core of the topic of the paragraph, the information about industrialization being of secondary importance.

#### D. Linkage

Sometimes **إِنَّ** is used to summarise, or to draw a conclusion from, a previous argument, as in:

وقاطع الزوج أصدقاءه القدماء و صديقاته القديمات. وهو اليوم متصوف لا يقرأ إلا القرآن والأحاديث النبوية ويعيش في أرضه التي يملكها بعيداً عن كل إنسان و كل زوجة و كل ميراندا. **إِنَّ هَذَا الصَّدِيقَ كَأَنَّهُ مَاتَ...**

“The husband cut himself off from his former male and female friends. Today he is a Sufi, and reads only the Quran and the prophetic Hadiths. He lives on the land which he owns far from all people, all wives and all Mirandas. It is as if this friend had died” (ibid: 427).

إن may also be used to introduce a justification, particularly an authoritative justification, of a previous claim, as in:

يجب أن يُعرَف أن ولاية أمر الناس من أعظم واجبات الدين، بلا قيام للدين إلا بها، فإن بني آدم لا تتم مصلحتهم إلا بالاجتماع لحاجة بعضهم إلى بعض...

“It should be known that authority over the affairs of people is one of the greatest duties of religion, indeed religion cannot exist without it. For men can only achieve what is in their own best interest through joint activity, due to the fact that they need one another (ibid: 427).

In their translations students made use of the emphatic إن. Some of them acceptably used إن at the beginning of the first sentence to introduce the topic sentence of the text. Other students however overused إن repeating it in all the subsequent sentences of the text. This overuse of إن reflects students' lack of awareness of the appropriate use of this emphatic particle. To illustrate this point further, one student acceptably started his translation with إن and translated “Global warming is one of the biggest problems facing humankind in the next few decades”, Text Sixteen, as:

إن الاحتباس الحراري العالمي واحدة من المشاكل الكبرى التي تواجه الإنسانية في العقود القليلة المقبلة.

However, another student repeated إن in each of the six sentences of the text, as follows:

### TLT (16)

“Global warming is one of the biggest problems facing humankind in the next few decades. In the past 150 years, global temperatures have risen approximately 1°C (1.8° F). If temperatures continue to rise, the consequences could be catastrophic. As the earth's temperature rises, polar ice will melt, causing the water level of the oceans to rise. Rising ocean levels, in turn, will cause flooding along the coasts. Global warming will also cause major changes in climate that will affect agriculture”.

### SLT

إن الدفء العالمي من أكبر المشاكل التي تواجه الإنسانية خلال العقود القليلة القادمة. منذ 150 سنة، فإن الحرارة العالمية ارتفعت حوالي 1س، 1,8 فهرنهايت. وإذا ما استمرت درجة الحرارة في الزيادة، فإن النتائج ستكون مدمرة. إذا استمرت درجة حرارة الأرض في الزيادة فإن القطب المتجمد سوف يذوب ويرفع ذلك من منسوب المياه في المحيطات. و بزيادة منسوب المحيطات، فإن ذلك سيؤدي إلى فيضانات على طول السواحل. وأيضاً فإن الدفء العالمي سوف يسبب تغيرات عظيمة في المناخ مما سيؤثر ذلك على الزراعة.

Although it is acceptable to start the translation with **إن** to introduce the main topic of the passage (Dickins and Watson, 1999: 423), it is not acceptable to repeat **إن** in the rest of the sentences if the subsequent sentences do not have the same level of importance (Al Ghussain, 2002: 144).

In translating argumentative texts students made frequent use of **إن**. The frequent occurrences of **إن** in such types of texts can be relatively acceptable. According to Abdul-Raof (2001: 127), one of the main stylistic hallmarks of Arabic argumentative texts is the use of the emphatic particles **إن/أن**. To illustrate this point, one student relatively acceptably used **إن** in the first two sentences of Text Twelve, as in:

“The Israeli government’s behaviour at present is to be condemned. This failure of our government to speak out against Israel’s oppression of the Palestinian population is complicit with those actions of the EU, the US and Israel”.

إن سلوك الحكومة الإسرائيلية في وقتنا الحاضر يجب أن يدان. إن فشل حكومتنا للتحدث علنا ضد اضطهاد إسرائيل للسكان الفلسطينيين متواطئا مع أعمال الاتحاد الأوروبي وأمريكا وإسرائيل.

In Text Six one student unacceptably repeated **إن** four times, as can be seen below:

#### SLT (6)

“It is possibly true that as a society, we are storing up massive health problems in the community, as happened in the 18th Century [...]. It is estimated that as many as 5 million Britons abuse alcohol on a regular basis. It is also true that more and more young people are turning up at Accident and Emergency units as a result of heavy boozing, or the related violence and accidents. There are probably as many as 3 to 4 million people in the UK who could be classed as ‘Active Alcoholics’ ”.

#### TL (6)

إنه لحقيقة تمكنه في المجتمع فقد خزنت العديد من المشاكل الصحية في الاتصال ، وكما حدث في القرن الثامن عشر فإن ما يقدر زيادة على 5 ملايين انجليزي يسيئون الكحول بطريقة منتظمة وإن حقيقة عظيمة أن معظم الرجال الغير البالغين يقعون في حوادث وظروف طارئة نتيجة الإكثار من الشرب أو علاقة بالعنف والحوادث. وإن هناك ما يقارب من 3-4 ملايين رجل في المملكة المتحدة يعرفون بطبقة الأنشطة الكحولية.

## Statistical analysis of the use of emphatic إِنَّ

To determine the number of occurrences of إِنَّ in each translation, each student has been assigned a number. The frequency number refers to the total uses of إِنَّ on the part of each specific student, as can be seen below:

### 1. Use of إِنَّ in descriptive texts:

	Use of إِنَّ	Non-use of إِنَّ	Number of students who repeated إِنَّ	Serial numbers of students who used إِنَّ
First sentence	0	28	0	0
Second sentence	0	28		0
Third sentence	2	26		16/9
Total	2	82		
Percentages	2.4%	97.6%		

**Table 56: Use of إِنَّ in Text (1) 'Britain's Gun Culture'**

	Use of إِنَّ	Non-use of إِنَّ	Number of students who repeated إِنَّ	Serial numbers of students who used إِنَّ
First sentence	1	27	1	28
Second sentence	1	27		28
Third sentence	1	27		14
Total	3	81		
Percentages	3.6%	96.4%		

**Table 57: Use of إِنَّ in Text (4) 'Middle-aged Binge Drinkers Dying in Record Numbers'**

	Use of إِنَّ	Non-use of إِنَّ	Number of students who repeated إِنَّ	Serial numbers of students who used إِنَّ
First sentence	6	22	0	18/30/16/20/19
Second sentence	0	28		0
Third sentence	1	27		27
Fourth sentence	0	*27		
Total	7	104		
Percentages	6.3 %	93.7%		

**Table 58: Use of إِنَّ in Text (7) 'Mortgage Approvals Dive As Market Cools'**

\* One student omitted this sentence.

*None of the students used إِنَّ in their translations of text (10) 'The Arab-Israeli Conflict'*

	Use of إِنَّ	Non-use of إِنَّ	Number of students who repeated إِنَّ	Serial numbers of students who used إِنَّ
First sentence	1	27	0	8
Second sentence	0	28		
Total	1	55		
Percentages	1.8%	98.2%		

**Table 59: Use of إِنَّ in Text (13) 'Record Immigration Sees UK Population Soar'**

	Use of ان	Non-use of ان	Number of students who repeated ان	Serial numbers of students who used ان
First sentence	6	22	4	11/4/2/16/12/8
Second sentence	0	28		
Third sentence	1	27		16
Fourth sentence	0	28		
Fifth sentence	4	*23		3/16/8
Sixth sentence	3	25		11/2
Total	14	153		
Percentages	8.4%	91.6%		

**Table 60: Use of ان in Text (16) 'Global Warming'**

\* One student omitted this sentence.

**2. Use of ان in argumentative texts:**

	Use of ان	Non-use of ان	Number of students who repeated ان	Serial numbers of students who used ان
First sentence	21	7	15	16/20/1/12/17/9/21/6/22/8/23/18/1 1/10/25/24/30/36/7/14
Second sentence	6	22		16/27/9/19/30/2
Third sentence	0	28		
Fourth sentence	0	*27		
Fifth sentence	15	13		16/29/1/17/9/21/6/22/8/23/25/24/2 /14
Sixth sentence	4	*23		16/12/24/2
Seventh sentence	1	27		5
Total	47	147		
Percentages	24.2%	75.8%		

**Table 61: Use of ان in Text (3) 'The Shocking Truth'**

One student omitted this sentence.

	Use of ان	Non-use of ان	Number of students who repeated ان	Serial numbers of students who used ان
First sentence	1	27	9	18
Second sentence	0	28		
Third sentence	3	25		16/7/28
Fourth sentence	9	19		25/23/21/9/17/20/27/16/14
Fifth sentence	5	*21		25/23/17/29/27
Sixth sentence	9	19		25/23/22/21/9/17/5/29/27
Seventh sentence	3	25		25/12/5
Eight sentence	0	28		
Ninth sentence	0	28		
Total	30	220		
Percentages	12. %	88%		

**Table 62: Use of ان in Text (6) 'Britain and Binge Drinking'**

One student(s) omitted this sentence.

	Use of اِن	Non-use of اِن	Number of students who repeated اِن	Serial numbers of students who used اِن
First sentence	0	28	4	
Second sentence	0	28		
Third sentence	4	24		22/9/16/7
Fourth sentence	3	*24		9/16/2
Fifth sentence	3	*24		27/30/26
Sixth sentence	1	27		8
Seventh sentence	1	27		
Eight sentence	7	21		9/16/11/4/3/2/28
Ninth sentence	2	*24		6/8
Tenth sentence	0	*25		
Total	21	252		
Percentages	7.7%	92.3%		

**Table 63: Use of اِن in Text (9) 'Property Markets'**

One student(s) omitted this sentence.

	Use of اِن	Non-use of اِن	Number of students who repeated اِن	Serial numbers of students who used اِن
First sentence	9	19	15	18/3/30/2/16/12/9/7/28
Second sentence	10	18		1/8/18/11/4/3/24/2/16/12
Third sentence	10	18		1/8/23/11/4/3/24/30/12/28
Fourth sentence	4	24		8/3/26/17
Fifth sentence	12	16		1/8/4/3/24/30/2/16/29/17/9/28
Sixth sentence	15	13		1/8/23/11/3/24/26/2/27/16/12/17/6/22/14
Total	60	108		
Percentages	35.71%	64.3%		

**Table 64: Use of اِن in Text (12) 'End the Punishment of the Palestinians'**

	Use of اِن	Non-use of اِن	Number of students who repeated اِن	Serial numbers of students who used اِن
First sentence	11	17	15	8/4/3/30/2/16/9/6/10/7/28
Second sentence	8	20		8/11/30/2/12/17/6/28
Third sentence	10	18		8/11/4/24/27/16/12/17/9/22
Fourth sentence	0	*27		
Fifth sentence	10	*17		8/23/18/30/2/16/12/19/6/10
Sixth sentence	11	*16		8/18/30/2/27/16/20/12/9/19/22
Total	50	115		
Percentages	30.3%	69.7%		

**Table 65: Use of اِن in Text (15) 'We Must Act Now to Cut Immigrant Numbers'**

One student omitted this sentence.

	Use of ان	Non-use of ان	Number of students who repeated ان	Serial numbers of students who used ان
First sentence	5	23	5	9/16/26/24/18
Second sentence	4	24		6/12/2/18
Third sentence	1	27		12
Fourth sentence	3	25		6/12/28
Fifth sentence	5	23		6/16/27/2/4
Total	18	122		
Percentages	12.9 %	87.1%		

**Table 66: Use of ان in Text (18) 'Kyoto Protocol: The Road Ahead'**

### 3. Use of emphatic ان in instructional texts:

None of the students used ان in their translations of Text Five.

	Use of ان	Non-use of ان	Number of students who repeated ان	Serial numbers of students who used ان
First sentence	1	27	0	12
Second sentence	0	28		
Third sentence	0	28		
Fourth sentence	0	28		
Fifth sentence	0	28		
Sixth sentence	0	28		
Seventh sentence	1	27		20
Total	2	194		
Percentages	1%	99%		

**Table 67: Use of ان in Text (8) 'How to Keep on Top of Your Cash'**

	Use of ان	Non-use of ان	Number of students who repeated ان	Serial numbers of students who used ان
First sentence	2	26	2	16/11
Second sentence	1	27		16
Third sentence	1	27		16
Fourth sentence	1	27		16
Fifth sentence	3	25		29/16/10
Sixth sentence	2	26		16/10
Total	10	158		
Percentages	6 %	94%		

**Table 68: Use of ان in Text (11) 'End this Punishment of the Palestinians'**

	Use of ان	Non-use of ان	Number of students who repeated ان	Serial numbers of students who used ان
First sentence	0	28	2	
Second sentence	2	26		5/27
Third sentence	0	28		
Fourth sentence	3	25		27/8/16
Fifth sentence	2	28		2/16
Total	7	135		
Percentages	4.9%	95.1%		

**Table 69: Use of ان in Text (14) 'Tougher Rules for Unskilled migrants'**

	Use of إِنَّ	Non-use of إِنَّ	Number of students who repeated إِنَّ	Serial numbers of students who used إِنَّ
First sentence	0	28	0	
Second sentence	2	26		8/9
Third sentence	0	28		
Fourth sentence	0	28		
Fifth sentence	0	28		
Total	2	138		
Percentages	1.4%	98.6%		

Table 70: Use of إِنَّ in Text: (2) 'What We're Doing about Gun Crime'

	Use of إِنَّ	Non-use of إِنَّ	Number of students who repeated إِنَّ	Serial numbers of students who used إِنَّ
First sentence	0	28	2	
Second sentence	3	25		16/2/12
Third sentence	4	24		2/10/14
Fourth sentence	2	26		16/2
Fifth sentence	3	25		16/2
Total	12	128		
Percentages	8.6%	91.4%		

Table 71: Use of emphatic إِنَّ in (Text: 17) 'Kyoto Protocol'

Text type	Number of sentences where إِنَّ is used	Number of sentences where إِنَّ is not used	No of translated sentences
Descriptive texts	27 (5.4%)	475 (94.6%)	502
Argumentative texts	226 (19%)	964 (81%)	1190
Instructional texts	33 (4.2)	753 (95.8%)	786
Total	286	2192	2478

Table 72: Total number and percentages of the use of the emphatic particle إِنَّ

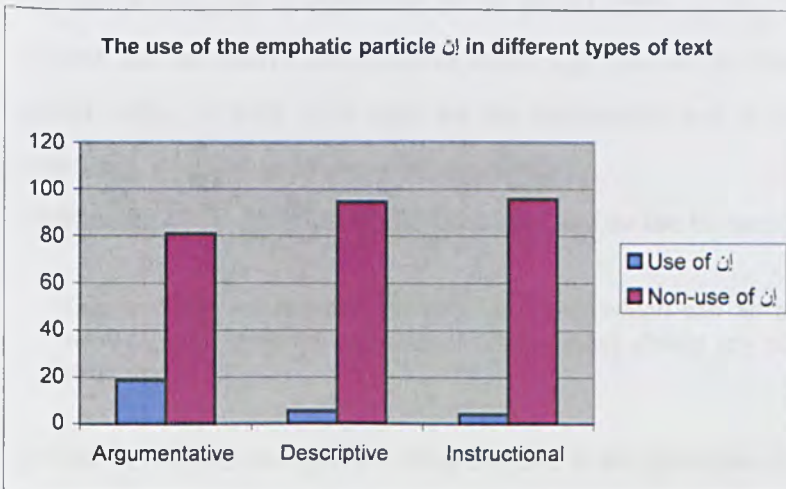


Table 73: Distribution of the emphatic particle إِنَّ in the three text types

The previous discussion on the use of the emphatic particle has shown that students used the emphatic particle إِنَّ in different textual positions. Some of them acceptably used إِنَّ to introduce the



main topic of a text; others however used it more frequently producing unnecessary emphatic sentences. The statistical analysis also shows that the frequency of *إن* varies considerably from one text type to another. The most frequent use of *إن* was recorded in argumentative texts. As indicated in Table 72 out of 1190 sentences students used *إن* in 226 (i.e. 19.4%). The lowest frequency was recorded in descriptive texts, where students used *إن* in 27 out of 502 sentences (i.e. 5.4%). This high percentage use of *إن* can be partly related to text type. As mentioned before, one of the main stylistic hallmarks of Arabic argumentative texts is the use of the emphatic particles: *إن/أن* (Abdul-Raof, 2001:127). These results coincide with the views of Hatim (1989), Abdul-Raof (2001), Dickins et al (2002), and Abbadi (2007) who assert that argumentative texts make use of the emphatic particle and other discourse markers. The results therefore should alert students to the different uses of the emphatic particle and to the consequences resulting if the emphatic particle is misused.

#### **6.5. Case ending (366 errors, 7.7%)**

Errors in case ending refer to those errors which violate TL grammatical rules. Most grammatical errors committed by translators are related to the inappropriate use of Arabic case endings which differ depending on the number and definiteness of nouns. They are three cases: nominative, accusative and genitive. The nominative case is indicated by -u (الضمة), the accusative case by -a (الفتحة) and the genitive case indicated by -i (الكسرة). In dual number the suffix *ان* is used for the nominative case, e.g. المدرسان 'the two teachers' and *ين* for both the accusative and genitive cases, e.g. المدرسين. In sound plural masculine nouns, the nominative case is expressed by the plural suffix *ون*, e.g. المدرسون 'male teachers' and *ين* in both the accusative and genitive cases, e.g. المدرسين. In sound plural feminine nouns, the plural suffix *ات* with -u is used for the nominative and -i for the accusative and genitive cases, e.g. المدرسات and المدرسات respectively.

El-Sheikh (1977: 303) has the following to say on the importance of case endings in Arabic:

Case endings are morpho-syntactic elements which can be manipulated in various ways to mark syntactic relations or to emphasise almost any constituent of the clause structure.

Unlike in Arabic, case plays a marginal role in the grammar of English. It can be established for some pronouns and in the genitive. English distinguishes between two cases of

pronouns: nominative and accusative. Nominative pronouns include 'I', 'we', 'he', 'she', 'they', and 'who', while accusative pronouns include 'me', 'us', 'him', 'her', 'them', and 'whom'.

The translations have shown that students encountered 366 (7.7%) case-related problems. For instance, three students translated "Israeli troops today killed two Palestinian Hamas gunmen in Gaza, wounding three others", Text Ten, as follows:

قتلت القوات الإسرائيلية اليوم فلسطينيين من مسلحي حماس في غزة ، وجرحت ثلاثة آخرين.  
قتلت القوات الإسرائيلية اليوم فلسطينيان مسلحين من حماس في غزة وأصابت ثلاثة آخرين.  
قتل الجيش الإسرائيلي اليوم مسلحان فلسطينيان من حركة حماس في غزة وجرح ثلاثة آخرون.

The above sentences break the rules of the Arabic case system. The translators have chosen the wrong case endings for the underlined elements, using the nominative dual suffix ان instead of the accusative ين , e.g. مسلحين/فلسطينيين , as in:

قتلت القوات الإسرائيلية اليوم فلسطينيين من حماس في غزة ، وجرحت ثلاثة آخرين.  
قتل الجيش الإسرائيلي اليوم مسلحين فلسطينيين من حركة حماس في غزة وجرح ثلاثة آخرون.

In the second sentence the adjective فلسطينيين agrees with the noun it modifies مسلحين in case. Both of them are in the accusative case.

In Text Seven two students translated "Analysts said the data showed the "troubled housing market" was now "cooling significantly" and called on the Bank of England to cut interest rates", as follows:

وأشار المحللين أن المعطيات تظهر " مشاكل في الأسواق " وأصبحت الآن " مهمة تدرجيا " وتناشد البنك في إنجلترا لمنع نسب التسوق.  
أوضح المحللين إلى أن المعلومات تظهر أن المشكلة في السوق المحلية هي الآن مشكلة الركود السائد ويقال في الضفة البريطانية بقطع معدلات الاهتمام.

Here, the underlined nouns function as the subjects of the two sentences and therefore they should be used in the nominative case. However, the translators used them in the wrong case. As mentioned before ان is a plural case ending used in the accusative and genitive cases. However, in the nominative case sound plural masculine nouns are indicated by the case ending ون , e.g. محللون 'analysts', as in:

وقال المحللون بأن البيانات تظهر أن "سوق الإسكان المضطربة" تمر الآن بفترة "فقور ملحوظ" ودعوا مصرف بريطانيا إلى أن خفض أسعار الفائدة.

In Text Fifteen some students translated “Indeed, low paid British workers will pay the price of immigration, as they find that their own wages are held down by competition from the new arrivals”, as follows:

ونتيجة لذلك فإن فائدة السكان البريطانيين الأصليين مبتذلة. إن الدفع المنخفض للعمال البريطانيين سوف يدفع باتجاه الهجرة.  
وفي الحقيقة فإن العمال البريطانيين سيتضررون بسبب تقاضى العمال المهاجرين لأجور قليلة قد حصلوا هم أيضاً عليها مما يشكل تنافس بين العمال البريطانيين والعمال المهاجرون على الأسعار.  
في الحقيقة، المستوى المنخفض للعمال البريطانيين سوف يرفع تكلفه الهجرة، كما هو أنهم وجدوا أجورهم الخاصة المعقودة بواسطة المنافسة مع الوافدين الجدد.

In the above translations the noun البريطانيين is the wrong case. Rather than the nominative, it should be in the accusative/ genitive case, as in:

وفي واقع الحال فإن العمال البريطانيين منخفضي الأجور سوف يسددون فاتورة هذه الهجرة حيث يجدون أن أجورهم تتدنى جراء المنافسة من القادمين الجدد.

In another example two students unacceptably translated “Britain has always had a reputation as nation of ‘Binge Drinkers’ ”, Text Six, as:

شهرت بريطانيا بأنها أمة (مفرطين الكحول).  
ومن المحتمل من 3-4 مليون من الشعب البريطاني يعتبرون من مدمنين الكحول لذلك هناك مشكلة كبيرة وستبقى مستمرة.

Here, the use of nunation in the first element of a noun construct مفرطين instead of مفرطي breaks the rule of annexation in Arabic. According to Abu-Chacra (2007: 63), “Whether the first noun (the annexed) refers to something definite or indefinite, it never takes the definite article... ال... or nunation”.

It should be noted that errors in case ending might involve hypercorrection, i.e. the use of specifically standard Arabic, even where these are wrong, e.g. المضاربون, in order to avoid forms which are found in colloquial Arabic, e.g. المضاربين. To avoid these basic grammatical errors students should be familiar with the basic case system of Arabic and the role case plays in assigning grammatical relations among the constituent parts of the clause or sentence.

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
6	Britain has always had a reputation as a nation of 'Binge Drinkers'.	لقد كان دائماً لبريطانيا السمعة في أنها دولة <u>شاربيو</u> الخمر في حفلات الشرب.	لقد كان دائماً لبريطانيا السمعة في أنها دولة <u>شاربي</u> الخمر في حفلات الشرب.
9	What happened is that speculators, who had driven up prices by buying, buying, buying, stopped buying.	ما حدث هو أن المضاربين رفعوا الأسعار بالشراء ثم الشراء ثم الشراء وإيقاف الشراء.	ما حدث هو أن المضاربين الذين رفعوا الأسعار عالياً عبر الشراء المستمر توقفوا عن الشراء.
11	We the undersigned call upon the British government	نحن <u>الموقعون</u> أدناه نطالب الحكومة البريطانية...	نحن <u>الموقعين</u> أدناه ندعو الحكومة البريطانية إلى:
16	In the past 150 years, global temperatures have risen approximately 1°C (1.8° F).	خلال المائة و <u>خمسون</u> سنة السابقة ارتفع معدل درجة الحرارة إلى 1 درجة سيلزية.	خلال المائة و <u>خمسين</u> سنة السابقة ارتفع معدل درجة الحرارة إلى 1 درجة سيلزية.

Table 74: Errors involving case ending

### 6.6. Referential ambiguity (363 errors, 7.6 %)

Referential ambiguity results from alternative interpretations of the groupment of the constituents within the sentence structure. Students' translations have revealed 363 (7.6%) examples of referential ambiguity. For example, a large number of students rendered "to end Britain's arms trade with Israel until it abides by international law", Text Eleven, as follows:

إنهاء التجارة البريطانية مع إسرائيل حتى تلتزم بالقانون الدولي .  
 أن تنهى بريطانيا تجارة الأسلحة مع إسرائيل حتى تخضع للقانون الدولي.  
 إنهاء تعامل بريطانيا مع إسرائيل حتى تلتزم بالقانون الدولي.

As can be seen in the students' translations, the ambiguity lies in the verb تلتزم which can refer either to 'Britain' or to 'Israel'. To make the meaning more explicit, a lexical item should be added, as can be seen in:

إنهاء تجارة الأسلحة البريطانية مع إسرائيل حتى تلتزم الأخيرة بالقانون الدولي.  
 وقف المساعدات العسكرية البريطانية لإسرائيل على أن تحتزم الأخيرة القانون الدولي.

Here, the addition of the lexical item الأخيرة has made it clear that Britain's resumption of arms to Israel should be conditional on Israel's abiding by international law as far as this context is concerned.

The professional translator also gave the following translation:

إنهاء التجارة البريطانية للأسلحة مع إسرائيل حتى تلتزم الأخيرة بمقررات القانون الدولي.

Other students acceptably translated the sentence repeating the noun إسرائيل, as in:

أن تقوم الأمم المتحدة بالضغط على إسرائيل للانسحاب من الأراضي الفلسطينية عام 1967 وأن تلزم بريطانيا إسرائيل للخضوع للقانون الدولي.

Unlike English Arabic uses lexical repetition to avoid ambiguity and maintain stylistic decorativeness.

Another example of referential ambiguity is students' translations of "The failure of our government to speak out against Israel's oppression of the Palestinian population is complicit with those actions of the EU, the US and Israel", Text Twelve, as follows:

فشل حكومتنا للحديث ضد العدوان الإسرائيلي على الشعب الفلسطيني لهو تواطؤ مع تصرفات الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل.  
وفشل حكومتنا في الظهور والحديث ضد قمع إسرائيل للسكان الفلسطينيين ما هو إلا تواطؤ واشتراك في الجريمة مع إجراءات الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل.

Here, the ambiguity lies in the lexical item حكومتنا. The word is ambiguous, and may refer to either the British or the Palestinian government. Being influenced by the current political situation and the widespread view amongst Palestinians that successive Palestinian governments have not been working in the interest of their people, two students offered the following erroneous translations:

الفشل الذي يرافق حكومتنا وبمنعها من التحدث على الملأ عن الظلم الإسرائيلي، هو أن بعض من أفراد الشعب الفلسطيني مشتركين في هذه الجرائم والأحداث، علاوة على مشاكل الاتحاد الأوروبي، وأمريكا وإسرائيل. وهذا ما فشلت الحكومة الفلسطينية في الوقت الحالي في الحصول عليه نتيجة للتواطؤ الأمريكي الإسرائيلي برعاية من الأمم المتحدة ضد الشعب الفلسطيني.

In the following translation the addition of the lexical item البريطانية has made it clear that it is the British government rather than the Palestinian government which has failed to speak out against Israel's oppression of the Palestinian population:

أن فشل الحكومة البريطانية في الوقوف ضد هذا العدوان الإسرائيلي يتمشي مع تصرفات الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة.

### 6.7. Gender and number agreement (290 errors, 6.1%)

Number and gender are two important categories that are realized differently in English and Arabic. English makes two number distinctions: singular, which designates one, and plural,

which designates more than one. Arabic, on the other hand, has a dual number in addition to singular and plural. The dual in Arabic denotes two, e.g. كتابان 'two books', and the plural three or more, e.g. كتب 'books'.

English has three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter. Animate nouns are classified as either masculine or feminine depending on the sex of the referent of the noun. Non-personal and inanimate nouns are in almost all cases neuter. However, inanimate nouns may occasionally also be referred to as masculine or feminine depending on the attitude of the speaker. English shows gender relationship between nouns and pronouns. According to El Sheikh (1977: 216), the only manifestation of grammatical gender in English is the pronominal system by which nouns designating human males are referred to by masculine pronouns: 'he', 'his', 'himself'; those designating human females by: 'she', 'her', 'hers', 'herself' and those designating non-humans (animals or inanimates) by 'it', 'its', 'itself'. Unlike in English, gender plays an important role in the grammar of Arabic. Arabic has a two-term gender system: masculine and feminine. Masculine is the unmarked category, while the feminine is usually marked by feminine markers as ة in معلمة 'a female teacher'. Gender in Arabic is grammatical. This entails that there is agreement (concord) in gender between nouns, pronouns, adjectives and verbs.

El-Sheikh (1977: 22) has the following to say on the importance of gender in Arabic:

Compared to English, gender plays an extremely important part in the grammar of Arabic. It combines with number to form intricate concord systems which might link together, or set apart the various elements of the larger linguistic units such as the phrase or the clause.

In English the verb agrees with the subject in number when the subject is third person singular and the verb is present tense. In Arabic the verb agrees with the subject in number, gender and person when the structure of the clause is subject-verb (- object). If the structure of the clause is verb-subject (- object), the verb agrees with the subject in gender and person.

The translations revealed that students produced 290 (6.1%) erroneous translations due to a lack of gender and/or number concord. Gender and number agreement will be discussed under the following two sub-headings:

### 6.7.1. Agreement in gender

These errors are characterized by the lack of gender agreement between the constituent parts of sentence. To illustrate this point, in Text Fifteen one student translated 'Already the glue of our society has been weakened' in "Already the glue of our society has been weakened under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures - some of whom have little intention of integrating with us", as follows:

مجتمعنا ضعفت تحت تأثير التنامي المتسارع لثقافات المجتمعات المتباينة ، بعض ممن يمتلكون انتباهاً قليلاً في الاندماج معنا.

