

TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT
A SITUATIONAL/TEXTUAL MODEL FOR THE EVALUATION
OF ARABIC/ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS

BY

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DEDICATION

To my late grandparents Rahma and Abderrahman

To my wife and daughter

To them all, I dedicate my thesis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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ABSTRACT

Translation evaluation is one of the main concerns of translation theorists, members of translation revision boards, and most importantly it is the concern of translator trainers. Translation quality has often been associated with the correctness of the grammatical structure and the appropriateness of the lexical item. Little concern has empirically been given to units larger than the sentence, i.e. text. This seems to be the result of the prevailing linguistic trend that has put more emphasis on a 'context-free' sentence, rather than on text in context.

This study proposes to investigate, discuss and develop a translation quality assessment model that takes text, not a sentence as the ultimate aim of analysis. The study will also attempt to explore the theoretical and practical implications of the model to be developed for the training of translators in the Arab world.

The model to be developed should be based on the definition that translation is the replacement of a text in the source language by a semantically, pragmatically and textually equivalent text in the target language. Text, then, is the focus of interest in this study. Therefore, the model will be developed within the framework of text linguistics for which text is regarded as a communicative occurrence.

The developed model will serve as a means to evaluating the quality of Arabic-English translations of a particular type of texts, argumentative text type. Therefore, two argumentative texts in the form of newspaper editorials, selected from two Moroccan quality newspapers will be analyzed along the dimensions of what will be known in this study as a Situational/Textual model. The resultant "textual profile" will, then, be taken as a "yardstick" against which will be measured 81 translations collected from Fahd School of Advanced Translation (FST) and 5 from the department of modern languages, Salford University (SU).

The first introductory chapter lays out the main arguments of the thesis. Chapters two and three present and discuss sentence-oriented translation models, and text-oriented translation models respectively. Chapter four presents and discusses the following: a) the three aspects of meaning: semantic, pragmatic, and textual, b) language function vs. text function, and finally c) House's (1981) model of translation quality assessment. Chapter five presents the method of operation, discusses the decision criteria needed to deal with the dimensions linguistic correlates, and finally illustrates the extended situational/textual model for translation quality assessment. Chapter six is the application of the model on the two Arabic argumentative texts. In addition, argumentative text structure will be discussed and the difference between Arabic and English argumentative texts will be explained. Finally, chapter seven includes the source language text (SLT), and the target language text (TLT) statement of comparison and statement of quality, and a discussion of the theoretical implication of the model for the training of translators in the Arab world.

NOTATIONS

CD	:	Communicative Dynamism
FST	:	Fahd School of Advanced Translation
SL	:	Source Language
SLT	:	Source Language Text
ST	:	Source Text
TL	:	Target Language
TLT	:	Target Language Text
TT	:	Translated text
US	:	University of Salford

TRANSCRIPTION

The following transcription system is used to facilitate reading the Arabic script for the non-Arabic speakers. The method adopted here suits the computer keyboard characters that serve to type this thesis.

Consonants

ب	b
ت	t
ث	th
ج	j
ح	H
خ	kh
د	d
ذ	d
ر	r
ز	z
س	s
ش	sh
ص	s
ض	D

ط	T
ظ	D
ع	c
غ	g
ف	f
ق	q
ك	k
ل	l
م	m
ن	n
هـ	h
و	w
ي	y
ء	,

Vowels

a. short vowels:

—̣ a

—̤ i

—̥ u

b. long vowels:

ا ā

ي ī

و ū

The consonant emphasis in Arabic ~~التشديد~~ at-tashdīd, is represented by a double letter, e.g., al-`arabiyyatu.

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CHAPTER ONE

I N T R O D U C T I O N

1.0 Arabic-English textual translation difficulties

Over the last decade, there has been a shift of emphasis in what is considered as the basic unit of linguistic analysis. In as far as real discourse is concerned, a 'context-free' sentence is no longer viewed as the basic unit of analysis, since such an approach to language study does not seem to account for other factors that play a major role in the production and reception of text (cf. de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981). Moreover, 'context-free' sentence analysis does not answer a myriad of questions asked in relation to translation studies.

More emphasis has recently been put on a unit larger than a sentence, i.e., text. Text is taken as the ultimate unit of analysis because in real life interaction, either through the mediums of speech

or writing, people do not use language outside the context of situation. And even in fiction, an acceptable context is created for the unfolding of the events in the text (cf. de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981). This shift of emphasis has had its influence on a number of linguistic branches, including that of translation.

Translation, in the real sense of the word, is not a mere transfer of syntactic structure of one language into another language. There are other aspects of language that should be considered in any operation of this kind. Moreover, individual language characteristics, the features that characterise language in use as similar or different from other languages, have to be accounted for in any definition of translation, in translation quality assessment, or, in that matter, in any translation training.

Concentration on linguistic form and total or partial neglect of the constructive aspects of text, in addition to a relative ignorance of textual structures of different text types may be seen as one of the major causes of students' translation errors (cf. Hatim 1989:). An attempt to elaborate on this point will be made in the course of this study. At this early stage, a sample of students translation errors may be useful to understand the course this study intends to take.

Some of the frequently occurring Arabic-English translation errors made by some students from the Arab world may be illustrated in the following examples:

T E X T 1

T E X T 2

مَجْلِسُ النُّوَابِ أَمَامَ مَسْئُولِيَةِ الْخُوصَصَةِ

المسؤولية الملقاة على عاتق مجلس النواب مسؤولية ضخمة، وهي المتعلقة بالخصوصية أي تحويل كثير من مؤسسات القطاع العام إلى القطاع الخاص. ولا نعرف حتى الآن، ومجلس النواب أيضا لا يعرف، هذه المؤسسات، قبل أن تتقدم الحكومة بمشاريع القوانين التي تتيح هذه الخصوصية.

ولكن مسؤولية مجلس النواب تعظم اذا عرفنا أن القضية ليست قضية مبدئية، بمعنى أن التحويل قرار ينطبق على كل المؤسسات وخاصة التي ترشحها الحكومة لذلك. بل القضية قضية مصلحة اقتصادية وطنية. والتحويل يدور مع المصلحة وجودا وعدما كما يقول المناطقة. أي أن

المأساة الفادحة

أكثر من اسبوع مر على فرصة الطائرة الكويتية وعلى تعذيب من تبقى فيها من الركاب والطاقم ورغم تدخل عدة اطراف لانهاء المأساة فلا احد يستطيع التكهن بقرب انتهائها اللهم الا اذا كان تفاؤل الاخوة الفلسطينيين قائما على التزامات لاتراجع فيها من قبل الخاطفين .

1) Student 1.6

3) Student 1.5

The responsibility of the house of representatives is a great one. It is that relating to privatisation; this means the transmit of many institutions of the public section to the private one.

The responsibility of the council will be greater if we know that the affair is not but it is an affair of a national economic profit.

More than a week has passed since the hijacking of the Kuwaiti airplane and the torture of the remaining passengers and the crew. In spite of the intervention of many sides to put an end to the tragedy, no one can predict its near ending unless the Palestinian optimism is based on irrevocable obligations of the pirates towards the affair. ...

2) Student 3.2	4) Student 5.3
The responsibility of the House of Representatives, which is related to privatization, is huge. Privatization is the transfer of many institutions from public to private sector.....	It is now more than a week since the Kuwaiti airplane has been hijacked and the suffering of the rest of the passengers and the crew. In spite of the interventions of many parties to bring this tragedy to an end, yet no one can tell when that end would be unless the optimism of our brothers the Palestinians is based on firm commitments by the hijackers.
The responsibility of the House of representatives becomes greater when one realizes that it is not.....	
The question is that of national interest.	

The above extracts forming part of the data of this study, and several other examples that could be extracted from the same data, may be said to be characterised by what Koch (1981) refers to as "peculiar strangeness". This "peculiar strangeness" seems to mark most of the undergraduate trainees' translations and to a lesser degree the translations of post graduate students involved in translating mainly from Arabic into English.

A glance at the examples 1,2,3, and 4 above reveals that what is referred to as "peculiar strangeness" could not be entirely related to 'overtly erroneous errors' i.e., breach of the target language system, e.g. grammatical relations, word order, word choice, spelling and

punctuation (cf. House 1981). The strangeness is also relatable, in most cases, to 'covertly erroneous errors', i.e., errors that transcend the level of sentence to incorporate that of text construction as a whole.

Students 1.6 and 3.2 in examples 1 and 2 seem to have failed at the outset to grasp the thematic organisation marked by the emphasis put on the word ~~مسؤولية~~, *mas'ūliyya*, "responsibility" which is repeated twice in one single sentence. Moreover, their rendering of the contrast intended to intensify the task of privatisation placed on the Moroccan Parliament has not been successful. A Ph.D student who has been asked to translate the same Arabic text marked this contrast by the use of comparatives '.... becomes even greater' but he did not use a contrastive marker that would explicitly relate this paragraph to the preceding one. Further down in the same Arabic text, the writer resort to lexical repetition to heighten the reader's interest and expectation. This fact seems to be lost in most of the students' translations.

Students 1.5 and 5.3, in examples 3 and 4 have neglected the author's presupposition. It is assumed that the audience are aware of the Palestinians contribution to the settlement of the hijacking crisis. Moreover, the implication is that the hijackers may have given the Palestinians a firm commitment towards a peaceful solution to the crisis. The undergraduate student 1.5, and the Ph.D student 5.3, have failed in their rendering of this hidden fact. In addition to this breach of textuality, there is another breach of intra-sentential connectivity. The coordinate conjunction 'and' is misused in both

examples.

This breach of the textual system of the target language may suggest that translation for undergraduate students and some of the postgraduate students, does not go beyond the transfer of the source language form, and to a certain extent meaning, to the target language form and meaning (henceforth SL and TL respectively). Language for this category of students seems to be no more than a code and that in translating, this code has to be transcoded.

Transcoding, though, is not foreign to translation. According to Seleskovitch and Lederer (1984), transcoding does form a part of translation but not the major part, since:

"Seuls peuvent être transcodés dans les textes ou les discours les éléments, termes ou expressions, dont la signification reste la même, qu'elle soit envisagée au niveau de la langue ou actualisée dans un discours."

(Seleskovitch and Lederer 1984:7).

"Only could be transcoded in texts or in discourse, those elements, terms or expressions whose meaning does not change, either at the level of 'langue' or when realized in *Speech*."

(My translation)

Following Seleskovitch and Lederer (1984), it may be said that only can be "transcoded" those clear and precise scientific terms that are exclusively reserved for certain scientific concepts. In this case a relatively word for word translation may be considered. However,

even what may be called universal terms have to be "transcoded" with a lot of caution. Translation does not merely involve the transfer of forms and structures. Other more important and determinant factors should be considered. Emphasis, it seems to me, should be put on those factors that form the major role in production and reception of actualized discourse. These factors could be subsumed under what de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) call 'textuality'.

1.1 Motivation for research

At the end of every academic year and especially at the moment of evaluating students' written work and in particular translation, a feeling of dissatisfaction reigns amongst translator trainers. The problem is said to lie deep in the descending standard of the students' work. However, and to the best of my knowledge, not much work and effort have been devoted to the evaluation of the quality of students' translations as a first step towards finding a relatively objective solution to the problem.

Students' translations are judged, evaluated and marked, yet, the criteria used for such judgement do not seem to be standardized. In answer to a question related to translation quality assessment, posed to some translation trainers in Morocco and here in Britain, the following notions have been expressed: accuracy, appropriateness, idiomacity, precision, and naturalness. No more explanation is given beyond these general, abstract notions. At the margin of some corrected work collected in Morocco and from the University of Bath, the following notions have been noticed: faulty usage, wrong use, bad

English, SL bound, stylistic problems accuracy or lack of it etc..

Based on these general notions, evaluation seems to be carried out intuitively. Intuition is not always a negative element in evaluating the quality of a translation. Yet, intuitive judgement, as one translator trainer in Morocco rightly put it, is dangerous on its own. It may prove to be insufficient and sometimes unjust for the work to be evaluated. Moreover, it may not be able to pin-point those errors that determine what goes wrong in a translation .

The question to ask at this point is: on what bases could the evaluation of translation end-product be most effectively carried out? A plausible answer for this question seems to be a search for a model that would account for a rather objective evaluation, and consequently serve as the basis for the improvement of translation training.

1.2 Hypothesis

There are three basic hypotheses this study attempts to test:

A. that a translation quality assessment inevitably requires the merger of insights from different branches of linguistics, viz, applied linguistics, contrastive textology, textlinguistics, socio-linguistics,

B. that translation incomprehensibility and translation failure are the result of disregard of the importance of textuality in the production and reception of texts, and finally that

C. argumentative texts in Arabic and English differ in the ways in which values, beliefs and attitudes are presented. The presentation of

these concepts is normally conducted with a view to gaining the audience's adherence to the writer's advanced statements.

Regarding the second hypothesis, the research will be based on the assumption that translation is a form of communication. It is not a normal communication conducted between sender and receiver sharing the same linguistic and cultural background. Translation, in this case, is an "abnormal", displaced communication, in the sense that it is constrained by place, time and purpose of the communication (cf. Neubert 1985). It is therefore imperative that any translation quality assessment has to account for the differences and in some cases similarities of the languages in question. In addition, The assessment has to account for how the languages conceive of the outside world as well as the manners in which language users express and structure their inner feelings, beliefs and attitude within their respective 'discourse community' (see Swales 1988, for more details on the term 'discourse community'). The dominant forms of structure used in a particular text for a particular purpose will be taken in this study as markers of text types.

Translation in this study, is not considered to be a mere transfer of linguistic and semantic forms of the source language into the target language (henceforth, SL and TL respectively). Translation has to satisfy the requirement of the TL audience, i.e., it has to respect the textual system that underlies the norm of the different text types of the TL, without distancing itself from the SL text that forms the basis for translation. This norm is taken to be that ability acquired through long experience and continuous exposure to practices of

communicating in writing, in a particular discourse community. Such practice becomes an individual experience that may affect the way the individual deals with the language to which the operation of translation is directed.

Therefore, it is assumed in this study that in order to assess the quality of a translation we need a 'yardstick', to borrow House's (1981) term, against which this translation can be measured. For this end, I will accept and adopt House's (1981) model for translation quality assessment. The model will be further adapted to the requirement of assessing Arabic argumentative texts translated by Arab students. de Beaugrande and Dressler's (1981) classification of texts into expository, instructive, and argumentative will be taken as a basis for the discussion of text typology.

As the main concern of this study is translation quality assessment, mainly the Arabic-English translation of argumentative texts, in the form of editorials, the assumption is that argumentative texts in both Arabic and English share the following general features:

- a. point of departure or claim
- b. substantiation or arguments, and
- c. conclusion.

However, in the course of the research it will be shown how this type of text differs significantly in both languages.

1.3 Objective of Study

This is an attempt to evaluate the quality of Arabic-English translations produced by Arab students in general and Moroccan

translator trainees in particular, and to explore the theoretical and practical implications of the model to be developed for the training of translators in the Arab world.

The model is based on the definition that translation is the replacement of a text in the source language by a semantically, pragmatically and textually equivalent text in the target language. As mentioned earlier, text is the focus of interest in this study. Therefore, the model will be developed within the framework of text linguistics for which text is regarded as a communicative occurrence.

Two argumentative texts in the form of newspaper editorials selected from two Moroccan quality newspapers will be analyzed along the dimensions of the developed model. The results of the analysis will be taken as the 'yardstick' against which will be measured the translations collected from Fahd School of Advanced Translation (fSAT) and those collected from the department of modern languages, Salford University (SU). The system used for the analysis is the SITUATIONAL-TEXTUAL ANALYSIS developed from House's (1981) model.

1.4 Scope and limitations of the study

In order to produce a relatively adequate and generalisable results in this research, a detailed and quantitative assessment along the situational-textual dimensions was needed. For this end, a corpus consisting of 81 translated material has been collected from FSAT, in Morocco, and 5 more other translations from postgraduate students of Modern Languages, University of Salford. The approach followed in this

research is an adaptation of the approach advanced by House (1981).

This approach to translation quality assessment requires as a preliminary step towards any statement of comparison and contrast, the analysis of the source language texts (SLT). The resultant "textual profile" will be taken as a "yardstick" against which the "textual profile" resulting from a similar analysis of the target language texts (TLT) will be measured. In general terms, the analysis is carried out within the framework of text linguistics as defined in de Beaugrande (1980), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), and Enkvist (1978).

The discussion of the models of translation owes much to Chau (1984) and Bathgate (1980). And the approach to text types follows that of de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Hartman (1980), Hatim (1984, 1987), Biber (1989), and Biber and Finegan (1986).

In the process of analyzing the Arabic texts and their English translations, the problem of lexical and syntactic analysis presented itself with a certain degree of urgency. For convenience, Arabic lexis and syntax have been described following Abbas Hassan (1981), and Bakir (1980). As for the functional fronting of the nominal phrase in Arabic more is owed to Hatim (1987, 1989) and to a discussion with a professor of Arabic and Islamic Studies, Faculty of Letters, Tetouan, Morocco.

The main concern of this study is language in use, and mainly language in its written form. In fact, it is through analyzing certain students translation errors and in some cases translation successes, that we hope to gain insights into the principles that would account for the translatability of the uses to which the language in the

source text (ST) is put, i.e., the function of that text. These principles may be taken as guidelines for Arab translator trainees and English learners, in order to improve their translation and written skills.

The study does not claim to be comprehensive in its dealing with argumentative texts in Arabic and the evaluation of their translations. The research is limited to written texts and mainly argumentative texts in the form of newspaper editorials. The two argumentative texts could not be said to be conclusively representative of the type in question. Therefore, the limitation of the analysis to two Arabic texts is done for convenience only.

The study aims, in general terms, to show how an Arabic argumentative text is produced in English through translation, and consequently to investigate the errors and probably successes of Arab translator trainees.

Although the emphasis, in this research, is on editorials as a form of argumentative text type, other text forms such as letters to the editor, political speeches, scientific arguments, are undoubtedly as important in any investigation of the nature and structure of different text forms. The scope of this study, however, would not allow for such a comprehensive research. Nor would it allow for the investigation of other types of text such as exposition and instruction. However, these types are occasionally referred to when comparison or contrast between the types is needed.

An investigation of the variation according to text type, and its impact on translation could be explored in future research.

Furthermore, comparative and contrastive textology could be used to shed light on the similarities and differences of the textual structures of texts as used in Arabic and English through a quantitative and qualitative analysis that the nature of this research cannot pursue.

1.5 Design of the study

Chapter one is the lay out of the main argument of the thesis. Translation quality assessment is an approach to translation viewed as communication across languages. Communication is carried through fully fledged texts that have as their ultimate aim to do something in the other end of the communication: to inform, instruct, persuade or change a state of affair.

Chapter two and three attempt at defining translation, spell the need for translating for the peoples of the world in general and the Arabs in particular. The discussion of equivalence in translation will consequently lead to a discussion of the various models proposed since the interest in translation has attempted to create a place for it among language studies. While chapter two concentrates on sentence-oriented models, chapter three deals with text-oriented models.

Chapter four presents, discusses and develops House's (1981) translation quality assessment. For this end, two main aspects of text are presented and discussed, a) meaning: semantic, pragmatic and textual, and b) function: language function vs. text function.

Chapter five presents the method of operation of the model,

discusses the decision criteria needed to deal with the dimensions linguistic correlates, and finally develops and illustrates the extended Situational/Textual dimensions model for translation quality assessment.

Chapter six is the application^{the} of model. The chapter is divided into two parts. The first part presents the methodology followed in the research giving the reasons for choosing a single text type, i.e. argumentative texts in the form of editorials, in addition to a brief definition of argumentation and argumentative text structure. Included in the first part of this chapter is a discussion of the nature of the informants from whom the data have been collected. The second part of this chapter deals entirely with the application of the Situationa/Textual dimensions model on the two Arabic editorials.

Chapter seven presents the results of the analysis of some of the students translations along the Situational/Textual dimensions model and their comparison with the results obtained from the analysis of the two Arabic editorials. The final results are also compared to the outcome of a preliminary, intuitive assessment carried out by native speakers of English. The errors found in the students translations are presented and discussed and finally the chapter concludes with pointing out the implications of the research on translation training and language teaching, mainly the teaching of composition. The conluding part also involves some suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

SENTENCE-ORIENTED TRANSLATION MODELS

2.1 The need for translating

Nida (1964), witnessing the rapid change occurring in the field of technology and human relations, suggested the following:

"The terrifying potentialities of modern technology require us to increase our efforts to guarantee effective understanding between people."

(Nida 1964: 1)

In fact, the past few decades have been a period when various aspects of knowledge and in particular technology in its widest sense, gathered momentum, and went through a rapid development unparalleled in human history. This rapid advance urges a rapprochement among the peoples of the world that is attainable only through one of the two following methods:

- a. bringing people to the source of knowledge through language learning, or
- b. transferring the knowledge through translating.

The first method seems to be time-consuming and limited in its general results. It involves the teaching of the foreign language from which transfer will apply. In spite of the importance of foreign language teaching, the degree of the transferred knowledge will be limited to those who have the aptitude of assimilating languages. The vast majority of people will not have access to the cultural advancement of other nations. If we take, for instance, Arabic departments in the Arab world and in Morocco in particular, it may be noticed that their libraries suffer from the lack of the latest references (books, articles, seminars, lectures, etc..) in the field of modern linguistics with all its branches. There seems to be a need, therefore for another method that would allow the proliferation of such material in Arab universities.

The second method, translation, has proved, through centuries, to be a much more productive method. It has mainly been used as a means

for the promotion and improvement of the national cultures. And, more importantly, it has served as a means for a better understanding of other people's cultures and attitudes.

'Effective understanding between people', as urged by Nida (1964), can best be exploited through effective translating. Translation, in this case, aims at producing an effect on TL audience similar to that effected on SL text receivers. This effect is achieved through what Nida and Taber (1969) refer to as 'dynamic equivalence':

'Dynamic equivalence is ... to be defined in terms of the degree to which the receptors of the message in the receptor language respond to it in substantially the same manner as the receptors in the source languages.'

(Nida and Taber 1969: 24)

Translation according to Nida and Taber (1969) is seen not as a mere transfer of the SL form, i.e., it is not seen in terms of formal correspondence, but rather the emphasis is put on the effect the translation may have on the TL audience. In other words, effective translating, could be taken as the link that bridges the epistimological gap between two linguistically distant, and culturally unrelated language communities. This approach to translating seems to be more effective in literary translation than in scientific translation. Scientific writing aims for clarity and precision, and tries to distance itself as far as possible from subjectivity.

Effective transfer of works in the humanities is an important factor in our attempt to understand the different cultures existing in the modern world. Translating literary works in general and argumentative texts in particular may further our understanding of the manner in which other people conceive of the outside world, structure their thoughts, beliefs and feelings, and present them to their own audience. It will, moreover, shed light on the ways in which members of a different language community organise their arguments, and consequently succeed or fail in persuading or convincing their own audience of the belief(s) they set to defend. In other words, understanding argumentative patterns of speakers of other languages is a step forward in the direction of effective understanding between people. This will be discussed in more detail in chapter six in this study.

Translation, however, is not restricted to the transfer of knowledge, nor does it solely serve the need for mutual understanding between people. Translation could also be useful for translators using their own language as the language of departure, i.e., SL. In this case it could be used as a means to investigating linguistic flaws that may exist in the SL text (e.g. Text One in this study). Thus, in the process of translating, attempts could be made to improve the SL text either through omission or addition for the sake of clarification (cf. Mouakket 1986, and Newmark 1981, 1989). Such a practice could be seen as a hallmark of "traditional grammar method" followed by some approaches to foreign language teaching (cf. Chau 1984). In this respect, McGuire (1980) notes that

'..in the early nineteenth century translation was still regarded as a serious and useful method for helping a writer explore and shape his own native style..'

(McGuire 1980: 3)

Translation could equally be useful as a means of indicating the similarities or differences in respect to formal and textual structures of the languages involved. Such an insight could serve some of the needs of foreign language learning. (cf. Klein-Braley and Smith 1985 and Kupsch-Losereit 1985).

Not only could translation be a useful means for comparing and contrasting linguistic and textual structures of two languages, it could also serve as a means to providing insights into the ways in which specific or universal events such as wedding invitations or obituaries are manifested in texts of different languages. This process makes use of contrastive analysis, contrastive textology, and contrastive rhetoric to arrive at what Durmusoglu (1983) refers to as "parallel texts". "Parallel texts" are defined as follows:

'Texts in two or more languages which have the same communicative purpose and render the same message (i.e. communicate the same meaning)... In other words, parallel texts are exponents of corresponding text types in different languages. This correspondence can be intentionally created,

as in the case of translation, or happen accidentally because of the similarity of context...'

(Durmusoglu 1983: 118)

(for a detailed account of "parallel texts" , see Durmusuglu 1983).

From the above account of the various uses translation may be put to, there seems to be a need for considering the different models of translation process and translation quality assessment. A look at the various types and definitions of translation, at this stage, may represent the first step towards our discussion of the models of translation.

2.2 Translation Types and Definitions

Translation could be defined according to the general view adopted by 'translation theorists' vis-a-vis the nature of translation, i.e., whether it is free or literal, exact or natural. (see Newmark 1980: 1, for his views on what is referred to as 'translation theory'). Through centuries, translation, has, indeed, witnessed the eternal conflict between two general trends: literal vs. free; exact vs. natural; or in recent years: semantic vs. communicative; formal vs. cultural. Each trend seems to be marked by the predominant emphasis which is placed either on form, or content or rather on the socio-cultural and linguistic reality of the TL receiver. Translation, then, may be

regarded as a simple operation upon two languages, i.e., a purely formal, linguistic operation (cf. Catford 1965). Alternatively, it may be seen within the framework of communication, i.e., sender, message and receiver.

Literal, exact, or formal translation is often considered to be message-biased. The surface meaning and the surface structure of the SL is directly transferred into the TL, i.e., no effort is made to restructure the text so as it would meet the TL audience's requirements. Thus, what time is it? translated literally in Arabic would be *ma huwa l-waqtu*. Semantic translation, as advocated by Newmark (1980, 1986), is writer-biased. It differs from literal translation in that it attempts to render, as far as the TL semantic and syntactic structure will allow, the exact surface meaning of the original, without losing sight of the SL formal structure. Finally, free, natural or communicative translation is reader-biased. The translator in this trend, is inclined towards producing in the TL audience the same effect produced in SL audience.

In each case, however, there is an operation taking place. In this connection, McGuire (1980) notes that this operational transfer was generally understood by traditional approaches to translation, as the "rendering of a SL text into the TL so as to ensure that (1) the surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar, and (2) the structures of the SL will be preserved as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL structures will be seriously distorted.' (McGuire 1980:2). This view of translation, however, does not seem to account for the pragmatic aspect of the SLT and its transfer to TLT. Nor does it include in its approach to translation the fact that the

two languages in question may have different ways of structuring their meanings, information, and in that matter, they may have different means of appealing to their respective audiences.

With the above types of translation in mind, three sign-posts may be discerned in the course of defining translation:

1. the traditional view of translation, or what Chau (1984a) refers to as 'The Philological Stage,
2. the linguistic definition of translation, or 'The Formal Linguistic Stage, and finally
3. the post-linguistic definition of translation, which in Chau (1984a: 71-72) includes 'The Ethno-Semantic Stage and The Textlinguistic Stage.'

2.2.1 Traditional view of translation

Translation in the pre-linguistic era concerned itself with the translating of the classics in such a way as to result in two distinct but interrelated trends of translation. Translation, on the one hand, was considered as an art. The translation of literary work necessitated the translator to be well-articulated in literature so as the feeling of the work may be transformed to the TL. This emphasis on the effect of translation rather than the transfer of the form of the SL has been the trade mark of much of those translations that have as their prime concern the TL reader. Furthermore, such translations aimed for the enrichment of the native language rather than following the 'more rigid notions of "fidelity"' (McGuire 1980: 44). The ultimate aim in this trend is 'sense for sense' rather than 'word for

word translation. In this case, translation was considered as an 'art', and the emphasis was on the transfer of the merit, the feeling, the sense of the original work (cf. Finlay 1971, and McGuire 1980).

Chau (1984a) maintains that from as far back as Cicero (55BC) to Luther (1530), Dryden (1684), Goethe (1813), Tytler (1870), Benjamin (1923) and Valéry (1946), the discussion centered on 'the aims and results of translating' (Chau 1984a: 71).

The definition of translation along these lines could be found in Tytler's (1870) "Essay on the Principles of Translation". For Tytler, a good translation is that in which 'the merit of the original work is so completely transfused into another language, as to be distinctly apprehended, and as strongly felt, by a native of the country to which that language belongs, as it is by those who speak the language of the original work.' (quotation from Finlay 1971: 22).

Translation, on the other hand, was considered as a 'second activity', the ultimate aim was to transfer as closely as possible the words of the original work. McGuire (1980) refers to Dante Gabriel Rossetti (1861) as saying that the major characteristic of a translator is 'self-denial and repression of his own creative impulses'. As quoted by McGuire, Rossetti suggested the following:

'often would he avail himself of any special
grace of his own idiom and epoch, if only his
will belonged to him; often would some cadence
serve him but for his author's structure--some
structure but for his author's cadence...'

(McGuire 1980: 3)

In this era, Chau maintains, the attitude of the leading translation theorists was undoubtedly prescriptive. Their major discussion focussed on the long-debated themes such as 1) should a translation be literal or free? 2) should poetry be translated by verse or prose? 3) should translation be considered an art or a science? or whether 4) translating is after all possible.

2.2.2 Linguistic definition of translation

Linguistic development seems to have a considerable impact on translation studies (see McGuire 1980, and Newmark 1980 for a detailed account of the term 'translation studies'). The underlying factor of many translation definitions has its roots in one of the developing theories of language. Catford's definition relies, to a large extent, on comparative linguistics and systemic linguistics. Nida's definition draws upon generative grammar, generative semantics, and most importantly on the pragmatic approach to language study as suggested by Malinowski (1923), and Morris (1938). Finally, Bühler, Neubert, de Beaugrande, Reiss and Wilss's views on translation all have their roots in text linguistics, in which text not sentence is considered to be the ultimate unit of analysis. These views have a lot of bearing on translation models as discussed by Casagrande (1954), Chau (1984b) and Bathgate (1980 and 1981), and which will form the main section of this chapter.

In this era of linguistic fervour, translation studies draw upon insights of linguistics with a view to devising an 'empirical account of the translating process' (Chau 1984a: 71).

In this respect, Catford (1965) regards translation as a linguistic operation performed on languages. The operation is linguistic because a text in one language is substituted for another text in another language. Therefore translation according to Catford, is:

'the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).'

(Catford 1965:20)

Catford states that complete translation in normal circumstances is highly unlikely. He criticises the view that regards the SL and the TL as having the same meaning. For Catford, the 'transference of meaning' that is supposed to occur in translation is 'untenable.' Meaning, in his view, is:

'a property of a language. An SL text has an SL meaning, and a TL text has a TL meaning.'

His justification of this statement lies in his Firthian definition:

'... following Firth, we define meaning as the total network of relations entered into by any

linguistic form-- text, item-in-text, structure,
 element of structure, class, term in system-- or
 whatever it may be.' (Catford 1965: 35)

Therefore a translator, in the face of such an interlingual problem, may resort to a 'simple replacement, by non-equivalent TL material' (ibid). There seems to be a tendency to equate translation with 'replacement'. This tendency is the 'logical' consequence of the problem of untranslatability that normally occurs in the process of translation. As a practical outlet of this difficulty, Catford suggests the following: if, for instance, we are to translate the English 'text' what time is it? into French, the French equivalent 'textual material' at the same language level is to be substituted for the English 'textual material' in order to give the following French 'text': quelle heure est-il? (note the different use of the term "textual" from that of de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981 and Halliday and Hasan 1976).

Catford's (1965) preoccupation seems to be with the categorization of translation shift between levels, structures, word-classes, units and systems (cf Chau 1984a: 71). Little attempt seems to be made to link such an analysis to actual language use, and even less is done for the particularities of the target language.

A quick look at the example above may reveal that so much has been left out. Intra and extra-linguistic relations that bind the sentence, internally to form a cohesive and coherent text, and externally to relate to the real world, do not form part and parcel of this

approach to translation. The emphasis is on form at the detriment of meaning in all its different aspects (semantic, pragmatic, and textual. For more details see section 4.1 on the three aspects of meaning).

2.2.3 Post-linguistic Definitions of Translation

The communicative, the ethno-cultural, and the textual approaches to translation, are all, with varying degrees of emphasis, reader-biased. However, the communicative approach, as advocated by Newmark (1980, 1986, 1988) differs from the two others in that it does not differentiate between the author's intention and the text intention (see Hlebec 1989:130). Newmark (1988: 5) defines translation as the rendering of "the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text," not as could be understood and accepted by the reader. In addition to the author's intention in his text, most of the other approaches focus on the receiver's apprehension of the intended meaning of the text. The difference between languages is no more viewed in terms of form and content alone, but the difference is seen in the ways in which languages conceive of the outside world. Casagrand (1954) states that "the attitudes and values, the experience and tradition of a people, inevitably become involved in the freight of meaning carried by a language" (Casagrande 1954: 338). Therefore, he points out that one does not translates languages, one translates cultures. Along these lines, definitions such as the following emerge:

1. "Translating consists in producing in the receptor language the

closest natural equivalent to the message of the source language, first in meaning and second in style.' (Nida 1964: 19).

2. Wilss (1982) definition goes as follows: 'Translating is a specific form of interlingual communication linked to linguistic acts and decisions.' (Wilss 1982: 14).

3. Seleskovitch (1977) regards translation as a movement from linguistic meaning to sense and from sense to expression of sense. Seleskovitch notes that in translation there always seems to be an attempt to 'adjust the expression of sense to the linguistic meaning of the original language.' (Seleskovitch 1977: 83).

4. Buhler (1979) considers translation both as a process and as a product. As a process he views translation as "a communicative process, i.e. the transfer of a message from source language to target language with the translator as mediating agent in a double function of receptor and source." (Buhler 1979: 451).

Translating has become a 'text-oriented event', in which text, not word or sentence, is the ultimate aim of translating. Translation studies have become aware of the importance of the notions of co-text and context. In this respect, Chau(1984a) points out that 'research into text types and their implications for translating, such as those done by Neubert (1968), Reiss (1969, 1971, 1976), and Newmark (1981), were most illuminating' (Chau 1984a: 73).

Most of the translation studies that underlie such definitions recognise the fact that a translation may lose or gain in relation to the original. Though recognition of undertranslation or overtranslation is apparent in the works of such translation theorists they are not included in their definitions.

The questions that may be asked at this stage are "what, in actual fact, do we transfer from one language into the other? Is it the form or the meaning? If it is the form, would the TL allow this transfer (reference here is to the syntactic, semantic and textual differences that characterise similar languages and more importantly those that emerge in the analysis of two distant languages such as Arabic and English.)? If by transfer, on the other hand, it is understood the transfer of meaning, wouldn't it be an infringement on the boundaries of interpreting or paraphrasing?"

The previous definitions listed earlier (see page 28) do not seem to account for the loss of meaning or the redundancy that may result in an overtranslation (mainly when the TL does not seem to offer an equivalent form, structure or textual feature of a text that would correspond to those of the SL). Hlebec (1989) states, in this respect, that earlier definitions of translation 'suffer from imprecision' (Hlebec 1989:129). The imprecision lies in the fact that translation is usually seen as a 'process and result of rendering the same meaning in the words of another language.' (ibid.) In practice, however, this process usually results in a loss of 'some measure of meaning'. This is related to two factors: TL restrictions, and language adjustment to fulfill the needs of the TL audience. If some 'measure of meaning' is lost because of one or both of these factors, will the translation be still called translation or should it be referred to with another name? Moving away from the original text may cause the intended translation to stray into the domain of adaptation, paraphrase, or the result may be a completely different text. Hlebec (1989) suggests a

way out from this impass, a re-definition of translation. Translation, for him, is to be seen as a

`process of creating a translated text, which has two aspects: recreation and modification. Translational recreation is recoding in such a way that intentions expressed in the source code are evoked in the target code. Translational modification is a process by which the intentions of the original text are altered, and which accompanies recreation within the same text.'

(op.cit: 129)

In his defence of this approach to translation, Hlebec maintains that by applying the concept of recreation and modification in translating, problems of untranslatability and loss of meaning may disappear. Therefore, translation is seen by Hlebec, as a process that results in recreating the major part of the message with some change in the text to suit both the TL restrictions and the TL audience's requirement. Thus, translation could be measured by the degree of recreation it involves: `the more recreation in the text, the more it deserves to be called a translation.' (ibid).

Hlebec's attempt to overcome the theoretical problem of over/undertranslation by advocating the concepts of recreation and modification, puts the problem in perspective, but he does not seem to

present a model that could be used as a measure for evaluating translation. Moreover, this view does not seem to account for text variation and the specific needs for the transfer of each type of text.