The above example breaks the rule of agreement in Arabic. While the subject nominal phrase is masculine مجتمع, the verb is feminine; the verb ضعفت is marked for femininity/ت/. However, to achieve gender-concord between the two constituents of the clause, both the subject and the verb should be masculine, as in:

ضعف مجتمعنا تحت تأثير التنامي المتسارع لثقافات المجتمعات المتباينة ، بعض ممن يمتلكون انتباهاً قليلاً في الاندماج معنا.

In Text Twelve one student translated "in violation of the fourth Geneva convention which protects civilians under occupation", as:

حيث أن في ذلك انتهاك لنص وثيقة جنيف الرابع الذي يحمى المدنيين تحت الاحتلال.

To correct this erroneous translation the modifying adjective should agree in gender with the head noun as in:

حيث أن في ذلك انتهاك لنص وثيقة جنيف الرابعة التي تحمى المدنيين تحت الاحتلال.

The relative pronoun التي also agrees with its antecedent in gender and number.

Similarly, in Text Ten, three students translated "Israeli troops today killed two Palestinian Hamas gunmen in Gaza, wounding three others", as follows:

قتل الجيش الإسرائيلي اليوم مسلحين اثنين من حماس وأصاب 3 آخرين.

An acceptable rendering would be:

### 6.7.2. Agreement in number

Errors in agreement in number refer to the lack of agreement between the subject and the verb. For example, in Text Four students translated “A report from the Office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006”, as follows:

صدر بالأمس تقرير عن مكتب الإحصاء القومي يبين أن 8,758 شخص مات في الشرب المفرط للكحول في سنة 2006.  
يشير تقريراً صادراً عن مكتب الإحصائيات الوطنية بالأمس إلى أن 8,758 شخصاً توفي بسبب جرعة زائدة من الكحول من عام 2006.  
أظهر تقرير من مكتب الإحصائيات القومية والذي نشر بالأمس، أظهر أن 8,758 شخصاً توفي بسبب التناول المفرط للكحول في عام 2006.

The translations lack subject-verb agreement rules, i.e. while the nominal phrase operating as subject is plural, e.g. 8,758 شخص، the element operating as verb is singular, e.g. مات ‘die’. The correct translation requires that both the subject and the verb must agree in number, as in:

أشار تقرير صادر عن مكتب الإحصاءات الوطنية نشر أمس أن 8,758 شخصاً قد ماتوا بسبب الإسراف في شرب الخمر سنة 2006.

Errors in agreement in number also involve a lack of agreement between the numeral or numeral phrase and its head noun. According to El Sheikh (1977: 234), Arabic numerals exhibit gender polarity with the headword, i.e. if the headword is masculine, the numeral is feminine, and if it is feminine the numeral is masculine. However, the numerals ‘one’, ‘two’, ‘eleven’, and ‘twelve’ have gender agreement with the headword (ibid: 234). For example, two students translated “Seven years of plenty followed by seven years of famine”, Text Nine, as:

وللتذكّر مقوله يوسف سبعة سنوات من الوفرة يعقبها سبعة سنوات من المجاعة.  
وكما تذكر قول جوزيف : " سبعة سنين من الكثرة تتبعها سبعة سنين من الندرة ( المجاعة ).

The translations lack gender polarity. For example, in the first translation the numeral سبعة ‘seven’ and the headword سنوات ‘years’ are feminine. To show gender polarity between the



numeral and its headword, the numeral should be masculine whereas the headword should be feminine, as in:

ولنتذكر مقوله يوسف عليه السلام سبع سنوات من الوفرة يعقبها سبع سنوات من المجاعة.

As the previous discussion shows translating from English into Arabic requires that translators have to deal with a language where number and gender play an important role in the grammar. Consequently, translators should be aware of these two categories when rendering from English into Arabic or vice versa. The following table illustrates further examples of students' errors involving gender/ number agreement.

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
6	There are probably as many as 3 to 4 million people in the UK who could be classed as 'Active Alcoholics'.	فإن هناك 3-4 مليون شخص في المملكة المتحدة يصنفون على أنهم مدمني كحول.	إذ تشير التقديرات أن ما يربو على 5 ملايين بريطاني يسيئون استخدام الخمر بشكل منتظم.
4	But the biggest increase for both sexes was among people aged 35 to 54, a legacy of heavy drinking in their 20s and early 30s.	ولكن كانت الزيادة الكبيرة من كلا الجنسين بين الأشخاص الذين تتراوح أعمارهم بين 35-54	ولكن الزيادة الأكبر في كلا الجنسين كانت بين الأشخاص الذين تراوحت أعمارهم بين 35 - 54
5	Finally, there must be higher taxes on the most potent beers and mixers associated with binge drinking	أخيراً ويجب أن يكون هناك ضرائب مرتفعة على معظم الخمر الفعالة والخليط مربوطاً بالإفراط في الشرب.	أخيراً ويجب أن تكون هناك ضرائب مرتفعة على معظم الخمر الفعالة والخليط مربوطاً بالإفراط في الشرب.

Table 75: Errors involving gender/number agreement

### 6.8. Spelling errors (244 errors, 5.1%)

Spelling errors result from the breaking of the rules of the Arabic spelling system. Although some of these errors can be seen as slips, others are genuine errors reflecting students' lack of competence and knowledge of the mechanism of the spelling system of Arabic. The total number of spelling errors, 244 (5.1%), reflects students' incompetence in the basic orthographic rules of Arabic. For example, one student replaced the Arabic fricative ظ by the stop ض e.g. \*حضراً instead of حظراً for a 'ban'. Other spelling errors were made under the influence of the spelling system of the ST, particularly those relating to proper nouns. For example, one student unacceptably translated the proper noun 'Wales' in "During the past year the deliberate use of guns to take life has risen in England and Wales", Text One, as \*ويلز instead of ويلز.

Other examples of students' spelling errors involve the omission of the final *ا* in plural masculine verbs, e.g. *امتلكو\** instead of *امتلكوا* for 'have', *يحولو\** instead of *يحولوا* for 'turning up' and letter inversion, e.g. *ينشاد\** instead of *يناشد* for 'called on'. They also involve the omission of the final letter *ي* in *شكاو\** instead of *شكاوي* for 'complaints' in "Go back into history and there are complaints in Medieval Times", Text Six. These errors can be attributed to students' carelessness and lack of proof reading skills. The following table illustrates further examples of students' spelling errors with the correct version underlined:

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
14	Low-skilled worker	العاملين الغير كوفنين " الأقل مهارة "	العمال غير الأكفاء " الأقل مهارة "
14	Foreign nationals wanting	المواطنون الأجانب الساعون إلى الزواج	المواطنون الأجانب الساعون إلى الزواج
7	Analysts said the data	المعلومات الصادرة من المحليين الاقتصاديين	المعلومات الصادرة من المحليين الاقتصاديين
3	Two-thirds of people	لاكن حديثا أصبح 3/2 الشعب	لكن حديثا أصبح ثلثا الشعب
6	More...are turning up at	أعداد متزايدة... يحولو إلى أقسام	أعداد متزايدة... يحولوا إلى
14	Could face a language test	ليواجهون اختبار اللغة	ليواجهوا (التقدم) اختبار اللغة
8	Be careful with the credit card – if you're tempted to overdo it,	إذا كنت شديد الإسراف فحافظ على بطاقة الائتمان فلا تغالي في التبذير	إذا كنت شديد الإسراف فحافظ على بطاقة الائتمان فلا تغال في التبذير
15	The new migration surges imply that new homes will have to be built	فموجات الهجرة الجديدة تطلب بناء مباني جديدة لإيواء أكبر عدد من المهاجرين	فموجات الهجرة الجديدة تتطلب بناء مبان جديدة لإيواء أكبر عدد من المهاجرين

Table 76: Errors in Spelling

## 6.9. Articles (133 errors, 2.8 %)

As pre-determiners, articles qualify the head noun and usually precede adjectival modifiers (Quirk et al 1985: 253). There are three different articles in English: the definite article 'the', the indefinite article "a" or 'an', and the zero article 'Ø'. Quirk et al (ibid: 253) point out that 'the' is used with specific reference (reference to a particular specimen of a class) before place names (e.g. 'the Alps'), universal reference (e.g. 'the sun') and when something is mentioned for the second time (e.g. 'There is a tree in my garden. The tree is under my balcony'). It is also used with generic reference (reference to a class or member of class) before singular concrete nouns and plural human nouns (e.g. 'the Palestinians') when the reference is to the whole class of entities. It is also used with unique reference, (e.g. 'the Johnsons'). The indefinite article 'a' or 'an' is used with specific reference to introduce a discourse referent. The referent is generally known to the speaker but not to the hearer (e.g. 'A boy came to see you this morning'). It is also used with generic reference with a singular noun when the reference is to one member representing the whole class (e.g. 'A horse is a

useful animal'). The zero article is used with proper nouns, mass nouns, abstract nouns, non-count nouns, etc, such as 'water', 'sugar', 'milk', 'Cairo', etc. It is also used with plural countable nouns when they are used generically (e.g. 'children', 'lions', etc.).

In Arabic, there are two articles: the definite article ال, which is a prefix attached to the noun (e.g. السيارة 'the car'), and the zero article or indefinite article, which is marked by nunation التثنية (e.g. اشتريت بيتًا 'I bought a house').

The main difference between English and Arabic regarding the use of the definite article is that Arabic often uses the definite article broadly, whereas English does not. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989: 151-3) summarize the following as the main differences in the use of the definite article in the two languages:

1. Nouns used generically in Arabic, whether singulars or plurals, take ال such as الأسد حيوان مفترس (A/The lion is a wild animal) and الأسود حيوانات مفترسة (lit. 'The lions are wild animals').
2. When the mass noun refers to the whole kind, it takes ال as in الحليب (lit. 'the milk').
3. Some proper nouns take ال, such as القاهرة (lit. 'the Cairo').
4. Abstract nouns in Arabic take ال, but less frequently in English (e.g. الحرية lit. 'the freedom').
5. When two nouns are joined by 'and', ال is repeated even when these nouns represent one unit such as الزوج والزوجة (lit. 'the husband and the wife').
6. In the Arabic genitive construction or construct (إضافة), which corresponds to the 'of-construction' in English, the noun in the genitive case is the second element, not the first as is the case in English. If the second element is definite, it gives definiteness to the first element which therefore does not take the definite article, as in حديقة المنزل ('garden of the house').
7. In some idiomatic forms such as:  
أعمل بالليل والنهار. (lit. I work in the day and the night).  
ذهبت إلى عملي بالسيارة. (lit. I went to work by the car).  
سافرت بالسيارة وبالْحافلة. (lit. I traveled by the car and by the bus).

Due to the differences in the article system between English and Arabic, articles are expected to be problematic in English/Arabic-English translation. The translations have

shown that students fairly frequently translated the English indefinite in the source text as definite in the target text and vice versa without any good reason. Errors resulting in the wrong use of definite and indefinite articles were 133 (2.8%) in number. For example, some students rendered the zero article 'analysts' in "Analysts said the data showed the "troubled housing market" was now "cooling significantly" and called on the Bank of England to cut interest rates", Text Seven, as definite, as the following students' translations show:

قال المحللون أن البيانات عرضت " سوق شراء البيوت المضطرب كان يهدئ " بشكل ملحوظ " ويسمى في بنك إنجلترا المركزي لتخفيض أسعار الفائدة.  
وأشار المحللين أن المعطيات تظهر " مشاكل في الأسواق " وأصبحت الآن " مهمة تدريجياً " وتناشد البنك في إنجلترا لمنع نسب التسوق.  
وقال المحللون بأن البيانات أظهرت أن مشكلة " سوق شراء المساكن " أصبحت الآن " بركود كبير " وأصبح يقع على عاتق بنك إنجلترا أن تقوم بقطع ( تقليل ) نسبه / معدل الفائدة.

Other students however rendered the indefinite noun using the indefinite/ zero article, as in:

قال محللون بأن البيانات التي أظهرت سوق الإسكان والعقارات المضطرب بدأت تهدأ بصورة واضحة وتطلب من بنك إنجلترا إلغاء معدلات الفائدة.  
فقد قال محللون إن قاعدة البيانات أظهرت أن سوق الإسكان المضطرب كان يبرد بشكل ملحوظ ، وطالبوا بنك إنجلترا بقطع معدلات الفائدة.

In Text Four many students translated the definite noun 'the Office' in "a report from the Office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake, twice the number in 1991" as an indefinite, as in:

أظهر تقرير من مكتب إحصاء محلي نشر بالأمس أن 8,758 شخصاً ماتوا بسبب الإفراط في تناول الكحول في 2006 وهو ضعف الرقم الذي سجل في عام 1991 .  
نشر تقرير البارحة من مكتب إحصاءات عالمية وأظهر أن 8,758 من الناس يموتون بسبب الإدمان المفرط وقد تضاعفت عدد الوفيات إلى الضعف من عام 1991 إلى 2006 .  
في تقرير صادر عن مكتب تابع لمركز الإحصاء القومي المعلن عنه أمس يعرض أن حوالي 8,758 شخص يموتون جراء تناول كمية كثيرة من الكحول في 2006 عدد مرتين من عام 1991 .

Other students however have rendered the noun acceptably, as in:

أشارت الإحصاءات التي نشرها المركز القومي للإحصاءات أمس أن 8,758 من الأشخاص لقوا حتفهم في عام 2006 جراء التعاطي المتزايد للكحول وهو ضعف ما كان عليه العدد سنة 1991 .  
يبين تقرير صادر عن مكتب الإحصاء الوطني نشر بالأمس أن ما يقارب من 8,758 من الناس يموتون من جراء تناولهم كميات مفرطة من الكحول عام 2006.

As far as definiteness is concerned, the first element of the noun construct مكتب الإحصاء الوطني must always appear without the article ال. However, both the first and the second elements of the noun construct are definite if the second element has the definite article ال.

In Text One one student translated the generic reference in “Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths” without using the definite article ال, as required in the TT, e.g.

مخدرات ، مدنية، فساد ، عنصرية ورجال العصابات يعملون بخفيه والأدهى من ذلك هو غياب دور النماذج الايجابية لذلك فإن الكل يلام على هذا الازدياد الطارئ والمفاجئ في سلاح الموت.

This type of error was not recurrent or systematic among the subjects of this study. One explanation behind this individual occurrence is the tendency among students towards literal translation and their total commitment to the ST forms regardless of TT conventions. In Arabic, as mentioned before, nouns used generically, whether singulars or plurals, take the definite article ال. An acceptable translation of the previous sentence would be:

وقد عزى التقرير هذا الارتفاع الملحوظ مؤخرا في حوادث القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات وإنحلال مجتمع المدينة والعنصرية وعصابات الراب -الموسيقى الصاخبة - وغياب نماذج السلوك المثالي.

In Text Eleven one student rendered the definite reference ‘Britain's arms trade’ in “to end Britain's arms trade with Israel until it abides by international law” as indefinite, as in:

إنهاء صفقة تجارة أسلحة مع بريطانيا وضرورة الالتزام بالقانون الدولي.

As can be seen in the student’s translation, the genitive phrase ‘Britain’s arms trade’ has been rendered as an indefinite reference. To render it acceptably, the definite article ال should be added to the second element of the noun construct, as in:

أن تنتهي بريطانيا تجارة الأسلحة مع إسرائيل حتى تلتزم الأخيرة بالقانون الدولي.

In Text Twelve one student translated ‘the withholding of Palestinian taxes by Israel’ in “The suspension of aid by the EU and the US, the withholding of Palestinian taxes by Israel, and Israel’s illegal blockade are crimes against the Palestinian people”, as:

ونرجو بإدخال المساعدات الأوروبية والأمريكية وعدم وضع ضرائب الإسرائيلية والإغلاقات الإسرائيلية الغير شرعية.

Unlike in English, adjectives in Arabic agree with the head noun in gender, case, number and definiteness. Therefore, the adjective الإسرائيلية should agree with the head word الضرائب in definiteness, as the following translation by the researcher shows:

إن تعليق الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة للمساعدات ، و قيام إسرائيل بحجز الضرائب الفلسطينية بالإضافة إلى حصارها الملاحري هي جرائم ترتكب بحق الشعب الفلسطيني.

In Text Fourteen a considerable number of students kept the indefinite 'a Briton' in "Second, foreign nationals wanting to marry a Briton could also face a language test to prove their ability to integrate", giving the following erroneous translations:

ثانياً: الأجانب الذين يريدون أن يتزوجوا من بريطانية من الممكن أن يخضعوا لامتحان في اللغة لمعرفة قدرة الزوجين على الاندماج.  
ثانياً: المواطنين الأجانب الذين يريدون التزوج من بريطانية يجب أن يواجهوا اختبار لغة لإثبات قدرتهم للتعايش.  
ثانياً : الأجانب الذين يرغبون بتزويج بريطانية الأصل لابد من إخضاعهم إلى اختبار في اللغة البريطانية ليبرهنوا قدرتهم على التوحد والتكيف مع البيئة البريطانية.

In this context it is not acceptable to render the indefinite noun as an indefinite singular noun in the target text e.g. شخص بريطاني, بريطانية. Such erroneous translations are made under the influence of colloquial Arabic and students' unfamiliarity with the norms and conventions of Standard Arabic. To avoid such erroneous translations, the indefinite singular noun should be replaced by an indefinite plural noun, as in:

ثانياً: سيخضع الأشخاص من جنسيات أخرى الراغبون في الزواج من بريطانيات إلى امتحان لغة لإثبات قدرتهم على الارتباط.

According to Abbadi (2007: 162), "In practice translators are allowed to replace the singular with plural depending on context, as Arabic prefers plural to indicate the importance of ideas".

Another possible translation could be to keep the source language form singular and make other necessary changes in the target text, such as:

ثانياً: ينبغي على الشخص الراغب في الزواج من بريطانية أن يجتاز اختباراً في اللغة لمعرفة قدرته على الاندماج في المجتمع.

Another problem encountered by the subjects of this study is the addition of the definite article ال before غير. To illustrate this point, one student unacceptably added the definite

article ال with غير in his translation of 'illegal firearm' in "Firstly, we should introduce a minimum five-year sentence for people convicted of possessing an illegal firearm", Text Two, as in:

أولاً: يجب أن يحكم على الأناص الذين يحملون الأسلحة النارية الغير شرعية بخمس سنوات على الأقل.

Similarly, one student added the definite article ال before غير in his translation of 'young people' in "It is also true that more and more young people are turning up at Accident and Emergency units as a result of heavy boozing, or the related violence and accidents", Text Six, as follows:

وإنه لحقيقة عظيمة أن معظم الرجال الغير البالغين يقعون في حوادث وظروف طارئة نتيجة الإكثار من الشرب أو علاقة بالعنف والحوادث.

As the above translations show the definite article ال is incorrectly used before غير. In Arabic the quasi-noun غير does not take ال, e.g. one should say غير الشرعية / غير شرعية instead of غير الشرعية, 'illegal', غير البالغين / غير بالغين instead of \*الغير البالغين\* 'teenagers'.

The previous discussion shows that there are differences in the article systems of English and Arabic. Arab students and translators should take these differences into account when translating from English into Arabic and vice versa.

#### 6.10. Tenses (129 errors, 2.7 %)

English has a complex verb system (e.g. go, went, is going, have been going, may have been going), whereas Arabic has a relatively simple verb system consisting of الماضي the perfect (شرب 'he drank') and المضارع the imperfect (يشرب 'he drinks/he is drinking'). The perfect is used most basically for actions completed at the time to which reference is made, while the imperfect is used basically for actions which are not completed. While in Arabic there are different forms to express continuous tenses, the past perfect or the future, these forms do not have the precision that English tenses convey, nor are they as common as their corresponding English forms.

The general analysis revealed that the total number of errors as a result of the wrong use of tense was 129 (2.7%). In the following section on tenses, the researcher will focus on students' translations of the English tenses that are included in the source texts. These

include: the present perfect tense, the present tense of the verb 'to be', the verb 'to have', the present simple tense, the present progressive tense, the past simple tense, the past perfect tense, the past progressive tense and the future simple tense.

### 6.10.1. Translation of the present perfect tense

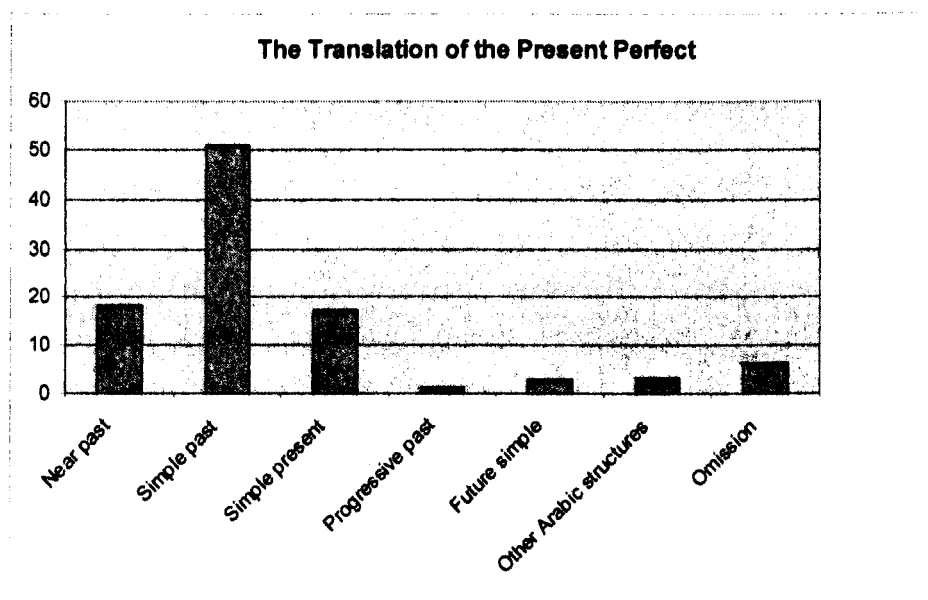
According to Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), the English present perfect is the most difficult tense for Arab students to learn, since there is no equivalent form in Arabic. The following analysis of the English present perfect tense is based on Gadallah's (2006) model. The sentences including the present perfect are listed below:

- "During the past year the deliberate use of guns to take life *has risen* in England and Wales" (Text: 1).
- "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models *have all been blamed* for the recent spate of gun deaths..." (Text:1).
- "Britain *has* always *had* a reputation as a nation of 'Binge Drinkers' " (Text: 6).
- "Secondly, the Bank of England interest rate *has risen* 9 times since 2003 and 5 times since August 2006" (Text: 9).
- "The worldwide credit fiasco *has resulted* in the global credit crunch" (Text: 9).
- "They are creating a humanitarian catastrophe in Gaza and the West Bank and *have emboldened* Israel to sustain an unrelenting bomb and missile barrage" (Text: 12).
- "The ONS *has predicted* that the UK population will increase by five million to 65 million people within a decade" (Text: 13).
- "Already the glue of our society *has been weakened* under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures" (Text: 15).
- "The government *has pointed* to globalization as the cause, claiming that immigration may add £6 billion to production" (Text: 15).
- "In the past 150 years, global temperatures *have risen* approximately 1<sup>0</sup>C (1.8<sup>0</sup> F)" (Text: 16).
- "As a result of the Protocol, governments *have* already *put*, and are continuing to put legislation and policies in place to meet their commitments" (Text: 18).
- "A carbon market *has been created*" (Text: 18).



T	ST	Near past with لقد	Simple past	Simple present	Progressive Past	Future simple	Other Arabic structures	Omission
1	has risen	7	13	1	1	0	3	3
1	have... blamed	1	9	14	0	0	0	4
6	has always had	2	13	5	2	0	0	6
9	has risen	4	20	1	0	0	3	0
9	has resulted	0	21	3	0	0	1	3
12	have emboldened	1	6	19	0	0	0	2
13	has predicted	4	14	9	0	0	1	0
15	has.. weakened	12	8	2	0	4	1	1
15	has pointed	10	17	0	0	0	0	1
16	have risen	3	24	0	1	0	0	0
18	have.. put	7	13	4	0	4	0	0
18	has... created	10	13	0	0	2	2	1
	Total	61	171	58	4	10	11	21
	Percentage	18.16%	50.89%	17.26%	1.19%	2.98 %	3.27%	6.25%

**Table 77: The Translation of the Present Perfect**



**Table 78: Distribution of the present perfect tense**

As illustrated in Table 77, 50.89% of students' translations of the present perfect are rendered in the simple past, formed by the bare perfect form, e.g. ازداد 'has increased'. The second Arabic structure utilized to translate the English present perfect is the near past (18.16%), formed by لقد 'already' followed by the perfect form of the verb. The third

Arabic structure used to translate the English present perfect is the simple present tense (17.26%). It is sometimes acceptable to translate the English present perfect tense using the Arabic present simple tense, formed by the bare imperfect form. For example, two students translated the present perfect in “Britain has always had a reputation as a nation of ‘Binge Drinkers’ ”, Text Six, using the present simple, as shown below:

تعرف بريطانيا دائماً كشعب مشهور بشاربي الكحول.  
تشتهر بريطانيا بين الشعوب بأفرادها المفرطين بالشرب.  
تتميز بريطانيا بشهرتها كأمة شاربي الكحول بافراط.

However, in other contexts it is not acceptable to use the present simple tense to translate the present perfect. For instance, one student translated ‘has been created’ in “A carbon market has been created”, Text Eighteen, as follows:

الكربون يصنع والعديد من الأعمال تستثمر للمناخ في المستقبل.

In the same text another student unacceptably used the Arabic present simple to translate the English present perfect in “As a result of the Protocol, governments have already put, and are continuing to put legislation and policies in place to meet their commitments”, as follows:

كنتيجة للمعاهدة تضع الحكومات ولا زالت قوانين وسياسات لتحقيق النقاط فيها.

Similarly, one student translated ‘has been weakened’ in “Already the glue of our society has been weakened under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures”, Text Fifteen, as follows:

أن تماسك مجتمعنا تخضع تحت تأثير المجتمعات المتزايدة في الثقافات المختلفة.

A number of English present perfect examples (3.27%) are rendered into Arabic using other Arabic structures, e.g. nominal or equative sentences. For instance, three students translated the present perfect in “Secondly, the Bank of England interest rate has risen 9 times since 2003 and 5 times since August 2006”, Text Nine, as follows:

ثانياً: ارتفاع معدلات الشراء في البنوك البريطانية من 9 مرات في عام 2003 و 5 مرات خلال أغسطس 2006.  
ثانياً: ارتفاع الفوائد في البنوك البريطانية 9 مرات عام 2003 و 5 مرات أغسطس 2006.

ثانيا : ارتفاع معدل الفائدة في بنك إنجلترا إلى 9 أضعاف منذ العام 2003 و5 أضعاف منذ أغسطس من عام 2006.

In their translations of the present perfect tense in “Britain has always had a reputation as a nation of ‘Binge Drinkers’ ”, Text Six, some students used verbless nominal Arabic sentences, as in:

بريطانيا لها سمعة بين الأمم بالمبالغة في الكحول.  
بريطانيا لها دائما سمعة بأنها أمة " المدمنين المفرطين".  
دوماً لبريطانيا سمعة على أنها أمة المفرطين في الشرب.

A number of English present perfect examples are rendered into Arabic using the future simple, consisting of سوف or سوف with the imperfect (2.98%). For example, four students used the future simple to translate the present perfect in “Already the glue of our society has been weakened under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures - some of whom have little intention of integrating with us”, Text Fifteen, as سوف يضعف, سيضعف, as follows:

وبالطبع، سيضعف تماسك مجتمعنا بسبب تأثير النمو السريع للمجتمعات ذات الثقافات المتباينة حيث أن بعضها لديها النية للاندماج في المجتمع البريطاني.  
وفي الحال سيضعف تماسك مجتمعنا تحت تأثير النمو السريع للجماعات متنوعة الثقافات والتي بعضها لا تعبر انتباهاً للاندماج معنا.  
والاستعداد للمجهم في مجتمعنا سيضعف المجتمعات بسرعة كبيرة وذلك باختلاف الثقافات، والقليل منهم عندهم النية للاندماج معنا.  
الاتصاق في مجتمعنا سوف يُضعف تحت التأثير نمو المجتمعات السريع في الثقافات المتنوعة.

As can be seen in the above translations the future simple falls short of conveying the intended meaning of the source text. In the source text the present perfect indicates that the glue of British society has already been weakened due to immigration surges. Therefore, the future simple, which is used to express future activities, is not appropriate to render the present perfect in this context.

A small number of English present perfect structures are rendered by the progressive past tense (1.19%), formed by كان plus the imperfect. For example, two students translated the present perfect in “Britain has always had a reputation as a nation of ‘Binge Drinkers’ ”, Text Six, as:

كانت دائماً بريطانيا تعرف بصيت وطن المسرفين في الشرب.  
إن بريطانيا دائماً كانت تملك الشهرة عامة في شرب الكحول بشكل مفرط.

A careful examination of the source text shows that the basic meaning of the present perfect is to express a past action that is connected, through its results, with the moment of speaking. The past progressive, however, is used to express an action that was continuous at a particular point in the past. Therefore, it is not appropriate to use the past progressive to convey the meaning of the present perfect. One way of rendering the meaning of the present perfect tense here is to use the simple present, as in:

تشتهر بريطانيا بأفرادها المدمنين على شرب الكحول.

In Text Twelve nineteen students translated the present perfect in “They are creating a humanitarian catastrophe in Gaza and the West Bank and have emboldened Israel to sustain an unrelenting bomb and missile barrage, which regularly kills innocent children and other non-combatants”, using the simple present tense , as in:

أنهم يخلقون كارثة إنسانية في غزة والضفة الغربية ويشجعون إسرائيل لإبقاء وابل القنابل والقذائف القاسي، الذي هو غالبا ما يقتل الأطفال الأبرياء والمواطنون غير المقاتلين.  
أنهم يخلقون كارثة إنسانية في قطاع غزة والضفة الغربية ويشجعون إسرائيل على مواصلة قتل المدنيين الفلسطينيين الأبرياء.

The translators’ choice of the present simple as an equivalent of the English present perfect tense is to show the support that Israel is still receiving from the USA and EU which is used by Israel against the Palestinian people living in the occupied territories.