An answer to this problem may be found in the view that considers translation as an act of communication between two languages. Translation, in this case, is no longer viewed as a mere transfer of a text in one language to another text in another language, but rather it is regarded as a communicative transaction in which meaning is negotiated. The translator, working under strenuous conditions assumes the task of negotiating the transfer of meaning in all its aspects, syntactic, semantic and textual. These interrelated aspects of meaning which are used by the SLT's author to achieve an 'intended effect', and which are embedded in a certain type of text rather than another, form the goal which the translator sets to recover in the TLT. Translating, in this case, could be defined as a 'communicative process which takes place within a social context.' (Hatim and Mason 1990:3).

Perhaps a discussion of the various models of translation supported with some examples of their method of application may help find an appropriate model for evaluating the quality of translation.

2.3 Models of Translation

The long-debated and debatable issues of translation have been the key subjects of various works in translation studies. Different kinds of theoretical models have been designed for the purpose of dealing with these problems. Some of the problems have been viewed as independent^{to} of the whole issue of translating, resulting, thus, in a model that would focus on one particular aspect of translating (Bathgate 1980, 1981). Others seem to provide a framework within which most of the other models can be integrated.

Translation models may be classified according to the purpose the translator sets to achieve in his translation, since 'differences in purpose and material may affect both the character of the end-product and the process of translating itself.' (Casagrande 1954: 335). Four aims are tentatively designated: pragmatic, aesthetic-poetic, linguistic, and ethnographic aims.

Equally important is the classification of translation models within a general framework in which most of the other specific models can fit. (cf. Bathgate 1980, 1981)

In this research, models will be classified according to the aspects they emphasize most. Some models may emphasize the grammatical aspect of translation, for instance traditional grammar and formal linguistics models. Others may focus on the cultural aspect of translation, e.g., the cultural or ethno-semantic models. Yet others may concentrate on the interpretive aspect of translating.

In the remaining sections of this chapter models of translation that are sentence-oriented will be described, discussed and illustrated, whereas text-oriented translation models will be dealt with in chapter three.

2.3.1 The Grammatical Model

Language in this model is considered an 'objective code with a demonstrable structure' (Chau 1984b: 125), and translation is viewed as a purely linguistic operation. Chau points out that 'the distinctive feature of this approach is its identification of translating with grammatical transfer, so much so that comparative grammar apparently becomes the only means of TT [i.e. translation teaching]' (ibid.). Translation, according to this approach, is the transfer of the SL grammatical structure with little regard to the other aspects of language that stress the use of language as a means of communication.

This model could be said to be based on the notion of replacement. Therefore, it may be illustrated as follows:

SL _____ R _____ TL

fig. 1 the grammatical model

Two approaches may be distinguished in this model:

a. The Traditional Grammar Approach

This approach to translating is based on a traditional view of language that believes in the universality of grammatical categories. Grammar is seen as a bundle of abstract universal categories that are used as a tool to classify the forms of language. Translating here, operates at the level of word and phrase. It consists in replacing each word in the SLT by an equivalent word in the TLT, so as the TL word or phrase would hopefully give the exact meaning of the SL word or phrase. (cf. Casagrande 1954: 337) This can hardly be the case in real-life translating since in word-for-word translating the situational and the extra-linguistic features that highlight those meanings, i.e. the meanings of words and phrases, seem to be shaded over if not completely ignored. The end result of such an operation is often misleading, ridiculous and sometimes offensive. (cf. Nida 1945, 1964).

Traditionally, however, translation has often been used as part of the final examination to test students' competence in learning a foreign language. Klein-Braley and Smith (1985) note that translation in this case is 'held to be a type of proficiency text providing a sample of language which will show the examinee's mastery of the foreign language.' (Klein-Braley and Smith 1985: 155). In this case such an approach to translating may be useful in teaching foreign languages. Thus, this activity may be used as an approach to

explaining the semantic differences that may exist within one particular language and their effect in eventual transfer to another language. More fundamentally still, the activity may serve as a means to dissipating the confusion associated with the teaching of vocabulary in a vacuum, i.e. presenting isolated lexical items devoid of their functional and practical use in a context of situation.

Chau (1984b) illustrates how the two sentences below may be translated following the method of operation of the traditional grammarians. The sentences in questions are This is a red rose and She is my cousin.

Chau explains that the traditional grammarians would start by reducing the sentence into its grammatical constituents, labelling them according to the known parts of speech. Attempts will then be made to find "correct" equivalents in the TL. Preference would be given to equivalents within the same parts of speech, e.g., red is an adjective in English, the corresponding adjective in Arabic, for instance would be أحمر 'ahmar , and cousin, بنت الخال, bint al-khāl.

As it may be noticed from the two examples above, correspondence may occur between some parts of speech. However, linguistic research has revealed that language is not a static phenomenon, but rather a dynamic one. Thus, what could be labelled within a particular language as adjective may also be a noun, a pronoun, an adverb, (consider round for instance). In the first example above, "red", qualified with a definite article, may refer to the communists. More confusingly still, would be the translation of the word "cousin" in the second sentence

into a non-Indo-European language such as Arabic, for instance. Should it be translated as ~~بنت الخال~~ ^{بنت الخال أم} "bint al-khal or bint al-`am." i.e. "maternal" cousin, or "paternal" cousin.

b. The Formal Linguistic Model

Unlike traditional grammar which tends to subjectively define and classify language forms into categories on the bases of their grammatical meaning, formal linguistics is distinguished by its empirical approach to language study. In this respect Chau (1984b) states that formal grammar objectively defines classes and `assigns rules for language based on a structural analysis of the phonology, morphology, and syntax of a language.' (Chau 1984b: 126)

Both of the approaches to language study operate at the level of langue rather than at the level of parole. Yet, traditional grammar is perscriptive in nature, whereas formal linguistics is descriptive. Following the latter approach, translation is viewed as the replacement of the source language grammar and lexis by equivalent target language grammar and lexis, (Catford 1965: 22). Casagrande (1954) maintains that the major aim in linguistic translation is to `identify and assign equivalent meanings to the constituent morphemes of the source language.' (Casagrande 1954: 337). The central focus seems to be on structural or grammatical form. What is involved here, Casagrande points out is a kind of `comparative linguistic anatomy'.

In Bathgate (1981), two sub-models are distinguished in the formal linguistic Model:

1. The Syntactic Model

The emphasis in this model is on the relation that exists between the sentence components and how this relation is perceived by the translator. There is a linear movement from the SL sentence to the reconstruction of a TL sentence. This movement comprises three main stages as illustrated in the following figure:

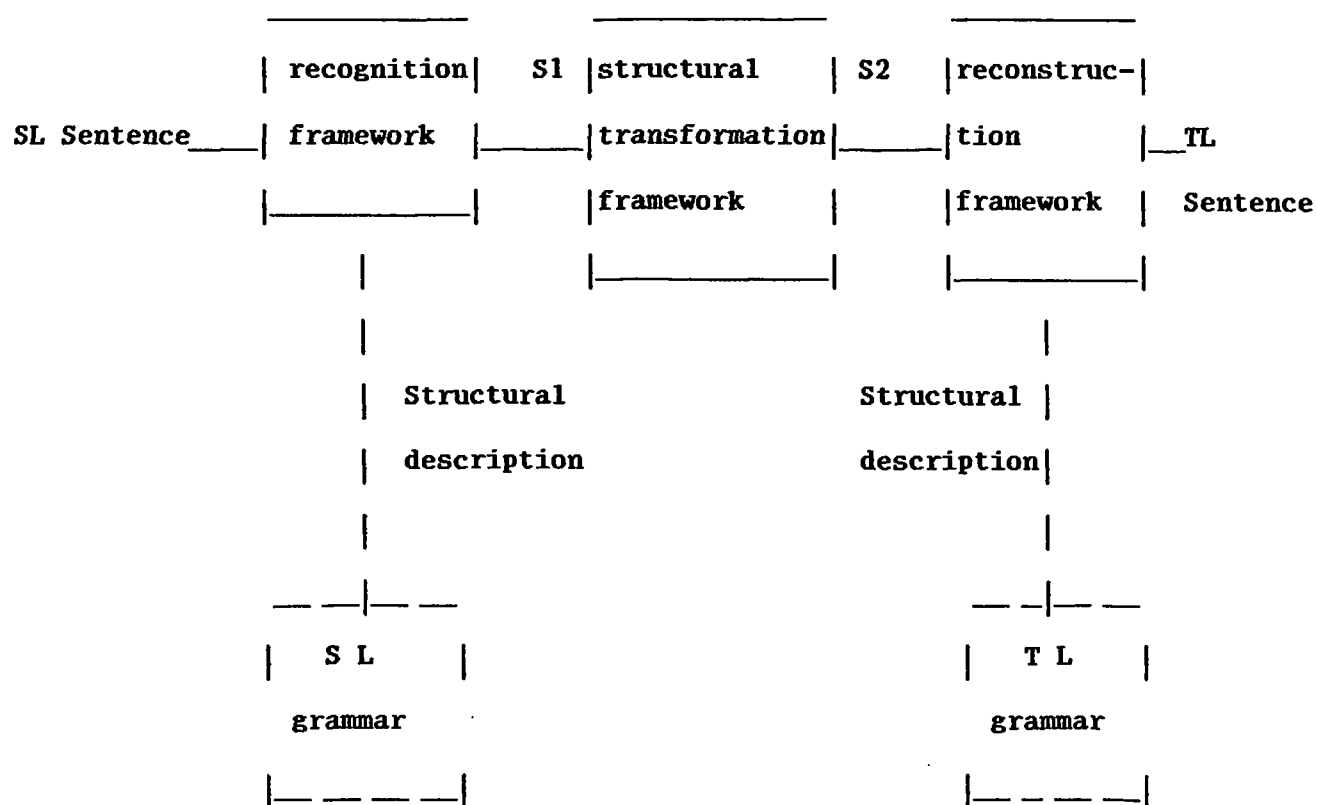


fig.2 Syntactic Model (from Bathgate 1981: 12)

The recognition framework allows the translator to analyse the components of the sentence in accordance with the SL grammar. The

analysis results in a structural description grouping the words into "functional units". Bathgate gives the following sentence as an example:

In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth.

where the phrase "in the beginning" is analyzed as a time clause, "God" as a subject and the last phrase as a noun phrase.

According to this model, the reconstruction framework allows for the conversion of the SL structure into an appropriate structure of the TL. Thus, it could help students in recognizing the different relations that may exist between the elements of a sentence. More importantly still, it may help see the difficulty encountered at the reconstruction stage, since the TL may not necessarily have an equivalent structure in its language repertoire, e.g., *استغفر ربه*, 'istaghfara rabbahu which is composed of an inflicted verb + an omitted subject + the target of the action verb. In English, there does not seem to exist such a structure. However, it could be rendered in English as follows:

He prayed God to forgive his sins

S V O^a O^a

The translation, however, does not convey the real meaning of the SL sentence. In *استغفر*, 'istaghfara, there is a humble demand for forgiveness in the process of prayer. Therefore, a rigid adhesion to

this model may not yield the required result.

2. The Transformational Model

This model refers to "the system of translation" as discussed in Nida and Taber (1964: 33). This model has been developed with a view to overcoming the problem of the ambiguity and the uncertainty surrounding the reading and translating of the Bible. Along these lines, two different systems of translating are suggested.

a. the first one is prescriptive, in that it provides a set of rules that are created in order to regulate the translator's choice. The adherence to these rules may result in an appropriate corresponding text in the receptor language.

b. the second system of translation is descriptive. It is composed of three stages:

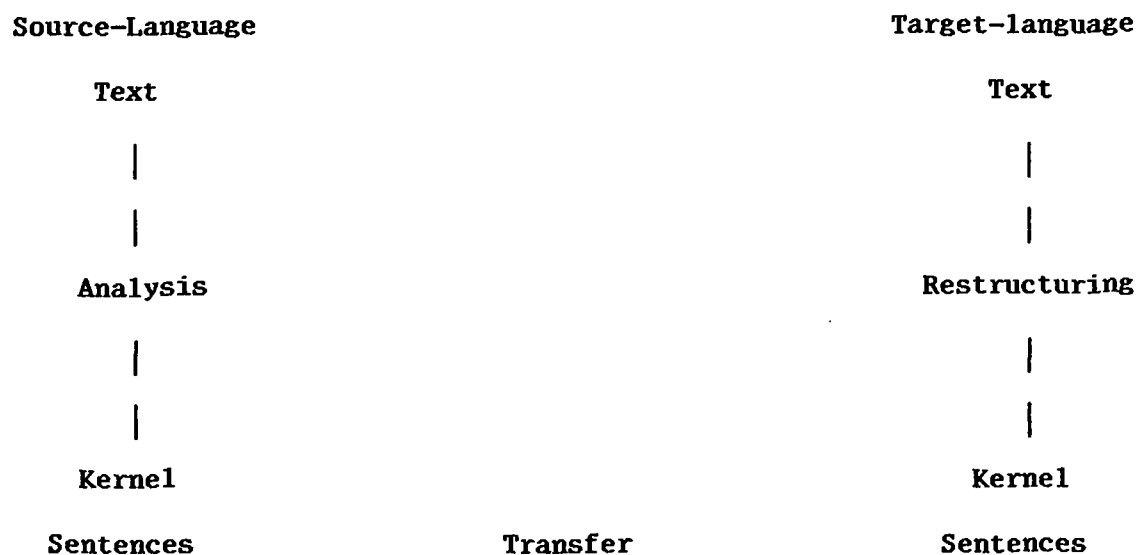


fig.3 Transformational Model

i. analysis: at this stage the surface structure is analyzed in terms of a) grammatical relations, and b) meanings of words and combination of words.

The central attraction in the analysis could be found in the use of the term "kernel sentences". A kernel sentence is the simplest sentence unit in a language composed of subject-verb-object and from which complex sentences may be built up.

'These structured expressions are basically what many linguists call "kernels"; that is to say, they are the basic structural elements out of which the language builds its elaborate surface structure.'

(Nida and Taber 1969: 39)

Insights from "transformational grammar" which have helped construct the model, reveal that from a basically small number of structures more elaborate formations may be constructed by means of the Chomskyian "transformation".

This first stage of the transformational model appeals for what may be called "back-transformation", i.e. 'the analytical process of reducing the surface structure to its underlying kernels' (ibid). Nida and Taber (1969), note that agreement among languages may be found to exist more extensively at the level of kernels than on any other level of language structure. They speculate that if grammatical structures could be reduced to the kernel level, transfer can be done easily and with a minimum of distortion. This leads us to the second stage of

this model,

ii. transfer: Nida and Taber (1969) state that the material that has been analyzed in terms of grammar and meaning is transferred in the mind of the translator from the language of origin to the receptor language. The final stage in this model is

iii. restructuring: at this stage of the translating process, the material transferred to the receptor language is adjusted to the requirement of the language it is transferred to, so that it would be acceptable.

Bathgate (1981) argues that while "back-transformation" is useful in determining the meaning of complex sentences, to rely on such a technique may reduce 'the intellectual freedom of the translator too much, drilling him to reproduce mindlessly the message propagated by the "organization" without considering its real meaning.' (Bathgate 1981: 13).

However, Nida and Taber's views on translation are not restricted to the linguistic side of translating. Theirs is a view that transcends simple transfer of SL words and sentences to include the transfer of cultural elements not as may be found in the SL but as required by the TL norms, (see 2.3.2 for more details)

The key to the whole operation in the formal linguistic model is in the correct transfer of grammar and lexis without giving much consideration to the context of situation in which the text has been produced, nor does it consider the cultural implication of the transferred forms.

2.3.2 The Cultural Model

This model is based on the idea that meaning is related and relatable to cultural contexts and situations. The emphasis is on the cultural aspect of language. Language, in this case, is not considered simply in terms of linguistic form, but it is viewed as a reflection of culture. Translation, according to this view, is inextricably a process by which the 'world view of one people' is described and explained. What we actually translate, Casagrande (1954) points out, is not language as such but cultures:

"The attitudes and values, the experience and tradition of a people, inevitably become involved in the freight of meaning carried by a language. In effect, one does not translate LANGUAGE, one translates CULTURES.'

(Casagrande 1954: 338)

The development of this model was influenced by prominent anthropologists such as Malinowski and Lévi-Strauss whose findings added a cultural dimension to the study of language. (see, for instance Malinowski 1923). Two approaches may be distinguished within this model:

a) The Ethnographic-Semantic Approach

This approach to translating has its basis in the view held by Bible translators. It was, initially, developed with the view to approximate understanding of the various cultural aspects of the Bible to peoples living in remote areas.

Another important factor that has influenced this approach is Ogden and Richard's (1929) views on language-meaning. Language, according to this view is seen in terms of symbol, thought or reference and the object referred to, the referent. The symbol represents a thought and both symbol and thought refer to a thing or a process.

However, meaning, according to this approach to translation, is seen not merely 'in terms of structural relations within a code system, but also in social and anthropological contexts.' (Chau 1984a: 72) The emphasis, therefore, is on the meaning and its relation to the cultural contexts.

This, however, was not a common practice among Western translators. The total or partial neglect of this approach to translating is related to the fact that translating has been carried on within the Indo-European language-family, whose culture seems to be 'relatively homogeneous' (Nida 1945: 194). Even when translation is carried on between different linguistic areas proportionality between the languages representing their respective cultures seems to be at variance. Translating from languages representing a simple culture into languages representing complex culture did not constitute a major

problem. The culturally complex languages usually allow for alternates.

However, this is not always the case. Malinowski, in his attempt to come to terms with the complicated linguistic transaction taking place between the members of a fishing village in the Trobriand Islands, had to resort to non-verbal features of the interaction in order to arrive at an understanding of what was going on. (reference here is to the anecdote of a fishing expedition and its return through a difficult coral reef). Malinowski's observations of the Melanesian people's interactive aspect of their daily life, led to the conclusion that an interpretation of an act of speech is determined by the requirements of the situational elements, linguistic or extra-linguistic, of the interaction. This "situationalisation" of the text in its immediate environment, as well as in 'the totality of culture surrounding' is a crucial step in the direction of intelligibility. (cf. Hatim and Mason 1990: 37)

Along these lines, Nida (1945) suggests that a translator has to be 'constantly aware of the contrast in the entire range of culture represented by the two languages,' (Nida 1945: 194), in order to bridge the gap between the culture of the TL and that of the original text. Therefore, a translation with commentary is called for. The primary concern of ethnographic translation is, Casagrande (1954) states, 'the explication, either in annotation or in the translation itself, of the cultural context of the message in the source language' (Casagrande 1954: 336) so that the cultural gaps in the two languages may be bridged. 'A secondary goal' Casagrande continues, is the 'specification and explanation of differences in meaning between

apparently equivalent elements of messages in the two languages, particularly with those differences that may be masked by other forms of translation.' (ibid) For example to translate literally the following extract from Text 2 in this study would not give the required meaning:

لاداعي للتأكيد بأنها تنافي تمام التنافي مع الإسلام...