Furthermore, some students used أصبح preceded by the particle قد in their translation of the present perfect in “Already the glue of our society has been weakened under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures”, Text Fifteen, as in:

لقد أصبح تماسك المجتمع ضعيفا بسبب تأثير سرعة تنامي الجاليات من مختلف الثقافات - بعضهم لديه القليل من النوايا للاندماج معنا.  
حاليا لمعان مجتمعنا قد أصبح ضعيفا بسبب نمو المجتمعات بسرعة مع ثقافة ضحلة. بعضهم لا يعرفون حتى التواصل معنا.

Here, the use of أصبح gives a sense of bringing the situation closer to the present. One possible reason for using أصبح is to try to relay the associations the English present perfect has with the present.

### 6.10.2. Translation of the present tense 'to be'

The present tense 'to be' in the following sentences will be included in the discussion below (examples of passive are listed twice, once here and once under 'passive' cf. passive, section 6.13).

- "Fourthly, we should prohibit certain air weapons that *are* easily converted to fire live ammunition" (Text: 2).
- "It *is* an all too familiar paradox" (Text: 3).
- "It *is* not credible to argue that the police figures do not reflect the reality of the situation" (Text: 3).
- "All crime *is* down 32 per cent over the past decade" (Text: 3).
- "There *are* complaints in Medieval Times about our love of quaffing vast quantities of Ale" (Text: 6).
- "The problem we have today *is* the cheapness of alcohol" (Text: 6).
- "It *is* possibly true that as a society, we are storing up massive health problems in the community" (Text: 6).
- "It *is* estimated that as many as 5 million Britons abuse alcohol on a regular basis" (Text: 6).
- "It *is* also true that more and more young people are turning up at Accident and Emergency Units" (Text: 6).
- "There *are* probably as many as 3 to 4 million people in the UK who could be classed as 'Active Alcoholics' (Text: 6).
- "So there *is* a major problem now and it will continue" (Text: 6).
- "What *is* to be done about it, that is the '64 Thousand Dollar Question!' (Text: 6).
- "If you *'re* tempted to overdo it, leave the card at home" (Text: 8).
- "There *are* some good offers as banks compete for your cash" (Text: 8).
- "What happened *is* that speculators, who had driven up prices by buying, buying, buying, stopped buying" (Text: 9).
- "The worldwide credit fiasco has resulted in the global credit crunch, the result of which *is* that borrowers can't get the loans they obtained just 6 months ago" (Text: 9).
- "The amount of debt in our society *is* literally astronomical" (Text: 9).
- "The Israeli government's behaviour at present *is* to be condemned" (Text: 12).

- “The failure of our government to speak out against Israel’s oppression of the Palestinian population *is* complicit with those actions of the EU, the US and Israel” (Text: 12).
- “It *is*, in effect, a coordinated attempt to collectively punish the Palestinian people for electing a government of which they disapprove” (Text: 12).
- “The suspension of aid by the EU and the US, the withholding of Palestinian taxes by Israel, and Israel’s illegal blockade *are* crimes against the Palestinian people” (Text: 12).
- “That *is* twice the population of greater London” (Text: 13).
- “As a result, the benefit to the native British population *is* trivial” (Text: 15).
- “Indeed, low paid British workers will pay the price of immigration, as they find that their own wages *are* held down by competition from the new arrivals” (Text: 15).
- “Global warming *is* one of the biggest problems facing humankind in the next few decades” (Text: 16).
- “The Kyoto Protocol *is* generally seen as an important first step towards a truly global emissions reduction regime” (Text: 18).
- “...the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) tells us *are* needed” (Text: 18).

T	ST	Use of هو	Use of the pronoun •	Omission	Use of يكون/تكون	Use of تكمن/تتمثل	Use of يوجد/توجد
2	Are easily...	0	1	27	0	0	0
3	It is...	3	18	3	0	0	0
3	It is not..	0	12	16	0	0	0
3	All crime...is	0	0	27	1	0	0
6	There are	0	0	1	0	0	16
6	The ...is	19	0	2	0	7	0
6	It is possibly	0	13	15	0	0	0
6	It is ...	0	5	23	0	0	0
6	It is also true	0	11	16	0	0	0
6	There are...	0	2	8	0	0	4
6	There is...	0	3	3	0	0	5
6	What is to be	0	0	28	0	0	0
6	That is...	0	3	20	0	0	0
8	If you're...	0	0	18	0	0	0
8	There are...	0	0	3	0	0	3
9	What.. is...	17	1	9	0	0	0
9	The ... is	4	0	22	1	0	0
9	The ...is	5	0	17	0	0	0
12	The... ..is	0	0	26	0	0	0
12	The ... is	8	0	13	0	0	0
12	It is ...	8	12	8	0	0	0
12	The... are	6	0	12	0	0	0
13	That is...	9	1	7	0	1	0
15	The benefit is	1	0	17	5	0	0
15	Their ...are	0	0	25	2	0	0
16	Global ...is	3	0	12	1	0	0
18	The...is	2	0	13	0	0	0
18	The ... are	0	0	28	0	0	0
	Total	85	82	419	10	8	28
	Percentages	10.9%	10.5%	53.4%	1.3%	1%	3.6%

**Table 79: Translation of the present tense verb 'to be':**

(continued)

T	ST	Use of أصبحت	Use of هناك	Use of يعتبر/يعد	Use of the past of كان	Other Semantically light verbs
2	are...easily	0	0	0	0	0
3	It is...	0	4	0	0	0
3	It is not	0	0	0	0	0
3	All crime...is	0	0	0	0	0
6	There are	0	11	0	0	0
6	The...is	0	0	0	0	0
6	It is possibly	0	0	0	0	0
6	It is...	0	0	0	0	0
6	It is also true	0	1	0	0	0
6	There are...	0	14	0	0	0
6	There is...	0	15	2	0	0
6	What is	0	0	0	0	0
6	That is...	0	3	2	0	0
8	If you're...	0	0	0	10	0
8	There are...	0	22	0	0	0
9	What is...	0	0	0	1	0
9	The ...is	0	0	1	0	0
9	The ...is	1	0	4	0	1
12	The ...is	1	0	1	0	0
12	The ... is	0	0	7	0	0
12	It is ...	0	0	0	0	0
12	The ...are	0	0	10	0	0
13	*That is	1	0	7	0	2
15	The benefit is	0	0	5	0	0
15	Their ...are	1	0	0	0	0
16	Global ...is	0	0	11	0	1
18	The ...is	0	0	12	0	1
18	The ... are	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	4	70	62	11	5
	Percentages	0.5%	8.9%	7.9%	1.4%	0.6%

Table 80: The translation of the present tense 'verb to be'

The Translation of the Present Tense Verb to 'be'

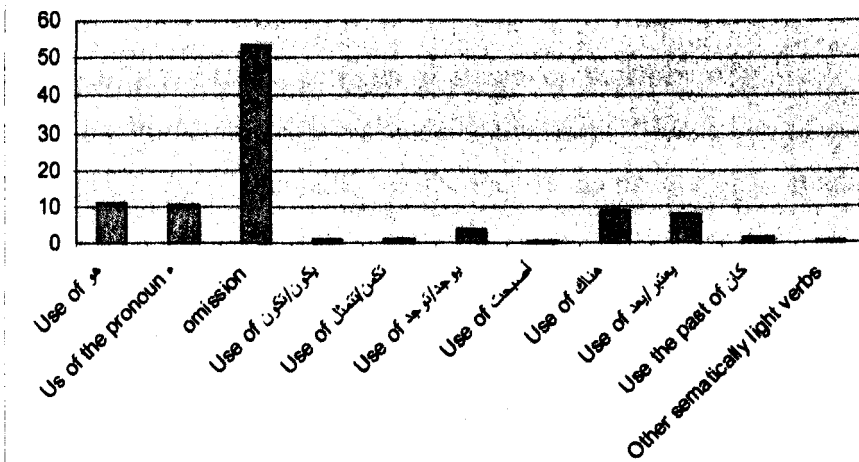


Table 81: Distribution of the translation of the present tense 'verb to be'



As Table 79 and 80 show students used different techniques to translate the present tense of 'to be'. Translation by omission ranked highest at 53.4%. This high percentage is attributed to the fact that Arabic has no specific equivalent of the English copula 'to be'. By omitting the English copula students used Arabic equational or verbless sentences, i.e. predicand-predicate (مبتدأ-خبر) structures. For example, some students translated "The benefit to the native British population is trivial", Text Fifteen, as:

الفائدة لسكان بريطانيا الأصليين ضئيلة.  
فائدة سكان بريطانيا الأصليين تافهة.

Similarly, some students used a predicand-predicate structure in their translation of "The amount of debt in our society is literally astronomical", Text Nine, as follows:

أن معدل الديون في مجتمعنا كبير جداً.  
كمية الديون في مجتمعنا ضخمة بشكل هائل.

Other students used a complex predicand-predicate (مبتدأ-خبر) structure involving a pronoun of separation. For example, some students translated "That is the '64 Thousand Dollar Question!", (Text: 6), as follows:

هذا هو سؤال الـ 64 ألف دولار!  
هذا هو السؤال الأربع وستون ألف دولار.  
تلك هي مسألة الـ 64 ألف دولار.

In the first sentence the predicand (المبتدأ) is هذا. The predicate (الخبر) is complex consisting of هو سؤال الـ 64 ألف دولار!, which itself consists of a second predicand-predicate (مبتدأ-خبر) structure with a predicand هو and a predicate! سؤال الـ 64 ألف دولار!

Other students added a pronoun of separation together with ما...إلا or ل to give a sense of emphasis. For example, some students translated "The failure of our government to speak out against Israel's oppression of the Palestinian population is complicit with those actions of the EU, the US and Israel", Text Twelve, as follows:

فشل حكومتنا للحديث ضد العدوان الإسرائيلي على الشعب الفلسطيني لهو تواطؤ مع تصرفات الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل.  
وفشل حكومتنا في الظهور روالحديث ضد قمع إسرائيل للسكان الفلسطينيين ما هو إلا تواطؤ واشتراك في الجريمة مع إجراءات الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل.

A considerable number of examples representing the present tense 'to be' were translated by semantically light verbs, e.g. يوجد, يعتبر, يُعدّ / يكون, تكمن, or تتمثل. These verbs, which do not appear to be grammatically or semantically necessary, are mainly used for stylistic reasons (Dickins and Watson, 1999:19). For example, some students used the semantically light verb يوجد to translate the verb 'to be' in "There are probably as many as 3 to 4 million people in the UK who could be classed as 'Active Alcoholics' ", Text Six, as in:

ويوجد حوالي من 3-4 مليون بريطاني يمكن تصنيفهم مداومي على الشرب.  
ويوجد حوالي من 3 إلى 4 ملايين بريطاني تم تصنيفهم على أنهم من المداومين على شرب الكحول.  
يوجد كثير من الأشخاص يقدروا بـ 3-4 مليون شخص في بريطانيا وهم الذين يصنفوا بشاربين فاعلين للكحول.

In the same way some students used the semantically light verb يعتبر or يعد to render the verb 'to be' in "The suspension of aid by the EU and the US, the withholding of Palestinian taxes by Israel, and Israel's illegal blockade are crimes against the Palestinian people", as in:

إن وقف المساعدات من قبل الاتحاد الأوروبي وإغلاق المعابر من قبل إسرائيل والحصار الاقتصادي الغير قانوني يعد بمثابة جريمة ترتكب بحق الشعب الفلسطيني.  
الإيقاف المؤقت للمساعدات بواسطة الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة، وحجب إسرائيل لضرائب الفلسطينيين، وكذلك الحصار الإسرائيلي الغير قانوني تعتبر جرائم بحق الشعب الفلسطيني.  
وقف المساعدات من قبل الاتحاد الأوروبي وأمريكا، واحتجاز رسوم الضرائب الفلسطينية من قبل إسرائيل، وحصار إسرائيل الغير شرعي كل ذلك تعتبر جرائم ضد الشعب الفلسطيني.

A few examples of the present tense verb 'to be' (1.4%) were rendered by the use of the past form of the verb كان. For example, some students translated the English verb 'to be' in "Third, be careful with the credit card - if you're tempted to overdo it, leave the card at home", Text Eight, using كنت as in:

ثالثاً : كن حذراً مع بطاقة الأتمان وإذا كنت مولعاً باستخدامها بكثرة، اتركها بالبيت.  
ثالثاً : ابقى حذراً في استخدام الكريديت كارد إذا كنت مسرفاً في استعمالها اتركها في البيت.  
ثالثاً / كن حذراً مع بطاقة الائتمان فإذا كنت مفرى باستخدامها بشكل دائم، اترك البطاقة في المنزل.

As can be seen in the translations students used the past of كان in the subordinate conditional clause, while the imperative (اترك) is used in the main clause. Arabic, unlike English, uses a variety of tenses in the subordinate clause in conditional sentences regardless of the tense in the main clause.

Other semantically light verbs used in the translation of the present tense of the verb 'to be' include بلغ, يشكل, يعادل. For example, three students translated "With 520 new immigrants arriving every day, the ONS has predicted that the UK population will increase by five

million to 65 million people within a decade, and that by mid century England's population will increase by nearly 16 million - that is twice the population of Greater London", Text Thirteen, as follows:

بوصول 520 مهاجر جديدا يوميا إلى بريطانيا ، يتوقع المكتب العالمي للإحصائيات أن عدد سكان المملكة المتحدة سوف يزيد من 5 مليون إلى 65 مليون شخص في العقد الواحد ، وأنه بمنتهى هذا القرن، سكان إنجلترا سوف يرتفعون إلى ما يقارب 16 مليون- ما يعادل ضعف عدد سكان مدينة لندن.  
فمع وصول نحو 520 مهاجر جديد يوميا توقع مكتب الإحصاء القومي أن تزداد كثافة بريطانيا السكانية من 5 إلى 65 مليون شخص خلال عقد من الزمن. وبذلك ستكون كثافة بريطانيا السكانية مع حلول منتصف القرن الحالي إلى 16 مليون شخص، بما يعادل ضعف معدل الكثافة السكانية للندن.  
ونظرا لوفود 520 مهاجر يوميا إلى البلاد تتوقع الدائرة زيادة تعداد السكان البريطاني ليصل لـ 65 مليون شخص في العقد القادم أي أنه في منتصف هذا القرن سيزداد التعداد السكاني لبريطانيا ليبلغ 16 مليون شخص وهو ما يعادل ضعف تعداد سكان مدينة لندن.

Some students translated the English verb 'to be' using إن + ف plus the attached pronoun • followed by the semantically light words يوجد and هناك respectively. For example, they translated "So there is a major problem now and it will continue", as:

ولذلك فإنه يوجد مشكلة رئيسية وستستمر.  
لذلك فإنه هناك مشكلة رئيسية وأنها سوف تستمر.  
لذلك فإنه هناك مشكلة رئيسية وأنها سوف تستمر.

It would be more appropriate to use one element to translate the English verb to 'be', as shown below:

ولذلك توجد مشكلة رئيسية وستستمر.  
لذلك هناك مشكلة رئيسية وأنها سوف تستمر.

The previous discussion shows that students used different techniques to translate the present tense of the verb 'to be'. Most of the students omitted the present tense of the verb 'to be' as Arabic lacks a corresponding overt copula. In addition, a number of students used semantically light verbs such as يوجد, يكون, يعتبر, etc. It is useful for students to be given instruction in the way English and Arabic tenses work. Students should also be familiar with the fact that Arabic prefers sentences which begin with a verb (verbal sentences) to sentences which do not begin with a verb. However, nominal sentences are used in Arabic to emphasize the topic sentence.

### 6.10.3. Translation of the verb 'to have'

The sentences which include the verb 'to have' are listed below:

- "The problem we *have* today is the cheapness of alcohol" (Text: 6).
- "As a society we *have* little savings to see us through" (Text: 9).
- "Finally, a new points-based system for economic migrants will be introduced in the spring, only allowing them to come to this country if they *have* sufficient skills and qualifications" (Text: 14).
- "Already the glue of our society has been weakened under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures-some of whom *have* little intention of integrating with us" (Text: 15).

T	ST	Use of ل/نور	Use of ل /لدى	Omission	Use of بملك	Use of يوجد	Other semantically light verbs
6	.. have	0	4	2	0	0	22
9	have...	0	17	2	5	1	3
14	If...have	6	8	0	3	0	11
15	...have	1	15	5	2	0	5
	Total	7	44	9	10	1	41
	Percentages	6.3%	39.3%	8%	8.9%	0.9%	36.6%

Table 82: The Translation of the English verb 'to have'

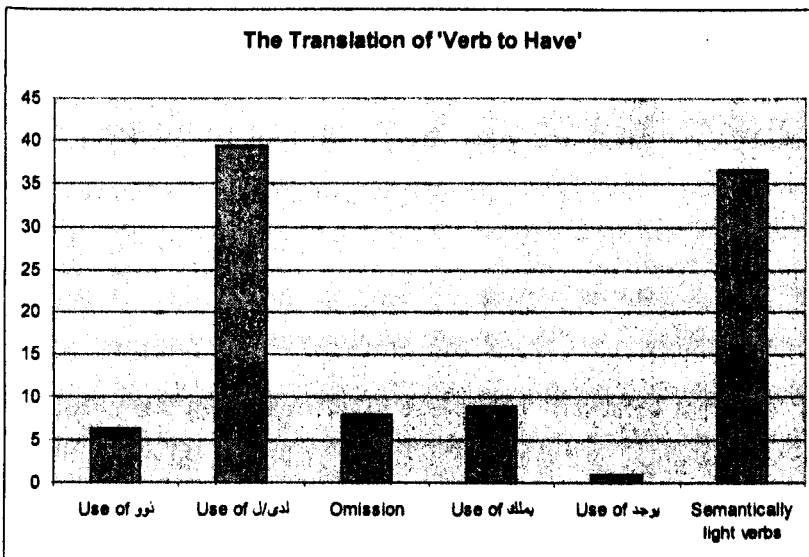


Table 83: Distribution of the translation of the English verb 'to have'

A large number of the English verb 'to have' examples (39.3%) are rendered using possessive particles such as لدى 'on, with'. For example, some students translated "As a society we have little savings to see us through", Text: 9, as follows:

ونحن كمجتمع لدينا قليل من المدخرات لأن نمضي بها.  
كمجتمع لدينا القليل من المدخرات التي نتطلع لها.

A number of the English verb 'to have' examples (36.6%) are rendered by semantically light verbs such as تتمثل 'to be represented' and تكمن 'lies'. For example, some students acceptably translated the verb 'to have' in "The problem we have today is the cheapness of alcohol", Text Six, as in:

تتمثل المشكلة اليوم في رخص الكحول.  
تكمن المشكلة اليوم في رخص أسعار الكحول.

A smaller number of English verb 'to have' examples (8.9%) are rendered using the verb يملك 'to own'. For example, some students translated the verb 'to have' in "As a society we have little savings to see us through", Text Nine, as follows:

فإننا نملك القليل من المدخرات كمجتمع حتى نقيم أنفسنا.  
كمجتمع نمتلك مدخرات قليلة نتطلع من خلالها.

These translations are acceptable as far as these contexts are concerned. However, some students gave unacceptable translations. For example, two students rendered the verb 'to have' as the modal verb يجب 'must'. They translated "As a society we have little savings to see us through", Text Nine, as follows:

كميه ... في مجتمعنا كمجتمع يجب أن يحافظ ولو بالقليل على ....  
ونحن كمجتمع يجب علينا الادخار لرؤية من خلال.

Similarly, one student partially acceptably translated the verb 'have' in "The problem we have today is the cheapness of alcohol", Text Six, using a non-corresponding lexical verb as follows:

المشكلة التي تناولها هذه الأيام هي رخص الكحول / الخمر.

Some students (8%) ignored the translation of the verb 'to have', giving Arabic equational or verbless sentences. For instance, two students translated the verb 'to have' in "The problem we have today is the cheapness of alcohol", Text: 6, as follows:

المشكلة الآن هي رخص الكحول.  
والمشكلة في هذه الأيام برخصه المشرب الكحولي.

A few examples of the verb 'to have' (6.3%) are rendered using the possessive particles ل 'to' ذو 'possessor of...'. For example, some students translated the verb 'to have' in "Finally, a new points-based system for economic migrants will be introduced in the spring, only allowing them to come to this country if they have sufficient skills and qualifications", Text Fourteen, as follows:

أخيراً: سيقدم نظام اقتصادي جديد للمهاجرين، خلال الربيع بحيث لا يسمح إلا لذوي الكفاءات و القدرات لدخول هذه البلاد.  
رابعاً وأخيراً: في الربيع سوف يتم تقديم نظام اقتصادي جديد للمهاجرين الاقتصاديين فقط السماح لهم للمجيء إلى هذه البلاد إن كانوا ذوي مهارات متكافئة ومؤهلات علمية.

The same sentence was partially acceptably translated as لهم, as in:

أخيراً: هناك نظام وقواعد للنازحين الاقتصاديين في الربيع للسماح لهم للإتيان لهذه البلاد إذا كان لهم مهارات كفاءة ومؤهلات علمية.

The use of لهم in this context sounds rather informal. One possible translation is to use an alternative prepositional form such as لديهم or the noun-like annexed (the first element in a construct) ذوو.

#### 6.10.4. Translation of the simple present tense

The sentences which include the simple present are listed below:

- "The crime figures *show* the risk of falling victim to an offence is going down" (Text: 3).
- "But the public fear of crime *remains* as high as ever" (Text: 3).
- "Statistics released yesterday *show* that recorded crime in England and Wales fell by 9 percent from July to September last year" (Text: 3).
- "But nearly two-thirds of people *believe* crime is increasing" (Text: 3).
- "It is not credible to argue that the police figures *do not reflect* the reality of the situation" (Text: 3).

- “The authoritative British Crime Survey of offending levels *shows* the same trend” (Text: 3).
- “A report from the Office for National statistics published yesterday *shows* that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991” (Text: 4).
- “This also *involves* reducing sales to under-18s by bars, off-licences and retailers” (Text: 5).
- “It is estimated that as many as 5 million Britons *abuse* alcohol on a regular basis” (Text: 6).
- “The number of mortgages approved for homebuyers sank to a record low during October, according to figures released by the British Bankers’ Association that *provide* further evidence of a slowdown in the property market” (Text: 7).
- “This *represents* a fall of 37 per cent year on year and was the third drop in consecutive months” (Text: 7).
- “Finally, if you *think* you are heading for difficult financial times, go and talk to your bank sooner rather than later” (Text: 8).
- “And those who *do get* an offer of a loan, *get* it at higher rates than before” (Text: 9).
- “Thirdly, the Council of Mortgage Lenders *forecasts* 45,000 home repossessions next year” (Text: 9).
- “To end Britain’s arms trade with Israel until it *abides* by international law” (Text: 11).
- “It is, in effect, a coordinated attempt to collectively punish the Palestinian people for electing a government of which they *disapprove*” (Text: 12).
- “They are creating a humanitarian catastrophe in Gaza and the West Bank and have emboldened Israel to sustain an unrelenting bomb and missile barrage, which regularly *kills* innocent children and other non-combatants in violation of the fourth Geneva convention which *protects* civilians under occupation” (Text: 12).
- “The new migration surges *imply* that new homes will have to be built to house the extra migrants” (Text: 15).
- “The government has pointed to globalization as the cause, claiming that immigration may add £6 billion to production, but it *adds* a similar proportion to our population” (Text: 15).
- “Indeed, low paid British workers will pay the price of immigration, as they *find* that their own wages are held down by competition from the new arrivals” (Text: 15).
- “If temperatures *continue* to rise, the consequences could be catastrophic” (Text: 16).

-“As the earth’s temperature *rises*, polar ice will melt, causing the water level of the oceans to rise” (Text: 16).

-“The protocol *provides* the essential architecture for any new international agreement or set of agreements on climate change” (Text: 18).

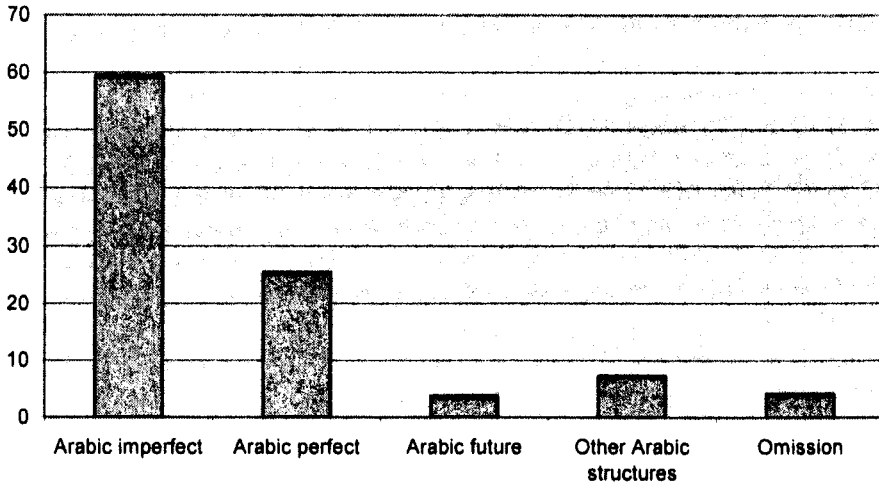
-“The first commitments period of the Kyoto protocol *expires* in 2012” (Text: 18).

T	ST	Arabic imperfect	Arabic perfect	Arabic future simple	Use of other Arabic structures	Omission
3	The ... show	19	6	0	0	3
3	The ...remains	21	5	0	1	1
3	Statistics ... show	8	18	0	0	2
3	Nearly ... believe	25	0	0	2	1
3	The ...do not	27	0	0	1	0
3	The ABCS shows	12	14	0	0	2
4	A report... shows	12	16	0	0	0
5	This...involves	28	0	0	0	0
6	As... abuse alcohol	19	4	0	3	2
7	The BBA provide	13	10	0	2	3
7	This represents ...	26	1	0	1	0
8	If you think ...	11	17	0	0	0
9	Who do get...	16	10	0	1	1
9	The... forecasts	14	14	0	0	0
11	Until it abides	23	0	0	4	1
12	They disapprove	19	0	0	8	1
12	Which ...kills...	21	0	0	7	0
12	Geneva.. protect	22	3	0	2	1
15	Migration...imply	23	1	2	1	1
15	It adds a similar...	12	7	5	1	3
15	As they find that...	7	8	7	1	5
16	If...continue	0	26	0	1	1
16	Temperature rises	3	10	2	13	0
18	Provides...	17	8	2	1	0
18	Expires	18	0	8	1	1
	Total	416	178	26	51	29
	Percentages	59.43%	25.43%	3.71%	7.29%	4.14%

Table 84: The translation of the present simple



### The Translation of the Present Simple



**Table 85: Distribution of the translation of the present simple**

As illustrated in Table 84 above, 59.43% of students used the Arabic imperfect to translate the English present simple tense, 25.43% used the Arabic perfect, 7.29% used other Arabic structures, 4.14% used omission and 3.71% used the future simple.

It is generally acceptable to use the Arabic imperfect as an equivalent of the English present simple tense. For example, some students used the imperfect to translate the present simple in “The crime figures show the risk of falling victim to an offence is going down”, Text Three, as in:

تدل الأرقام المتعلقة بالجرائم أن خطر الوقوع كضحية للجريمة يتناقص.  
إن أعداد الجرائم يشير إلى أن خطر سقوط ضحايا في الجرائم بدأ بالنزول.  
حيث تظهر المؤشرات أن جنحة ارتكاب الجرائم ضد الضحايا قد انخفضت.

However, some students unacceptably used the Arabic perfect to translate the English present simple. For example, some students used the Arabic perfect to render the present simple in “It is estimated that as many as 5 million Britons abuse alcohol on a regular basis”, as in:

حيث قدر أن حوالي 5 ملايين بريطاني تناولوا الكحول بصورة منتظمة.  
ومن المعروف أيضا أن السكان الأصليين لبريطانيا أساءوا استخدام الكحول وأفرطوا في ذلك.  
تقدر بكثرة الخمسة ملايين بريطاني أساءوا استعمال الكحول على قواعد سليمة.

A number of examples representing the English present simple are rendered by other Arabic structures. For instance, one student used a verbal noun to acceptably render the present simple in “to end Britain’s arms trade with Israel until it abides by international law”, Text Eleven, as follows:

أن انتهى بريطانيا تجارة الأسلحة مع إسرائيل لحين التزامها بالقانون الدولي.

Another student acceptably used a prepositional phrase, e.g. على يقين to translate the present simple in “But nearly two-thirds of people believe crime is increasing”, Text Three, as in:

ولكن ثلثان من الناس تقريبا على يقين على أن الجريمة في تزايد مستمر.

In some contexts, the Arabic perfect may translate the English present simple. For example, eighteen students acceptably translated the English present simple in “Statistics released yesterday show that recorded crime in England and Wales fell by 9 per cent from July to September last year”, Text Three, as in:

أشارت الإحصائيات الصادرة البارحة إلى أن الجرائم المسجلة في كل من إنجلترا وويلز انخفضت بمعدل 9% ما بين شهري يونيو وسبتمبر السنة الماضية مقارنة بنفس المدة في عام 2006. فقد أظهرت إحصائيات ظهرت بالأمس أن معدل الجريمة في إنجلترا وويلز انخفض بمعدل 9% من يوليو وحتى سبتمبر في العام الماضي، مقارنة بالفترة نفسها في عام 2006.

Other students however acceptably translated the present simple using the Arabic imperfect, e.g.

قتل الإحصائيات التي نشرت بالأمس على انخفاض الجريمة المسجلة في إنجلترا وويلز بمعدل 9% من شهر يوليو وحتى سبتمبر العام الفائت مقارنة بنفس الفترة لعام 2006. وتشير الإحصائيات التي صدرت بالأمس إلى أن الجرائم المسجلة في إنجلترا وويلز انخفضت بمعدل 9% بالمائة من شهر يوليو حتى شهر سبتمبر في العام الماضي مقارنة بنفس الفترة من العام 2006.