1. lā dā'ī li t-ta'kīdī bi 'annahā tatanāfā tamāma t-tanāfi ma'a l-l'islāmi...

2a. There is no need to confirm that it [hijacking] is not compatible with Islam...

There seems to be that there is a need to qualify the term Islam

2b. There is no need to confirm that it is not compatible with the teaching of Islam...

b) The Dynamic Equivalence Approach

This approach to translating is distinguished by its emphasis on the "equivalence of response" (Nida 1964: 182). The theory of response is based on the assumption that 'anything that can be said in one language can be said in another unless the form is an essential element of the message' (Nida and Taber 1969: 4). This assumption is further supported by the view that regards languages as having their own genius, i.e. that no language is superior to another. The degree of

complexity or simplicity of a language depends to a large extent on the whole cultural load a speech community treasures. Therefore, where a fashion designer can create and name different shades of colours to promote the sale of highly sophisticated material so can an Eskimo, in his own way and within his cultural surrounding, differentiate between several shades of snow. In the same manner, a Sahraoui, living in the Sahara desert, can recognise and name different types of sand, flora and fauna of the region and the meteorological changes. For a translation to be appropriate, it has to take into consideration these factors. More fundamentally still, it has to aim for the response of the TL audience, similar to that of the SL readers.

Along these lines, translation is regarded as a process that aims to produce in 'the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the SL message, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style,' (Nida and Taber 1969: 12).

The form the message takes in the SL is not a major factor in the translation-response theory. Translation-response theory recommends that if the form is not an essential element of the message and if it cannot be found in the repertoire of the TL, it could, then be changed to some other object that would approximate the image of the TL phrase to that of the original. As an example, Nida and Taber (1969) suggest to translate culturally specific elements into similar elements that would have the same effect on the TL readers. Thus, "white as snow" could be rendered as "white as milk" in Arabic, or anything that denotes whiteness in the languages that do not have the element "snow" in their language repertoire. The crucial factor in this approach,

then, is the integrity of the message. In order to preserve the content of the message in the TL the 'form must be changed.' (Nida and Taber 1969: 5).

The major factor underlying the principle of "dynamic equivalence" is the attempt to free the message from the constraints imposed by the SL form. These formal constraints seem to tie the message, in time and space, to a particular language, and culture, (cf. Simon 1987). This concept has its origin in the difficulties Bible translators have found in their attempt to transfer form and content of SL.

The key word in this approach is "dynamic equivalence", rather than "textual replacement" as defined by Catford (1965). The equivalence is dynamic because it is in constant search of 'the closest natural equivalent of the SL message.'

Naturalness is seen, here, as the most important element in translation equivalence, since it has to fit three major areas of the communication process. Nida (1964) maintains that a natural rendering has to fit:

- '(1) the receptor language and culture as a whole, (2) the context of particular message, and
- (3) the receptor-language audience.'

(Nida 1964: 167)

A translation is judged natural when it does not sound like a translation. It respects the TL time and space, i.e. the culture reflected in the SL text is not transferred to the TL. Thus 'a good translation of the Bible must not be a "cultural translation"' (Nida

and Taber 1969: 13), in the sense that the culture of the SL is not imposed on the TL, instead the closest equivalence is sought. Accordingly, the closest equivalence has to be distinguished from the natural equivalence in that the former does take cultural differences into account. Nida and Taber (1969) give the example of "demon-possessed" as a closer equivalent to that in Greek and Hebrew versions rather than what would be considered in present-day English as a natural equivalent, "mentally distressed," since the latter version would not have the same effect on the TL audience as would "demon possessed".

The criterion posited for "dynamic equivalence" is similarity of response, which is achieved not only through grammatical formedness and lexical comprehensibility, Nida and Taber (1969) note, but rather through the 'total impact the message has on one who receives it,' (Nida and Taber 1969: 22).

In practical terms, "dynamic equivalence" could be most effective at the restructuring stage in Nida's model (see figure 3). At this stage adjustment seems to be the keyword. The material that has been analyzed and transferred in the mind of the translator, has to be adjusted to the requirements of the TL. This involves 'various degrees of spatio-temporal alterations.' (Chau 1984b: 128).

However, similarity of response, the criterion presented for "dynamic equivalence", does not seem to yield itself to empirical research. It is highly probable that a text, in a particular language, may evoke different responses in different readers belonging to the same discourse community. The impact a message may have on a particular discourse community cannot be measured against a different

discourse community remote in time and space. Casagrande (1954) notes that

‘Perfect equivalence, in the sense that the messages evoke identical responses in the speakers of the two languages, is probably impossible of attainment except perhaps in brief pragmatic messages.’

(Casagrande 1954: 338)

For a perfect or absolute equivalence to take place, there must exist two communities sharing the same social experience and identical cultures, the fact that seems remote even for languages that belong to the same origin, such as Indo-European languages.

Bathgate's (1980 and 1981) states that the wide diversity of the models of the translation process is indicative of their incompleteness. Most of them seem to have concentrated on a ‘limited sector of the translation process’ which he judges as often corresponding to one of the phases of his model, ‘The Operational Model’ (Bathgate 1980: 113).

‘The Operational Model’ seems to be the result of the author's observation of the activity of translation. Bathgate states that the model he advocates ‘presents the various activities one might observe if one looked over a translator's shoulder while he was at work.’ (ibid). The model as presented by Bathgate is illustrated in figure 4.

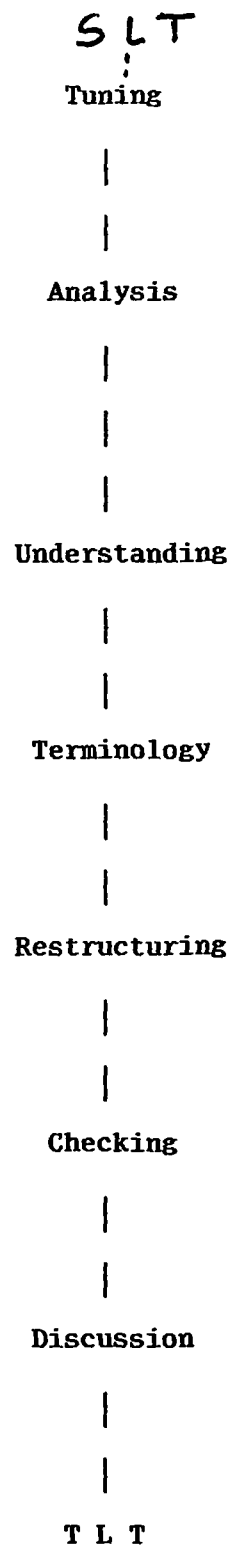


fig.4 The Operational Model.

Though the phases as described above may be said to form part of the translator's activity, they seem difficult to achieve by simply observing the translator at work. In addition, the translator's understanding of the text at hand may vary from other interpretations by other translators. In the process of decoding the SLT, several variables may interfere in the interpretation of the text. Among other active variables are the translator's presumed knowledge and background and most importantly the translator's expectations.

These factors seem to be accounted for in the interpretive models that take as their ultimate unit of translation not the grammatical components of a sentence but text as a whole. The interpretive models and among them the translation quality assessment model will form part of the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

TEXT-ORIENTED TRANSLATION MODELS

3.0 The models described and illustrated in the previous chapter have undoubtedly contributed, each in its own way, to the theoretical understanding of the process of translation. Yet, only few models have indicated the need for evaluating translations in general, and translators trainees' work in particular. The criteria proposed for evaluating the quality of translation do not seem to go beyond situational "substitutability" as in Catford (1965), seeking the opinions of an expert or the author of the original himself, as in Bathgate (1980), or 'similarity of response', as in Nida and Taber

(1969). Much seems to have been left out: the purpose for which the text has been written, the goal(s) the text wished to achieve, the relationship of author to text and author to readers, the interdependencies of the elements constituting the text, the relationship between text elements and the outside world, and the degree of information carried by the text elements within and across sentence boundaries . These can only be accounted for in a theory that regards text as the ultimate unit of translation rather than sentence or elements of a sentence. The awareness of the fact that 'formal grammar can never account for translating properly as it represents the tacit knowledge of an ideal speaker-hearer and is not a theory of performance' (Chau 1984a: 73), leads to regard translating as a 'text-oriented event'.

In this chapter models that take text, not individual lexicon or sentences, as the ultimate unit of analysis will be presented and discussed. The translation quality assessment model, the model discussed and developed in House (1976/ 1981) will be only briefly presented in this chapter as a member of text-bound models. The model will be further discussed and developed in chapters four and five.

3.1 Text Linguistic Models

Over the last decade, there has been a shift of emphasis in what is considered as the basic unit of linguistic analysis. A "context-free" sentence has, for a long period of time, gained ground in the academic research in the field of linguistics. In order to prove the applicability of their theory, linguists relied mostly on their

intuition as native speakers of the language. Minimal units of language were analyzed in terms of their positions and distinctive features. de Beaugrande (1985) notes that 'the motives for real utterances in communication and the processes that produce or receive them were not considered rewarding scientific issues.' (de Beaugrande 1985: 42). The aim has always been directed towards competence at the expense of performance. Not much attention has been given to the producer(s) or receiver(s) of the data under consideration, nor has the context of situation been accounted for. In this respect, Fillmore (1985) points out that

'Linguists have traditionally been interested in patterns found in the products of linguistic abilities (and in the abstract competence of speakers that underlies the knowledge of such patterns), much more than they have had any interest in the behaviors and strategies language users avail themselves of in producing and understanding language.'

(Fillmore 1985: 15)

For these linguists, what is produced, either speech or writing, is merely considered as a simple manifestation of the language, not language itself, which is the ultimate aim of their research. Much importance is given to "langue" rather than "parole". Neubert (1985), confirming the above criticism, notes that actual language use does not form part of the research carried out within the framework of the

grammatical theory. He contends that 'what research into context-free structures of language forms is really interested in is idealized competence, the grammatical knowledge potential, unaffected by any kind of production or reception conditions,' (Neubert 1985: 14) nor is it affected by time and place considerations. 'Linguistic competence is thus reduced to grammatical, in fact, formal competence.' (ibid)

Actual competence of a member of a discourse community who has an adequate command of his language is undoubtedly not restricted to sentence level. This belief forms the basis of the shift of emphasis that has recently taken place in the study of language. Interest has shifted to a unit larger than a sentence, i.e. text. A text could be defined as related chunks of language which respect specific standards of textuality (cf de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981). Texts are, thus, viewed as verbal components of human behaviour in an interactive situation (cf. Reiss 1987: 47). Translation, deals essentially with texts, not words or sentences, unless the latter are used for pedagogical purposes. Therefore translation problems should best be treated within the framework of a combined theory of communication and linguistics, since what a translation aims for is to preserve the function of the SL text. (Language functions vs. text functions will be dealt with in chapter four.)

In any communicative event, there must exist some "constitutive factors" without which communication cannot take place. Three principal "constitutive factors", are considered by Jakobson (1960) to be crucial in any act of communication: sender, message, and receiver. The message, however, cannot be operative without a framework of reference which can be either verbal, i.e. co-text as referred to by

Chau (1984b), or non-verbal, i.e. situational, socio-cultural context. The message is accessible to receiver mainly because it is encoded in a conventionally acceptable code system, and particularly, it is delivered through a medium, or 'contact' as Jakobson calls it, that both sender and receiver are familiar with. Jakobson defines 'contact' as 'a physical channel and psychological connection between the addresser and the addressee, enabling both of them to enter and stay in communication.' (Jakobson 1960: 353). The "constitutive factors" are schematized in Jakobson (1960) as follows:

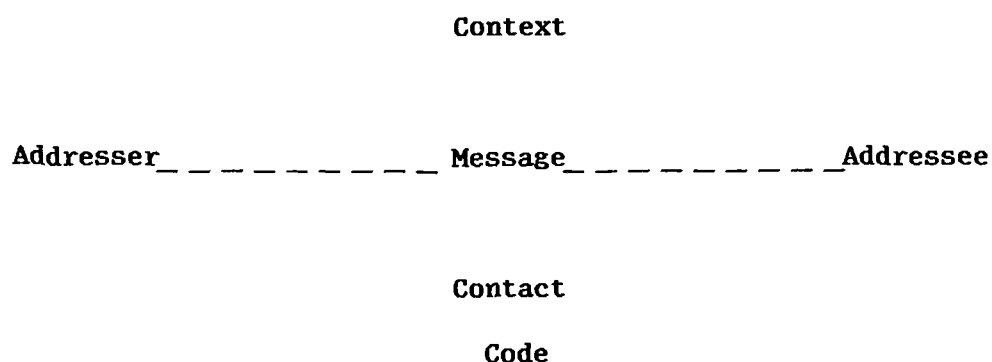


fig. 5 Constitutive factors of communication acts

(These factors will be taken up in section 3.1.1 b. and c.)

Along these lines, de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) regard text as a 'communicative occurrence' that has to meet seven standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality. According to de Beaugrande and Dressler, these seven standards of textuality are a crucial element in the composition of text. Violation of one of them may be tolerated as long as there is continuity, i.e. as long as

communication has taken place, and has not been interrupted.

The combination of the linguistic elements and the features that constitute an act of communication may be considered to form the most influential factor in textual intelligibility. Such a factor is crucial in any translation quality assessment, since the starting point in any evaluation of a translation end-product is to fully understand the SLT. To achieve this end, one has to be equipped with the variety of tools offered by the communication theory and text linguistics. Before further discussion on textlinguistics and related subjects, let us first look at translation models that take text as their point of departure. (for further definitions of text and components of text see section 3.1.1 b. and c.)

3.1.1 The Interpretive Model

Within this model, translation is seen not as an interlingual or intercultural operation but rather as an intertextual one. The emphasis is put on the understanding of the SLT in its context of situation. Two models may be distinguished within the interpretive framework.

a) The Hermeneutic Model

Unlike other models, the hermeneutic model is not based on recent language theories. It is based on a predominantly German school of philosophy, which is sometimes referred to as the "existentialist

hermeneutics."

The hermeneutic approach to translating may be subsumed under interpretive models in as far as the starting point of the method of operation is the understanding of the SLT. Most of the text-oriented models are distinguished by their emphasis on the understanding of the SLT. However, the hermeneutic model differs from the other models in that the emphasis is on the 'ontological aspect of interpretation.' (Chau 1984b: 130). By "ontological" Chau (1984a) means 'an analysis of existence' or 'the discovery of the finitude of man's existence.' (Chau 1984a: 73).

According to Bathgate (1981), hermeneutics is the 'theory of the interpretation of Biblical texts,' (Bathgate 1981: 11) which could be applied to any translation process. But the fields of hermeneutics are not restricted to biblical exegesis alone. They include:

- ~ (i) the theory of biblical exegesis;
- (ii) general philosophical methodology;
- (iii) the science of all linguistic understanding;
- (iv) the methodological foundation of the human sciences
and the social sciences;
- (v) phenomenology of existence and of existential
understanding, and
- (vi) the systems of interpretation, both recollective
and iconoclastic, used by man to reach the meaning
beyond myths and symbols.'

(Chau 1984a: 73)

The keystone that links this school of thought and translation is the task of understanding and interpreting text, in general, and particularly for a translator the SL text. According to Chau (1984a), however, it is mostly the fifth field, i.e. the phenomenological or existential hermeneutics that forms the basis of this approach to translating.

Hermeneutics, in opposing the scientifically-minded insistence on 'objectivity and empirical verifiability', opened the doors widely for personal and existential elements in the interpretation of the outside world. Hence the importance of this approach to translating, since, according to hermeneutics, the interpretation of the SLT relies mostly on the personal understanding of the translator.

The method of operation involves four stages which are illustrated clockwise by 1 to 4 in figure 6:

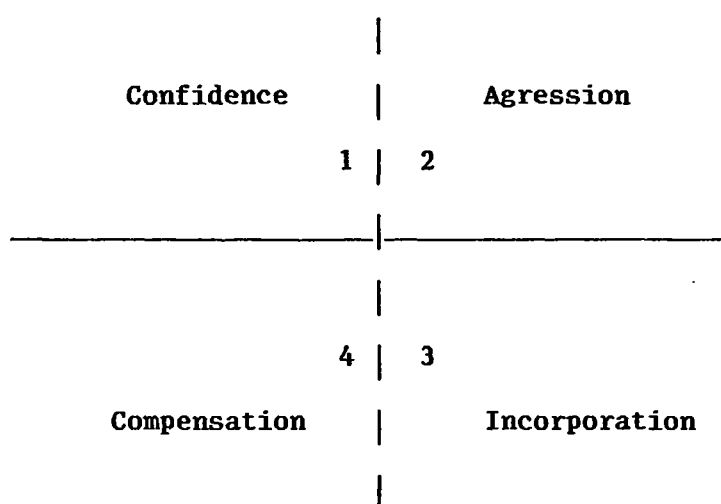


fig. 6 The Hermeneutic Model (adopted from Bathgate 1981: 11)

A discussion of these four stages may shed light on the insights that a translator may gain from hermeneutics.

1. Stage One: Confidence

The primary task of a translator is to understand the text at hand. His interpretation of the SLT may be based on scientific means as offered by linguistics, text linguistics and other scientifically oriented approaches. But there seems to be no guarantee for an 'ultimate reading', since for hermeneutics, 'there is no truly "objective" understanding of a text.' Therefore, a translator must have confidence in his judgement not only of his interpretation capabilities but of the worthiness of the message to be transmitted as well. In other words, there must be a belief that the text to be translated contains a message worth understanding and transmitting.

2. Stage Two: Agression

Another important task facing the translator is to penetrate the meaning of the text. It is commonly acknowledged in the scientifically oriented interpretations that personal pre-judgements are a hindering block to objective understanding. For hermeneutics, prejudices are not to be considered as negative qualities in our interpretation of texts. On the contrary, 'prejudices' as repeatedly argued by Gadamer, 'are not only inevitable, but are productive in the reciprocal event of understanding.' He proclaimed that 'it is not so much our judgements

as it is our prejudices that constitute our being.' (Gadamer 1976: 9, in Chau 1984a: 74). What is advanced here is not to avoid the scientific ideal but 'to be aware of one's own biases, and live with them, let them interact with the text.' (Chau 1984a: 75).