Some examples of the present simple have been rendered by the Arabic perfect when the English present tense is used in conditional clauses. For example, seventeen students acceptably used the Arabic perfect to translate the simple present in “Finally, if you think you are heading for difficult financial times, go and talk to your bank sooner rather than later”, Text Eight, as follows:

وأخيرا إذا اعتقدت بأنك تواجه أوضاعا مادية عصبية فما عليك سوى التوجه لمصرفك وأخبره بهذا الصدد. وأخيرا إذا اعتقدت أنك تتعرض لأوقات مالية عصبية ثم أذهب وتحدث للبنك مباشرة.

Other students acceptably used the past of كان followed by the Arabic imperfect, e.g.

وأخيراً: إذا كنت تعتقد أنك مقبل علي أوقات اقتصادية صعبة اذهب الآن وتحدث مع البنك فوراً.  
وأخيراً: إذا كنت تعتقد أنك بصدد مواجهة مشكلة مالية توجه فوراً إلى البنك.

A number of examples involving English statements of fact are straightforwardly translated into corresponding Arabic statements of fact. For example, the majority of students acceptably translated the English present simple in “They are creating a humanitarian catastrophe in Gaza and the West Bank and have emboldened Israel to sustain an unrelenting bomb and missile barrage, which regularly kills innocent children and other non-combatants in violation of the fourth Geneva convention which protects civilians under occupation’, Text Twelve, as in:

أنهم يخلقون كارثة إنسانية في غزة والضفة الغربية ويشجعون إسرائيل لإبقاء وإبل القنابل والقذائف القاسي، الذي هو غالباً ما يقتل الأطفال الأبرياء والمواطنون غير المقاتلين وهذا يعتبر خرق لاتفاقية جنيف الرابعة التي تنص على حماية المواطنين تحت الاحتلال.  
إن هذه الجرائم تخلق معاناة إنسانية في غزة والضفة الغربية، وتشجع إسرائيل في الوقت ذاته على مواصلة قصفها الوحشي بوابل من الصواريخ والقنابل على الفلسطينيين مما يؤدي إلى قتل أطفال أبرياء وآخرين غير مقاتلين في انتهاك جلي للمادة الرابعة من معاهدة جنيف التي تنص على حماية المدنيين المحتلين.

However, three students partially acceptably used the Arabic perfect to render the English present simple expressing statements of fact, as in:

أنهم يصنعون/ يرتكبون جريمة في حق الإنسانية في غزة والضفة الغربية كما أنهم شجعوا إسرائيل على الاستمرار في قذائفها التي لا ترحم وفي قصفها المدفعي الصاروخي المتواصل الذي يقتل عادة الأطفال الأبرياء والأشخاص العزل من السلاح وهذا كله خرق لاتفاقية جنيف الرابعة التي تعهدت بحماية الأطفال الذين تحت الاحتلال.

حيث تسببت تلك الدول الظالمة بحدوث كارثة إنسانية في قطاع غزة والضفة الغربية وذلك بتشجيع إسرائيل علي ارتكاب المزيد من الجرائم ضد الفلسطينيين باستخدام الصواريخ والقصف المتواصل بالقنابل ومما تسبب بمقتل المئات من الأطفال الأبرياء والمدنيين والتي نصت اتفاقية جنيف الرابعة علي حمايتهم أثناء الحرب في بلادهم المحتلة.

A small number of examples (3.71%) of the English present simple are translated into Arabic by the simple future, formed by the particle سوف or س plus the imperfect form of the verb. For example, some students acceptably rendered the present simple in “The government has pointed to globalization as the cause, claiming that immigration may add £6 billion to production, but it adds a similar proportion to our population’, Text Fifteen, as in:

واعترفت الحكومة العولمة السبب الرئيسي لهذه المشكلة زاعمة أن الهجرة ستزيد الإنتاج بمعدل ستة بلايين إلا أنها ستضيف القدر نفسه لتعدادنا السكاني.

وقد أشارت الحكومة إلى العولمة باعتبارها السبب في ذلك مبينة أن الهجرة قد تضيف 6 مليار إلى الإنتاج ولكنها في الوقت نفسه سوف تضيف نفس النسبة لعدد السكان.  
الحكومة أرجعت السبب إلى العولمة مدعية بأن الهجرة ستزيد 6 ملايين جنيه إسترليني للإنتاج الوطني ولكنها ستضيف نفس النسبة للسكان للأصليين.

In the same way, some students used the simple future to render the present simple tense in “The first commitments period of the Kyoto protocol expires in 2012”, Text Eighteen, as in:

وستنتهي فترة الاتفاق الأول من بروتوكول كيوتو في العام 2012.  
سينتهي مفعول التوصية الأولى للبروتوكول في سنة 2012.  
لذا سينتهي العمل بالبند الأول من معاهدة في العام 2012.

It is acceptable to translate the English simple present as the simple future in Arabic when the English present simple expresses a planned action that will take place in the future.

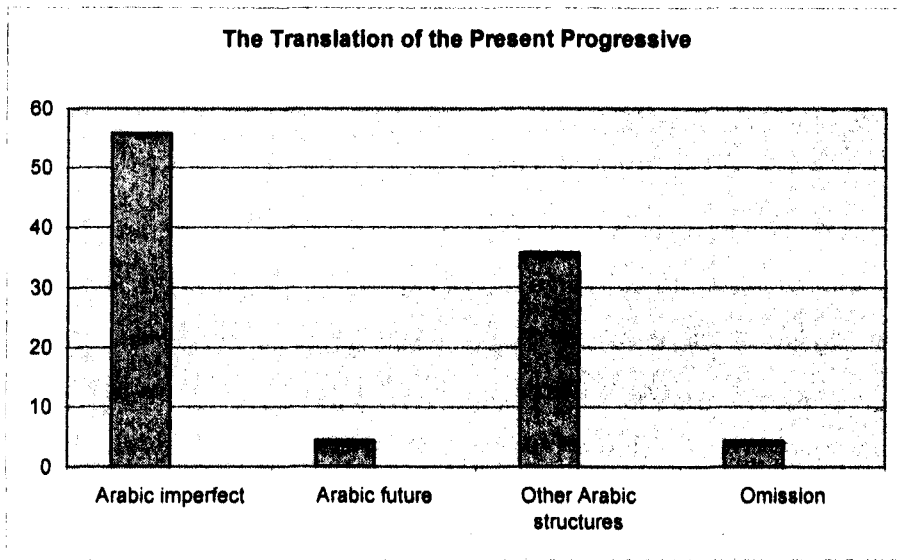
#### 6.10.5. Translation of the present progressive tense

The sentences which include the present progressive tense are listed below:

- “The crime figures show the risk of falling victim to an offence *is going down*” (Text: 3).
- “But nearly two-thirds of people believe crime *is increasing*” (Text: 3).
- “It is possibly true that as a society, we *are storing up* massive health problems in the community” (Text: 6).
- “It is also true that more and more young people *are turning up* at Accident and Emergency units as a result of heavy boozing, or the related violence and accidents” (Text: 6).
- “Finally, if you think you *are heading* for difficult financial times, go and talk to your bank sooner rather than later” (Text: 8).
- “Having lectured the people of the Middle East about democracy for decades, Europe and the US *are seeking* to trample upon the democratic rights of the Palestinian people” (Text: 12).
- “They *are creating* a humanitarian catastrophe in Gaza and the West Bank” (Text: 12).
- “Britain *is currently experiencing* its biggest influx of immigrants in history, according to the Office for National Statistics” (Text: 13).
- “As a result of the Protocol, governments have already put, and *are continuing* to put legislation and policies in place to meet their commitments” (Text: 18).
- “And more and more businesses *are making* the investment decisions needed for a climate-friendly future” (Text: 18).

T	ST	Arabic imperfect	Arabic future simple	Other Arabic structures	Omission
3	Is going	5	0	20	3
3	Is increasing	3	0	24	1
6	Storing up...	21	0	7	0
6	Are turning up	21	0	7	0
8	Are heading	10	7	11	0
12	Are seeking	22	0	4	2
12	Are creating	24	0	4	0
13	Experiencing	25	0	3	0
18	Are continuing	12	4	7	5
18	Are making	13	1	13	1
	Total	156	12	100	12
	Percentages	55.71%	4.29%	35.71%	4.29%

**Table 86: Translation of the present progressive tense**



**Table 87: Distribution of the translation of the present progressive**

As illustrated in Table 86, 55.71% of students used the Arabic imperfect to translate the English present progressive tense, 4.29 % used Arabic future simple, 4.29% used omission and 35.71% used other Arabic structures.

A large number of examples representing the English present progressive are translated into Arabic by the imperfect. For example, some students translated the English present progressive in "But nearly two-thirds of people believe crime is increasing", Text Three, using the imperfect as in:

ولكن ما يقارب ثلثي الناس يعتقدون أن معدل الجريمة يزداد.  
ويعتبر ثلثي الشعب البريطاني أن معدل الجريمة يزداد.  
ولكن ما يقارب ثلثي الناس يعتقدون أن الجريمة تتزايد.

Some students used adverbial markers together with the imperfect to translate the English present progressive. For instance, two students used the time adverbial marker الآن together with the imperfect to translate the present progressive in “Having lectured the people of the Middle East about democracy for decades, Europe and the US are seeking to trample upon the democratic rights of the Palestinian people”, Text Twelve, as follows:

إن أوروبا والولايات المتحدة تسعى الآن للدوس على الحقوق الديمقراطية للشعب الفلسطيني بعد أن كانت تلقن مجتمع الشرق الأوسط حول الديمقراطية منذ عقود .  
وأوروبا والولايات المتحدة اللتان حاضرتا الناس في الشرق الأوسط عن الديمقراطية لمدة عقود من الزمان تحاولان الآن أن تدوسا على الحقوق الديمقراطية.

Other students used the nominalized form of the verb. For example, the present progressive in “But nearly two-thirds of people believe crime is increasing”, Text Three, is rendered as:

ولكن يعتقد قرابة ثلثي السكان ( الناس ) أن الجريمة ما زالت في إزدياد.  
ولكن ثلثي الناس تقريباً يؤمنون بأن الجريمة في تصاعد.

A number of examples of the present progressive are rendered using the present active participle اسم الفاعل, a form which is derived from the dynamic verb in question and considered to be an equivalent to the present progressive in English. For example, some students used the present active participle to translate the present progressive in “Finally, if you think you are heading for difficult financial times, go and talk to your bank sooner rather than later”, Text Eight, as in:

أخيراً، إذا اعتقدت أنك مقبل على كارثة مالية عسيرة اذهب وتحدث مع البنك بشأنها في الوقت الحالي أفضل من وقت مقبل.  
أخيراً إذا كنت تعتقد أنك متوجه إلى ظروف مادية صعبة، توجه وتكلم لمصرفك قريباً أفضل من لاحقاً.  
أخيراً: إذا اعتقدت أنك متجهاً نحو أوقات مالية صعبة اذهب وتحدث مع بنك عاجلاً لا أجلاً.

A small number of examples of the English present progressive are translated into verbless predicand and predicate structures. For example, two students acceptably translated the present progressive in “As a result of the Protocol, governments have already put, and are continuing to put legislation and policies in place to meet their commitments”, Text Eighteen, as follows:

وكنيجة للبروتوكول لقد قامت الحكومات بوضع، وهي مستمرة في وضع سياسات تشريع في مكانها لتناسب التزاماتهم.  
ونتيجة لهذا البروتوكول قامت الحكومة بوضع الآن وهي مستمرة بسن القوانين ونشر الشرطة لتنفيذ التزاماتها.

A number of examples of the present progressive are translated into Arabic by the present form of the Arabic verb يقوم or تعمل على 'to perform' plus the nominalized form of the verb in the sentence in question. For example, some students translated the present progressive in "and more and more businesses are making the investment decisions needed for a climate-friendly future", Text Eighteen, using these structures, as in:

فإن هنالك العديد من المشاريع التجارية التي تقوم باتخاذ قرارات استثمارية لبناء مستقبل صديق للمناخ. والعديد من الاقتصاديين يقومون بصناعة القرارات الاستثمارية اللازمة لمستقبل مناخي منفتح. والعديد العديد من الأعمال تعمل على اتخاذ قرارات استثمارية مطلوبة للمستقبل المناخي.

A number of examples of the present progressive used to express futurity are translated into the simple future in Arabic. For example, seven students translated the present progressive in "Finally, if you think you are heading for difficult financial times, go and talk to your bank sooner rather than later", Text Eight, as in:

أخيراً إذا اعتقدت أنك ستواجه مشكلة في أوقات مالية صعبة توجه إلى البنك حالا وتحدث إلى المسؤولين. أخيراً إذا فكرت أو أحسست بأنك ستتعرض لضائقة مالية في وقت ما، اذهب وتحدث مع البنك الذي تتعامل معه في الوقت القريب فضلا عن البعيد. وأخيراً، إذا كنت تعتقد أنك سوف تقع في ضائقة مالية، فما عليك سوى التوجه والتحدث مع بنكك بالقرب العاجل.

In Text Three some students unacceptably used the Arabic perfect to translate the present progressive. Their translations of the present progressive in "The crime figures show the risk of falling victim to an offence is going down" are as follows:

حيث تظهر المؤشرات أن جنحه ارتكاب الجرائم ضد الضحايا قد انخفضت.  
أوضحت الأشكال المتعددة لجرائم أن نسبة وقوع ضحايا قد قلت.  
فقد عرض مؤشر الجريمة أن خطر أن تكون ضحية لجريمة مروعة انخفض.

Another example in the same text where two students unacceptably used the Arabic perfect to translate the present progressive occurs in the translation of "But nearly two-thirds of people believe crime is increasing", as follows:

وبينما هناك حوالي 32% من الناس يعتقد أن الجريمة قد ازدادت.  
ولكن تقريبا كل اثنين من ثلاثة من الناس يعتقدون أن الجريمة زادت.

However, the nominalized form of the verb was acceptably used by the professional translator, as in:

#### 6.10.6. Translation of the past simple tense

The sentences which include the past simple tense are listed below:

- “According to the Home Office, there *were* 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-07 compared with 49 in the previous year-an increase of 18 %” (Text: 1).
- “Statistics released yesterday show that recorded crime in England and Wales *fell* by 9 per cent from July to September last year, compared to the same period in 2006” (Text: 3).
- “A report from the Office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people *died* from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991” (Text: 4).
- “Death rates rose in all age groups but the biggest increase for both sexes was among people aged 35 to 54, a legacy of heavy drinking in their 20s and early 30s” (Text: 4).
- “Death rates for women in this age group doubled from 7.2 to 14.8 per 100,000, a larger increase than for women in any other age group” (Text: 4).
- “It is possibly true that as a society, we are storing up massive health problems in the community, as *happened* in the 18th Century” (Text: 6).
- “The number of mortgages approved for homebuyers *sank* to a record low during October” (Text: 7).
- “The BBA said the number of customers granted home loans *slumped* by almost a fifth from 54, 000 in September to just over 44,100” (Text: 7).
- “This represents a fall of 37 per cent year on year and *was* the third drop in consecutive months” (Text: 7).
- “Analysts said the data *showed* the "troubled housing market" was now "cooling significantly" and called on the Bank of England to cut interest rates” (Text: 7).
- “Firstly, what *happened* is that speculators, who had driven up prices by buying, buying, buying, stopped buying” (Text: 9).
- “Thus, prices *dropped* as demand fell away” (Text: 9).
- “The worldwide credit fiasco has resulted in the global credit crunch, the result of which is that borrowers can't get the loans they *obtained* 6 months ago” (Text: 9).
- “Remember Joseph: Seven years of plenty *followed* by seven years of famine” (Text: 9).



-“Israeli troops today *killed* two Palestinian Hamas gunmen in Gaza, wounding three others” (Text: 10).

-“The killings *came* after Palestinian militants yesterday *fired* a Katyusha rocket at the northern part of the Israeli town of Ashkelon - the longest reach yet by a Palestinian rocket” (Text: 10).

- “Israel *hit* back with air strikes and ground operations in which nine people, including three civilians, *were killed*” (Text: 10).

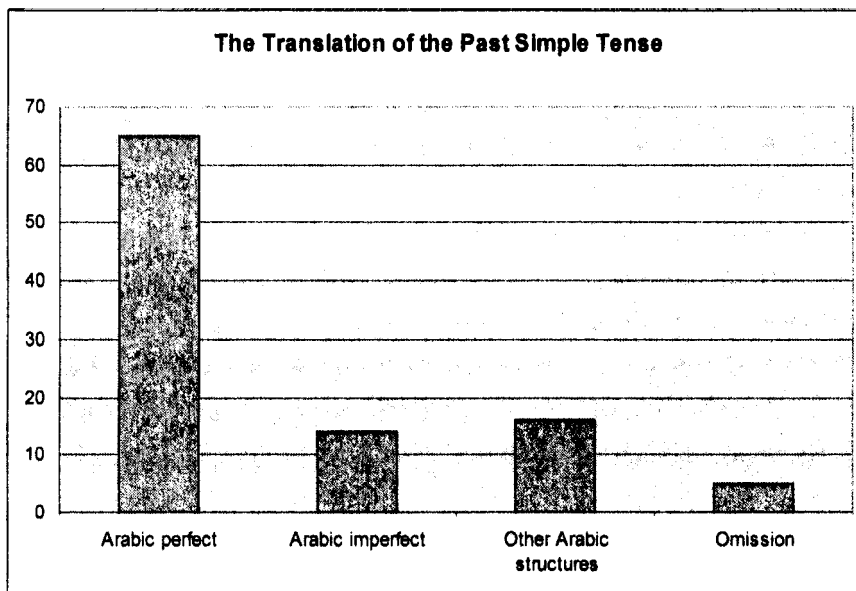
-“To apply pressure through the UN for Israel to respect the UN resolutions requiring its withdrawal from the territories it illegally *occupied* in 1967” (Text: 11).

-“Jacqui Smith, the Home Secretary, *announced* the government’s new policy to address increasing immigration rates” (Text: 14).

**Translation of the past simple tense**

T	ST	Arabic perfect	Arabic imperfect	Use of other Arabic structures	Omission
1	There were...	14	0	14	0
3	Statistics ...fell	20	2	5	1
4	8,758...died	21	6	1	0
4	Death... rose	21	2	5	0
4	Increase ... was	26	0	0	2
4	Death...doubled	22	2	4	0
6	As happened	28	0	0	0
7	Number...sank	22	1	3	2
7	The BBA...said	27	1	0	0
7	Home...slumped	23	1	0	4
7	...was the third	11	17	0	0
7	Analysts... said	25	0	0	3
7	The data showed	10	14	0	4
7	and called on	13	8	0	7
9	What happened	17	11	0	0
9	Speculators stopped	22	2	3	1
9	Prices dropped	20	6	2	0
9	Demand fell	6	5	12	5
9	The loans obtained	11	5	10	2
9	Seven...followed	0	20	4	4
10	Israeli ... killed	18	1	9	0
10	The... came	27	0	1	0
10	Militants... fired	9	0	19	0
10	Israel hit back	20	0	8	0
11	It ... occupied	14	0	13	1
14	...announced	26	1	1	0
	Total	473	105	114	36
	Percentages	65 %	14%	16 %	5%

**Table 88: The translation of the past simple tense**



**Table 89: Distribution of the translation of the past simple tense**

Table 88 indicates that several techniques were used in translating the English past simple tense. 65 % of students' translations of the English past simple tense were rendered into Arabic by the perfect. For example, some students acceptably used the Arabic perfect to translate the English past tense in "Statistics released yesterday show that recorded crime in England and Wales fell by 9 per cent from July to September last year, compared to the same period in 2006", Text Three, as in:

إلا أن الإحصاءات أشارت بالأمس إلى أن نسبة الجرائم المسجلة في كل من إنجلترا وويلز انخفضت بنسبة 9 % وذلك من يوليو إلى سبتمبر من السنة السابقة مقارنة بالفترة ذاتها في سنة 2006 . أشارت الإحصائيات الصادرة البارحة إلى أن الجرائم المسجلة في كل من إنجلترا وويلز انخفضت بمعدل 9 % ما بين شهري يونيو وسبتمبر السنة الماضية مقارنة بنفس المدة في عام 2006.

Some examples (16%) representing the English past simple were rendered into Arabic by structures other than the simple perfect or imperfect. For example some students used the perfect form of the Arabic verb 'to perform' plus the particle ب and the nominalized form of the verb in the sentence in question to translate "Israeli troops today killed two Palestinian Hamas gunmen in Gaza, wounding three others", as in:

قامت القوات الإسرائيلية اليوم بقتل مسلحين فلسطينيين من حركة حماس في غزة وجرح ثلاثة آخرين .  
 قام جنود الاحتلال اليوم بقتل فلسطينيين ناشطين من حماس في غزة وجرح ثلاثة آخرين.  
 اليوم قامت القوات الإسرائيلية بقتل ناشطين عسكريين تابعين لحركة حماس في غزة وجرحت آخرين.

Similarly, in Text Nine two students used the past form of the Arabic verb يؤدي 'to perform' plus the nominalized form of the verb in the sentence in question to translate the past simple in "The worldwide credit fiasco has resulted in the global credit crunch, the result of which is that borrowers can't get the loans they obtained 6 months ago", as follows:

فالإخفاق العالمي للانتمان المصرفي مرجعه إلى الانتمان المصرفي العالمي الطاحن والذي أدى إلى عدم قدرة المقترضين على الحصول على ما يحتاجونه من قروض في الأشهر الستة الماضية. وهذا الفشل العالمي في نظام الشراء بالدين أدى إلى تملك شامل. مما أدى إلى صعوبة حصول المقترضين على قروض منذ 6 شهور.

In translating examples of the English past of the verb 'to be', some students used the perfect form كان while others used lexical verbs. The analysis shows that a large number of students used lexical verbs to translate the English past of the verb 'to be'. As indicated earlier, this may be related to the absence of an overt copula in the simple present in Arabic. For example, some students translated the verb 'were' in "According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-07 compared with 49 in the previous year-an increase of 18%", Text One, using كان , as in:

ووفقاً لوزارة الداخلية البريطانية، فقد كان 58 عملية قتل بالسلاح في عامي 2006-2007 مقارنة بـ 49 في العام السابق وهو ما يعني زيادة تقدر بـ 18%.

Other students used lexical verbs such as:

حسب وزارة الداخلية البريطانية، وقعت 58 حالة جريمة قتل بالسلاح الناري وذلك في عامي 2006-2007 مقارنة بالـ 49 جريمة في العام الماضي. أي زيادة بمعدل 18%.

Some students used semantically light verbs, e.g. يمثل , يعد , يعتبر . Their translations of the past simple in "This represents a fall of 37 per cent year on year and was the third drop in consecutive months", Text Seven, are as follows:

وهذا يظهر انخفاض بمعدل 37% لكل سنة. وتعتبر هذا الانخفاض هو الثالث على أشهر متسلسلة. وهذا يعطى انخفاضا مقداره 37% سنوياً ويعد هذا هو السقوط الثالث الذي تعاقب خلال أشهر. وهذا ما يمثل انخفاض بنحو 37% عام بعد عام وهو بدوره يمثل ثالث انخفاض على مدار أشهر متتالية.

In the same way, some students used هناك to translate the English past of the verb 'to be', in "According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-07 compared with 49 in the previous year-an increase of 18%", Text One, as in:

فوفقاً لوزارة الداخلية هناك 58 سلاح ناري استخدم في جرائم قتل في تموز يوليو من العام 2006 مقارنة ب 49 سلاحاً من العام 2005 أي أن النسبة ارتفعت بمعدل 18%. وبناء على أصدرته وزارة الداخلية البريطانية فإن هناك ثمانية وخمسين جريمة قتل حدثت باستخدام السلاح الناري في شهر يوليو / تموز من العام 2006 مقارنة بالعام الماضي حيث ارتفعت حالات القتل إلى تسعة وأربعين حالة أي ما نسبته ثمانية عشر في المائة.

14% of the examples of the past simple tense were rendered by the Arabic imperfect. For example, four students used the Arabic imperfect to translate the past tense in "A report from the office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991", Text Four, as in:

يبين تقرير صادر عن مكتب الإحصاء الوطني نشر بالأمس أن ما يقارب من 8758 من الناس يموتون من جراء تناولهم كميات مفرطة من الكحول عام 2006، ضعف العدد الذي كان عام 1991. عرض التقرير الصادر عن مكتب الإحصاء الوطني أمس أن 8,758 من الناس يموتون بسبب استنشاق كميات كبيرة من الكحول في عام 2006 كذلك العدد في عام 1991. أشار التقرير المنشور عن مركز الإحصاء القومي لعام 2006 بالأمس إلى أن حوالي 8758 من الناس يموتون نتيجة التعاطي المفرط للكحول والذي يمثل ضعف العدد في العام 1991.

A careful investigation of the context in which this example occurs in the SL text shows that 8,758 people had already died as a result of heavy drinking. For this reason it is unacceptable to use the Arabic imperfect to translate the English past tense in this context. In both English and Arabic the past simple is used to indicate an action which began and ended in the past.

Similarly, two students unacceptably used the imperfect to translate the past simple in "Death rates rose in all age groups but the biggest increase for both sexes was among people aged 35 to 54, a legacy of heavy drinking in their 20s and early 30s", Text Four, as follows:

ومعدل الموت يرتفع في كل فئات الأعمار لكن الارتفاع الأكبر لكلا الجنسين كان من الفئة العمرية ما بين 35-54 عاماً ، وهذا نتيجة ما ورثوه من عادة الشرب المفرط (الثقيل) في بداية عمرهم في العشرينات والثلاثينات. معدلات الوفيات ترتفع في جميع طبقات الأعمار لكن العدد الأكبر من الجنسين كان ما بين عمر 35-54 بسبب الشرب الثقيل المتراكم في العشرينيات وبداية الثلاثينيات.

However, in Text Nine twenty students translated the past simple in "Remember Joseph: seven years of plenty followed by seven years of famine" using the Arabic imperfect tense, as follows:

تذكر يوسف "سبع سنين من الرخاء يتبعهن سبع سنين من القحط / المجاعة".  
تذكروا يوسف "سبع سنوات رخاء يعقبهن سبع سنوات عجاف".  
وكما تذكر قول جوزيف : "سبعة سنين من الكثرة تتبعتها سبعة سنين من الندرة ( المجاعة )."

One possible reason for the use of the Arabic imperfect in translating the past simple is the fact that ‘followed by’ can be interpreted here as equivalent to ‘which will be followed by’- in which case the imperfect seems reasonable.

### 6.10.7. Translation of the past perfect

The following is the only sentence in the corpus that includes the English past perfect:

“Firstly, what happened is that speculators, who *had driven* up prices by buying, buying, buying, stopped buying” (Text: 9).

T	ST	Arabic imperfect	Arabic perfect	Use of other Arabic structures
9	Had driven	15	9	4
	Total	15	9	4
	Percentage	53.57%	32.14%	14.29%

Table 90: The translation of the past perfect

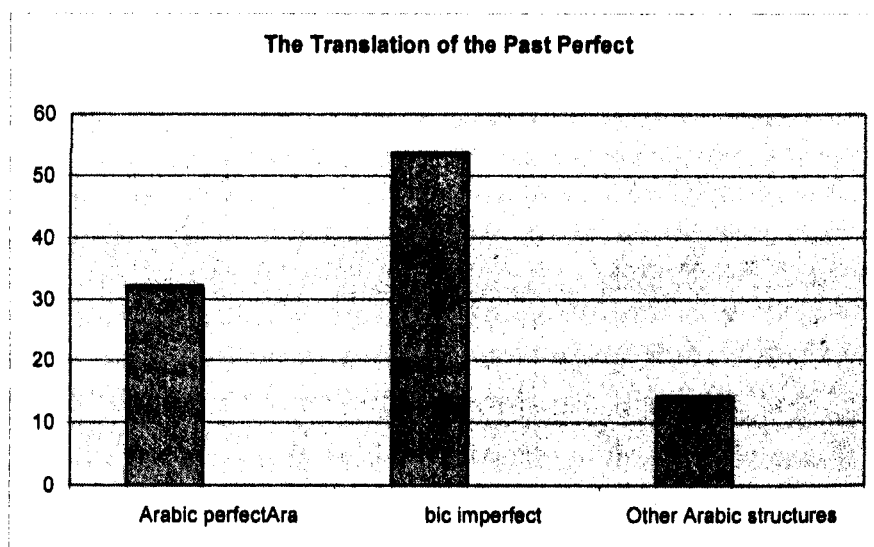


Table 91: Distribution of the translation of the past perfect

Table 90 illustrates that 53.57% of the translations of the past perfect were rendered by the Arabic imperfect, 32.14% were in the Arabic perfect and 14.29% were rendered using other Arabic structures.

The researcher did not expect to find that the Arabic imperfect is the most frequent strategy used by the subjects of this study in translating the past perfect. Although this is the only

occurrence of the past perfect in this analysis, it is unjustified in this context to use the Arabic imperfect to translate the English past perfect, e.g.

بداية: ما حدث هو أن المضاربين، والذين يرفعون الأسعار بواسطة الشراء، الشراء، الشراء، الشراء، ثم وقف الشراء.  
أولاً: الذي يحدث هو أن المضاربين الذين يرفعون السعر بالشراء والشراء والشراء توقفوا عن الشراء ولهذا انخفضت  
الأسعار لإعادة الإقبال على الشراء.  
أولاً: ما حدث هو أن المتضاربون الذين يرفعون الأسعار قد توقفوا عن شراء العقارات.

A careful investigation of the context in which this example occurs in the SL text shows that speculators' policy of buying properties has affected the British property market, the result of which is that prices have fallen sharply. According to Azar (1999: 45), the past perfect expresses an activity that was completed before another activity or time in the past. For this reason the Arabic imperfect is not an acceptable translation of the English past perfect in this context.

On the other hand, nine students acceptably used the Arabic perfect to translate the English past perfect, as in:

ما حدث بداية هو أن المضاربين الذين رفعوا الأسعار بالشراء الشراء امتنعوا / توقفوا عن البيع.  
أولاً: الذي يحدث هو أن المضاربين الذين رفعوا الأسعار بواسطة الشراء ثم الشراء ثم الشراء قد أوقفوا الشراء.  
بداية ما حدث هو أن المضاربين الذين رفعوا الأسعار بنهمهم للشراء توقفوا عن شراء المنازل.

Similarly, the professional translator used the Arabic perfect, as in:

أولاً: ما حدث هو أن المضاربين الذين رفعوا الأسعار عالياً عبر الشراء المستمر توقفوا عن الشراء.

Some examples of the past perfect are translated using other Arabic structures. For instance, three students acceptably used the past form of the verb يعمل or يقوم 'to perform' plus the particle على or ب and the nominalized form of the verb in the sentence in question, as in:

أولاً: ما حدث أن المضاربون الذي قاموا برفع السعر عن طريق الشراء ثم الشراء، توقفوا عن الشراء.  
أولاً: ما حدث هو أن المضاربين الذين عملوا على رفع الأسعار عن طريق الشراء المستمر توقفوا عن الشراء.  
أولاً: بدأت الكتابة عندما قام المضاربون بحملات الشراء المتتابعة شراء، شراء، شراء أو أوقفوا الشراء.

As students' translations show, in many contexts the Arabic perfect can be acceptably used to render the English past perfect and the past simple. The two tenses can also be acceptably rendered by the use of the perfect form of the verb يعمل or يقوم 'to perform' plus the nominalized form of the verb in the sentence in question.

### 6.10.8. Translation of the past progressive tense

The following is the only occurrence in the corpus that includes the English past progressive:

-“Analysts said the data showed the "troubled housing market" *was* now "cooling significantly" and called on the Bank of England to cut interest rates” (Text: 7).

T	ST	Past of يكون plus the present form	Arabic perfect	Arabic imperfect	Use of أصبح	Use of other Arabic structures	Omission
7	was cooling	2	2	2	9	11	2
	Total	2	2	2	9	11	2
	Percentages	7.14%	7.14%	7.14%	32.15%	39.29%	7.14%

Table 92: The translation of the past progressive

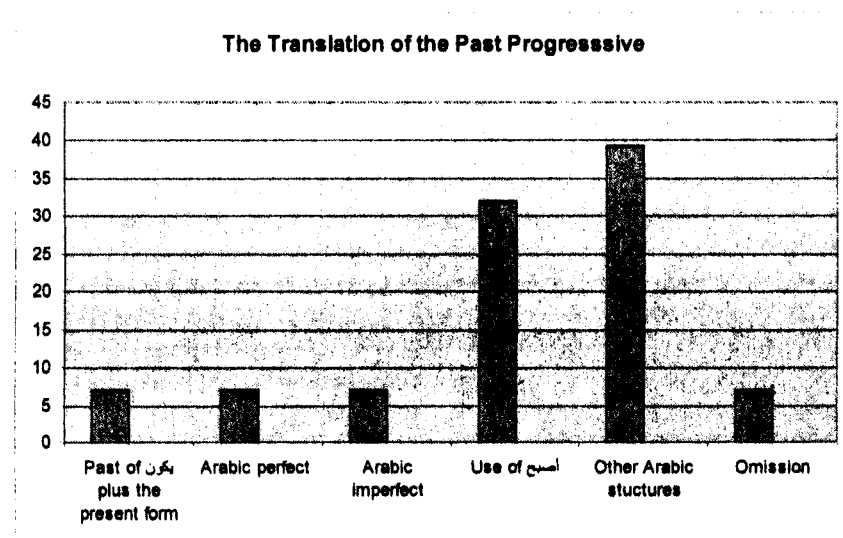


Table 93: Distribution of the translation of the past progressive

Table 92 indicates that 39.29 % of the translations of the past progressive were rendered into Arabic by the use of other Arabic structures, 32.15% by the use of أصبح, 7.14% by the perfect of يكون plus the present form of the main verb, 7.14% by the Arabic perfect, 7.14% by the Arabic imperfect and 7.14% by omission.

As the analysis shows, about one third of the Arabic translations of the past progressive were rendered by أصبح plus the nominalized form of the main verb or its derived adjective, as in:

وقال المحللون بأن البيانات أظهرت أن مشكلة سوق شراء المساكن أصبحت الآن "بركود كبير" وأصبح يقع على عاتق بنك إنجلترا أن تقوم بقطع (تقليل) نسبه / معدل الفائدة.  
قال المحللون بأن هذه البيانات توضح مشاكل في التسويق العقاري وأنها أصبحت الآن انحسار ذو أهمية.  
وقد أشار بعض المحللين إلى أن السوق العقاري المضرب أصبح هادئاً نوعاً ما وذلك بسبب زيادة نسبة الفوائد في البنوك البريطانية.

There is a possibility that students used أصبح to give a sense that this action has been happening recently. The use of the time adverb الآن 'now' shows that the British property market is going down.

7.14% of the translations of the English past progressive were rendered by the Arabic perfect, e.g.

وقد أشارت المعلومات الصادرة من المحللين الاقتصاديين إلى أن السوق العقاري الهائج قد هدى نسبياً نتيجة لانخفاض معدلات الفوائد الربحية.  
قال محللون بأن البيانات التي أظهرت سوق الإسكان والعقارات المضطرب بدأت تهدأ بصورة واضحة وتطلب من بنك إنجلترا إلغاء معدلات الفائدة.

Two students partially acceptably used the perfect form of يكون plus the imperfect form of the verb in the sentence in question, e.g.

قال المحللون أن البيانات عرضت "سوق شراء البيوت المضطرب كان يهدئ" بشكل ملحوظ" ويسمى في بنك إنجلترا المركزي لتخفيض أسعار الفائدة.  
فقد قال محللون إن قاعدة البيانات أظهرت أن سوق الإسكان المضطرب كان يبرد بشكل ملحوظ ، وطالبوا بنك إنجلترا بقطع معدلات الفائدة.

According to Hajjaj (1999: 96-7), the use of the perfect form of يكون plus the imperfect form of the main verb in the sentence is the most common equivalent of the English past progressive. However, due to the immediate effect of the property crisis there is a possibility that students used other Arabic structures in order to convey the intended meaning of the source text, as can be seen in the following translations:

ووفقاً للمحللين فقد أظهرت البيانات فتوراً واضحاً لسوق العقارات المضطرب ودعوا البنك المركزي البريطاني لتقليص نسب الفائدة.  
وقال المحللون أن البيانات أشارت أن سوق المنازل الآن في ركود ملحوظ. ودعت بنك إنجلترا إلى قطع معدلات الفائدة.

The professional translator used the Arabic imperfect with the adverbial marker الآن to translate the past progressive, as follows:

وقال المحللون بأن البيانات تظهر أن "سوق الإسكان المضطربة" تمر الآن بفترة "فتور ملحوظ" ودعوا مصرف بريطانيا إلى خفض أسعار الفائدة.



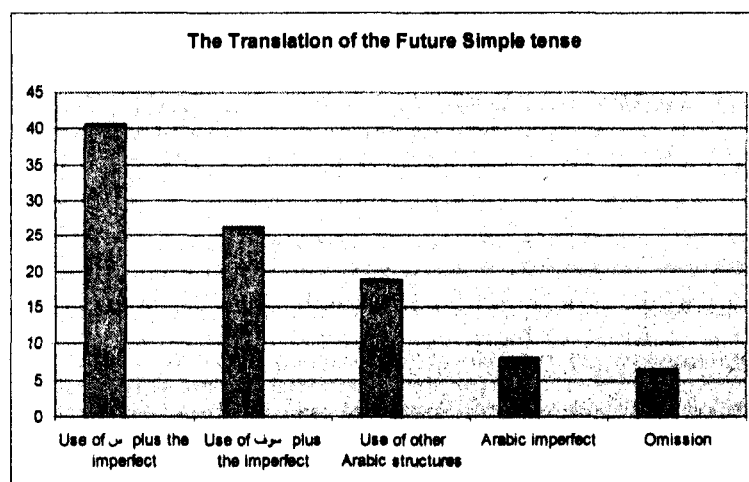
### 6.10.9. Translation of the future simple tense

The sentences which include the future simple tense are listed below:

- “So there is a major problem now and it *will continue*” (Text: 6).
- “That *will depress* the market” (Text: 9).
- “Fourthly, the amount of debt in our society is literally astronomical and this *will impact* hugely in the coming economic downturn” (Text: 9).
- “With 520 new immigrants arriving every day, the ONS has predicted that the UK population *will increase* by five million to 65 million people within a decade” (Text: 13).
- “By mid century England’s population *will increase* by nearly 16 million - that is twice the population of Greater London” (Text: 13).
- “First, low-skilled workers from the developing world *will be barred* from moving to Britain” (Text: 14).
- “Third, the government *will set up* a Border Police Force with powers to track down and remove illegal migrants” (Text: 14).
- “Finally, a new points-based system for economic migrants *will be introduced* in the spring, only allowing them to come to this country if they have sufficient skills and qualifications” (Text: 14).
- “The huge increase in the population *will have* enormous impacts on the future of our society” (Text: 15).
- “The new migration surges imply that new homes *will have* to be built to house the extra migrants” (Text: 15).
- “Indeed, low paid British workers *will pay* the price of immigration” (Text: 15).
- “As the earth’s temperature rises, polar ice *will melt*, causing the water level of the oceans to rise” (Text: 16).
- “Rising ocean levels, in turn, *will cause* flooding along the coasts” (Text: 16).
- “Global warming *will also cause* major changes in climate that will affect agriculture” (Text: 16).
- “The Kyoto Protocol is generally seen as an important step toward a truly global emissions reduction regime that *will stabilize* GHG concentrations at a level which *will avoid* dangerous climate change” (Text: 18).

T	ST	Use of س plus the imperfect	Use of سوف plus the imperfect	Arabic imperfect	Use of other Arabic structures	Omission
6	will continue	8	12	0	7	1
9	will depress	4	10	0	14	0
9	this will impact	10	6	2	9	1
13	will increase	12	5	1	10	0
13	will increase	15	8	1	4	0
14	will be barred	9	5	4	10	0
14	will set up	12	9	0	7	0
14	will be introduced	12	6	0	8	2
14	will have	15	10	2	0	1
15	will have to be built	3	4	0	3	18
15	will pay	13	10	1	2	2
16	will melt	14	9	1	3	1
16	will cause	17	6	3	0	2
16	will also cause	16	9	2	0	1
16	will affect	16	5	6	0	1
18	will stabilize	10	7	4	6	1
18	will avoid	7	4	11	6	0
	Total	193	125	38	89	31
	Percentages	40.5%	26.3%	8%	18.7%	6.5%

**Table 94: The translation of the future simple tense**



**Table 95: Distribution of the translation of the future simple tense**

As illustrated in Table 94 the majority of the occurrences of the future simple were translated into Arabic by the future simple, formed by the use of the future particle سوف or س plus the imperfect form of the main verb. 40.5% of the examples were translated by the use of the future particle س plus the imperfect form of the main verb. For example, a number of

students used the particle *س* plus the imperfect form of the verb to translate the simple future in “So there is a major problem now and it will continue”, Text Six, as in:

لذا فلدينا هنا مشكلة رئيسية في وقتنا الحاضر والتي ستستمر لبعض الوقت مستقبلا.  
لذلك يوجد مشكلة ضخمة الآن وهي ستستمر.  
لذلك يوجد مشكلة شائعة وعسيرة وستستمر.

26.3 % of the examples of the future simple were translated by the use of the future particle *سوف* plus the imperfect form of the main verb. For instance, some students acceptably translated the future simple in “So, there is a major problem now and it will continue”, Text Six, as in:

بالفعل نحن نواجه مشكلة رئيسية وسوف نتفاهم.  
لذلك فإن هناك مشكلة رئيسية وأنها سوف تستمر.  
لذلك فإنه هناك مشكلة رئيسية وأنها سوف تستمر.

A number of examples of the future simple (18.7%) were rendered into Arabic by the use of other Arabic structures. For example, some translations of the future simple were rendered into Arabic by the future particle *س* or *سوف* plus the present form of the verb *يؤدي* ‘lead to’ plus the nominalized form of the main verb in the sentence in question. For example, some students translated the future simple in “That will depress the market”, Text Nine, as:

وهذا سيؤدي إلى كساد السوق.  
مما سيؤدي إلى كساد السوق.  
وهذا سيؤدي إلى كساد السوق.

A few students’ translations of the future simple utilized the future particle *س* or *سوف* plus the present form of the Arabic verb *يقوم* ‘to perform’ plus the particle *ب* and the nominalized form of the verb in the sentence in question. For example, three students acceptably rendered the future simple in “Third, the government will set up a Border Police Force with powers to track down and remove illegal migrants”, Text Fourteen, as follows:

ثالثًا : ستقوم الحكومة البريطانية بوضع قوة شرطية على الحدود مجهزة بكافة أنواع القوة والعتاد من أجل منع وإجلاء المهاجرين الغير شرعيين.  
ثالثًا : ستقوم الحكومة البريطانية بإنشاء نقاط حكومية لمنع الهجرة الغير شرعية.  
ثالثًا : سوف تقوم الحكومة بعمل حواجز تمنع من خلالها قوات الشرطة أولئك الهاربين أو المهاجرين غير الشرعيين بالقوة.

A few examples of the future simple (8%) were rendered by the Arabic imperfect. For instance, four students acceptably translated the future simple in “First, low-skilled workers from the developing world will be barred from moving to Britain”, Text Fourteen, as in:

أولاً: يمنع أصحاب المهارات المتدنية القادمين من الدول النامية من الدخول إلى بريطانيا.  
أولاً: يمنع دخول العمال قليلي المهارة ( الحنكة ) من دول العالم النامي إلى بريطانيا.  
أولاً: يمنع العمال من ذوي الحرف والمهارات المنخفضة المستوى من دخول أو التجول في البلاد.

It should be noted that the use of the Arabic imperfect is more appropriate in instructional texts than the future simple.

However, one student unacceptably used the Arabic imperfect to translate the future simple in “By mid century England’s population will increase by nearly 16 million- that is twice the population of Greater London”, Text: 13, as follows:

وهذا معناه أن عدد السكان يزيد بما يقارب الـ 16 مليون في منتصف القرن الحالي أي أن عدد سكان لندن لوحدها يزيد بمعدل ضعفي العدد الأصلي.

One student unacceptably used the Arabic perfect to translate the future simple in “Indeed, low paid British workers will pay the price of immigration, as they find that their own wages are held down by competition from the new arrivals”, Text Fifteen, as follows:

وبالفعل القانون دفع العمال البريطانيين نفس الدفع للمهاجرين، كما وجدوا رواتبهم ستكون محك منافسة للواصلين (المهاجرين) الجدد.

However, in Text Sixteen the Arabic perfect was acceptably used in the context of a quasi-conditional structure to translate the future simple in “As the earth’s temperature rises, polar ice will melt, causing the water level of the oceans to rise”, as in:

فكلما ارتفعت درجة حرارة الأرض كلما ذابت الثلوج القطبية مسببة في ارتفاع نسبة منسوب المياه في المحيطات.

A number of students (6.5%) omitted the future tense in their translation of “The new migration surges imply that new homes will have to be built to house the extra migrants”, Text Fifteen, as in:

حيث أن موجات المهاجرين تتطلب بناء بيوت جديدة لإسكان العدد الفائض منهم.  
فموجات الهجرة الجديدة تتطلب بناء مباني جديدة لإيواء أكبر عدد من المهاجرين.  
إن الهجرات الجديدة تتضمن بناء منازل جديدة لإيواء العدد المتزايد من المهاجرين.

There is a possibility that students were more focused on the translation of 'imply' rather than the future tense. As far as this context is concerned, these are acceptable Arabic translations.

### 6.11. Prepositions (94 errors, 2.00 %)

English distinguishes two types of prepositions: simple and complex. Simple prepositions consist of one word (e.g. in, on), and complex prepositions consist of more than one word (e.g. in case of, apart from). Prepositions express different semantic relations such as spatial (in the garden), temporal (at five o'clock), cause-purpose (because of), manner (with, like). Arabic prepositions حروف الجر govern their complement in the genitive case. They are divided into separable and inseparable prepositions. Separable prepositions consist of two groups: the first group comprises prepositions proper (e.g. سافر أخي إلى مصر 'My brother travelled to Egypt'), and the second group is made up of nouns in the accusative used syntactically as prepositions (quasi-prepositions) (e.g. أمام المسجد 'In front of the mosque'). Inseparable prepositions consist of single letters attached to nouns e.g. أقسم بالله 'I swear by God'.

An Arabic preposition may be translated by several English prepositions, while an English usage may also have several Arabic translations. For example, Arabic uses في which means 'in', for time and place, while English uses 'in', 'at' and 'on', e.g:

في المدينة	in the city
في المدرسة	at school
في الساعة السادسة صباحاً	at six o'clock in the morning
في الثاني من مايو	on the second of May

The complicated system of English prepositions and the aforementioned differences between English and Arabic prepositions seem to have caused problems for the translators. There were 94 (2.00%) errors in prepositions. To illustrate this point, two students unacceptably translated the preposition 'from' in "A report from the office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991", Text Four, as the Arabic preposition من , as follows:

نشر تقرير بالأمس من مكتب الإحصائيات الدولي يوضح بأن 8,758 شخص توفى في سنة 2006 من شرب الكحول المفرط، وضعف العدد في سنة 1991. نشر تقرير البارحة من مكتب إحصاءات عالمية وأظهر أن 8,758 من الناس يموتون بسبب الإدمان المفرط وقد تضاعفت عدد الوفيات إلى الضعف من عام 1991 إلى 2006.

Students' translations here seem to have been affected by colloquial Arabic which would have من in this context. One possible translation of the preposition in the above-mentioned context could be:

نشر تقرير صادر عن مكتب الإحصاء الوطني بالأمس إلى أن 8,758 شخصًا توفوا نتيجة لتناولهم كميات كبيرة من الكحول عام 2006 وهو ضعف عدد المتوفين لعام 1991.

Other students omitted the preposition and acceptably translated the sentence, as in:

بالأمس أظهر تقرير مكتب الإحصاءات الوطنية أن حوالي 8,758 شخص توفوا بسبب الإفراط في تناول الكحول خلال العام 2006 أي ضعف عدد الذين توفوا في عام 1991. لقد أظهر تقرير الإحصاء الوطني الذي نشر بالأمس أن ما يقارب ثمانية آلاف وسبعمائة وثمان وخمسين (8,258) شخصًا ماتوا جراء التعاطي المفرط في الكحول في العام 2006م وهو ضعف العدد في العام 1991م.

Other examples of the influence of colloquial Arabic on the students' translations of prepositions include:

“Second, foreign nationals wanting to marry a Briton could also face a language test to prove their ability to integrate”, Text Fourteen.

المواطنون الأجانب الساعون إلى الزواج ببريطانيات سوف يواجهون اختبار لغة يبين قدرتهم على الاندماج. (من بريطانيات) (More acceptably)

“The problem we have today is the cheapness of alcohol, and the numerous outlets where it can be obtained”, Text Six.

تكم المشكلة في هذه الأيام إلى الثمن الرخيص للكحول، والعدد الضخم للأسواق التي تتوفر فيها (في الثمن).

“As a result, the benefit to the native British population is trivial”, Text Fifteen.

نتيجة لذلك فالفائدة إلى المواطن البريطاني الساكن هي طفيفة. (للمواطن /التي تعود على المواطن).

In Text Twelve, one student unacceptably rendered the preposition ‘of’ in “The failure of our government to speak out against Israel’s oppression of the Palestinian population is complicit with those actions of the EU, the US and Israel” as من , as in:

ف فشل الحكومة في الرد على ظلم واضطهاد إسرائيل من الشعب الفلسطيني تواطؤ مع هذه الأحداث في الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل.

The wrong use of the Arabic preposition من here has changed the meaning of the sentence, making Israel ‘the oppressed’ and the Palestinians ‘the oppressors’. A translation that acceptably renders the meaning of the source text would be:

يعتبر فشل حكومتنا في الحديث بصراحة ودون تردد ضد ظلم إسرائيل للسكان الفلسطينيين من قبيل التواطؤ مع إجراءات الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل.

#### 6.12. Singular and plural (86 errors, 1.8 %)

The general analysis showed that students were not systematic in translating the singular and plural. In other words, students translated singular in the source text into plural in the target text, and they translated plural into singular. It is unacceptable to translate the singular into plural or vice versa without any good reason, e.g. stylistic preferences. The number of errors involved in the translation of singular and plural nouns was 86 (1.8%). For example, three students translated “All crime is down 32 per cent over the past decade”, Text Three, as:

حيث وصلت الجرائم الواقعة في العقود السابقة إلى 32% .  
حيث أن نسبة الجرائم انخفضت بنسبة 32% خلال العقود السابقة.  
كل الجرائم انخفضت بنسبة 32% خلال العقود الماضية.

In Text Ten eight students translated the singular noun ‘a rocket’ in “The killings came after Palestinian militants yesterday fired a Katyusha rocket at the northern part of the Israeli town of Ashkelon” as a plural, as follows:

القتل جاء جراء إطلاق فدانين/ مسلحين فلسطينيين صواريخ كاتيوشا أمس على الجزء الشمالي من المدينة أشكلون الإسرائيلية.  
جاء القتل بعد قيام ميلشيات فلسطينية (المقاومة) بإطلاق صواريخ الكاتيوشا على الجزء الشمالي من مدينة أشكلون (الإسرائيلية).  
وردا على عمليات القتل الحادثة في القطاع قام المجاهدون الفلسطينيون بالرد على إسرائيل بإطلاق صواريخ كاتيوشا على شمال إسرائيل.  
ولقد تم ذلك بعد قيام مسلحين فلسطينيين بإطلاق صواريخ الكاتيوشا على شمالي مدينة عسقلان بالأمس.

القتل جاء بعد ضرب صواريخ كاتيوشا على الجزء الشمالي من إسرائيل بلدة أشيكلون. وقد جاءت عملية الاغتيال بعد قيام مقاومين فلسطينيين بإطلاق صواريخ كاتيوشا على الجزء الشمالي للبلدة اليهودية في عسقلان. القتال جاء رداً على قيام المجندين الفلسطينيين البارحة بإطلاق صواريخ كاتيوشا على الضاحية الشمالية للمدينة الإسرائيلية أشكلون. وقد جاء ذلك بعد أن قام مقاومين فلسطينيين بإطلاق صواريخ الكاتيوشا على مدينة عسقلان في شمال إسرائيل.

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
6	We are storing up massive health problems in the community.	نعاني من مشاكل صحية كثيرة في المجتمعات.	نعاني من مشاكل صحية كثيرة في المجتمع.
8	There are some good offers as banks compete for your cash.	يوجد عرض جيد للتنافس من الآخرين على حسابك.	يوجد بعض العروض الجيدة ذلك أن المصارف تتنافس على نقودك.
6	The problem we have today is the cheapness of alcohol, and the numerous outlets where it can be obtained.	والمشكلة في هذه الأيام برخصه المشرب الكحولي وتعدد المنفذ الذي يحصل عليه.	والمشكلة التي نعاني منها اليوم هي رخص أسعار المسكرات وتعدد مصادر الحصول عليها.
15	The new migration surges imply that new homes will have to be built to house the extra migrants.	الهجرة الجديدة يدل على أن البيوت الجديدة سوف يكون بناء بيت للمهاجر الإضافي.	دفعت الهجرة الجديدة تعني ضرورة بناء مساكن جديدة لإيواء المهاجرين الإضافيين.
18	As a result of the Protocol, governments have already put, and are continuing to put legislation and policies in place to meet their commitment.	كنتيجة للبروتوكول للنظام وضعت الحكومة واستمرت في وضع التشريع والسياسات طبقاً للإبقاء بالتزاماتهم.	ونتيجة للاتفاقية وضعت الحكومات الموقعة فعلاً وتستمر في وضع تشريعات وسياسات موضع التنفيذ للوفاء بتعهداتها.

Table 96: Errors involving singular and plural

### 6.13. Passive (58 errors, 1.2%)

Voice is a grammatical feature which helps to view the action of a sentence in two ways while keeping the basic, propositional meaning (Aziz, 1989: 263). The first is the active voice المعني للمعلوم, where an agent is typically presented as involved in an action resulting in or affecting something; the second is the passive voice المعني للمجهول, where the entity affected by or resulting from the action is highlighted. Both English and Arabic have voice systems. In English the active-passive transformation is syntactic; it involves the verb, the subject (agent) and object (patient or goal) and the word order. The verb phrase in the passive belongs to a complex structure, which comprises two parts: the auxiliary element BE and the past participle of the lexical element. In Arabic the active-passive transformation is morphological. It entails a change in the vocalic pattern of the active verb. For example, the Arabic active verb كتب 'he wrote' becomes كُتِبَ 'it was written' in the passive. Arabic also has the انفعال verb-form, e.g. انكسر 'it got broken'. This verb form has a medio-passive meaning, which implies that the agent is unknown or that the action simply happened by itself, e.g. انكسر الشباك 'The window broke/ was broken'.



By opting for the passive voice, English thematises the original object, placing it first in the sentence as the subject of the passive verb. According to Baker (1992:102-110), the passive in English is also used to foreground the object (patient) and background the subject (agent) of the active sentence. Arabic on the other hand does not need a passive structure to thematise the original active object. In Arabic noun phrases are inflected for case regardless of where they occur sequentially in the sentence. In other words, the object becomes the subject of the passive verb without necessarily changing its position in the sentence. To illustrate this point, consider the following examples from English and Arabic:

**English**

**Arabic**

Milton wrote Paradise Lost in 1671. (active)  
Paradise Lost was written in 1671. (passive)

كتب ملتن هذه القصيدة عام 1671 .  
 كتبت هذه القصيدة عام 1671 .

In English the object ‘Paradise Lost’ has become the subject of the passive sentence, while its counterpart in Arabic القصيدة ‘poem’ has become the subject of the passive sentence without changing its medial position in the sentence.

Ghazala (1995: 247) states that passive and active are two contrastive voices which have different stylistic functions. Although the active and passive sentences (a) “The Jewish soldiers killed five Palestinian children yesterday” and (b) “Five Palestinian children were killed yesterday” look in many ways the same, they are stylistically different. In (a) the active style aims at focusing on the murderers for human and political reasons. In (b), on the other hand, the passive style aims at concentrating on the result of the action (i.e. the five Palestinian children and killing them) and hiding the identity of the killers.

El Sheikh (1977, 195-203) states that the selection of the passive in English and Arabic is determined by three main factors: situational, stylistic and syntactic. Situationally, the passive may be opted for when the agent of the action is obvious, unknown or being deliberately kept anonymous for some reason or another. Stylistically, the passive is used much more frequently in English than in Arabic. In English the passive is frequently used in informative, particularly scientific texts. Syntactically, by opting for the passive English thematises the goal (the subject of the corresponding active sentence), placing heavy nominal groups at the end of the sentence. Arabic, as we mentioned above, does not need such a syntactic device to thematise the noun phrase functioning as object. One basic grammatical distinction between English and Arabic is that the Arabic nominal phrase

inflects for case, whereas English does not have such a case system, except marginally for some pronouns (cf. section 6.5).

In addition, English uses both the agentive and the agentless passive type. In Arabic the passive is normally of the agentless type, i.e. the agent should remain unspecified. On the whole Arabic favours the use of active over the use of passive constructions (ibid: 162).

The following sentences which include the English passive, either as full verbs or passive participles, will be used in the discussion below:

- "According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-07 *compared* with 49 in the previous year" (Text: 1).
- "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models *have all been blamed* for the recent spate of gun deaths" (Text: 1).
- "Fourthly, we should prohibit certain air weapons that *are easily converted* to fire live ammunition" (Text: 2).
- "Statistics released yesterday show that recorded crime in England and Wales fell by 9 percent from July to September last year, *compared* to the same period in 2006" (Text: 3).
- "A report from the Office for National Statistics *published* yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991" (Text: 4).
- "Death rates rose in all age groups but the biggest increase for both sexes was among people *aged* 35 to 54, a legacy of heavy drinking in their 20s and early 30s" (Text: 4).
- "Third, university students should face a clampdown on drinks promotion, and parents of children *caught* drinking should be subject to fixed-penalty fines" (Text: 5).
- "Finally, there must be higher taxes on the most potent beers and mixers *associated* with binge drinking" (Text: 5).
- "The problem we have today is the cheapness of alcohol, and the numerous outlets where it *can be obtained*" (Text: 6).
- "It *is estimated* that as many as 5 million Britons abuse alcohol on a regular basis" (Text: 6).
- "There are probably as many as 3 to 4 million people in the UK who *could be classed* as 'Active Alcoholics', (Text: 6).
- "What is to *be done* about it, that is the '64 Thousand Dollar Question!' (Text: 6).
- "The number of mortgages *approved* for homebuyers sank to a record low during October, according to figures *released* by the British Bankers' Association that provide further evidence of a slowdown in the property market" (Text: 7).

- “The BBA said the number of customers *granted* home loans slumped by almost a fifth from 54,000 in September to just over 44, 100” (Text: 7).
- “Third, be careful with the credit card – if you’re *tempted* to overdo it, leave the card at home” (Text: 8).
- “Israel hit back with air strikes and ground operations in which nine people, including three civilians, *were killed*” (Text: 10).
- “To demand the release of all *elected* Palestinian officials and the instigation of a programme for the release of all prisoners *held* in violation of international law” (Text: 11).
- “The Israeli government’s behaviour at present is to *be condemned*” (Text: 12).
- “First, low-skilled workers from the developing world *will be barred* from moving to Britain” (Text: 14).
- “Finally, a new points-based system for economic migrants *will be introduced* in the spring, only allowing them to come to this country if they have sufficient skills and qualifications” (Text: 14).
- “The new migration surges imply that new homes *will have to be built* to house the extra migrants’ (Text: 15).
- “The glue of our society *has been weakened* under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures” (Text: 15).
- “Indeed, low-paid British workers will pay the price of immigration, as they find that their own wages *are held* down by competition from the new arrivals” (Text: 15).
- “First, developed countries must reduce their greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions below levels *specified* for each of them in the treaty” (Text: 17).
- “Second, emission-reducing targets *must be met* within a five-year time frame between 2008 and 2012” (Text: 17).
- ‘Third, a total cut in GHG emissions of at least 5% against the baseline of 1990 *must also be met*’ (Text: 17).
- ‘Fourth, developing nations must benefit in terms of technology transfer and investment *brought about* through collaboration with industrialized nations under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) (Text: 17).
- “Finally, review and enforcement of these commitments *must be carried out* by United Nations-based bodies” (Text: 17).
- “The Kyoto Protocol *is generally seen* as an important step toward a truly global emissions reduction regime” (Text: 18).