3. Stage Three: Incorporation

The question that a translator may ask at this stage is how to capture the meaning hidden in the SLT and then re-present it in the TLT. For a hermeneutic interpreter, there is no final or definitive reading of a text. Therefore, there is no unique meaning of the SLT. Consequently, in any process of translating there must exist the elements of existentiality and historicity. One refers to the sum total of background knowledge and personal experience of the interpreter, and the other to the obsolescence of the intention recorded in the text at the time of its production. The translator's task, then, is not to transfer the meaning according to certain rigid set of rules, but rather to mediate between the languages in question. His is the task of negotiating the meaning between the SLT and the TLT according to his understanding of the SLT and to the TLT restrictions. In the act of interpreting, the SLT is bound to be 'made new through the interpreter's recreation.' (cf. Hlebec 1989). This leads us to the final stage in the hermeneutic model.

4. Stage Four: Compensation

By compensation it is meant to adapt the meaning of the SLT to the understanding of the TL reader, or to adapt the statement of the message to 'the situation in which it is made.' (Bathgate 1981: 11). According to the hermeneutic approach, texts mean different things to different readers. The meaning of a text is not determined by the original intention of the author, nor by the interpretation of the original reader. It is determined by the temporal and the spatial hermeneutic situation of the interpreter. Therefore, the translator's task is to approximate his interpretation of the SLT meaning to that of the TL reader. The translator's work, then, will be but one version among other potential versions.

It is true that interpretation plays a major role in translating but a translator does not simply draw on his 'immediate circumstances' in order to interpret a text. Other important factors may influence our interpretation and reconstruction of texts. The knowledge of linguistic rules, pragmatic effect and textual structure of texts determine our understanding of texts and consequently help in the process of reconstruction.

By concentrating heavily on the individual capabilities and circumstances of interpretation, Hermeneutics seems to dismiss the necessity and importance of evaluating the quality of translation. However, hermeneutic insights may be of great use to the translator, mainly when combined with text linguistic means of dealing with texts.

b) Text Analysis Model

The assumption underlying this model is that complete comprehensibility of a text is attainable through a systematic analysis of the original situation 'via the epistemic study of the co-text' (Chau 1984b). The analysis of the SLT is carried out within

- a) its situational context, i.e. its verbal and non-verbal environment,
- b) the socio-cultural setting in the SL community, i.e. 'the totality of the culture surrounding the act of text production and reception,' (Hatim and Mason 1990: 37), and most importantly
- c) within a framework that regards text as a communicative event produced with the ultimate aim to inform, instruct, influence or manipulate the attention of the reader, so that a change of affair may occur.

The knowledge of language on its own is not a sufficient factor to understand a text and therefore transfer it to another language. A deep knowledge of the culture and the background in which the text has been produced is central in translation:

'The problem of understanding is thus central if the translator is to carry out his task.'

(Reiss 1981: 127)

Neubert (1985) agrees with Reiss (1981) that the 'task of the first phase of the translation process' is text analysis, i.e.

analysis of the SL text according to certain parameters that would enable the discovery of the inner and outside factors that influence the production and reception of the text. This concept forms the basis for the Translation Quality Model as outlined by House (1981).

The second phase involves 'the problem of verbalising the text' in another language in so much as it would be possible for the TL receptor to understand the translated text.

Reiss (1981) proposes two ways of dealing with this particular phase:

a) the first phase is to 'understand the text as if its message had been directly addressed to the target-language receptor.' This is what she refers to as 'primary translation' and what Nida and Taber (1969) call 'dynamic equivalence.'

b) the second phase is to 'understand the text as if the target-language reader had read the source-language text as a source-language receptor.' Reiss calls this 'secondary translation' or 'formal correspondence' in Nida and Taber (1969).

Text-understanding, for this approach, is the pivotal factor in translation process. To clarify the notion of text-understanding, it is necessary to define both the terms text and understanding.

1. The notion of text

There seems to be a general consensus concerning the nature of text. de Beaugrande and Dressler, as it has been mentioned earlier in this chapter (see p. 56), define text as a 'communicative occurrence

which meets seven standards of textuality.' (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 3). Halliday and Hasan regard text as 'language that is functional,' (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 10). Hartman (1964) notes that 'the decisive trait of the text is its occurrence in communication,' (Hartman 1964, as quoted by de Beaugrande 1980: 2). Reiss in a global definition, which is a slight variation of Schmidt's definition "text-in-function" states that 'a text is a coherent, thematically oriented, linguistic set of utterances, (realised in the medium of written language), for the purpose of communication,' (Reiss 1981: 128). Putting, thus, the weight on 'communication' reveals that text is not simply a string of linguistic set of utterances:

' "text" also includes what the author rightly or wrongly presupposes his readers to have in the way of "pre-knowledge" (knowledge of other texts of the same or other language communities) and background knowledge (about the "world" they live in), but which is not verbalised.'

(Reiss 1981: 128)

"Pre-knowledge" and "background knowledge" are what de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) refer to as "intertextuality" and world at large or outside world, (see de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 85 and 182).

2. Understanding (in its relation to texts)

Citing Eugen Leibfried, Reiss (1981) distinguishes between two kinds of understanding:

- a) understanding through experience, and
- b) understanding through explaining.

a) means 'effective reception and experiencing' which Reiss calls "intuitive understanding." b) on the other hand, means the process of 'analyzing the component elements of the text... and demonstrating their interdependence; that is, their laws and structures.' (ibid.)

This concept of understanding, however, has been dismissed as too subjective. Coseriu as quoted by Reiss, amplifies the concept as follows:

"texts contain not only linguistic material, but include also knowledge of the extra-linguistic world, which is presupposed in the receptor of the text, without which understanding of the text is impossible. this means that in addition to the verbal content (which we may call the 'text-copy'), the text also implies the situation, function, and socio-cultural setting, insofar as these are not verbalised."

(in Reiss 1981: 128).

Translation according to this view is not a simple, straight forward transfer of the communicative event occurring in the SL into the TL. Though translation, within this context, is viewed as a 'communicative process which takes place within a social context' (Hatim and Mason, 1990: 3), for Reiss and Neubert, translation is regarded as an 'abnormal' communicative process. It is an 'interrupted interlingual communication process,' (Reiss 1981: 124), 'a highly unnatural... type of communicative skill...' (Neubert 1981: 131), that calls for 'language mediation'. Translation, then, is mediation in as far as the translator

a) understands the SLT with all what understanding, as defined above, involves, and

b) transfers the message into the TLT through careful choice of lexis, structure and style to suit the communicative needs of the TL audience.

'Normal' Communication, however, occurs via original texts. It is an interaction between senders and receivers of the same community. (cf. Jakobson 1960). It is a direct communication, the result of 'direct experience put into language.' Unlike original text, translation is referred to as a 'text-induced text,' its existence is derived from already 'verbalized communicative events.' (Neubert 1981: 131). Neubert represents a direct, normal communication as follows:

Source _____ Message _____ Recipient

fig. 7 'normal' communication

'Translation-mediated communication', on the other hand, could be viewed in terms of a quadruple representation:

Source_____Source Text_____Target Text_____Recipient

fig. 8 'Translation-mediated communication'

Translation as mediated communication can be placed within the framework of "understanding through explaining". In this case, another element should be added: that of the mediator himself who is both recipient of the original text and source of the target text. The questions that may be asked here, are: could the TLT be a replica of the SLT? could it help the TL reader understand, enjoy and react to the text as if it has been addressed to him in the first place? Neubert (1981) argues that the TLT does not always achieve the same aim as that of the SLT for the simple reason that it is 'textually different'. It differs from the SLT in that it has been produced in a different socio-cultural setting. The TLT is a different text because 'it is couched in a different world of discourse' (Neubert 1981: 132).

Reiss (1981) maintains that as a prerequisite to any attempt to solve translation problems mainly as they have been described above, is the translators' awareness of the factors that influence the process of translation. These factors are illustrated in the following model:

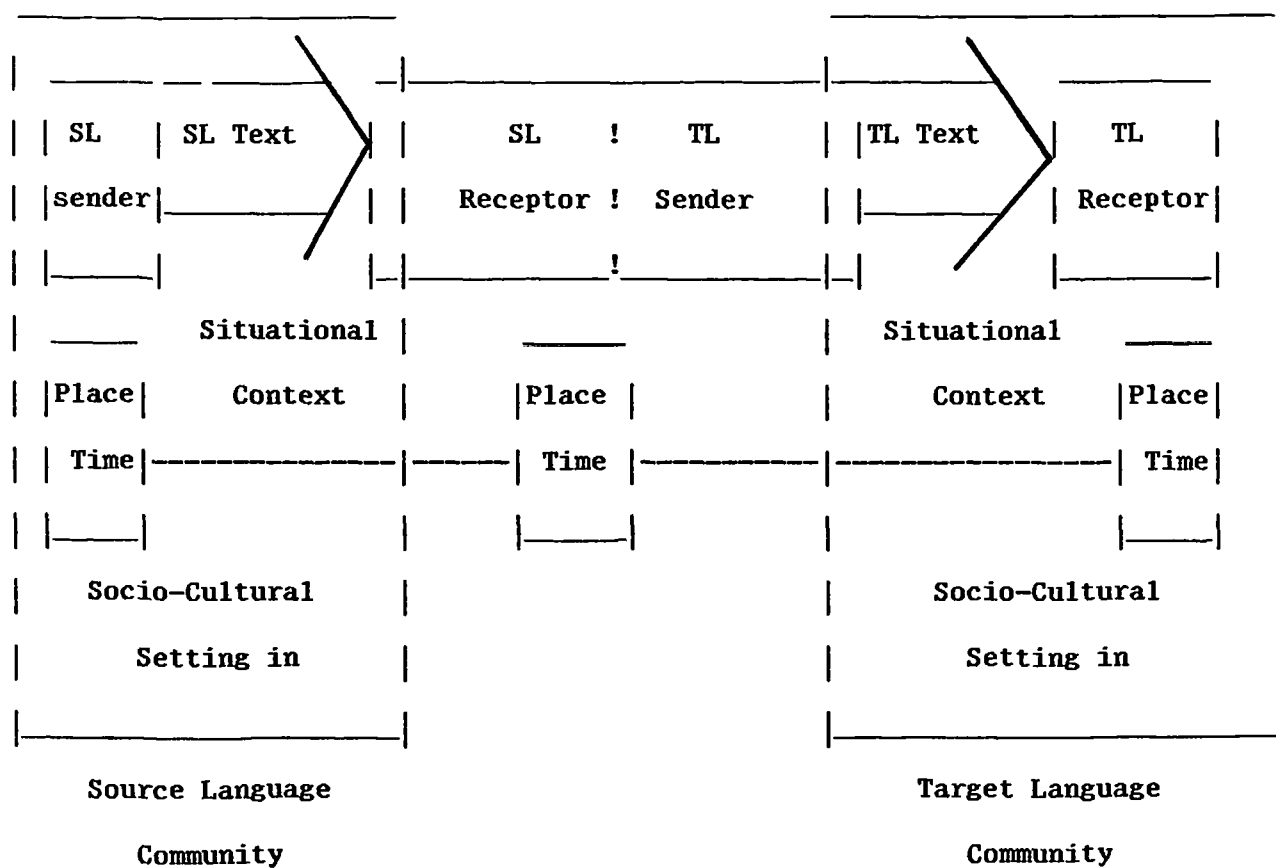


fig. 9 Factors influencing translation

(adapted from Reiss 1981: 124)

Each of the factors involved in this model is itself a variable, the knowledge of which is capable of influencing the process of translation. For example, the sender may be known or anonymous, an individual or a group of writers. He may even be a translator himself. The translator faces the task of SLT understanding and that of rendering the text into a more appropriate language in a different socio-cultural setting, e.g., transferring a text from English into Arabic. His role as a translator varies as to whether he has to be faithful to the original and thus transmit the original spirit of the

text. Alternatively, his work may be appropriate, i.e. serve the expectations of the TL audience as required by the TL socio-cultural setting.

Another equally important factor influencing the translation process is the situational context. Reiss (1981) defines situational context as 'the time and place in which a given text is produced and received.' (Reiss 1981: 126). Written texts mainly, are characterized by spatio-temporal gap; 'sender and receptor do not share a common perceptive situation.' (ibid). This difference that characterizes situational perception for sender/receptor of the SL and translator/receptor of the TL require manipulation of language potential in order to achieve required aims. Sender/receptor of the SL share to a certain degree a general common background knowledge, which may be said to facilitate understanding. For the TL reader, on the other hand, an adjustment or approximation is required in order to obtain understanding of the translated text. Text2 in this study makes use of the choices that the Arabic language offers in order to appeal to emotions and solidarity in the case of the hijacking of the Kuwaiti airplane in 1988. Appeal to solidarity in the text concerns mainly the Arab public not the English or the Western audience. The point that seems to be emphasized in the text is the categorical condemnation of this particular instance of hijacking at the moment when political solidarity is needed to solve the problem of the Palestinians. Transferring the text into English as such may not give the required effect. An adjustment is needed to approximate the pragmatic aspect of the Arabic text to the expectation of the Western audience. (see SLT

analysis in chapter six for further details).

One of the factors that conditions the production and reception of text is the socio-cultural setting. Language could be said to be the reflection of culture. Therefore any changes occurring in the culture of a society are liable to influence language and consequently have a strong bearing on the reception of text. The TL receptor with his different "pre-knowledge" of the 'matters related to text' and his 'different general background knowledge' is not accounted for in the production of the SL text. It is the task of the translator to account for this through, perhaps, what Hlebec terms "recreation and modification." (Hlebec 1989: 129).

The model of translation process as presented by Reiss (1981: 124) above and a similar but more sophisticated model illustrated and discussed in Neubert (1984) (see Neubert 1984: 64 for more detail) emphasize more the intelligibility aspect of the translation process. The focus of attention is to understand the message that would make 'equal sense in L¹ as before in L² .' (Neubert 1984: 61), since what is translated are not words and structures but texts as communicative acts. What these two schematizations of the translation process do not show is the procedural aspect of translating, i.e. how an effective recreation of the SLT function is fulfilled under the conditions of the TL textual conventions (cf. Neubert 1984: 64). Incidentally, the search for the TL norm could be used as a useful approach to overcome translation problems at the sentential level. Furthermore still, norm parallelism could serve as a useful tool for translation quality assessment (cf. Dormusuglu 1983).

An investigation of the textual conventions of a particular language requires a framework within which text types can be classified.

3.1.2 A Text Typological Model

This approach to translation is based on the premise that to arrive at an adequate transfer of a text embedded in a particular socio-cultural setting into another text of a different socio-cultural setting, texts must be classified in terms of the types they belong to (cf. Zydati 1983).

Like interpretive models, the text typological model makes use of other disciplines such as discourse analysis, stylistics, rhetoric and ethnomethodology. However, it differs from them in that the focus is rather on the ways in which text types may be set.

Hatim (1985) defines text types within the framework of a model of language production and reception which approaches discourse "macro-contextually". His model is based on the assumption that 'language users, producers and receivers alike approach discourse/text firstly by reacting to and interacting with the various strands of context' (Hatim 1987: 102). Three basic contextual domains are distinguished: the pragmatic, semiotic, and communicative.

a. Pragmatics as language investigation with reference to the producer and receiver of the text, 'defines discourse "action" on the (extra) textual environment, or what is taken by language producers, and accepted by receivers, to be the communicative intention of the

discourse' (Hatim 1985: 8). Pragmatics in this case refers to the function of the text: to instruct, expose or change a state of affairs,

b. Semiotics, the study of signs, 'regulates the "interaction" of pragmatic intentions with the environment.' (ibid). Language elements in a text are seen as 'signs' indicating the same semiotic type when common features are distinguished, and different semiotic type when features of the text differ,

c. The communicative domain provides a framework for communicative 'transaction' in a socio-cultural setting (within a context of situation) where situational aspects such as users of text, time and place, field and mode of discourse are defined.

Hatim (1987) states that the pragmatic action on the environment

'refers to what discourse producers attempt to achieve, and discourse receivers pursue and accept, as the purpose of communication (e.g. "to produce a rebuttal")',

and that in the semiotic interaction with the environment

'discourse/texts take on values which define them as signs in some symbolic system (e.g. "a rebuttal preceded by a certain title and followed by a review of current trends"), and finally

the communicative transaction in the environment

'sets a framework in which communication takes place by defining aspects such as time--place, addressor-- addressee, field of discourse, text mode etc. (e.g. an editorial in a prestigious British daily).'

(Hatim 1987: 102-103)

The interplay of these three contextual domains results in what Hatim (1985) calls "text-typological focus", a pragma-semio-communicative construct which determines the discourse-text in question as a token of a particular type' (Hatim 1985: 8).

According to this approach, Text 1 in this study (see Appendix 1) should be analyzed as follows:

The intentionality of the text is to refute government approach to privatisation and through a series of arguments, persuade the public at large that the national interest should be taken as a criteria for any attempt to privatise public sectors. The semiotic of the text, i.e the value that marks the sign as belonging to some symbolic system rather than the other, indicates that this is an editorial. Finally, the framework within which the communication takes place is defined: an editorial addressed to members of parliament and the Moroccan public at large, at the moment of debating the issue of privatisation. The combination of these domains results in the text typological focus 'argumentation' since the predominant factor in the text is the evaluation of concepts that are characteristically oriented towards a specific aim. (see chapter six for the analysis of text 1 along

the Situational/Textual dimensions Model.)

The results obtained at the macro-level of analysis should necessarily be reflected at the micro-level of analysis. At this level interest is on how elements of language combine with each other in order to form phrases, clauses and sentences and how these in their turn cohere with similar elements for the purpose of building up an entire text. This micro-processing, as called by Hatim, is 'constantly guided by the set of pragmatic, semiotic and communicative (text-typological) values which macro-processing yields and which the various realizations of discourse take on.' (Hatim 1985: 9).

This interdependence between macro- and micro-processing is demonstrated in two examples taken from two different text types:

1. Much credit flows to the state of Israel. (a Guardian editorial)
2. Several consequences flow from this new proposal. (a review/summary from K. Brown Linguistics Today 1984).