- "A carbon market *has been created*; and more and more businesses are making the investment decisions *needed* for a climate-friendly future" (Text: 18).

- "By then, a new international framework *needed to have been negotiated and ratified* which can deliver the stringent emissions reductions the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) tells us *are needed*" (Text: 18).

T	ST	Arabic passive without 'by'-type phrase	Passive+agentive phrase	Arabic active	م plus verbal noun	Passive-like forms	Other Arabic forms	Omission
1	compared	0	0	0	0	0	26	2
1	blamed	5	0	0	0	0	21	2
2	Converted	16	0	0	0	7	4	1
3	released	12	0	5	1	0	2	8
3	compared	1	0	0	0	0	27	0
4	published	10	1	5	2	0	7	3
4	aged	0	0	0	0	0	28	0
5	Caught	5	0	2	3	0	6	12
5	Associated	0	0	0	0	12	3	13
6	obtained	2	0	1	0	0	20	5
6	Estimated	15	0	4	1	3	1	4
6	classed	13	0	0	1	13	0	1
6	done	2	0	13	0	0	12	1
7	approved	2	0	0	0	13	7	6
7	released	0	4	10	1	2	4	7
7	granted	13	0	1	1	5	6	2
8	tempted	3	0	2	1	1	20	1
10	killed'	11	0	1	0	0	16	0
11	Held	4	0	0	5	4	3	12
12	Condemned	8	0	2	0	3	15	0
14	barred	16	0	0	5	0	7	0
14	Introduced	17	0	1	6	1	1	2
15	built	6	0	0	1	0	21	0
15	weakened	15	0	6	0	0	6	1
15	Held	2	9	0	1	0	8	8
17	specified	0	0	0	0	0	22	6
17	Met	14	0	0	0	4	6	4
17	Met	15	0	0	1	2	6	4
17	brought	1	2	0	0	2	4	19
17	carried	2	5	2	4	0	13	2
18	Seen	24	0	1	0	0	1	2
18	created	13	0	1	8	0	4	2
18	needed	0	0	5	0	0	23	0
18	Negotiated	4	0	0	5	1	17	1
18	Ratified	4	0	0	2	0	13	9
18	needed	1	0	4	0	1	14	8
	Total	256	21	66	49	74	394	148
	Percentage	25.4%	2.1%	6.5%	4.9%	7.3%	39.1%	14.7%

Table 97: The Translation of English passive

The Translation of English passive

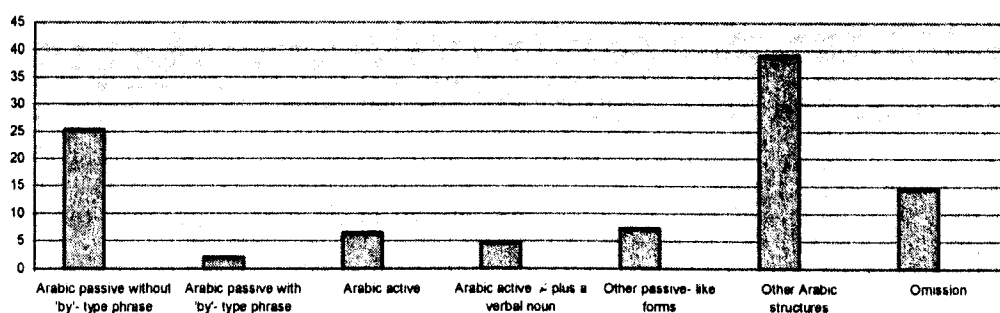


Table 98: Distribution of the translation of English passive

As Table 97 shows students used a variety of strategies to translate the English passive. The highest proportion, 39.1%, of the examples of the English passive are rendered using other Arabic structures such as Arabic nominals and active participles. For example, some students used Arabic nominals to translate the passive in “The problem we have today is the cheapness of alcohol, and the numerous outlets where it can be obtained”, Text Six, as in the following example:

و تكمن حقيقة المشكلة في سهولة الحصول علي هذه المشروبات الكحولية نتيجة لرخص ثمنها وتعدد أسواقها.

In Text Four the active participle was used to render the passive in “A report from the office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991”:

عرض تقرير صادر عن مكتب الإحصائيات الوطنية نشر بالأمس أن 8758 شخصاً ماتوا من تناول كمية مفرطة من الكحول خلال عام 2006.

The second strategy adopted by the subjects of this study to translate the English passive was to use the Arabic passive without a ‘by’-type phrase (25.4%). For instance, some students used the Arabic passive to translate the passive in “We should prohibit certain air weapons that are easily converted to fire live ammunition”, Text Two, as:

يجب أن نمنع تلك الأسلحة الهوائية التي من السهل أن تُحول إلى ذخيرة حية.

Similarly, the passive was also acceptably used to translate the English passive in “Statistics released yesterday show that recorded crime in England and Wales fell by 9 per cent”, Text Three, as in:

و تشير البنود الإحصائية التي نُشِرت بالأمس أن عدد الجرائم المسجلة في إنجلترا وويلز قلت حوالي 9%.

However, it is not always acceptable to render the English passive using the Arabic passive. For example, some students unacceptably translated the passive in “a carbon market has been created; and more and more businesses are making the investment decisions needed for a climate-friendly future”, Text Eighteen, as:

أسواق الكربون صنعت والعديد من رجال الأعمال وظفوا أعمالهم تحت الحاجة إلى مناخ نظيف في المستقبل.  
خلق سوق كاربون ، وعمل رجال الأعمال على إقامة مشاريع استثمارية لمستقبل المناخ.

Other students however gave acceptable translations using the Arabic passive as in:

وأقيم سوق للكربون، وهناك المزيد والمزيد من الأعمال التي تقوم باستثمار قرارات لازمة لإيجاد مناخ طبيعي في المستقبل.  
وانشئ سوق كاربون وهناك أعمال وأعمال أخرى تعمل على استثمار القرارات اللازمة لمستقبل مناخي جيد.

Others used تم plus a verbal noun (quasi-passive), as in:

فقد تم إنشاء أسواق للكربون، والمزيد والمزيد من الأعمال التي تعمل على تطبيق قرارات الاستثمار من أجل مستقبل مسالم للمناخ.  
فقد تم إقامة سوق كاربون، والعديد من الاقتصاديين يقومون بصناعة القرارات الاستثمارية اللازمة لمستقبل مناخي منفتح.

6.5% of the examples of the English passive were rendered by Arabic active verbs. For example, some students used the Arabic active to translate the passive in “Finally, review and enforcement of these commitments must be carried out by United Nations-based bodies”, Text Seventeen, as in:

أخيراً، على الأشخاص التابعين للأمم المتحدة أن ينفذوا التوصيات بعد تعزيزها و النظر فيها.  
أخيراً/ لا بد أن تقوم الأمم المتحدة بالأشراف على هذه الالتزامات.

Using the Arabic active to translate the English passive is recommended if the agent is specified.

Some of the examples representing the English passive (4.9%) were rendered using تم plus a verbal noun (quasi-passive). For example, some students translated the passive in “There are probably as many as 3 to 4 million people in the UK who could be classed as ‘Active Alcoholics’ ”, Text Six, as in:

يوجد حوالي 3 إلى 4 ملايين بريطاني تم تصنيفهم على أنهم من المداومين على شرب الكحول. فهناك من 3 إلى 4 مليون شخص في بريطانيا يتم تصنيفهم كشمالين نشيطين.

A number of examples of the English passive (7.3%) were rendered using passive-like forms, such as passive participles. For example, some students used the passive participle to translate the passive in “It is estimated that as many as 5 million Britons abuse alcohol on a regular basis”, as:

أنه من المقدر بحدود 5 مليون بريطاني يسيئون استعمال الكحول على قاعدة منتظمة. وإنه مقدر أنه بعدد ما يوجد من 5 ملايين بريطاني يسيئون استخدام الكحول على أسس منتظمة.

A small number of examples (2.1%) of the English passive were rendered by the Arabic passive with agentive-like constructions such as ‘through’, ‘by means of’. For example, some students translated the English agentive by-phrase in “The number of mortgages approved for homebuyers sank to a record low during October, according to figures released by the British Bankers’ Association” in Text Seven, as follows:

انخفض عدد الرهانات العقارية المتاحة للمشتريين المحليين ليسجل انخفاضاً خلال شهر أكتوبر، وفقاً للمؤشرات التي أجريت عن طريق الرابطة البريطانية لأصحاب البنوك. عدد القروض العقارية التي تمنح لمشتري البيوت انخفضت إلى رقم قياسي خلال أكتوبر، حسب الأرقام التي نشرت بواسطة جمعية البنوك البريطانية.

Students’ translations of the passive ‘by phrase’ as *عن طريق* and *بواسطة* are clear indications of a preference for literal translation. According to Badawi et al, (2004:385) agentive prepositional phrases such as *من قبل* ‘from the side of’, *على أيدي* ‘at the hands of’, *بواسطة* ‘by means of’, and *من طرف / من جانب* ‘on the part of’ have become common in Modern Standard Arabic due to the influence of European languages. However, Arab translators should be familiar with the similarities and differences in the voice systems of English and Arabic in order to avoid using constructions that may weaken their Arabic style.

14.7% of examples of the English passive were omitted in the translations. For example, some students did not translate the passive in “A report from the office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006”, Text Four, as in:

عرض مكتب الإحصائيات الدولية في تقرير... بالأمس أن 8758 أشخاص ماتوا من الإفراط في تعاطي الكحول في عام 2006. بالأمس أظهر تقرير... مكتب الإحصائيات الوطنية أن حوالي 8758 شخص توفوا بسبب الإفراط في تناول الكحول خلال العام 2006.

As the above translations show the omission of the passive did not affect the meaning of the sentence.

T	ST	Erroneous translations	Model translations
6	It <u>is estimated</u> that as many as 5 million Britons abuse alcohol on a regular basis:	المستنتج أنه خمس ملايين بريطاني يسنونون الشرب على أساس منتظم.	إذ تشير التقديرات أن ما يربو على 5 ملايين بريطاني يسنونون استخدام الخمر بشكل منتظم.
7	According to figures <u>released</u> by the British Bankers' Association:	واستنادا إلى الأشياء التي تم نشرها عن طريق جمعية عملاء البنوك البريطانية.	حسب الأرقام التي أصدرتها جمعية المصرفيين البريطانيين.
8	Be careful with the credit card – if you're <u>tempted</u> to overdo it, leave the card at home.	كن حذرا من بطاقة الائتمان إذا لم تغري لفعل ذلك فاترك البطاقة في البيت.	عليك الحذر من بطاقة الائتمان المصرفية فلو اندفعت للمبالغة في استخدامها اتركها في البيت.
18	The Kyoto Protocol <u>is generally seen</u> as an important step toward a truly global emissions reduction regime.	كيوتو بروتوكول عامة يرى على أنه خطوة مهمة أولى نحو اختزال نظام حكومي قوى عالمي.	تمثل اتفاقية كيوتو بشكل عام خطوة هامة نحو نظام حقيقي لخفض الانبعاثات العالمية.

Table 99: Errors involving the passive

#### 6.14. Anaphoric and cataphoric references (12 errors, 0.3%)

Anaphoric reference is realized when a noun is mentioned first and then followed by its pronoun. Cataphoric reference is realized when a pronoun precedes the noun it refers to (Abdul Raof, 2001, 64). English and Arabic utilize these types differently. While English makes use of both anaphoric and cataphoric references, the anaphoric reference is the canonical form in Arabic and cataphoric reference is generally considered wrong. The number of errors involving the wrong use of cataphoric and anaphoric references was 12 (0.3%). To illustrate this point, twelve students translated “Having lectured the people of the Middle East about democracy for decades, Europe and the US are seeking to trample upon the democratic rights of the Palestinian people”, Text Twelve, as in:

وبعد أن قاموا بإعطاء دروس للناس في الشرق الأوسط عن الديمقراطية لعدة عقود، أوروبا والولايات المتحدة تبخثان عن طريقة تسحق بها الحقوق الديمقراطية للشعب الفلسطيني.  
كونهم علموا الناس في الشرق الأوسط معنى الديمقراطية لعقود عدة فإنه من الواضح أن أوروبا وأميركا قد داست على الحقوق الديمقراطية للشعب الفلسطيني.  
وعلى الرغم من المحاضرات التي أعطوها للناس في الشرق الأوسط عن الديمقراطية لعقود مضت إلا أن أوروبا والولايات المتحدة تريدان أن تدوسا الحقوق الديمقراطية للشعب الفلسطيني.

As the above translations show the cataphoric reference, which is realized by the cataphoric pronouns (وا -they) and (نهم -they), breaks the stylistic rules in Arabic. One possible translation would be:



إن أوروبا والولايات المتحدة تحاولان الدوس على الحقوق الديمقراطية للشعب الفلسطيني على الرغم من حديثهم لشعوب الشرق الأوسط عن الديمقراطية لعقود من الزمن.

Total: 4764 (Females: 2141, Males 2623)

No.	Type of error	Number	Percentages
1	Punctuation	1829	38.4%
2	Discourse markers	611	12.8%
3	Word order	549	11.5%
4	Case ending	366	7.7%
5	Referential ambiguity	363	7.6%
6	Agreement	290	6.1%
7	Spelling	244	5.1%
8	Articles	133	2.8%
9	Tenses	129	2.7%
10	Prepositions	94	2.00%
11	Singular and plural	86	1.8%
12	Passive	58	1.2%
13	Cataphoric and anaphoric references	12	0.3%
	Total	4764	100 %

Table 100: Summary of grammatical errors

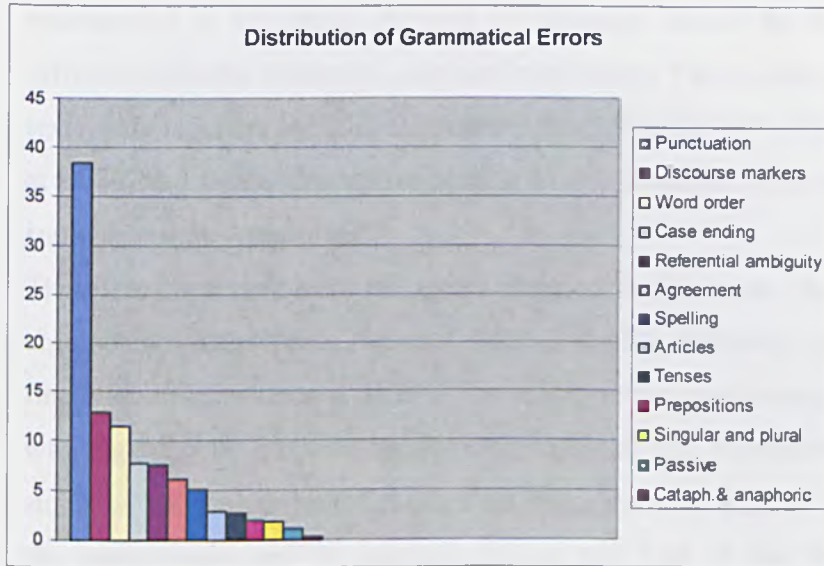
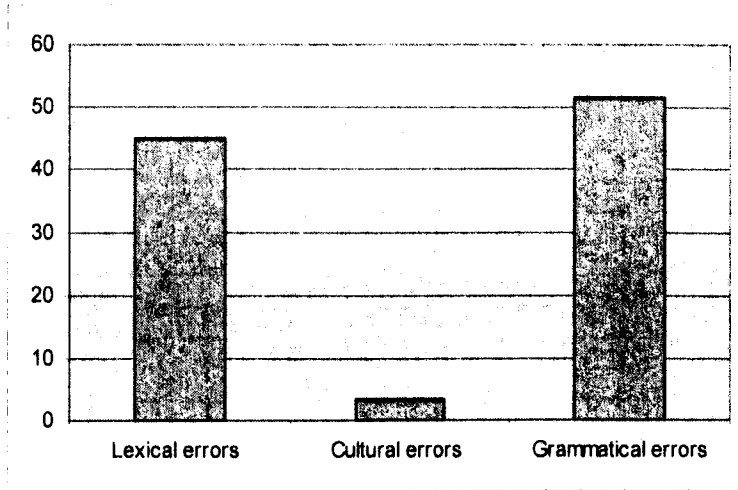


Table 101: Distribution of grammatical errors

Type of error	No. of Error for Female students	No. of Errors for Male students	Total	Percentage
Lexical errors	1892	2270	4162	45%
Cultural errors	165	162	327	3.5%
Grammatical errors	2141	2623	4764	51.5%
Total	4198	5055	9253	100%

Table 102: Summary of translation errors



**Table 103: Distribution of translation errors**

### **6.15. The results of student translators' responses to the questionnaire**

As mentioned in Section 4.6.5 student translators were asked to underline the difficulty they encountered in translating the texts by choosing one of the five options given (i.e. very difficult, difficult, moderate, easy and very easy). The results revealed that argumentative texts were regarded by students as the most difficult at 44%, followed by instructional texts at 26.2% and finally descriptive texts at 21.4% (Students' responses to the questionnaire are summarized in Appendix C).

These results accord with the errors detected in this study. As can be seen in Table 107 argumentative texts were the most difficult at 45%, followed by instructional at 28.8% and finally descriptive texts at 26.2%. The results of the questionnaire also showed that Text 18 was regarded by students as the most difficult (cf. Appendix C) while the analysis of students' translations revealed that Text 9 was the most difficult (924 errors). However, both the questionnaire and the analysis showed that Text 10 was the easiest text (248 errors). This can be attributed to students' familiarity with such types of texts as they, as Palestinians, have been living under the occupation for more than five decades.

Text	WL	OM	CO	CA	TR	PO	AT	AD	CL	AC	PN	ME	GA	ID	Total
1	58	20	31	19	0	0	16	14	34	0	6	0	0	0	198
2	93	30	66	25	1	1	27	16	19	0	0	0	1	0	279
3	67	22	36	18	1	5	18	15	6	0	0	0	0	0	188
4	46	15	2	40	0	0	10	9	11	0	0	0	0	0	133
5	100	26	28	32	9	2	13	5	1	0	0	1	1	0	218
6	46	10	7	36	0	1	13	13	8	7	6	22	2	0	171
7	66	45	74	47	42	52	11	7	14	18	0	17	1	0	394
8	47	16	2	22	65	7	9	7	2	0	0	0	1	11	189
9	70	29	33	48	26	21	30	14	3	0	25	16	1	22	338
10	53	11	0	4	0	3	7	8	0	0	24	0	0	0	110
11	82	41	9	6	0	18	8	12	9	30	0	0	10	0	225
12	92	54	9	12	0	7	6	29	12	21	10	8	9	0	269
13	49	13	2	10	0	18	4	5	6	15	0	0	0	0	122
14	64	29	40	21	1	4	10	16	27	0	45	0	2	0	259
15	70	43	11	18	20	3	3	6	3	0	0	11	4	0	192
16	27	29	0	10	43	0	9	15	4	0	0	0	1	0	138
17	72	35	55	24	31	34	7	11	5	22	0	0	3	0	299
18	91	71	72	11	66	60	14	12	9	30	0	0	4	0	440

Table 104: Lexical errors per text

Key to errors: WL Wrong Lexis, OM Omission, CO Compound, CA Colloquial Arabic, TR Transliteration, PO Polysemy, AT Alternative Translation, AD Addition, CL Collocation, AC Acronyms, PN Proper Nouns, ME Metaphor, GA Graphic Ambiguity, ID Idioms.

Text	PU	DM	WO	CE	RA	AG	SL	AR	TE	PR	SP	PS	CA	Total
1	149	20	33	21	0	7	10	0	0	1	7	0	0	248
2	129	0	6	13	0	0	11	6	0	1	1	0	0	167
3	85	78	36	12	0	9	23	4	2	6	4	1	0	260
4	81	47	37	24	0	23	10	8	13	9	0	5	0	257
5	115	0	16	24	0	10	14	2	0	6	1	0	0	188
6	158	94	26	30	120	45	22	4	3	4	4	2	0	512
7	84	28	17	35	0	13	33	23	11	7	3	7	0	261
8	95	0	0	8	0	6	10	2	3	7	10	2	0	143
9	162	69	45	22	78	39	14	5	53	7	8	1	0	503
10	56	27	5	14	0	12	6	4	3	2	9	0	0	138
11	118	0	8	23	21	5	8	2	0	4	0	1	0	190
12	181	47	42	19	54	25	15	29	8	7	2	0	12	441
13	49	10	24	39	0	17	9	0	7	6	1	0	0	162
14	54	0	53	28	6	28	22	19	1	4	5	0	0	220
15	77	67	32	27	83	36	11	9	11	4	2	3	0	362
16	41	63	43	15	0	6	4	1	1	4	2	0	0	180
17	72	0	58	2	0	0	8	1	1	5	3	28	0	178
18	123	61	68	10	1	9	14	14	12	10	24	8	0	354

Table 105: Grammatical errors per text

Key to errors: PU Punctuation, DM Discourse Markers, WO Word Order, CE Case Endings, RA Referential Ambiguity, AG Agreement, SL Spelling, AR Articles, TE Tense, PR Prepositions, SP Singular and Plural, PS Passive, and CA Cataphoric and Anaphoric.

Text	SC	PC	BK	Total
1	5	23	28	56
2	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0
5	28	0	81	109
6	51	0	0	51
7	28	0	0	28
8	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	83	83
10	0	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0
13	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0
15	0	0	0	0
16	0	0	0	0
17	0	0	0	0
18	0	0	0	0

**Table 106: Cultural errors per text**

**Key to errors: SC Social Culture, PC Political Culture, BK Background Knowledge.**

Text type	Number of texts	Number of errors	Percentage
Descriptive	1,4,7,10,13,16	2425	26.2%
Instructional	2,5,8,11,14,17	2664	28.8%
Argumentative	3,6,9,12,15,18	4164	45%
	Total	9253	100%

**Table 107: Total number of errors per text**

## 6.16. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the grammatical problems encountered by Palestinian EFL learners when translating from English into Arabic. The general analysis of the translations has shown that students committed

4764 errors (51.5% of the total). The most frequent grammatical problem was the wrong use of punctuation marks, where students committed 1829 errors (38.4%). These errors are attributed to students' unfamiliarity with the differences in the punctuation systems of English and Arabic. Following the source language text and as a result of translating literally, students reproduced English punctuation marks, introducing forms that are alien to Arabic. The incorrect use of discourse markers was the second most frequent grammatical problem; here students committed 611 errors (12.8%). Students' tendency to follow the SL structure and their unfamiliarity with the differences in the use of conjunctions between English and Arabic resulted in translations that do not conform with the textual forms of the

target language. Errors in discourse markers show that the translators made more frequent use of the additive marker **و** than other Arabic connectors. The overuse of the additive **و** in argumentative texts also reflects the translators' unfamiliarity with different types of texts. Students also used double connectors in their translations, translating the source language connector and adding the Arabic connector **و**. Students' errors in word order accounted for 549 errors (11.5%). The students' frequent use of nominal sentences rather than the unmarked verbal sentences is a clear indication of their tendency towards literal translation and their lack of awareness of target language norms and conventions. Errors in word order also showed students' unfamiliarity with some foregrounding devices such as the fronting of adverbs and the way fronting is used in English and Arabic. Errors relating to referential ambiguity, which resulted from the alternative interpretations of the groupment of the constituents within the sentence structure, accounted for 363 errors (7.6%). These errors are attributed to students' lack of linguistic competence and their unfamiliarity with target language norms and conventions such as their non-use of additional information to make the implicit meaning of the source language more explicit in the target language. Errors in case endings, number-gender agreement and spelling, which account for 900 errors (18.9%), may be attributed to poor translation skills (e.g. lack of proof reading skills) and students' lack of linguistic competence in their mother tongue. There were 133 errors (2.8%) involving the wrong use of definite and indefinite articles. Students' tendency to translate the English indefinite in the source text as definite in the target text and vice versa may be attributed to the differences in the article system in English and Arabic. Other errors were a result of students' unfamiliarity with the norms and conventions of the target language as in their translations of the indefinite 'a Briton' in "Second, foreign nationals wanting to marry a Briton could also face a language test to prove their ability to integrate", Text Fourteen, as an indefinite singular noun in the target text, giving translations that were not acceptable to the target language reader. Other errors include the addition of the definite article **ال** before the quasi-noun **غير**, which is not permitted in Arabic. Errors in tenses accounted for 129 errors (2.7%). The translations have shown that students found difficulty in translating the present perfect tense, the past perfect and the past progressive, as their corresponding Arabic forms do not have the precision that these English tenses convey. Errors in the present simple tense, the present progressive tense, the past simple and the future simple can be explained by the fact that the student translator lacks the linguistic competence to choose an appropriate equivalent tense in the target language. Students' errors in prepositions (94

errors, 2.00%) may be related to students' unfamiliarity with the differences between English and Arabic prepositions and the influence of colloquial Arabic. Students' errors involving the wrong use of singular and plural nouns (86, 1.8%) are attributed to carelessness and their lack of translation skills. Students' errors in using the passive (58 errors, 1.2%) were due to their lack of awareness of the passive system in English and Arabic. The students' general tendency to translate English agentive passive sentences into Arabic passive sentences in which the agent is overtly expressed is a clear indication of their unfamiliarity with the various options available to them for translating the English passive into Arabic and is a result of literal translation. Finally, students' errors in the use of anaphoric and cataphoric references (12 errors, 0.3%) are attributed to the difference in the use of these two types of reference, which English and Arabic utilize differently.

In the following chapter, Chapter Seven, the main findings of the study will be presented and compared with previous studies on English-Arabic translation problems. The chapter also presents suggestions for teaching translation and proposes recommendations for further studies.

## **Chapter Seven: Discussion and results**

### **7.1. Introduction**

In the previous two chapters the lexical, cultural and grammatical problems encountered by senior Palestinian EFL students at the IUG were discussed and analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The results showed that Palestinian students encountered numerous lexical, cultural and grammatical problems when they translated 18 texts covering three types of texts (descriptive, argumentative and instructional) into Arabic. The analysis of data was based on the linguistic judgements provided by a group of Arabic language specialists including the researcher's assessment, the rater's assessment, the target readership assessment and the model translation provided by the professional translator. The categorization and classification of translation errors was also based on previous studies in translation problems in general and on English-Arabic translation problems studies in particular (cf. Section 2.9, Literature review). The total number of translation errors identified in this study is 9253. They are distributed as follows:

Main categories	Sub-categories	No. of errors for female students	No. of errors for male students	Total
A. Lexical errors	Wrong lexis	532	661	1193
	Omission	267	272	539
	Compounds	213	264	477
	Colloquial Arabic	148	255	403
	Transliteration	150	154	304
	Polysemy	111	125	236
	Alternative translation	111	105	216
	Addition	82	132	214
	Collocations	85	88	173
	Acronyms	78	65	143
	Proper nouns	57	59	116
	Metaphors	28	47	75
	Graphic ambiguity	16	24	40
	Idioms	14	19	33
B. Grammatical errors	Punctuation	885	944	1829
	Discourse markers	235	376	611
	Word order	199	350	549
	Case ending	176	190	366
	Referential ambiguity	167	196	363
	Agreement	135	155	290
	Spelling	125	119	244
	Articles	44	89	133
	Tenses	58	71	129
	Prepositions	45	49	94
	Singular and plural	42	44	86
	Passive	30	28	58
	Cataphoric and anaphoric references	0	12	12
	C. Cultural errors	Social culture:	165	162
Religious culture				
Political culture				
Background knowledge				
Behaviour				

**Table 108: Summary of students' translation problems found in the study**

These results answered the general questions of the study as stated in Chapter One. These questions are:

1. What types of lexical errors are most frequently committed by Palestinian EFL learners?
2. What types of cultural errors are most frequently committed by Palestinian EFL learners?
3. What types of grammatical errors are most frequently committed by Palestinian EFL learners?



4. Is there any gender difference regarding the translation errors committed by the subjects of this study?

In this chapter, the findings reached in this study will be discussed and compared with previous studies on translation problems with particular reference to English-Arabic translation studies referred to in Chapter Two (cf. Section 2.9). The following discussion on the findings of the study follows the order of the research questions stated above.

## **7.2. Translation errors committed at the lexical level**

The study has revealed that the student translators have committed 4162 lexical errors (45% of total errors). They are: wrong word choice or wrong lexis (28.7% of total errors), omission (12.9%), compounds (11.5%), colloquial Arabic or inappropriate register (9.7%), transliteration (7.3%), polysemy (5.7%), alternative translation (5.2%), addition (5.1%), collocations (4.1%), acronyms (3.4%), proper nouns (2.8%), metaphors (1.8%), graphic ambiguity (1.00%), and idioms (0.8%). The most frequent errors were wrong word choice (wrong lexis), where student translators chose a semantically wrong word or phrase as an equivalent for the source language word or phrase. This high percentage of wrong lexis may be attributed to students' tendency to translate literally and the difficulty they encountered in finding an appropriate Arabic equivalent for SL lexical items. Students' dependence on bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries such as Al Mawrid English-Arabic Dictionary can also be blamed for the high percentage of this type of lexical error. This dictionary - the most widely used English-Arabic dictionary among Palestinian EFL students - is not designed for translation purposes. In his evaluation of existing English-Arabic dictionaries such as Al Mawrid English-Arabic Dictionary, Abu-Ssaydeh (1991) concludes that English-Arabic dictionaries are designed for the general language user and for students at the undergraduate level. Students' translations of lexical items have shown that some of these bilingual dictionaries do not provide the contextual meaning of the lexical item making it difficult for language users to choose the most appropriate meaning for the source language item (cf. Errors in polysemy 5.2.6.). In addition, students' lack of translation skills such as proof-reading skills can also be blamed for this high percentage of lexical errors (cf. Graphic ambiguity 5.2.13). By opting for the first dictionary meaning students often produced erroneous translations which fell short of conveying the intended meaning of the source

language item. These results accord with previous studies carried out by Al Ghussain (2003), Deeb (2005), and Al Abbadi (2007).