"Communicative Dynamism" as advocated by Fibras (1964), is taken as a criterion for establishing the text type. "Communicative Dynamism" is used as a basis for analyzing 'the extent to which the sentence element contributes to the development of the communication' pushing, thus, 'the communication forward' (Fibras 1964: 270). In this connection, the analysis of the elements of sentence 1 reveals that the first two items much and credit, are less prominent than the rest of the items in the sentence. However, being assigned the status "thematic" does not exclude them from setting the motion towards more imminent items, mainly since the two items could not be

considered as the "doers" of the verb "flow". The verb "flow" joins forces with rhematic part of the sentence, forming, thus, what Hatim calls 'transition-rheme nexus'. This operation 'dynamizes the rheme maximally' (Hatim 1985: 11), resulting, thus, in the development of the communication towards the intended goal. This 'progressive' directionality is further established by theme-rheme 'zigzagging', i.e. rheme of the first sentence becomes theme of the following sentence in the text. This progressive aspect, Hatim contends, marks the text as belonging to the argumentative type.

The second text directionality, however, is referred to as 'regressive', since it is characterized by a 'theme-transition nexus' where the transitional contribution is directed towards the thematic element. This is maintained through a 'theme-becoming-theme' pattern, (ibid), thus establishing an expository text.

The relevance of the above to translation theory and practice could be demonstrated through some tentative answers to the following questions:

1. Do different text types need different treatment in the process of translating?
2. To what degree can a text type belonging to a particular language be transferred to a similar text type if any in another language?

The answer to question one may be found in Hatim (1985). The examples 1 and 2 in this section, could be taken as evidence to illustrate the transfer potential based on the pragma-semio-

communicativeness of the two text types represented by the two initial sentences, so that the TL texts would be an Arabic argumentative text, and an expository text respectively. The former will be marked by a 'transition-rheme nexus' requiring, thus, a nominative structure:

1a. سئل من عبارة التهانى ينهال على دولة اسرائيل

saylun nin 'ibārātī t-tahānī tanhālu 'alā dawlati 'isrāīla

The latter will be marked by a 'theme-transition nexus' resulting in a verbal structure:

وبترتب على هذا الاقتراح الجديد نتائج عديدة أولها...

2b. wa yatarattabu 'alā hādā l-'iqtirāhi al-jadīdi natā'iju

'adīdatun awwaluhā....

The second answer is offered by Wilss (1982). The focus is on the basic communicative functions every text may have. The ultimate aim of text seems to be the effect it has on the readers. Therefore, Wilss maintains that 'every text ... is characterized by one or several basic communicative functions.' (Wilss 1982: 112). Along these lines, text types are defined as those texts with a comparable basic communicative function. The relevance of this to translation is that, Wilss states, 'different text types require in translation not only different transfer methods, but also different TE (i.e. translation equivalence) criteria.' (ibid). The relevance of text types to translation can also be seen in the degree of their translatability.

As cited by Wilss (1982), Neubert (1968) distinguishes between four categories of 'translation-related' text types :

1. exclusively SL-oriented text, for example in the field of area studies..
2. primarily SL-oriented texts, for example literary texts (text types 1. and 2. correspond roughly to House's class of "overt translation"; 1977),
3. SL- and TL-oriented texts, for example LSP texts,
4. primarily or exclusively TL-oriented texts, for example texts intended for propaganda abroad (this text type corresponds roughly to House's class of "covert translation"; 1977).

(Wilss 1982: 114)

According to this distinction the range of translatability varies from optimal translatability as in 3&4 via partial translatability (text type 2), to relative untranslatability (text type 1).

Wilss (1982) argues, however, that this classification may not stand up to 'large scale empirical tests.' (op.cit.: 115). His criticism is built on the fact that since intralingual paraphrasing is possible so is the 'feasibility of interlingual paraphrasing operations,' which would allow a SL-oriented text to be 'equally well translated as an SL/TL-oriented text.' (ibid).

Moreover, to assign one text type exclusively to one of the four categories is to deny the possibility of variation that may exist within a single type. For instance, the conditions of transfer that

could be applied to literary texts vary in accordance with the different subclasses of the same type. The degree of translatability of a novel is higher than that of a classical theatre play or a poem.

Even in TL-oriented text one has to be cautious with the high degree of translatability this category is claimed to have. Some 'linguistic preconditions' have to be fulfilled for a translation to be optimal. The choice of lexis, structure and pragmatic effect should be manipulated in such a way as comprehensibility would not be disrupted at the other end of the transfer, i.e. for the TL audience.

Within the framework of text type relevance to translation, Buhler (1979) offers a solution for the above problem. He classifies texts according to whether they are "translation-oriented" or "non-translation-oriented," depending on their basic communicative functions. In his model called "organon-modell" he sets to prove that 'human beings use linguistic signs in the form of texts for three different purposes, representational, appellative and expressive texts with S/R-neutral reference, R-oriented reference, and S-oriented reference.' (in Wilss 1982: 115). (S/R stand for sender, receiver respectively.)

Text can be classified, contextually, according to basic communicative functions. Wilss maintains that 'each text is dependent on conditions of origin and reception which must be reflected in any attempt to deal with texts on an empirical basis, taking account of text-internal and text-external factors.' (ibid).

Within this framework, a translator views a text as a 'communicatively-oriented configuration with a thematic, a functional,

a text-pragmatic dimension ... These three dimensions can be derived from the respective text surface structure.' (Wilss 1982: 116). The markers that the text surface structure acquires serve as guidelines for the comprehension of the text by the receiver.

The difference between these two approaches to text typology is that communicativeness is seen as the principal component on the basis of which text can be classified (Buhler 1979, and Wilss 1982). Whereas in Hatim (1984, 1985), communicativeness forms part of the contextual triad. However, the broadness of text type definitions as known so far, and the pervasiveness of the traits that would mark a text as belonging to one type rather than the other make it difficult to determine in a definitive manner the exact type of a text.

de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) regard text types as 'being classes of texts expected to have certain traits for certain purposes' However, they point out that there are difficulties facing this new domain. The most important of them is the fact that many texts are not representative of an 'ideal type'

'The demands or expectations associated with a text type can be modified or even overridden by the requirements of the context of occurrence.'

(de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 183)

More than one type may co-exist in a single text type. These may be called embedded texts insofar as they do not represent the

dominant function of the text,

'The assignement of a text to a type clearly depends on the function of the text in communication, not merely on the surface format.'

(de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 185)

The format of a text may be deceptive. As de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) confirm, the definition of text types cannot be based only on the surface structure of a text but also on its function, in other words, text type could best be defined along functional lines, 'according to the contribution of texts to human interaction.' (op.cit.: 184).

Unlike sentence typology, text typology is characterized with a certain fuzziness.

'Even this modest beginning for a typology of texts is far from straightforward. The sets of texts and their characteristics remain fuzzy.'

(op. cit.: 186)

For convinience, and for the purpose of the present study, communicative function will be taken as the basis for text typology. It could be said that texts are utilized for an ultimate purpose of doing something on the environment. This may be achieved through expository (narrative or descriptive), instructive or argumentative texts.

Though the models discussed above give practical insights into the nature of texts and their pivotal role in translation, they do not, to the best of my knowledge, offer solid grounds for solving the problems of evaluating translations as 'finished products'.

The model for translation quality assessment developed by House (1981) seems to offer a starting point for the development of a relatively comprehensive model for evaluating the quality of translations in general and translator trainees' work in particular. The model will only be mentioned in section 3.1.3 below as a member of text-oriented models that make use of text linguistics, and other related disciplines. Its discussion in rather more details will be carried out in Chapter four.

3.1.3 Translation Quality Assessment Model

Like the other models in this chapter, translation quality assessment model is text oriented, it takes text as the basic unit of analysis. It differs from the others in that the ultimate aim of the model is to establish a framework within which translated text may be evaluated. House (1981) points out that the model is set up on the basis of pragmatic theories of language use. She states that the model provides for the analysis of the linguistic-situational particularities of a given source text (ST) and its translation text (TT), a comparison of the two texts, and the resultant judgement of their relative match or mismatch.

The key to the whole operation in this model is the communicative

function of the text at hand. In this connection, House (1981) modifies previous definitions of text function in order to account for individual text specimen:

'The function of a text is the application (cf. Lyons 1969: 434) or use which the text has in the particular context of a situation.'

(House 1981: 37)

House maintains that due to the socio-cultural particularities of the production of a text, and due to the probability of non-recurrent situation of text production, text may be said to be 'embedded in a unique situation.' The term situation, therefore, has to be broken down into more 'specific situational dimensions.'

For the purpose of translation quality assessment, House (1981) proposes a model called situational dimensions model on the basis of which the quality of translations can be assessed. The model is based on Crystal and Davy's (1969) system of situational dimensions which is eclectically adapted to serve as a 'tool for translation quality assessment.' The situational dimension model as presented by House is illustrated in figure 10 below:

A. Dimensions of Language User:

1. Geographical Origin
2. Social Class
3. Time

B. Dimensions of Language Use:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------|
| | simple |
| 1. Medium | {complex |
| | simple |
| 2. Participation | {complex |
| 3. Social Role Relationship | |
| 4. Social Attitude | |
| 5. Province | |

fig. 10 Situational Dimensions Model (in House 1981: 42)

The above set of dimensions and their linguistic correlates determine the function of the analyzed text. The situational dimensions linguistic correlates can be broken down into syntactic, lexical and textual. Their analysis in terms of the above set of dimensions would reveal the ST textual profile which, House maintains, 'characterizes its function.' House also states that the ST textual profile is the 'norm against which the quality of the TT is to be measured' (House 1981: 50). House suggests that it is the function of

the text revealed by the analysis along the situational dimensions that 'should be kept equivalent if a translation is to be adequate.' (1981: 49).

A discussion of this model, and its adaptation for the analysis of argumentative texts will form the subject of chapter four.

CHAPTER FOUR

A TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT MODEL

4.0 The impression one may get from one's acquaintance with the models discussed in chapter two is that aspects of translation such as comprehension and intelligibility that could be used as measures for the evaluation of the quality of translation, do not seem to be strictly defined. The linguistic 'means' or 'measures' by which translation aspects are given expression are either glossed over, or left unidentified, (cf. House 1981: 15). (for a discussion of linguistic measures see chapter five). However, text-oriented translation models, discussed in chapter three, concern themselves, in various degrees of depth, with the analysis of both SL and TL texts, so that a better comprehension of the SLT could be achieved, and adequate transfer could be performed.

Text-oriented translation models, though not so articulate in their emphasis on the assessment of the quality of translation, at least on the practical level, have contributed to a large extent to the development of the model that will form the principle subject of this chapter.

Hermeneutics has shown that though comprehension is of prime importance to any act of translating, there is no absolute reading of a particular text. Different readers or translators understand the text in their own way. The final result depends on their personal background knowledge, beliefs and attitudes. Therefore, there is more than one reading and more than one rendering of a single text. However, hermeneutics insists that once a text is judged to be worth translating, it is the responsibility of the translator to use any approach judged useful in order to absorb the meaning with all its different aspects and give an adequate interpretation of the text, (see Chau 1984a).

All interpretive models insist on the analysis of the SLT along practical parameters. Text is viewed as the ultimate unit of translation, since it operates in an interactive environment.

The text typological model offers the possibility of text variety, and indicates the urge to find a framework within which text as an entity can be analyzed. In addition, the model points out that in translation, different text types should be treated differently.

Translation quality assessment model as presented by House (1981), has benefited largely from insights offered by interpretive texts. House's model seems to have drawn mainly from text linguistic approaches in Europe and America. However, the classification of texts

in House (1981) is carried out along the lines of the register theory which concerns itself with variation in language use. Such an approach has often equated register with 'a given situation', restricting the analysis to the situational occasion. This gives rise to such notions as the language of science, language of newspaper reporting, legal English, etc.. (cf. Hatim and Mason 1990: 51).

However, the ultimate aim of House's model is to obtain, through systematic analysis of both SLT and TLT, the functions of the two texts. The degree of similarity of function in both texts would allow for a statement of the quality of translation. The function of a text is a composite of several interrelated factors, the most important of which is the interplay of the different aspects of meaning for the purpose of achieving the ultimate aim behind writing a particular text.

Before embarking on the description of translation quality assessment model as outlined in House (1981), and its application on Arabic argumentative texts translated into English by some Arab translator trainees, I will first discuss the importance of meaning in translation, and then the three aspects of meaning that are judged to be of prime importance in the construction of text.

Most of the models discussed in the previous chapters underly the importance of meaning in translation. The problem, however, is the term "meaning" itself. It is so broad a term that it would first need to be defined and its aspects identified. The identified aspects of meaning that together give a text its texture will be presented and discussed. The three aspects of meaning in question are semantic, pragmatic, and textual meanings.

Within text linguistics, pragmatic and textual meanings seem to have a bearing on function in language, in general, and on text function in particular. Hence, a distinction between language function and text function will be attempted. The last section in this chapter will concern the presentation and discussion of House's model, and its development into the situational/textual model that will be used in this study as a framework within which the two Arabic texts and the students translations will be analyzed.

4.1 Meaning in Translation

House (1981) maintains that 'the essence of translation lies in the preservation of "meaning" across two different languages.' (House 1981: 25). It is generally acknowledged in translation studies that translation involves the transfer not of SL lexis and structures but rather the meaning expressed by SL lexis and structures. Three different but interrelated aspects of meaning may be said to contribute largely to the constitution of texts: semantic, pragmatic, and textual meanings. It is the meaning in its different aspects that has to be accounted for in a translation, mainly when we are dealing with two languages which can be identified as linguistically dissimilar and culturally unrelated such as Arabic and English.

Aspects of meaning may be seen in terms of the relationship that exists between the linguistic elements and their referents in the "textual world" be that real or possible, (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 85). They may also be seen in terms of the relation of the linguistic elements across sentence boundaries within a single text,

as well as the relationship of these elements to the users or participants in the language and their environment.

It is generally acknowledged, that the philosopher Charles Morris was the first to clearly formulate the distinction between syntax, semantics and pragmatics on the basis of the theory of signs. Adopting Pierce's term semiosis to refer to the general theory of signs, Morris (1938) distinguishes between four major components of sign:

- 1) The `sign vehicle, i.e. the language element that acts or functions as sign,
- 2) the object, or property that the sign refer to, the "designatum",
- 3) the effect the sign has on the participants or "interpretants" that recognize the sign as such, and
- 4) the interpreter himself. (cf. Dewey 1946: 85).

This distinction has given rise to the classification of sign in terms of three factors: `expressions, designata of expressions and speakers' (Sayward 1974: 97). This classification has resulted in the present distinction between syntax, semantics and pragmatics.

In his introduction of the term semiosis, Morris (1938) offers the following explanation:

" The process in which something functions as a sign may be called semiosis. This process, in a tradition which goes back to the Greeks, has commonly been regarded as involving three (or four) factors: that which acts as a sign, that which the sign refers to, and that effect on some interpreter in virtue of which the thing in

question is a sign to that interpreter. These three components in semiosis may be called respectively, the sign vehicle, the designatum, and the interpretant; the interpreter may be included as a fourth factor."

(Morris 1938 as quoted by Sayward 1974: 97)

From this "semiosis relations" other relations may emerge:

- a. the formal relation of signs to each other may be called "syntactic dimensions of semiosis",
- b. the relation of signs to the objects or properties that the signs designate may be referred to as the "semantic dimension of semiosis" and
- c. the relation of signs to interpreters is called "the pragmatic dimension of semiosis." (Sayward 1974: 97)

One aspect of meaning which is of major importance to text is not mentioned in this distinction viz. the textual aspect of meaning. Below, a distinction between semantic, pragmatic and textual meanings will be made, and their relevance to translation will be discussed.

4.1.1 Semantic Aspect of Meaning

Morris and Carnap (1937) offered a general characterization of semantics, which for Stalnaker (1972) seems an 'elusive subject.' According to Morris and Carnap, semantics 'concerns the relationship between signs and their designata,' (Stalnaker 1972: 380). The problem lies in the identification of the term "designatum", which, in

Morris (1938), and Carnap (1939), is left so general as to include "objects, class of objects, property, or a state of affairs". As quoted by Stalnaker (1972), Carnap (1939) notes that "(for the moment, no exact definition for 'designatum' is intended; this word is merely to serve as a convenient common term for different cases--object, properties, etc., whose fundamental differences in other respects are not hereby denied.)" (Stalnaker 1972: 381).

Semantics, then, could be defined, in the broadest sense, as that relation that holds between the linguistic element and its referent in the real or "possible" world (a reference to the world created in fiction). House (1981) maintains that the world around us or the possible world as in fiction, is 'common to most language communities.' (House 1981: 25-26). Thus translating the denotative aspect of a linguistic element does not seem to be difficult, e.g. kitābun, book, livre, libro . . . House contends that this referential aspect of meaning does not form an obstacle in translation since it is characterized with, a 'relative ease of accessibility of semantic meaning..', and an ability to perceive the presence or absence of 'equivalence in translation.' (House 1981: 26)

As a criticism to this line of thought, let us take Hewson's (1988) distinction of aspects of meaning. Hewson distinguishes between three aspects of what may be called semantic meaning: 1) informational (or universal meaning), 2) referential meaning, 'which involves both language and the world of experience, and 3) linguistic meaning. (see Hewson 1988 for more details on these three aspects of meaning.)

House seems to have ignored the distinction between the informational meaning and referential meaning. Informational meaning

is defined by Hewson as a 'level of meaning that is independent of language' and which can be incorporated into language. This type of meaning is described as 'pre-linguistic'. Therefore, it is only at the informational level that transfer of meaning may be said to be characterized by 'ease of accessibility'. Referential meaning, according to Hewson, does not concern merely the relationship between the linguistic element and the object it refers to. Referential meaning is the 'interface between the prelinguistic information of the universe, which is universal to all human beings, and the language specific concepts that are the typical constructs of natural languages.' (Hewson 1988: 30). Different languages segment world experience in different ways according to local circumstances. For instance, the concept "half brother" can find an equivalent in Arabic أخي من أمي/أبي, "akhi min 'oummi/ 'abi "; but the Arabic أخ شقيق, "'akh shaqīq ", does not seem to have a formal equivalent as such in English.

Semantics, however, does not concern itself solely with the study of the meaning of words. As defined by Stalnaker (1972), semantics is the study of propositions, the 'abstract objects representing truth conditions.' (Stalnaker 1972: 381). One of the things people do with language is to assert a proposition. Whether this proposition has a real truth value or not is a matter of philosophical concern.

In dealing with this aspect of meaning, one has to bear in mind two fundamental facts: meaning as an abstract entity, or language meaning, and speaker meaning, or meaning in actual use. In an analysis of a stretch of language, one is often faced with the question of how to approach meaning: will the meaning of words or expressions be

abstracted from the users or rather will the users determine the meaning of these words and expressions through a selectional procedure based on contextual and socio-cultural requirements.

Some linguists give priority to language meaning over speaker meaning neglecting thus the will of individual performers of language. In this respect, Hurford and Heasley (1983), distinguish between sentence meaning and speaker meaning. They maintain that a systematic study of language

'proceeds more easily if one carefully distinguishes the two [sentence meaning and speaker meaning] and, for the most part, gives prior consideration to sentence meaning, and those aspects of meaning generally which are determined by the language system, rather than those which reflect the will of individual speakers and the circumstances of use on particular occasions.'

(Hurford and Heasley 1983: 6)

In translating argumentative texts, however, the understanding of the speaker's or writer's meaning is of major importance for the unfolding of the text meaning. There is a frequent attempt to orient readers attention to what the writer intends his text to achieve. In an argumentative text, there is often an attempt to persuade or convince, to counter-argue or refute an argument. The writer may make

use of the argumentative factors in order to solicit adherence to his own views, or simply, through argumentation, to solicit the interlocuter's point of view on the subject discussed.

A stretch of language, then, may be said to mean something, but in real life interaction, this stretch of language could be used to do something on the environment, e.g. to inform, describe, instruct or change a state of affairs.

It may be said that the language system defines meanings of words and sentences, but the same words and sentences may be used by different speakers on different occasions to mean different things. For example, "nice day" said by a person at a bus stop, could be taken as a means for a courteous conversation, or simply as a reference to the quality of the day in question. The same phrase, however, said during or after a tense argument, may mean a totally different thing.

In translation, however, one cannot rely only on the meaning of words or sentences and the expression of their proposition in isolation from other determining factors. The understanding of words and sentences in a text is largely determined by contextual factors, situational constraints and the participants' intentionality and acceptability. This leads us to the other aspect of meaning which accounts for the users of the language, i.e. pragmatic meaning.

4.1.2 Pragmatic Aspect of Meaning

It is generally accepted that the modern usage of the term pragmatics is first explicitly formulated by Charles Morris (1938) (cf. Stalnaker 1972, Sayward 1974, Anscombe and Ducrot 1976, Levinson

1983, Hickey 1990). Levinson (1983) points out that Morris's concern was 'to outline the general shape of a science of signs. or semiotics..' (Levinson 1983: 1). However, Morris and Carnap's (1937) definition of pragmatics as an "investigation requiring reference to the users of a language" is viewed simultaneously as too broad and too narrow. Pragmatics is redefined by Levinson (1983) as:

"those linguistic investigations that make
necessary reference to aspects of context."

(Levinson 1983: 4)

Unlike semantics which studies the relationships between signs and "designata", pragmatics concerns itself with the relationship of the linguistic elements to the users or participants in the language, in a definable environment. It is the study of 'linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed.' (Stalnaker 1972: 383). When a speaker uses language, he does not use it in a vacuum. He intends his utterance to produce a certain effect on his interlocuter(s).

People, therefore, do many things with language. Hickey (1990) notes that when people use language, they do not

"merely talk or write but they perform actions
also, that language is employed in situations
which typically include both a linguistic and a
nonlinguistic context, that part of the global
context consists of the knowledge, beliefs and

assumptions of the people involved and that at least one participant is trying by means of language to change the inner state or system of another or others."

(Hickey 1990: 7)

The key to the whole operation of language use is context, linguistic or extra-linguistic, which is taken to cover the identities of the participants, the temporal and spatial parameters of the speech events. Moreover, context, as stated above, involves the users' beliefs, background knowledge and intentions in the speech event. The questions that may be asked at this stage are: what is the relation of an utterance to a particular situation? Is such an utterance appropriate for such a situation? if so what act of speech does it perform? what reaction if any does the speech act require or expect from the receiver?

The answers to these questions underly the theory of speech acts which was developed initially by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). As defined by Crystal (1985), speech act is a term that refers to

'a theory which analyzes the role of utterances in relation to the behaviour of speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication.'

(Crystal 1985: 285)

In an interpersonal communication, a speaker performs a locutionary act through his utterance which he intends to affect his

interlocuter by virtue of the illocutionary force of his utterance. An utterance may have a perlocutionary value when it has achieved a certain effect on the participant's behaviour, feelings, beliefs etc.. Pragmatic meaning, according to House (1981) may be referred to as the illocutionary force that an utterance may have in a particular situation. This has to be differentiated from the semantic meaning which refers to the 'propositional content' a sentence may have, i.e. 'the semantic information that an utterance contains.'

Pragmatic meaning, unlike semantic meaning, could be recovered through features such as inference, presuppositions, and expectations. In argumentative texts, for instance, these elements play a decisive role in the production and reception of text. The writer or speaker intends his text to perform an action on the environment. Through the assumption he makes of the hearer/reader's knowledge, beliefs or attitude, he attempts to bring about some modifications in these properties.

In translation, it is these contextual features of a text that have to be accounted for and should ideally be kept equivalent. The writer's intentions and the ultimate purpose from writing a text are so important that House (1981) suggests to aim at equivalence of pragmatic meaning, if necessary at the expense of semantic equivalence.

4.1.3 The Textual Aspect of Meaning

According to House (1981), the textual aspect of meaning concerns the ways in which individual components of a text relate to each other

and to the rest of the components in the text in order to form a cohesive whole. Notwithstanding the importance of this definition, text meaning is obtained not only through co-textual elements alone, but through various other relations, linguistic and extra-linguistic. It may be said that what characterizes a text is its texture which could be defined as 'that property which ensures that a text "hangs together," both linguistically and conceptually' (Hatim and Mason 1990: 192). A text, therefore, should be coherent, cohesive, informative and intent-oriented. These expectations and the ways in which they interact with each other form the meaning of a text.

Textual meaning is a vehicle that comprises the other aspects of meaning, semantic and pragmatic, not in their static form but rather in the process of intralingual interaction. The integration of semantic informativeness and pragmatic action on the environment in an active stretch of connected language may be said to constitute the textual meaning.

Most of the textual elements that enter in the process of text production could best be understood through a discussion of what Enkvist (1973) refers to as "Thematic Dynamics". For him, "Thematic Dynamics" is a textual phenomenon which demonstrates how thematic properties are organized in a well-formed text. It is also used in stylistics to describe the thematic progression of a connected stretch of language. Enkvist (1973) explains:

.. theme dynamics charts the patterns by which themes recur in a text and by which they run through a text, weaving their way from clause to

clause and from sentence to sentence.'

(Enkvist 1973: 116)

Enkvist distinguishes three kinds of theme dynamics:

- a) theme statics which forms the theoretical bases of the Prague School of linguistics,
- b) theme identification is a component of a theory that provides the tools for comparing and contrasting thematically definable parts of different sentences.' (Enkvist 1973: 117), and
- c) theme movement is that kind of thematic dynamism that provides a taxonomy of patterns of theme movement in a successive stretch of language. It demonstrates the different types of patterning and seeks to understand if different types of patterns have a marked significance for the style and type of text.

Theme identification serves to identify those components that "hung the text together", i.e. cohesive ties (cf. Halliday and Hasan 1976), e.g., reference, co-reference, substitution, ellipsis, repetition, etc.. Together with thematic movement, thematic identification helps clarify text coherence, the relational development of the components of textual world, i.e. 'the configuration of concepts and relations which underly the surface text.' (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 4). / e

Classification of thematic progression can be based on various criteria. As cited by Enkvist, Danes (1974) regards thematic progression in terms of the movement of theme and rheme in a text. Danes's classification of patterns of theme movement are as follows:

(a) simple linear progression, in which the rheme of one sentence becomes the theme of the next,

[Th¹ -----Rh¹

/

Th² (=Rh¹)-----Rh²]

(b) passages with run-through themes (a sequence of sentences with the same theme but different rhemes),

[Th¹ -----Rh¹

Th² -----Rh²]

(c) progression of derived themes (there is the main superordinate theme which Enkvist calls "hyperthema", and several other related themes which are referred to as "teilthemen",) and

(d) the development of a split rheme (the themes of successive sentences are co-members of a concept forming the rheme of the initial sentence.

[Th¹ -----Rh¹

/

Th² (Rh¹)-----Rh²

/

Th³ (Rh¹)-----Rh³]

(quoted in Enkvist 1973: 121, the square brackets are mine)

Although it may be said that the theme dynamics contributes to the clarification of the nature and functions of the other elements of

textuality, it cannot be taken as the only measure of "textual well-formedness" or "textuality". Enkvist points out that there are three major types of factors that contribute to the well-formedness of a text:

- a) syntactic well-formedness,
- b) grammatical and conceptual dependencies (i.e. cohesion and coherence), and
- c) contextual dependency

In addition to the cohesive devices as discussed in Halliday and Hasan (1976), Enkvist has proposed contextual cohesion, and iconic linkage. Logical connectors in Halliday and Hasan (1976) are referred to as clausal linkage in Enkvist (1973). Clausal linkage comprises eight basic logical relations:

- 1. additive (and), 2. adversative (but), 3. alternative (or),
- 4. explicative (that is), 5. illustrative (for example). 6. illative (conclusion: therefore), 7. causal (for), and 8. initial sentence in a paragraph.

The significance of all these patterns of intersentence connectivity for translation can be seen in the following:

First, they show what kinds of conceptual frames a translator must use if he considers a text, not a context-free sentence, as a unit of translation. Consequently an analysis of the SL textual means and their comparison with the TL textual components may lead to a relatively objective assessment of the quality of translation.

Secondly, textual similarities or differences may be reflected in

the search for a text typology. For instance, though all different text types make use of the same textual means for the constitution of a text, the patterning of theme dynamics and the density or scarcity of particular kinds of clausal linkage may be significant in differentiating between types of texts. These textual means will serve as useful tools for the analysis of both the SL text and TL text for the purpose of translation quality assessment.

Based on the above account of aspects of meaning, House (1981), attempts a redefinition of translation:

'Translation is the replacement of a text in the source language by a semantically and pragmatically equivalent text in the target language.'

(House 1981: 29-30)

In practical terms, however, what a translator replaces in the TL is not only the semantic and pragmatic features of the SL text, but he also negotiates the transfer of textual features provided that these fulfill the requirements of the TL norm.

"Equivalence" is the key term most of the definitions of translation seem to share. The concept "equivalent", here, should not be taken to mean "identity", but "similarity" or "approximation". In this case, "equivalence" may in itself serve as 'the fundamental criterion of translation quality.' since it serves to measure the semantic, pragmatic and textual similarities between the SLT and TLT.

However, for a translation text (TT) to be equivalent to its source text (ST), House explains, it must have a function similar to that of the ST. The use of 'function' here, takes for granted the existence, in any text to be analyzed, of some elements that can reveal this function, provided there are 'appropriate analytical tools.' (House 1981: 30).

Before attempting to investigate these 'appropriate analytical tools', a discussion of language function and text function may prove to be of some importance at this stage.

4.2 Language Function vs. Text Function

In the global sense of the term, language function is viewed in terms of 'langue', whereas text function is investigated at the level of 'parole'. Therefore, the use of the term language function when applied to text may be the cause of some problems of interpretation. Problems of interpretation arise because:

a) language function has often been equated with text types. Experience shows, however, that within an individual text, different other text types may be present. Such variety within a single text type may be referred to as text embedding. Enkvist (1973) refers to instances of intratextual variety as "contextual cohesion" which for him, 'keeps together passages occurring in the same matrix of contextual features.' (Enkvist 1973: 122). Thus, what is referred to here as embedded texts, with their different text types, all contribute to the reinforcement of the main type of text under

discussion. For instance, in a novel or short story which belongs to a text type called 'narrative', other text types may exist. Being not the dominant types, they nevertheless contribute to the climax of the story.

b) In addition to the existence of other text types different language functions can exist side by side with the main function of the text. Such language functions as referential, emotive, vocative, expressive, co-exist inside the main function of a text. For instance, an argumentative text type ^{may} make use of emotions in order to bring about some change on a state of affair, (see Text2 in this study for instance.)

A brief discussion of some of the investigations of language function may help clarify our view of text function and language function.

4.2.1 Language Function

Most of the works investigating language function seem to agree on two principal functions of language (see Ogden and Richards, 1946, Bühler, 1965, Jakobson, 1960): 'the symbolic, referential or representational use of language, and the emotive, evocative, or expressive function.' House (1981) notes that the most important factors of the symbolic use of language are the 'correctness of the symbolization and the truth of the references,' (House 1981: 32), whereas the effect produced on the addressee, i.e. the hearer's or the

reader's response is what characterizes the emotive/ evocative use of language.

Jakobson (1960) maintains that an investigation of language should be carried on 'all the variety of its functions.' (Jakobson 1960: 353). In order to outline all the functions of language, it is essential to know which of the "constitutive factors" is emphasized in the course of the communicative event. (see fig. 5, page 57, for the illustration of factors constituting a communicative event.) Jakobson maintains that each of the six factors (addresser/ addressee, message/context/ contact/ and code) determines a different function of language, depending where the emphasis is put. Yet, real life experience with text reveals that it is inconceivable to find a text fulfilling a single function. Two or three or may be more, functions may co-exist in a single text with a predominant one determining the structure of the text.

When the act of communication is context-oriented, the function can be referred to as referential, because the message contained in the communication depends to a large extent on the contextual features for its decoding. Yet, referential function seems to prevail in most if not all the communicative acts.

An orientation towards the addresser results in the so-called "emotive or expressive" function. The "emotive" function, Jakobson explains, 'aims a direct expression of the speaker's attitude toward what he is speaking about.' (Jakobson 1960: 354). The emotive function seeks to achieve a certain effect on the addressee(s).

The "conative" function, with its emphasis on the addressee, makes

use of the grammatical categories vocative and imperative. Jakobson maintains that the verbal structures realizing this function differ from other types of structures in that they are not liable to truth conditions. Unlike declarative sentences that can be true or false, an imperative formation cannot be liable to a truth test.

To focus on the factor "contact" is to see if the channel is clear as in testing the function of a microphone before starting to speak. Moreover, emphasizing "contact" serves to 'establish, to prolong, or to discontinue communication' (Jakobson 1960: 355). In speech, people usually use conventional phrases such as "lovely day, isn't it?", not expecting an opposite reply. This is referred to as the phatic function.

People usually use language to talk about language. This approach is resorted to mainly when they want to know if they are using the same code, e.g., "could you say that again! I don't understand what you mean." Such a use serves to facilitate and prolong communication. This is referred to as metalingual function.

And finally, an orientation toward the "message" results in what Jakobson refers to as "the poetic function". The focus, here, is on the message for its own sake. However, poetic function cannot be said to dealing solely with poetry, nor can we say that we should confine poetry to poetic function. Jakobson states that 'poetic function is not the sole function of verbal art but only its dominant, determining function, whereas in all other verbal activities it acts as a subsidiary, accessory constituent.' (Jakobson 1960: 356).

The schematic "constitutive factors" illustrated in figure 5, page 57, could be complemented by a corresponding scheme of functions:

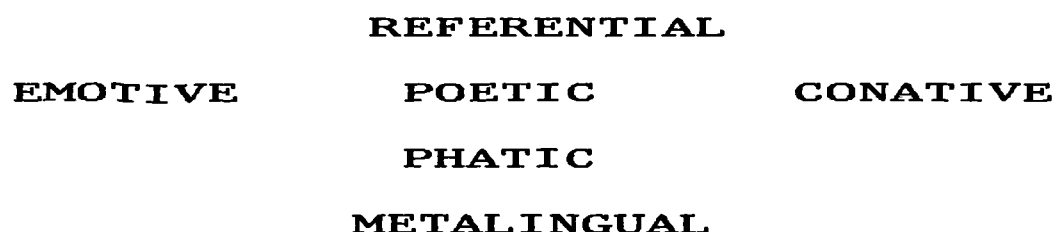


fig. 11 language functions (as illustrated in Jakobson 1960: 357)

Halliday's approach differs from the above in that he makes a distinction among three major functions:

- a. The ideational function: through this function language reveals how the user conceives of the external world together with a revelation of the inner feelings, beliefs and attitude.
- b. The interpersonal function: in this function, language serves to negotiate 'role-relationships' in a social setting. It sets to establish, maintain, and specify relations between members of societies. (cf. Kress 1976)
- c. Through the textual function, the unity of the text is maintained through the linkage system of the language, i.e. features of language make links with themselves and with the external world.

We may conclude from the above that the function of language is to represent or refer to the outside world or as Stalnaker calls it the 'possible world', in addition to the fact that language is used to

express the user's feelings, beliefs, and attitudes. Yet, the major aim of text is more than simple reference or expression of emotive feelings. Its ultimate aim is communication. Communication requires factors other than the linguistic ones to arrive at the ultimate aim behind producing a text.

Halliday (1985) suggests three contextual features that are realised by the functional components of the semantic system: field, mode, and tenor.

a. The field of discourse which is expressed through the ideational function, has the general sense of what the discourse 'is on about'. (Halliday 1985: 24).

b. The tenor of discourse which is expressed through the interpersonal function, concerns itself with the social relationships of the participants in the discourse.

c. The third contextual feature is the mode of discourse. It is realised by the textual function of language. It reflects the medium of the interactive process of language. In this respect Hatim and Mason (1990) explain that the mode of discourse is

'the manifestation of the nature of the language code being used. The basic distinction here is that between speech and writing and the various permutations on such a distinction (e.g. written to be spoken, etc.).

(Hatim and Mason 1990: 49)

These contextual features realised through the three functional components of language, form the bases of the second dimension in House's model of translation quality assessment. However, House's approach to text function differs from that of Halliday in that House regards texts as embedded in a unique situation. Therefore, a different definition of function is required, mainly if we want to account for individual texts, and consequently attempt to establish functional equivalence in translation.

4.2.2 Text Function

Before embarking on any translation quality assessment, an objective method of determining the particular semantic, textual, functional, and pragmatic qualities of the source text has to be developed. A comparison of these qualities to those of the translation text will determine whether and to what extent the translation matches these characteristics. For this end, House (1981) modifies previous definitions of text function in order to account for individual text specimen, since she believes that a text is "embedded in a unique situation":

'The function of a text is the application (cf. Lyons, 1969: 434) or use which the text has in the particular context of situation.'

(House 1981: 37)

House views a text as an occurrence taking place in a situation considered to be unique. Unique in the sense that several situational conditions have helped the production of that text. The function of a text, then, is the sum total of all the linguistic and non-linguistic components that enter into the production and reception of the text. An analysis of these components, House seems to suggest, can best be conducted within a situational framework. Therefore, a thorough analysis of the text along some specific dimensions of situation may display precisely the functional characteristics of that text. These characteristics can, then, be taken as a 'yardstick' against which the quality of the TT is to be assessed.