The following discussion will give more details about lexical errors and the causes that led to their occurrence. One of the types of lexical errors committed by the subjects of this study was wrong collocation. The results indicated that student translators committed 173 errors as a result of the wrong use of collocation. These errors may be attributed to the fact that collocations are language-specific and that words in English and Arabic often differ in their collocational ranges (Baker 1992, Adul-Raof 2001, Dickins et al 2002). In addition, students' tendency towards literal translation resulted in erroneous collocations that are alien to the collocational ranges of Arabic. Bahumaid (2006) classifies translation problems in collocation into intralingual and interlingual problems. Intralingual problems refer to problems in identifying collocations and establishing collocability within a language while interlingual problems refer to collocability across languages as lexemes differ from one language to another. He believes that interlingual problems constitute the translator's main concern as the translator searches for acceptable collocations in the target language (ibid: 135-6). Another possible reason for the occurrence of collocation errors in students' translations is the non-existence of English-Arabic-English collocational dictionaries (ibid: 137). The absence of collocational dictionaries leaves Arab translators with no option but to have recourse to bilingual dictionaries producing collocations that are unacceptable in the target language.

Another problem at the lexical level was that of translating idioms. The study revealed that student translators committed 33 errors involving idioms out of the total number of 4162 lexical errors. The low frequency of errors does not mean that idioms do not pose a difficulty in English-Arabic translation but rather reflect the small number of idioms (only two) in the corpus. Unlike the present study previous studies on the translation of English idioms into Arabic have shown that idioms pose a significant difficulty for the translator (Abu-Ssaydeh 2004, Abbadi, 2007). In translating idioms the subjects of this study used two techniques which were always unsuccessful: literal translation (44.6% of errors) and omission (14.3%). They also used one technique which was sometimes successful and sometimes unsuccessful: paraphrasing (41.1% of errors).

The use of literal translation as the most common technique to translate English idioms is a clear indication of students' lack of bilingual competence as well as translational skills. On the one hand the results showed that students lack cultural background knowledge of

English idioms. On the other hand the translations proved that student translators did not recognize that a certain group of lexical items constitutes an idiom (cf. Baker 1992: 65). Thus they translated idioms literally resulting in translations that fail to convey the non-literal (i.e. idiomatic) sense of the idiom. Another possible cause of students' erroneous translations in translating idioms is the difficulty of translating idioms between English and Arabic as the two languages are linguistically and culturally unrelated. Abu-Ssaydeh (2004:126-8) attributed the use of literal translation of English idioms among Arab translators to three main reasons:

1. The failure of the translator to recognize a certain lexical chunk as an idiom. According to Abu-Ssaydeh, when this happens, it reflects the linguistic incompetence of the translator and his inability to deal with idioms.
2. The failure to interpret the idiom correctly. This may occur when the idiom is cited partially or undergoes lexical or grammatical modifications such as nominalization (e.g. 'use of a mixture of sticks and carrots' استخدام مزيج من العصي و الجزر).
3. The non-existence of idioms in general-use dictionaries, whether monolingual or bilingual.

Two other lexical errors committed by the subjects of this study were inappropriate omission and addition. The total number of inappropriate omissions was 539. This high percentage of inappropriate omissions is a clear indication of the low level of the translators' performance. Student translators had recourse to omission when they failed to unravel the meaning of the source language item. This can also be interpreted as a sign of carelessness or ignorance on the part of the translator who was asked to use all available dictionaries in the translation task. Though the translator is often obliged, by TL-specific conventions or other aspects of untranslatability, to sacrifice some of the items in the SL, he/she should normally do his/her best to render those omitted parts in order not to affect the propositional content, or other important aspects of the overall meaning of the ST. It is therefore advisable to use omission only as a last resort, when the advantages of producing a smooth, readable translation clearly outweigh the value of rendering a particular meaning accurately in a given context (Baker, 1992: 42).

On the other hand students' errors involving inappropriate addition (214 in total) revealed that students used this strategy to add unnecessary information as in translating the culturally specific item 'ale' as:

Other unnecessary additions were made to improve the style of writing in Arabic, as in one student's addition of an introductory phrase in her translation of "Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths..." Text One, as:

هناك العديد من العوامل التي يوجه لها أصعب الاتهام لهذا الانفجار المفاجئ لقتلى السلاح وهي : المخدرات والانحلال المدني والعرقية والعصابات وغياب دور النموذج الإيجابي.

The results also showed that student translators used alternative translations, providing the target language reader with translation choices. These errors (216 in total) may be attributed to the translator's uncertainty about the appropriate translation of the item or items under discussion. However, student translators failed to use translation by addition to appropriately make what is implicit in the source text explicit in the target text. This failure can be attributed to a general tendency among student translators to translate literally and their lack of awareness of the TL norms and conventions. "Arabic tends to be more explicit than English: what is implicit in English has to be spelled out in Arabic" (Emery, 1987: 64). Proper nouns constitute a problem for the subjects of this study. The 116 errors found in the translation of proper nouns may be related to students' lack of source language cultural knowledge such as their inability to distinguish between the personal feminine proper noun 'Jacqui' and the masculine proper noun 'Jack' (cf. proper nouns, 5.2.11). Other errors related to proper nouns resulted from students' unfamiliarity with text types. For example, the use of 'قوات الاحتلال الصهيوني' and 'the occupying state' 'دولة الاحتلال' as translation equivalents for إسرائيل in an expository descriptive text rather than the more neutral word 'Israel' shows the translator's lack of awareness of text types and the two notions of managing and monitoring. "The translator's lack of familiarity with the textual and structural differences displayed by different text types can result in inadequate or even erroneous translations" (Jabr, 2001: 310).

With 477 errors committed by the subjects of this study compounds proved to be one of the most difficult lexical problems encountered by Palestinian student translators. It is the complexity of the English word-compounding system and the variety of syntactic relations holding between the elements of the compound word that might explain the difficulty that Arab learners encountered in translating English compounds (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989).

Another reason may be related to the less significant role that the Arabic compounding system plays in the morphology of Arabic compared that to English. For example, compound nouns consisting of strings of adjectives proved to be more difficult to translate than those consisting of the adjective and noun type which have closely corresponding equivalents in the target language. The difficulty involved in translating English compounds may also be linked to students' poor translation skills and lack of linguistic knowledge.

Unlike idioms metaphors proved to be problematic for Palestinian student translators. The errors (75 in total) resulted in most cases from word-for-word translations. These erroneous translations not only fail to relay the metaphorical sense of the source language metaphor, but they deprive the target language reader of a deeper understanding of the cultural and mental aspects of the metaphor and reduce his/her awareness of the writer's emotional experience and stylistic idiosyncrasies (cf. Shamaa 1978: 152).

Errors involving students' inability to differentiate between two similar graphic forms resulted from lack of linguistic competence and translation skills, e.g. poor reading techniques.

### **7.3. Translation errors committed at the cultural level**

The translations of culturally specific items have revealed large gaps in students' cultural knowledge. The 327 errors involved in the translation of cultural items show that students are not familiar with the source language culture and the differences between the source and target language cultures. Their reliance on general-purpose dictionaries such as Al Mawrid English-Arabic Dictionary resulted in translations that not only fail to relay the contextual meaning of the item, but also accentuate referential gaps that are not filled by such renderings due to cultural differences. The translations also revealed a lack of knowledge of the target language culture, as seen in students' unfamiliarity with the geography of their own country. In addition, the translations have shown students' unfamiliarity with translation techniques. For example, some students did not use translation by addition to provide the target language reader with additional information that would help him/her understand the cultural item nor did they use an in-text phrase explaining the cultural associations of the source text item. However, in some cases student translators showed awareness of some translation techniques such as the use of cultural transplantation. Others

used translation by addition to translate religious expressions as in the use of honorific terms with religious personalities to show respect towards religious figures.

#### **7.4. Translation errors committed at the grammatical level**

The large number of translation errors committed at the grammatical level (4764 errors in total) show that student translators had difficulty in translating certain grammatical structures from English into Arabic. As English and Arabic belong to two different language families, the two languages are expected to employ different linguistic means to achieve various grammatical functions e.g. passivization, word order, connectivity, punctuation, etc. The translations of various grammatical features such as word order, passive and tense have revealed students' unfamiliarity with the similarities and differences in these grammatical features in English and Arabic. In addition, the low level performance of the translators and their lack of awareness of the grammar of Arabic contributed to the high number of basic grammatical errors such as case endings, gender-number agreement, spelling, singular and plural, etc.

The most frequent grammatical errors involve punctuation marks (1829 errors). Examples of students' erroneous translations show that some student translators followed the punctuation system of the source language text bringing into the TL features that violate the conventions of Arabic. Errors in punctuation can also be attributed to a lack of awareness of the punctuation system in English and Arabic and a lack of awareness of the semantic, grammatical and pragmatic implications of the proper use of punctuation (cf. El Shiyab, 2001 and Ghazala, 2004).

The wrong use of discourse markers are among the most frequently committed errors in this study. The errors (611) revealed a large gap in students' syntactic competence, which is one of the prerequisites of translation (Homeidi, 2000). The difference in connectivity between English and Arabic and the literal transfer of the source language word order have also contributed to these errors. By following the SL structure, the translator failed to convey the implicit textual relations of the SL, creating what, following Baker (1992: 54), can be called calquing, or perhaps better, calquing by omission, showing that the translator is very much engrossed by the SL structure. Other errors were a result of unfamiliarity with the target language norms and conventions. For example, students' frequent use of the additive *wa* revealed their lack of knowledge of other Arabic discourse markers. The overuse of the

additive و in argumentative texts also reflects the translators' unfamiliarity with different types of texts.

Another major type of grammatical error committed by the subjects of this study involves word order. In translating the word order of the source language the translators have shown a tendency towards the use of marked nominal sentences rather than the grammatically unmarked and pragmatically more neutral verbal sentences. This tendency may be related to literal translation, such that students follow the source language word order and their lack of awareness of target language norms and conventions. Nominal sentences are properly used at the beginning of a text to indicate emphasis and importance. However, the use of nominal sentences in the subsequent sentences of the text is another indication of translators' poor knowledge of the target language conventions. The translations of word order have also shown students' unfamiliarity with some foregrounding devices such as the fronting of adverbs and the way fronting is used in English and Arabic. By fronting some adverbs translators have shifted the focus of the source language and produced sentences that have changed the intended meaning of the source language text. Fareh maintains (1995: 122) that "In many cases, a shift in the order of words in a sentence may indicate a different point of emphasis or perspective being adopted by the text producer".

Articles proved to be problematic for the subjects of the study. The translations revealed a tendency among students to translate the English indefinite in the source text as definite in the target text and vice versa without any good reason. These errors show students' unfamiliarity with the differences in the article systems of English and Arabic. Other errors resulted from literal translation and students' commitment to ST forms, as seen in their translations of the English generic reference as zero generic reference in Arabic despite the fact that nouns used generically in Arabic, whether singulars or plurals, take the definite article ال. Errors in articles also included the addition of the definite article ال before the quasi-noun غير. These errors, usually unnoticed by the target language reader, are breaches of the rules of Arabic grammar.

Other grammatical errors include case endings, number-gender agreement and spelling. These errors (900 in total), which constitute a considerable proportion of the total number of grammatical errors, may be attributed to poor translation skills and students' lack of linguistic competence. Spelling errors can also be attributed to students' carelessness and lack of proof reading skills.

The translations of tenses have shown that tenses pose a difficulty for the subjects of this study. Unlike some previous studies such as Al Ghussain (2003) and Deeb (2005), which claim that tenses do not seem to be a serious problem in English-Arabic translation due to the preference for the use of simple tenses in Arabic, this study has revealed that tenses proved to be problematic for Arab Palestinian translators. Errors in the translation of the present perfect tense, the past perfect and the past progressive can be attributed to the lack of equivalent forms in Arabic having the precision which these English tenses convey. Prepositions also pose a difficulty for Palestinian student translators who committed 94 errors in this area. These errors may be related to the influence of colloquial Arabic in addition to students' unfamiliarity with the differences between English and Arabic prepositions (cf. Hamdallah and Tushyeh, 1993, Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989). The analysis shows that some errors in prepositions do not affect the intended meaning of the source language while others result in communication breakdown.

In translating English passive sentences into Arabic several techniques have been used. The following techniques are arranged according to their order of frequency in the study:

1. Using other Arabic forms (e.g. Arabic nominals and active participles) (39.1%).
2. Arabic passive without a 'by'-type phrase (25.4%).
3. Translating by omission (14.7%).
4. Using passive-like forms (e.g. passive participles) (7.3%).
5. Using Arabic active (6.5%).
6. Dummy verbs such as *تم* plus a verbal noun (quasi-passive) (4.9%).
7. Arabic passive plus an agentive phrase (2.1%).

The use of these techniques in translating English passive into Arabic has shown that Khafaji (1996: 23) is right when he says: "The relatively free word order in Arabic, in addition to its rich verb morphological system, provides it with alternative means of expressing passivity other than by using the morphologically passive verb". However, the translation of the passive has revealed erroneous translations due to students' lack of awareness of the passive system in English and Arabic and their unfamiliarity with the various options available to them for translating the English passive into Arabic. For example, some students translated English agentive passive sentences into Arabic passive sentences in which the agent is overtly expressed. In Classical Arabic the passive has always



been described as an agentless construction (Khalil 1993: 169). The occurrence of agentive passive sentences could be a result of literal translation (Khafaji 1996: 27). However, very recently, Modern Standard Arabic has also come to exhibit examples of these phrases due to the influence of translation (Badawi 2004: 385).

### **7.5. Gender differences regarding students' translation errors**

The results showed that male students committed more errors than female students. The total number of errors committed by male students is 5055 compared with 4198 errors committed by female students. Grammatical errors show the most significant gender difference: male students committed 2623 errors while female students committed 2141 errors. However, male students made fewer cultural errors than females. While male students committed 162 cultural errors female students committed 165. However, these results are not intended to be conclusive as they represent a small number of subjects, i.e. twenty-eight subjects consisting of 14 male and 14 female students. This invites further research on this issue using more subjects. Most of the studies which have been carried out focused on gender differences in maths, English and writing achievement. For instance, Smith (1996) stated that after five years of study by boys and girls in co-educational and single-sex schools in Australia, girls remained significantly ahead of boys in English while boys remained slightly better in maths. Mourtaga (2004), who studied the writing errors committed by senior Palestinian EFL learners at the Islamic University of Gaza, Palestine, pointed out that female students made fewer errors than male subjects in all categories of error except punctuation. He attributed this difference to three reasons:

1. The tendency among Palestinian female students to study languages while their male counterparts prefer science and technology.
2. Graduate Point Average (GPA) at high school, where the mean school GPA for female students was 3.2 compared with 2.9 for male students.
3. Job motivation in Palestinian society: graduates of English Departments can easily get appointed at local schools where the working conditions (e.g. four to five hours a day) seem to be the most suitable for Palestinian women, who return home at midday, exhausted, to take care of their children.

After reviewing the results of the General Secondary School Certificate in the Gaza Strip in the last three years (, i.e. 2006, 2007, and 2008) the researcher found that female students did better than male students. The results showed that the average score for female students was 85.3% compared to 79.3% for male students. These results were compared with recent statistics on languages in secondary education in England. According to the National Centre for Languages (CILT), 69% of entries across languages achieved a grade A\*-C at GCSE in 2008. Girls achieved 73% of the grades compared to 64% for boys. By language the trends have been as follows:

1. French: 68% got A\*-C grades (73% for girls, 63% for boys).
2. German: 72% got A\*-C grades (76% for girls, 68% for boys).
3. Spanish: 71% got A\*-C grades (75% for girls, 66% for boys).
4. Italian: 85% got A\*-C grades (86% for girls, 83% for boys).
5. Other languages: 82% got A\*-C grades (85% for girls, 79% for boys).

These results together with the results of students in the General Secondary School Certificate in Gaza might justify the gender difference in the translation errors committed by the subjects of this study.

#### **7.6. Main contributions of the study:**

The present study has contributed significantly to translation studies in general and to English-Arabic translation in particular. In discussing three types of translation problems encountered by Palestinian EFL learners in English-Arabic translation, the study has focused on four main points:

1. The large number of errors committed by Palestinian EFL students at the lexical, cultural and grammatical levels when they translated 18 texts covering three types of texts (expository descriptive, argumentative and instructional) into Arabic. The large number of texts involved in the translation test (18 texts) translated by a relatively large number of participants (28 students) gave a good degree of reliability to the findings of this study - much higher than that found in similar previous studies (e.g. Al Ghussain 2003, and Deeb 2005) . In addition, the linguistic context of the participants as Palestinians who have been living under the Israeli occupation for five decades has generated some specific lexical,

cultural and grammatical problems. The total number of errors investigated in this study was 9253. At the lexical level, the study revealed that Palestinian EFL learners committed 4162 lexical errors. Some of these problems, such as wrong word choice or wrong lexis (28.7% of total errors), omission (12.9%), compounds (11.5%), colloquial Arabic or inappropriate register (9.7%), transliteration (7.3%), polysemy (5.7%), alternative translation (5.2%), addition (5.1%), collocations (4.1%), and metaphors (1.8%), have not been discussed thoroughly in previous studies. In addition, other lexical problems such as graphic ambiguity (1.00%) have not been empirically investigated at all before. At the cultural level the 327 cultural errors (3.5% of total errors) committed by student translators have revealed large gaps in students' cultural knowledge and their reliance on general-purpose dictionaries which resulted in translations that not only failed to relay the contextual meaning of the item, but also accentuated referential gaps that were not filled by literal renderings due to cultural differences. In addition, the discussion of cultural translation problems has shown students' unfamiliarity with some translation techniques such as the use of translation by addition and the provision of in-text phrases explaining the cultural associations of cultural items. At the grammatical level students' tendency to translate literally and their preference to follow the source language word order have resulted in a large number of grammatical errors (4764, 51.5%). The lack of students' linguistic competence and their unfamiliarity with the grammar of Arabic contributed to the high number of basic grammatical errors; errors in case endings, gender-number agreement, spelling, singular and plural totalled (986, 20.7%). Unlike previous studies such as Al Ghussain (2003) and Deeb (2005) the study has shown that tenses posed a difficulty for the subjects of this study, with students committing 129 errors (2.7%). In addition, grammatical problems such as referential ambiguity (363, 7.6%) and cataphoric and anaphoric reference (12, 0.3%) have not been empirically investigated in other studies. Furthermore, the detailed analysis of the translation techniques employed by the subjects of this study in analyzing lexical, cultural and grammatical problems was intended to draw the attention of those specialists in the field of translation training and syllabus design to the actual translation problems encountered by Palestinian students. The outcomes of this study will contribute to developing the teaching of translation in Palestinian universities in particular and in Arab universities in general.

2. By investigating the translation errors committed by 14 male and 14 female students, the present study has shed some light on the gender issue. The results of the gender difference investigated in this study were not intended to be conclusive; the study has revealed the

need for more translation studies to be carried out on this particular issue, particularly in English-Arabic translation.

3. The use of three types of texts, namely expository descriptive, instructional and argumentative, has enabled the researcher to investigate some text-type specific errors such as those related to students' unfamiliarity with the two notions of managing and monitoring. No previous study has looked at translation errors from this perspective.

4. The assessment of students' translation errors was based on the linguistic judgments of a group of Arabic specialists including the researcher, the rater, the target reader assessment and the model translation provided by the professional translation. This gave more reliability to the findings of this study, and more lexical, cultural and grammatical problems were identified.

### **7.7. Suggestions for teaching translation**

As the analysis has indicated, student translators experienced a large number of translation problems on three levels: lexical, cultural and grammatical. These errors are a clear indication of the low level of performance of students, reflecting serious gaps in their translation competence. In order to help Palestinian EFL learners cope with the various types of lexical, cultural and grammatical errors discussed in this thesis and to ultimately produce error-free translations, the researcher suggests that students' translation competence be developed along the line suggested by a number of writers, as follows:

Kelly (2005: 32-3) lists a number of areas of translation competence required by a translator. These include:

1. Communicative and textual competence in at least two languages and cultures. This area covers both active and passive skills in the two languages involved, together with awareness of textuality and discourse, and textual and discourse conventions in the cultures involved.
2. Cultural and intercultural competence. Culture here refers not only to encyclopaedic knowledge of history, geography, institutions and so on of the cultures involved (including the translator's or student's own), but also and particularly, values, myths, perceptions, beliefs, behaviours and textual representations of these. Awareness of issues of intercultural communication and translation as a special form thereof is also included here.

3. Subject area competence. The translator must have basic knowledge of subject areas he/she will/may work in, to a degree sufficient to allow comprehension of source texts and access to specialized documentation to solve translation problems.
4. Professional and instrumental competence. Use of documentary resources of all kinds, terminological research, information management for these purposes; use of IT tools for professional practice (word-processing, desk-top publishing, data bases, Internet, email, etc.) together with more traditional tools such as fax, and dictaphone. Basic notions for managing professional activity: contracts, tenders, billing, tax; ethics; professional associations.
5. Attitudinal or psycho-physiological competence. Self-concept, self-confidence, attention/concentration, memory. Initiative.
6. Interpersonal competence. Ability to work with other professionals involved in the translation process (translators, revisers, documentary researchers, terminologists, project managers, layout specialists), and other actors (clients, initiators, authors, users, subject area experts). Team work. Negotiation skills. Leadership skills.
7. Strategic competence. Organizational and planning skills. Problem identification and problem-solving. Monitoring, self-assessment and revision.

It is worth noting that the above competences are specifically required of a professional translator. However, in ideal translation programmes some of these competences can be taught to future translators. Specifically, in addition to having knowledge in communicative and textual competence, future translators should be familiar with some aspects of professional and instrumental competence such as the use of IT tools and organizational and planning skills as main components of strategic competence.

Kusmaul (1995: 7) suggests a number of training courses including courses in the translator's mother tongue, foreign language and text analysis. These courses not only help improve students' bilingual competence but also improve their understanding of source texts and help them with their decisions when translating. In addition to developing the translator's bilingual competence and improving his/her translation skills the translator should be familiar with proofreading techniques as the occurrence of basic grammatical and other errors in areas such as case ending, agreement and spelling (cf. sections, 6.5, 6.7 and 6.8) has shown students' unfamiliarity with these basic skills. In this regard, Dickins et al (2002, 217-221) distinguish between revision and editing as the final stages of the post-

translation process. At the revision stage the main task is checking the TT for adherence to the ST in terms of accuracy. Errors of accuracy can be minor such as spelling mistakes or punctuation, or lexical and phrasal errors, or they can include more complex errors such as ungrammatical constructions or ambiguous configurations on the sentential and discourse levels. At the editing stage the editor's main task is to focus on the TT, considering it from the point of view of style and terminology. To improve revision and editing skills students can be provided with unrevised translations and asked to work in groups to produce revised and edited TTs.

Student translators should have knowledge of text typology as such knowledge enables them to find the best equivalence at both the macro-and micro-textual levels of the text (cf. Hatim and Mason 1990: 150-3). They should be provided with a representative cross-section of subject areas and text types in order to properly prepare them for entering the translation profession (Snell-Hornby 1992:17). In addition, translation instructors can make use of some text-type specific problems found in this study and discuss them with students in class.

Students should be trained in how to use dictionaries in an appropriate way, bearing in mind the context which is the determining factor in searching for equivalence, whether it is lexical, grammatical, or discursal. They should be familiar with the basic concepts of lexicography, which include structural semantic notions such as synonymy, hyponymy, polysemy, homonymy, collocation, connotation and distinctive features (Kussmaul 1995: 124). They should also be encouraged to use specialist dictionaries such as dictionaries of collocations, idioms and proverbs in addition to specialist translation software.

Kussmaul lists some conditions for teaching creative translation (cf. Kussmaul, 1995: 51-3). One of these conditions is to develop students' motivation towards translation. This, according to Kussmaul, requires that:

...students should be able to take a positive attitude toward their task. They should like their text (and maybe their teacher) or at least should like translating it. The problem must not appear too big for them, nor too simple either. As teachers, we should take care to select texts with an appropriate degree of difficulty for the specific stage of translator training.

Kussmaul adds that "When a text is being translated in class, criticism should never be harsh. We should try to create *that atmosphere of sympathetic encouragement* which... seems to be conducive to creative thought" (ibid: 51). In this regard Kelly (2005: 128) adds

that getting translation trainees involved in choosing their own translation material helps them identify more with activities, feel more in control of their own learning, and become more motivated. She goes on to say that the activity of text selection is a rich learning experience which encourages students to acquire greater awareness of translation problems, and to reflect on different professional activities, with their relative difficulty.

The translations revealed that student translators did not look beyond the word border, resulting in an imbalance between top-down and bottom-up processes. According to Kussmaul (1995: 19), this imbalance may result from an attitude where individual parts of the text become more important than the text as a whole. As a solution, Kussmaul suggests that students should be made aware of the necessary balance between top-down and bottom-up processes.

### **7.8. Limitations of the study**

The limitations of this study can be summarized as follows:

1. In the administration stage of the test the subjects of this study found difficulty in reaching the test venue due to the fuel crisis in Gaza. As a result, two students were unable to take the translation test, reducing the total number of participants to 28 students (cf. 4.4 Subjects of the study).
2. On the first day of the translation test some participants were reluctant to participate in the test as they thought the test could affect their course grade. In general, human subjects might be careless or indifferent in their assignments when they are told that what they are doing will not be counted for their course grade. This might be true, especially regarding Palestinian students, who are discouraged by the general political situation, and also taking into account the poor quality of life of the Palestinian people who have been living under occupation for five decades.
3. Other limitations include the relatively small number of participants involved in the study in addition to the inevitably subjective nature of the raters' assessments.

### **7.9. Recommendations for further research**

Based on the findings of the study and taking into account the limitations of the study, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

1. The high number of translation problems encountered by student translators in this study calls for more studies to be done on translation problems in general and English-Arabic translation problems in particular.
2. The low frequency of translation errors found in the translation of idioms due to the low occurrence of idioms in the STs (i.e. only two idioms) requires further studies to be done using more source language materials.
3. Other areas which require further investigation include metaphors and titles.
4. Since Arabic is one of the world languages which have come under the influence of translation from other languages, particularly from English, it would be worth investigating the effect of translation from English on Arabic in areas such as word order, passive and the translation of loan words. These studies could help establish a set of criteria of acceptability that might end the long-standing debate between the purists and the innovators in the Arab world.
5. It would be a good idea to further investigate gender differences in translation errors in general and in English-Arabic translation in particular as relatively few studies have been carried out on this particular issue.
6. It would be interesting to carry out a follow-up study using students from the Department of English at the IUG who have attended appropriate translation training and made use of the findings of this study. The results of the follow-up study could be compared with the findings of the present study to see how appropriate training and the application of the findings of the present study can affect the quality of translation.
7. The results indicated that the misuse of bilingual dictionaries has a great impact on the quality of translations resulting in many erroneous translations. It would be worth investigating the role existing bilingual dictionaries have on the quality of translation when compared with other dictionaries that are mainly used for translation purposes such as dictionaries of collocations, idioms and phrasal verbs.
8. The use of three types of texts (descriptive, instructional and argumentative) in this study has resulted in some text-type specific errors. It would be a good idea to further investigate other text-type related problems using the text-linguistic approach suggested by Hatim and Mason (1990).
9. The present study has investigated the translation problems encountered by senior Palestinian EFL learners translating into Arabic. Another study investigating the translation problems encountered by senior Palestinian EFL learners translating into English would



shed more light on the issue of directionality in translation. The present study has shown that translating into the mother tongue is not as easy as one might think; the large number of basic grammatical errors in students' translations reflects a gap in translators' linguistic competence in the mother tongue.

## Appendices

### Appendix A: The translation test

#### Dear Student:

This translation test is part of my PhD research. I would be very grateful if you could translate all the texts. After translating each text you will grade the text according to the level of difficulty by choosing the appropriate box below each one. Only one box is required for each text. You will be allowed to use English-Arabic or English-English dictionaries.

The researcher

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#### 1. Descriptive. Britain's gun culture

[www.bbc.co.uk/news.21/11/2007](http://www.bbc.co.uk/news.21/11/2007)

During the past year the deliberate use of guns to take life has risen in England and Wales. According to the Home Office, there were 58 firearms-related homicides in 2006-07 compared with 49 in the previous year – an increase of 18%. Drugs, urban decay, racism, "gangsta" rap and an absence of positive role models have all been blamed for the recent spate of gun deaths, with Tory leader David Cameron going so far as to blame a "broken society".

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

#### 2. Instructional: What we're doing about gun crime

<http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/crime-victims/reducing-crime/gun-crime/>

Firstly, we should introduce a minimum five-year sentence for people convicted of possessing an illegal firearm. Secondly, we should make it an offence to possess an air weapon or imitation firearm in public without legal authority or reasonable excuse. Thirdly, we should increase the age limit for possession of air rifles to 17. Fourthly, we should prohibit certain air weapons that are easily converted to fire live ammunition. Finally, we should cut off the supply of firearms into the country by tightening security on import routes and international mail, and monitoring online firearm suppliers.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

### 3. Argumentative: The shocking truth

Friday, 25 January 2008

<http://www.independent.co.uk/opinion/leading-articles/leading-article-the-shocking-truth-773842.html>

It is an all too familiar paradox. The crime figures show the risk of falling victim to an offence is going down, but the public fear of crime remains as high as ever. Statistics released yesterday show that recorded crime in England and Wales fell by 9 per cent from July to September last year, compared to the same period in 2006. But nearly two-thirds of people believe crime is increasing. It is not credible to argue that the police figures do not reflect the reality of the situation. The authoritative British Crime Survey of offending levels shows the same trend. All crime is down 32 per cent over the past decade.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

### 4. Descriptive: Middle-aged binge drinkers dying in record numbers

<http://www.independent.co.uk/life-style/health-and-wellbeing/health-news/middleaged-binge-drinkers-dying-in-record-numbers-774279.html> Saturday, 26 January 2008

A report from the office for National Statistics published yesterday shows that 8,758 people died from excessive alcohol intake in 2006, twice the number in 1991. Death rates rose in all age groups but the biggest increase for both sexes was among people aged 35 to 54, a legacy of heavy drinking in their 20s and early 30s. Death rates for women in this age group doubled from 7.2 to 14.8 per 100,000, a larger increase than for women in any other age group.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

### 5. Instructional: Revealed: Brown's secret summit to beat binge drinking

<http://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/politics/revealed-browns-secret-summit-to-beat-binge-drinking-763945.html> 9 December 2007

First, shops and supermarkets must stop selling alcohol below cost prices. This also involves reducing sales to under-18s by bars, off-licences and retailers. Second, there should be a ban on outdoor alcohol advertising within a certain distance of schools, as well as on drinks advertising on TV before the watershed. Third, university students should face a clampdown on drinks promotion, and parents of children caught drinking should be subject to fixed-penalty fines. Finally, there must be higher taxes on the most potent beers and mixers associated with binge drinking.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

6. Argumentative: Britain and binge drinking

<http://www.express.co.uk/posts/view/8989/Are-we-a-nation-of-binge-drinkers->

Britain has always had a reputation as a nation of 'Binge Drinkers'. Go back into history and there are complaints in Medieval Times about our love of quaffing vast quantities of Ale, and our love of rowdyism and violence.

The problem we have today is the cheapness of alcohol, and the numerous outlets where it can be obtained. It is possibly true that as a society, we are storing up massive health problems in the community, as happened in the 18th Century [...]. It is estimated that as many as 5 million Britons abuse alcohol on a regular basis. It is also true that more and more young people are turning up at Accident and Emergency units as a result of heavy boozing, or the related violence and accidents. There are probably as many as 3 to 4 million people in the UK who could be classed as 'Active Alcoholics'. So there is a major problem now and it will continue. What is to be done about it, that is the '64 Thousand Dollar Question!'

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

7. Descriptive: Mortgage approvals dive as market cools

<http://www.thebusiness.co.uk/news-and-analysis/368571>

Friday, 23 November 2007

The number of mortgages approved for homebuyers sank to a record low during October, according to figures released by the British Bankers' Association that provide further evidence of a slowdown in the property market. The BBA said the number of customers granted home loans slumped by almost a fifth from 54,000 in September to just over 44,100. This represents a fall of 37 per cent year on year and was the third drop in consecutive months. Analysts said the data showed the "troubled housing market" was now "cooling significantly" and called on the Bank of England to cut interest rates.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

8. Instructional: How to keep on top of your cash

[http://news.independent.co.uk/uk/this\\_britain/article3300968.ece](http://news.independent.co.uk/uk/this_britain/article3300968.ece)

02 January 2008

First, keep an eye on your spending and check your bank statements. Second, don't ignore the bills. Where you can, arrange to pay monthly so you can spread the cost. Third, be careful with the credit card – if you're tempted to overdo it, leave the card at home. Fourth, start to save, or save a bit more; there are some good offers as banks compete for your cash. Finally, if you think you are heading for difficult financial times, go and talk to your bank sooner rather than later.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

9. Argumentative: UK house prices set to tumble

<http://www.newstatesman.com/20071119000119> November 2007

Firstly, what happened is that speculators, who had driven up prices by buying, buying, buying, stopped buying. Thus, prices dropped as demand fell away. Secondly, the Bank of England interest rate has risen 9 times since 2003 and 5 times since August 2006. The worldwide credit fiasco has resulted in the global credit crunch, the result of which is that borrowers can't get the loans they obtained 6 months ago. And those who do get an offer of a loan, get it at higher rates than before. Thirdly, the Council of Mortgage Lenders forecasts 45,000 home repossessions next year. That will depress the market. Fourthly, the amount of debt in our society is literally astronomical and this will impact hugely in the coming economic downturn. As a society we have little savings to see us through. Remember Joseph: "Seven years of plenty followed by seven years of famine".

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

10. Descriptive: The Arab-Israeli Conflict

<http://www.guardian.co.uk/international/story/0,,2235606,00.html> January 4,2008

Israeli troops today killed two Palestinian Hamas gunmen in Gaza, wounding three others. The killings came after Palestinian militants yesterday fired a Katyusha rocket at the northern part of the Israeli town of Ashkelon - the longest reach yet by a Palestinian rocket. Israel hit back with air strikes and ground operations in which nine people, including three civilians, were killed.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

11. Instructional Text: End this punishment of the Palestinians

July 12, 2006 <http://www.guardian.co.uk/israel/Story/0,,1818345,00.html>

We the undersigned call upon the British government:1) to immediately work for the restoration of EU aid to the Palestinian Authority; 2) to demand that Israel end its blockade and pass on taxes; 3) to demand that Israel cease all military action in the occupied territories; 4) to demand the release of all elected Palestinian officials and the instigation of a programme for the release of all prisoners held in violation of international law; 5) to apply pressure through the UN for Israel to respect the UN resolutions requiring its withdrawal from the territories it illegally occupied in 1967; 6) to end Britain's arms trade with Israel until it abides by international law.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

12. Argumentative Text: End this punishment of the Palestinians

July 12, 2006 <http://www.guardian.co.uk/israel/Story/0,,1818345,00.html>

The Israeli government's behaviour at present is to be condemned. The failure of our government to speak out against Israel's oppression of the Palestinian population is complicit with those actions of the EU, the US and Israel. It is, in effect, a coordinated attempt to collectively punish the Palestinian people for electing a government of which they disapprove. Having lectured the people of the Middle East about democracy for decades, Europe and the US are seeking to trample upon the democratic rights of the Palestinian people.

The suspension of aid by the EU and the US, the withholding of Palestinian taxes by Israel, and Israel's illegal blockade are crimes against the Palestinian people. They are creating a humanitarian catastrophe in Gaza and the West Bank and have emboldened Israel to sustain an unrelenting bomb and missile barrage, which regularly kills innocent children and other non-combatants in violation of the fourth Geneva convention which protects civilians under occupation.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

13. Descriptive : Record immigration sees UK population soar  
<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/25/10/2007>

Britain is currently experiencing its biggest influx of immigrants in history, according to the Office for National Statistics. With 520 new immigrants arriving every day, the ONS has predicted that the UK population will increase by five million to 65 million people within a decade, and that by mid century England's population will increase by nearly 16 million - that is twice the population of Greater London.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

14. Instructional: Tougher rules for unskilled migrants  
<http://news.independent.co.uk/uk/politics/article3226398.ece> 06 December 2007

Jacqui Smith, the Home Secretary, announced the government's new policy to address increasing immigration rates. First, low-skilled workers from the developing world will be barred from moving to Britain. Second, foreign nationals wanting to marry a Briton could also face a language test to prove their ability to integrate. Third, the government will set up a Border Police Force with powers to track down and remove illegal migrants. Finally, a new points-based system for economic migrants will be introduced in the spring, only allowing them to come to this country if they have sufficient skills and qualifications.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

15. Argumentative: We must act now to cut immigrant numbers

The Daily Telegraph on 24 October, 2007

The huge increase in the population will have enormous impacts on the future of our society. The new migration surges imply that new homes will have to be built to house the extra migrants. Already the glue of our society has been weakened under the impact of rapidly growing communities of very diverse cultures - some of whom have little intention of integrating with us.

The government has pointed to globalization as the cause, claiming that immigration may add £6 billion to production, but it adds a similar proportion to our population. As a result, the benefit to the native British population is trivial. Indeed, low paid British workers will pay the price of immigration, as they find that their own wages are held down by competition from the new arrivals.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

## 16. Descriptive: Global warming

Oshima, A. and Hogue, A. (2006) *Writing Academic English*. Pearson. USA

Global warming is one of the biggest problems facing humankind in the next few decades. In the past 150 years, global temperatures have risen approximately 1°C (1.8° F). If temperatures continue to rise, the consequences could be catastrophic. As the earth's temperature rises, polar ice will melt, causing the water level of the oceans to rise. Rising ocean levels, in turn, will cause flooding along the coasts. Global warming will also cause major changes in climate that will affect agriculture.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

## 17. Instructional: Kyoto Protoco

[http://unfccc.int/kyoto\\_protocol/items/2830.php](http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/items/2830.php)

First, developed countries must reduce their greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions below levels specified for each of them in the treaty. Second, emission reducing targets must be met within a five-year time frame between 2008 and 2012. Third, a total cut in GHG emissions of at least 5% against the baseline of 1990 must also be met. Fourth, developing nations must benefit in terms of technology transfer and investment brought about through collaboration with industrialized nations under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM). Finally, review and enforcement of these commitments must be carried out by United Nations-based bodies.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

## 18. Argumentative: Kyoto Protocol

[http://unfccc.int/kyoto\\_protocol/items/2830.php](http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/items/2830.php)

The Kyoto Protocol is generally seen as an important step toward a truly global emissions reduction regime that will stabilize GHG concentrations at a level which will avoid dangerous climate change. As a result of the Protocol, governments have already put, and are continuing to put legislation and policies in place to meet their commitment; a carbon market has been created; and more and more businesses are making the investment decisions needed for a climate-friendly future. The protocol provides the essential architecture for any new international agreement or set of agreements on climate change. The first commitments period of the Kyoto protocol expires in 2012. By then, a new international framework needed to have been negotiated and ratified which can deliver the stringent emissions reductions the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) tells us are needed.

1. Very difficult  2. Difficult  3. Moderate  4. Easy  5. Very easy

## Appendix B: The model translation

### 1. ثقافة البندقية في بريطانيا

يفيد تقرير صادر عن وزارة الداخلية في المملكة المتحدة عن ارتفاع معدل الاستخدام العمدي للسلاح الناري في إنجلترا ومقاطعة ويلز خلال السنة الماضية فحسب التقرير تبين أن عدد حوادث القتل باستخدام السلاح الناري لسنة 2006-07 قد بلغ 58 حالة مقارنة ب 49 واقعة سجلت في السنة الماضية أي بزيادة قدرها 18%. وقد عزى التقرير هذا الارتفاع الملحوظ مؤخرا في حوادث القتل بالسلاح إلى المخدرات وانحلال مجتمع المدينة والعنصرية وعصابات الراب - الموسيقى الصاخبة - وغياب نماذج السلوك المثالي، لدرجة أن السيد ديفيد كامبيرون رئيس حزب المحافظين بلغ به الأمر إلى لوم ما أسماه بالمجتمع المفكك.

### 2. ماذا العمل حيال جرائم السلاح؟

إن أول ما يجب عمله هو جعل العقوبة الدنيا لحيازة السلاح الناري غير المرخص لا تقل عن خمس سنوات، ومن ثم جعل من حمل السلاح الهوائي أو السلاح الناري المقلد في الأماكن العامة دون تفويض رسمي أو سبب وجيه جنحة يعاقب عليها القانون. أما ثالثا فعلينا أن نرفع السن القانونية لحيازة السلاح للبنادق الصوتية إلى السابعة عشر من العمر. ورابعا يجب علينا أن نمنع أنواعا معينة من البنادق الهوائية التي يسهل تحويلها إلى استخدام الذخيرة الحية. وأخيرا يجب علينا العمل على خفض توريد الأسلحة النارية إلى البلاد بتشديد الشروط الأمنية على طرق التوريد والبريد الدولي ومراقبة موردي الأسلحة النارية عبر الشبكة الدولية للمعلومات، الإنترنت.

### 3. الحقيقة المروعة

إنه لتناقض مألوف جدا أنه حين تظهر أرقام الجريمة انخفاضاً في خطر الوقوع ضحية لهجوم وفي نفس الوقت يظل فيه خوف الجمهور مرتفعا كما كان من قبل. ففي حين تبين الإحصاءات المنشورة يوم أمس أن الجرائم المسجلة في إنجلترا ومقاطعة ويلز انخفضت من 9% من تموز إلى أيلول السنة الماضية مقارنة مع نفس الفترة من 2006، يظل ما يقارب ثلثي الناس يعتقدون أن معدل الجريمة في ازدياد. ولا يصح الجدل بأن أرقام الشرطة لا تعكس واقع الحال. ذلك أن المسح الرسمي للجريمة البريطانية لمستويات الاعتداء يظهر نفس الميل، من أن المستوى الكلي للجريمة انخفض بنسبة 32% خلال العقد الماضي.

### 4. متوسط الأعمار من معاقري الخمر في الحفلات الصاخبة بموتون بأعداد قياسية

أشار تقرير صادر عن مكتب الإحصاءات الوطنية نشر أمس أن 8,758 شخصا قد ماتوا بسبب الإسراف في شرب الخمر سنة 2006 ما يبلغ ضعف العدد المسجل سنة 1991. إذ ارتفعت معدلات الوفاة في كل المجموعات العمرية لكن الزيادة الأكبر عند الجنسين كان لدى الأفراد ما بين 35 و54 من العمر، متأثرين بميراث من الإسراف في تناول الخمر في سن العشرين وأوائل الثلاثين. أما معدلات الوفاة للنساء في هذه المجموعة العمرية فقد تضاعف من 7.2 إلى 14.8 لكل 100,000 مما يعتبر زيادة أكبر عما هو الحال لدى النساء في المجموعات العمرية الأخرى.

### 5. الكشف عن قمة بروان السرية لمواجهة الحفلات الصاخبة لمعاقرة الخمر

أولا، تمتنع الحوانيت والأسواق المركزية عن بيع الكحول بأقل من أسعار التكلفة ويتضمن هذا تقليل المبيعات لمن هم دون 18 في الحانات والمتاجر المرخصة لبيع الخمر (وليس لتناولها) والبانعين بالتجزئة. ثانيا: تطبيق المنع على الإعلان عن الخمر خارج محلاتها في حدود مسافة معينة من المدارس كما يطبق هذا على الإعلان عن الخمر في التلفزة قبل التاسعة مساءً - الفترة التي لا يسمح بعدها للأطفال بمشاهدة برامج التلفزيون. ثالثا، يمارس على طلاب الجامعات تقيدا لترويج الخمر كما يخضع والدا الأطفال الذين يضبطون وهم يشربون الخمر لغرامات تعزيرية محددة. وأخيرا، لا بد من فرض ضرائب أكبر على الجعة الأكثر تأثيرا وأخطار المشروبات المنتشرة في الحفلات الصاخبة لمعاقرة الخمر.

### 6. بريطانيا تسرف في الشراب

اشتهرت بريطانيا دائما بأنها أمة من "معاقري الخمر"؛ فلو رجعنا للتاريخ نجد الشكاوى في العصور الوسطى حول حينا لأن نعب كميات كبيرة من الجعة مثلما نحب الفوضى والعنف. والمشكلة التي نعاني منها اليوم هي رخص أسعار المسكرات وتعدد مصادر الحصول عليها. وربما يصح القول بأننا كمجتمع ندخر مشكلات صحية جسيمة لدى الجمهور، كما حدث في القرن 18 [...] إذ تشير التقديرات أن ما يربو على 5 ملايين بريطاني يسيئون استخدام الخمر بشكل منتظم. ويصح القول أيضا بتزايد عدد الشباب الذين يحولون إلى أقسام الحوادث والطوارئ من جراء الإسراف في الشراب أو العنف والحوادث المرتبطة بذلك. فمن المرجح أن ما يربو على 3 إلى 4 مليون شخص في المملكة المتحدة



يمكن أن يصنفوا ضمن "معاقري الخمر". ومن ثم فنحن الآن بصدد مشكلة رئيس وسوف تستمر. والسؤال الهام الذي يطرح نفسه علينا، "ماذا نحن فاعلون حيالها؟"

#### 7. انخفاض اعتمادات التسليف العقاري لانخفاض نشاط سوق التسليف

انخفض عدد عقود التسليف العقاري المعتمدة لمشتري البيوت إلى مستوى قياسي خلال تشرين أول حسب الأرقام التي أصدرتها جمعية المصرفيين البريطانيين والتي تعطي مؤشرا إضافيا على انخفاض أنشطة سوق العقارات. فقد قالت الجمعية المذكورة بأن عدد المشتريين الذين حصلوا على اعتمادات لقروض تسليف عقارية لشراء المنازل انخفض بمعدل الخمس تقريبا، فقد هبط من 54,000 إلى ما يزيد عن 44,100 بقليل في أيلول. ويمثل هذا الرقم انخفاضا بمعدل 37% سنة بعد سنة وكان ثالث هبوط له في الشهور المتتالية. وقال محللون بأن البيانات تظهر أن "سوق الإسكان المضطربة" تمر الآن بفترة "فتور ملحوظ" ودعوا مصرف بريطانيا إلى خفض أسعار الفائدة.

#### 8. كيف تتحكم في وضعك النقدي

عليك أولا أن تراقب إنفاقك والتأكد من التقارير المصرفية. ومن ثم يجب ألا تهمل الفواتير. وحيثما أمكن عليك بالسداد الشهري للفواتير كي توزع التكلفة. وفي المقام الثالث عليك الحذر من بطاقة الائتمان المصرفية فلو اندفعت للمبالغة في استخدامها اتركها في البيت. وعليك رابعا البدء بالتوفير أو زيادة التوفير قليلا إن كنت بدأت من قبل، حيث يوجد بعض العروض الجيدة ذلك أن المصارف تتنافس على نقودك. وأخيرا إذا كنت تظن أنك مقدم على ظروف مالية صعبة اتصل بمصرفك وتحدث معهم في وقت مبكر ولا تتأخر.

#### 9. أسعار البيوت في المملكة المتحدة تنهار

أولا: ما حدث هو أن المضاربين الذين رفعوا الأسعار عاليا عبر الشراء المستمر توقفوا عن الشراء. وهكذا هبطت أسعار البيوت مع انحدار الطلب.

ثانيا: لقد ارتفع معدل الفائدة في مصرف إنجلترا تسع مرات منذ 2003 وخمس مرات منذ آب 2006. وحيث أن الهبوط العالمي للائتمان قد أدى إلى أزمة ائتمانية عالمية أدت بدورها إلى عدم تمكن المقترضين من الحصول على القروض التي حصلوا عليها منذ ستة أشهر فقط. أما الذين يمكن أن يحصلوا فعلا على عرض لقرض إنما يحصلون عليه بمعدلات فائدة أعلى من ذي قبل.

ثالثا: يتوقع مجلس مقرضي الرهن العقاري إعادة تملك 45,000 بيت السنة المقبلة مما سيؤدي إلى انحسار السوق العقارية.

رابعا: إن مبلغ الدين في المجتمع البريطاني لا يمكن أن يصدق (وصل إلى أرقام فلكية) وهذا سوف يكون له تأثير سلبي كبير على حالة الترددي الاقتصادي القادم. ونحن كمجتمع بريطاني نملك القليل من المدخرات التي يمكن أن نخرجنا من هذه الأزمة. وتصديق علينا رؤيا ملك مصر حين أولها يوسف عليه السلام: سبعة أعوام من الوفرة تتبعها سبع سنين عجاف.

#### 10. الصراع العربي الإسرائيلي

قتل الجنود الاسرائيليون اليوم مسلحين اثنين من حركة حماس في غزة وأصابوا ثلاثة آخرين بجراح. وقع الحادث بعد أن أطلق مسلحون فلسطينيون صاروخا من طراز كاتيوشا على الجانب الشمالي من بلدة عسقلان - وهذه ابعاد مسافة تصلها الصواريخ الفلسطينية. وقد ردت إسرائيل من جانبها بضربات جوية وعمليات أرضية أسفرت عن إصابة تسعة أشخاص من ضمنهم ثلاث مدنيين قتلوا.

#### 11. أوقفوا معاقبة الفلسطينيين

نحن الموقعين أدناه ندعوا الحكومة البريطانية إلى: (1) العمل فورا على إعادة المساعدات الأوروبية إلى السلطة الفلسطينية؛ (2) الطلب إلى إسرائيل أن تنهي حصارها وتدفع الضرائب المحتجة لديها؛ (3) الطلب إلى إسرائيل وقف جميع الأعمال العسكرية في الأراضي المحتلة؛ (4) المطالبة بإطلاق سراح جميع المسنولين الفلسطينيين المنتخبين والحث على برنامج ل فك إسهار جميع الأسرى الفلسطينيين المحتجزين بما يخالف القانون الدولي؛ (5) ممارسة الضغوط عبر قرارات الأمم المتحدة التي تقرر انسحابها من الأراضي التي احتلتها بشكل غير مشروع في 1967؛ (6) إنهاء التجارة البريطانية للأسلحة مع إسرائيل حتى تلتزم الأخيرة بمقررات القانون الدولي.

## 12. أوقفوا معاقبة الفلسطينيين

إن سلوك الحكومة الإسرائيلية في الوقت الحاضر جدير بالشجب. كما يعتبر فشل حكومتنا في الحديث بصراحة ودون تردد ضد ظلم إسرائيل للسكان الفلسطينيين من قبيل التواطؤ مع إجراءات الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة وإسرائيل. ويمثل هذا التصرف في واقع الحال محاولة منسقة لممارسة العقاب الجماعي على الشعب الفلسطيني بسبب انتخابه حكومة لا تروق لهم. فبعد أن تشدقوا للشعوب العربية (الشرق الأوسط) حول الديمقراطية لعقود خلت فإن أوروبا والولايات المتحدة تدوسان على الحقوق (الشرعية) الديمقراطية للشعب الفلسطيني.

إن تعليق الاتحاد الأوروبي والولايات المتحدة للمساعدات وقيام إسرائيل بحجز الضرائب الفلسطينية، إضافة إلى ممارسة الأخيرة لحصار غير مشروع، كل ذلك يعد جرائم ضد الشعب الفلسطيني. فهم بذلك يخلقون مأساة إنسانية في قطاع غزة والضفة الغربية ولقد شجعوا إسرائيل على فرض ستار مستمر من نيران القنابل والصواريخ التي ما انفكت تقتل الأبرياء من الأطفال وغير المقاتلين في انتهاك صريح لاتفاقية جنيف الرابعة التي تحمي المدنيين تحت الاحتلال.

## 13. الهجرة القياسية تتوقع زيادة كبيرة في سكان بريطانيا

أفاد مكتب الإحصاء الوطني بأن بريطانيا تمر حالياً بأكبر تدفق للمهاجرين في التاريخ. ويتوقع المكتب أنه حسب عدد المهاجرين الذين يصلون يومياً وهو 520 شخصاً فإن سكان المملكة المتحدة سوف يزدادون بمعدل خمسة ملايين إلى 65 مليوناً خلال عقد من الزمان، كما أن سكان إنجلترا سوف يزدادون بما يقرب من 16 مليوناً - أي ما يبلغ ضعف تعداد سكان لندن الكبرى.

## 14. قواعد أكثر صرامة على المهاجرين غير المهرة

أعلنت وزيرة الداخلية البريطانية السيدة جاكى سميث السياسة الجديدة للحكومة للتعامل مع المعدلات المتزايدة للهجرة. ففي المقام الأول سوف يمنع المهاجرون من العمال غير المهرة من بلدان العالم النامي من القدوم إلى بريطانيا. وفي المقام الثاني سوف يواجه كذلك مواطنو الدول الأجنبية الراغبون بالاقتران ببريطانيات اختباراً في اللغة للتدليل على قدرتهم على الاندماج في المجتمع. وفي المقام الثالث سوف تؤسس الحكومة قوة من شرطة الحدود لتتبع المهاجرين غير الشرعيين وإخراجهم من البلاد. وفي المقام الرابع سوف يطبق في الربع القادم نظاماً يقوم على نقاط التميز على المهاجرين الاقتصاديين مما يعني السماح لهم بالقدوم إلى بريطانيا فقط إذا كانوا يتمتعون بمهارات ومؤهلات كافية.

## 15. علينا العمل الآن على خفض أعداد المهاجرين

تنتطوي الزيادة الموهولة في السكان على آثار فادحة على مستقبل مجتمعنا. فدفعات الهجرة الجديدة تعني ضرورة بناء مساكن جديدة لإيواء المهاجرين الإضافيين. ونظراً لأن روابطنا المجتمعية قد أصابها الوهن من قبل على إثر النمو السريع للمجتمعات المحلية من أصول ثقافية متنوعة - وبعضها لا توجد لديه نية تذكر في الاندماج معنا. ولقد أشارت الحكومة إلى العولمة باعتبارها سبباً وتزعم أن الهجرة إلى الداخل يمكن أن ترفد الإنتاج بستة آلاف مليون من الجنيهات، ولكن هذه الهجرة في نفس الوقت تضيف نسبة مماثلة لتعدادنا السكاني. ونتيجة لذلك فإن الفائدة التي تعود على السكان البريطانيين الأصليين قليلة. وفي واقع الحال فإن العمال البريطانيين منخفضي الأجور سوف يسددون فاتورة هذه الهجرة حيث يجدون أن أجورهم تتدنى جراء المنافسة من القادمين الجدد.

## 16. ارتفاع حرارة الأرض

تعد مشكلة ارتفاع حرارة الأرض من أكبر المشكلات التي تواجه البشر في العقود القليلة القادمة. فقد ارتفعت درجات حرارة مناخ الأرض في السنوات المائة والخمسين الماضية حوالي درجة واحدة مئوية أو 1.8 ف. فلو استمرت درجات الحرارة في الارتفاع فسوف تؤدي إلى نتائج كارثية. وحين ترتفع درجة حرارة مناخ الأرض تؤدي إلى ذوبان سرير الجليد القطبي بما يعني بدوره زيادة مستوى مياه المحيطات وحدوث الفيضانات على الشواطئ. كما سيؤدي الارتفاع الحراري في مناخ الأرض إلى إحداث تغيرات مناخية ذات آثار سلبية على النشاط الزراعي في الكوكب.

## 17. اتفاقية كيوتو

أولاً: تعمل الدول المتقدمة اقتصادياً على خفض معدلات انبعاث غازات الدفيئة إلى ما دون المستويات المحددة لكل منها في الاتفاقية.

ثانياً: يجب الوصول إلى أهداف خفض الانبعاث في حدود إطار زمني من خمس سنوات بدءاً من 2008 حتى 2012.

ثالثاً: يجب كذلك تحقيق خفض إجمالي لانبعاث غازات الدفيئة على الأقل بنسبة 5% من الحد الأساسي لسنة 1990.

رابعاً: على الأمم النامية أن تنتفع في مجال نقل التقنية والاستثمار المتحقق عبر التعاون مع الأمم التصنيعية وفق آلية التنمية النظيفة CDM.

خامساً وأخيراً على وكالات الأمم المتحدة المتخصصة مراجعة وتنفيذ هذه الالتزامات.

## 18. اتفاقية كيوتو: أفاق المستقبل

تمثل اتفاقية كيوتو بشكل عام خطوة هامة نحو نظام حقيقي لخفض الانبعاثات العالمية والتي يمكن أن تعمل على استقرار تركيز غازات الدفيئة عند مستوى يحول دون إحداث تغير مناخي خطير. ونتيجة للاتفاقية وضعت الحكومات الموقعة فعلاً وتستمر في وضع تشريعات وسياسات موضع التنفيذ للوفاء بتعهداتها؛ فقد أقيمت سوق للفحم؛ وما فتئت الشركات التي تتخذ قرارات استثمارية ضرورية مضطربة لمستقبل ملانم للمناخ. فاتفاقية كيوتو الدولية تقدم الهيكل الأساسي لأي اتفاق أو مجموعة من الاتفاقات الدولية الجديدة المتعلقة بالتغير المناخي. هذا وتنتهي فترة الالتزام الأولى لاتفاقية كيوتو عام 2012. وتفيد لجنة الحكومات المهتمة بالتغير المناخي (IPCC) من أنه يلزم حينئذ التفاوض على إطار عالمي جديد والعمل على إقراره من أجل تحقيق عمليات خفض صارمة للانبعاثات .

**Appendix C: Results of students' responses to the questionnaire**

No	Descriptive Texts	Very difficult	Difficult	Moderate	Easy	Very easy
1	Britain's Gun Culture	0	8	14	5	1
4	Middle-Aged Binge Drinkers Dying in Record Numbers	3	1	14	1	9
7	Mortgage Approvals Dive as Markets Cool	9	12	5	2	0
10	The Arab-Israeli Conflict	0	0	5	7	16
13	Immigration	1	1	7	11	8
16	Global Warming	0	1	5	9	13
	Total	13	23	50	35	47
	Percentage	7.7%	13.7%	29.8%	20.8%	28%

No	Instructional Texts	Very difficult	Difficult	Moderate	Easy	Very easy
2	What We're Doing about Gun Culture	0	3	10	13	2
5	Brown's Secret Summit to Beat Binge Drinking	2	13	8	5	0
8	How to Keep on Top of your Cash	0	4	7	10	7
11	End this Punishment of the Palestinians	0	2	11	8	7
14	Immigration	0	2	15	9	2
17	Kyoto Protocol	6	12	7	2	1
	Total	8	36	58	47	19
	Percentages	4.8%	21.4%	34.5%	28%	11.3%

No	Argumentative Texts	Very difficult	Difficult	Moderate	Easy	Very easy
3	The Shocking truth	1	8	14	4	1
6	Britain and Binge Drinking	3	7	11	5	2
9	Property Market	4	10	11	2	1
12	End this Punishment of the Palestinians	0	10	10	6	2
15	Immigration; 'We Must Act now to Cut Immigrant Number'	0	8	11	6	3
18	Kyoto Protocol	13	10	4	0	1
	Total	21	53	61	23	10
	Percentages	12.5%	31.5%	36.3%	13.7%	6.00%

## **Appendix D: Student consent form**

I the undersigned fully agree to participate in the translation test being conducted by Mohammed El Haj Ahmed, a PhD student at the School of Languages, University of Salford. This test will be specifically used for academic purposes, with the intention of investigating and improving translation training in the Department of English, Islamic University of Gaza.

Student's signature

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