4.3 House's Translation Quality Assessment Model

If we accept the definition of the textual function presented above, and if the characteristics of a text function can be revealed 'through referring the text to the situation in which it is embedded,' the term *situation*, then, has to be broken down into some more specific 'situational dimensions.' To this end, House adopts Crystal and Davy's (1969: 66) system of "situational constraints", (cf. House 1981: 39) and for the purpose of translation quality assessment, she eclectically adapts the system to the requirement of functional matching. Illustrated below are the three sections presented and discussed in Crystal and Davy (1969):

A. Individuality= user's idiosyncrasy

Dialect= features marking an individual's geographical
origin or his social position

Time= features marking temporality.

B. Discourse

Medium: simple or complex

simple when text is written to be read (not aloud)

complex when text is written as a means to an end

e.g. a lecture.

Participation: simple or complex

simple when it is either a monologue or a dialogue

complex when a monologue contains features of dialogue

C. Province"reflects occupational or professional activity"

e.g. "language of science", "language of advertisement"

Status: features of language that reflect the social
relationship of speaker/listener, writer/reader in
terms of formality, respect, politeness, intimacy, etc..

Modality: features of language revealing the difference
between form and medium of communication, e.g. a report
vs. a letter or an essay.

Singularity: "occasional personal idiosyncracies"

These three broad dimensions have been collapsed in House (1981), into two sets of dimensions:

A. Dimensions of Language User.

1. Geographical Origin
2. Social Class
3. Time

B. Dimensions of Language Use:

1. Medium [simple / complex]
2. Participation [simple / complex]
3. Social Role Relationship
4. Social Attitude
5. Province

At the dimensions of language user, "Geographical origin" and "social class" have been listed under *dialect* in Crystal and Davy's system.

"Geographical origin" refers to those features that indicate where the user has come from; the unmarked case would be standard British English, when we are dealing with English and Modern Standard Arabic, when dealing with Arabic.

"Social class" refers to those features that reveal the social status of the user; The unmarked case is 'the middle class educated' user of standard English. In Arabic it is hard to distinguish social classes when standard Arabic is used, because of the status of Arabic as a unifying factor of a myriad of different dialects in the Arab world.

"Time" refers to features that mark temporality.

At the dimensions of language use, the following explanations have been provided:

"Medium" is self-explanatory. Simple or complex medium, however, is used to refer to whether the medium (speech or writing) is used as an end in itself or rather as a means to an end, i.e. a speech, written to be read aloud.

"Participation" indicates whether a text is a monologue or a dialogue. Participation can also be simple or complex in that in a monologue instances of dialogue may co-exist.

The factors that have been classified under the category *Status* in Crystal and Davy, are, in House's model, separated into "*Social Role Relationship*" and "*Social Attitude*."

Under "Social Role Relationship," House (1981) analyzes the role relationships between addresser and addressees. House differentiates between *symmetrical and asymmetrical role relationships*. A further distinction is made between the relatively permanent position role (e.g. magistrate, lawyer, etc..) and the more transient situational role (e.g. customer, guest, etc..).

"Social Attitude" concerns the description of social distance or proximity. House adopts Joos' (1959, 1961) distinction of 'five different degrees of formality: frozen, formal, consultative, casual, and intimate'.

--House maintains that the style that is most neutral is the consultative one:

".. it [consultative style] is mostly marked negatively, i.e. through the absence of both formal and informal style markers." (House 1981: 46)

Another important characteristic of the consultative style is that the addressee's participation is made either directly or implicitly.

--Casual style does not resort to detailed explanation. The addresser does not feel the need to be explicit as there is much knowledge shared between him and the addressee(s), hence the existence of ellipsis, contraction, informal vocabulary etc..

--The major characteristic of formal style is the alienation of the addressee(s). In addition, House describes it as a well-structured, elaborate, logically sequenced, and strongly cohesive style. For a text to have such characteristics it has to be carefully planned.

At the extremity of the scale we find two opposite kinds of style: intimate and frozen. These can be defined in terms of the proximity or distance of addresser/addressee.

--In intimate style there is a 'maximum of shared background information' that an economy in the use of language seems to be the prevalent pattern.

--On the opposite side frozen style requires elaboration and planning.

"Province" in Crystal and Davy's model reflects 'occupational and professional activity'. In addition to reflecting 'occupational and professional activity', province in House's model concerns the ways in which the 'form and medium of communication' are similar or

different, (i.e. modality in Crystal and Davy). Moreover, province in House's model reflects

'the field or topic of the text in its widest sense of "area of operation" of the language activity, as well as details of the text production as far as these can be deduced from the text itself.'

(House 1981: 48).

House (1981) suggests that the linguistic elements analyzed in terms of the above set of dimensions can determine the source text function. Such a function is wished to be kept equivalent if a translation is to be adequate.

4.4 Development of the Model

4.4.1 The need for an extended situational/textual model

The translation quality assessment model as presented by House posits that both texts, SLT and TLT, should be analyzed along the situational dimensions (see section 4.3). This approach seems to account mostly for the communicative aspect of text. However, and in spite of the fact that they are catered for through the situational dimensions linguistic correlates, the pragmatic and the textual aspects of text do not seem to be related to text construction, its particularity and uniformity vis-a-vis the genres and text types that

both the source and target languages incorporate. Unlike House's situational dimensions model which seems to include textual features only vaguely as linguistic correlates to the general dimensions, textual features and textual structures that mark text as belonging to a specific genre and to a particular text type, will form an important part in the extended situational/textual model.

The extended model will incorporate textual features and text structure under the dimension of language use. Such an approach is intended to serve the purpose of analyzing different text types in general, and for the purpose of this study, the argumentative text type in particular.

4.4.2 The Extended Situational/Textual Model of Translation Quality Assessment

The present situational/textual dimensions model is an adaptation of House's (1981) situational model as discussed above (see section 4.3). The division into dimensions of users and dimensions of use has been maintained. However, two of the dimensions of use, "medium" and "social attitude" have seen certain alterations.

In the course of a preliminary analysis of an Arabic editorial, it has been found difficult to relate the linguistic features in the text to the dimension "medium". The text has been qualified as complex, i.e. written to be read as if heard. As an editorial, the text has been written to be read, yet elements of orality prevail in the text. There seems to be a need to find a term that would account for the

features of orality that co-exist with those of literacy without prejudicing the fact that the text is predominantly intended to be read.

In his attempt to design a model for textual relations within the written and spoken modes, Biber (1984) proposes the following alternative to the term medium: "Orientation of Discourse". The term seems to be a more practical feature for describing language diversities that may exist in a text which is meant to be spoken or a text which is oriented towards potential readers.

"Orientation of Discourse" refers to the direction the discourse is taking, whether informational or interactional, i.e., whether it is typical writing: literate, or typical speech: oral. However, research has revealed that in both speech and writing there are elements of orality and literacy, and what characterizes the directionality of the discourse is rather the predominance of one element over the other. Therefore, a uni-directionality of a text will mark it either as informational or interactional.¹ A bi-directionality, on the other hand, will be found to comprise the predominant elements that characterize the text as being either informational or interactional, together with other elements characteristic of the opposite directionality.

A. Informational Orientation

A discourse may be said to have an informational orientation in the sense that the non-participatory character of the text allows for a 'fully premeditated, non-alternating, and well-organized flow of information' (House 1981: 121). The author in this case resorts to

such features as prepositional phrases, passives, and nominalizations in order to pack abstract informational content in the text, thus conveying maximum content with the fewest words possible. (see Biber 1984: 55). In this case the text may be seen as having a highly informational orientation characteristic mainly of written modes. However, certain spoken texts may as well have informational orientation characteristics, mainly when they are fully premeditated (see B. 2. below). These characteristics, do not categorically exclude the presence of certain interactional characteristics.

A writer may, in some instances, include some interactional features such as references to the context of situation, unpremeditated organization of information, incompleteness that characterizes the development of information etc.. Interactional characteristics, are often resorted to in written discourse in order to illicit addressees' participation as may be noted from the two Arabic text under study: wa nahnu lā naʿrifu, ونحن لا نعرف, 'ikhwānā, إخواننا, 'idā ʿarafnā إذا عرفنا, etc.. The interactional aspect of these texts may be illustrated by the presence of the first person plural personal and possessive pronouns which may be taken as characteristic of direct invitation. Other linguistic features such as the use of brotherhood terms may also be added to confirm such a characteristic. Moreover, addressees' invitation to participate in the discourse may not be overtly presented. Such an invitation could be illicit through the use of some utterances displaying the illocutionary force of a subtle invitation.' For instance, the indirect appeal to condemn the act of hijacking the Kuwaiti airliner through reference to international and Islamic

condemnation of the act (see Text 2 in this study).

B. Interactional Orientation

This is a term the presence of which could be justified by the following criterion, immediacy of context, i.e., the extent to which reference to context is immediate or distant:

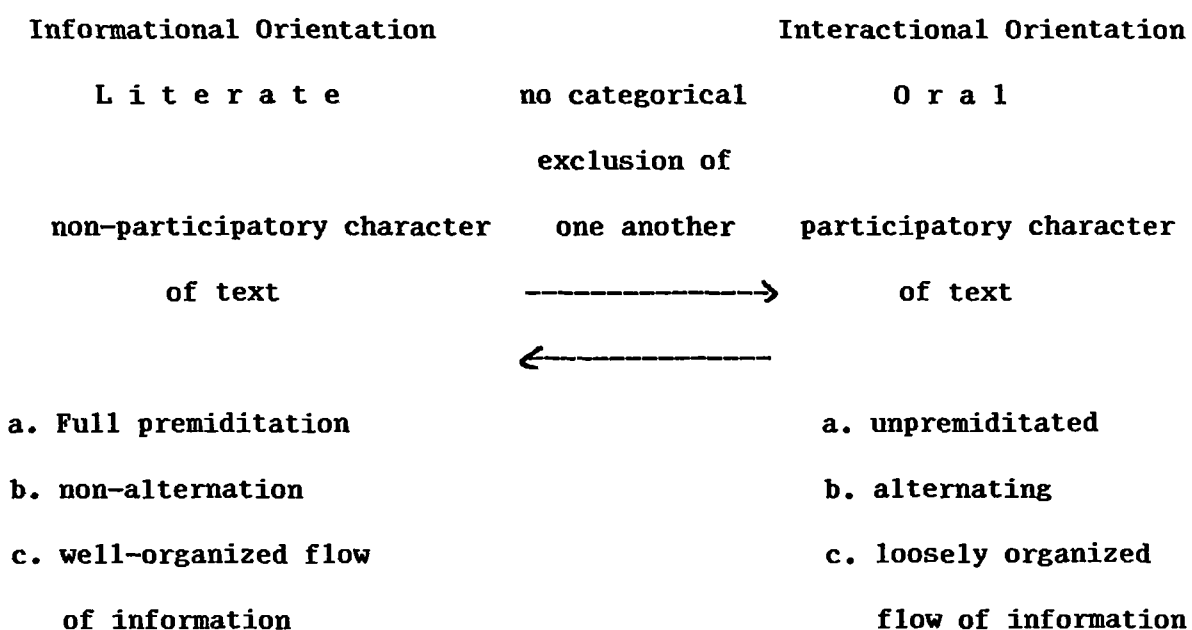
1. certain types of discourse such as conversations, interviews and friendly letters exhibit a 'high interactional orientation' in contrast to most written types. This is due to the reduced opportunity for planning or editing as it may be found in editorials hurriedly written in order to meet the editor's deadline. (see the prevailing alternating, loosely organized flow of information realised by loosely connected and repetitious clauses in Text1 in this study). The writer, here, resorts to such features that are characteristic of speech, e.g. adverbs of time and place which refer directly to an external situation, relative pronouns deletion, contractions, and general-purpose conjuncts such as and, or, but, etc.. These speech characteristics are described by a sub-term referred to in Biber (1984) as "immediate interactional orientation".

2. "Distant interactional orientation" refers to written texts such as broadcasting, prepared speeches and lectures and most of factual writings. These types of texts seem to exhibit a 'high informational orientation,' which is the result of a higher informational density, i.e. there is a condensed, complete and premeditated flow of

information. (cf. House 1981: 121, and Biber 1984: 80).

Put in a schematic format, this dimension "Orientation of Discourse" could be illustrated as follows:

ORIENTATION OF DISCOURSE



Grammatical and Textual Features

are described by the following:

Distant interactional orientation	Immediate interactional Orientation
a. Prepositional Phrases	a. Adverbs of time and place
b. Passives	b. Relative Pronouns Deletion
c. Nominalizations	c. General Purpose Conjuncts
d. Well-organized Thematic Progression	d. Loosely-organized Thematic Progression

fig. 12 Dimension of Use: Orientation of Discourse

"Social Attitude", as a term used to describe the 'degrees of social distance or proximity' (House 1981: 45), seems to neglect the individual writer's will in either objectivizing his text or writing it in a personal subjective way. Practically, it is the way the writer presents his information which is subjected to social judgement. Therefore, another more precise term is needed. Grabe (1984) suggest the term "presentation of information" which 'implies the writer's personality, or the writer's involvement with the subject matter' (Grabe 1984: 255). The linguistic elements in their interaction in text either reveal the objectivity, 'disengagement' of the writer, or his subjectivity, 'involvement'. In the former case, the degree of objectivity is higher, and the style used vary between frozen, formal, or consultative. In the latter case, the writer's personality is not effaced from the text. His role is being accentuated by the expressive function of the text. Hence his preference for consultative, casual, or informal style, through frequent use of pronouns, synonymy/antonymy, and direct reference to the context. Note the presence of the consultative style in both cases. The consultative style is characterized by its neutrality. It is marked by the absence of both formal and informal style markers (see House 1981: 46).

"Province" as a term referring to 'occupational and professional activity' is closely associated with the term "register" for which so much ink has been spilt on the altar of controversy. In adopting the term, House has attempted a circumstantial definition by including the 'field or topic of the text in its widest sense of "area of operation" of the language activity, as well as details of the text production as

far as these can be deduced from the text itself.' (House 1981: 48). Yet, this does not describe clearly the type of text to be translated, nor does it relate the text to the general field to which the text belongs. To evaluate source and target language texts belonging to a socially and culturally accepted type of communication, we need a more relatively precise term(s).

This last dimension, then, could best be described by "genre/text type". Though these terms are debatable, mainly in text linguistics, and though there is a kind of fuzziness characterizing their definition, they will be used, for the purpose of this study, to describe the general socially accepted aspects of text, and the particular, textually defined aspects of text. To clarify that, let us consider the following definitions of genre and text types.

Enkvist (1973) notes that style and genre could be closely related if genre is seen as a 'culturally definable traditional type of communication.' If so, a genre could, then, be regarded as a 'culturally definable stable context category-- or stable cluster of contextual features-- which usually correlates to some extent with a certain style, that is, with a certain type of language.' (Enkvist 1973: 20-21). Genre, however, cannot be related solely to a certain style of language, but it should also be related to a social setting that gives a text its "genrity" characteristics. In this connection Kress (1985) defines genre as 'conventionalized forms of texts which reflect the functions and goals involved in the language activity characteristic of particular social occasions' (Kress 1985: 19, as quoted in Hatim and Mason 1990b). This definition is echoed in Devitt (1989), in which genre is seen as a 'conventionalized type of

language-use, sharing a common set of forms, that responds to a common situation-type.' (Devitt 1989: 293).

Devitt's definition takes for granted the fact that text is a communicative occurrence, an entity used for interactional purposes. Therefore, it is assumed that such an entity used as a response to a particular situation may be said to be sharing a common set of forms. These common set of forms, however, cannot be said to be exclusive to one particular text genre. They may be found in other genres. Moreover, Hatim and Mason (1990a) points out that one should not assume that there is 'some simple one-to-one relationship between elements of lexis, grammar, etc., and the social occasions associated with particular genres.' (Hatim and Mason 1990a: 140). Therefore, what gives to a particular genre its "genrity" is the frequency of occurrence of certain forms, in addition to their juxtaposition to other related or correlated forms. It is these features, then, that characterize a particular genre. Let us take for example a scientific genre. The lexical items pertaining to the scientific domain, the syntactic structure marking objectivity such as passives, existential verbs, and explanatory phrases, these features of the text in their juxtaposition, form what we may call a 'scientific text.' On the other hand, frequent use of emotive adjectives, names of persons, places and objects set in a chronological form through the use of the past tense form another text genre, i.e. literary genre.

It may be concluded from the above that the social occasion determines the genre of a text within a socially and culturally accepted norm. However, what seems to determine the goal the text sets to achieve is the individual's intentions. A writer may intend his

text to be coherent and cohesive in order to achieve an ultimate aim:

- a. to describe a state of affair or objects in their relation to other objects, or to narrate an event in a chronological order. Moreover, the purpose of writing the text may be either
- b. to set instruction and regulations to be followed and respected, or
- c. to attempt to change a state of affair through evaluation. In other words a writer may intend his text to be expository, instructive or argumentative.

de Beaugrande, and Dressler (1981), point out that text types could be defined 'along functional lines, i.e. according to the contributions of texts to human interaction' (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 184). They are seen as 'classes of texts expected to have certain traits for certain purposes'. de Beaugrande and Dressler distinguish three main types of text.

'Descriptive texts would be those utilized to enrich knowledge spaces whose control centres are objects and situations... Narrative texts, in contrast, would be those utilized to arrange actions and events in a particular sequential order... Argumentative texts are those utilized to promote the acceptance or evaluation of certain beliefs or ideas as true vs. false, or positive vs. negative...'

(de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 184)

As mentioned above, genre and text types are characterized with a certain fuzziness due to the difficulty of providing absolute borderlines between members and non-members. But for convenience, genres, in this study, will be considered as those categories of texts which respond to a social occasion, and in which linguistic and non-linguistic traits refer to a conventionalized norm. Such a norm would be seen as related to a profession, occupation, or to communicatively oriented social interactions. Thus, we would have a broad division between literary and non-literary genres. Literary would comprise such genres as novels, short stories, plays and poems, and non-literary genres would refer to scientific reports and speeches book reviews, official documents and letters and all factual writing.

Text types, on the other hand, will be determined by the purpose the text sets to achieve. A text type, in this case, is viewed as a 'conceptual framework which enables us to classify texts in terms of communicative intentions serving an overall rhetorical purpose.' (Hatim and Mason 1990: 140). As a consequence of this, texts may be classified into three general types:

- a. expository text types. These will include descriptive and narrative texts,
- b. instructive text types. These will be further subdivided into covert and overt instructive text types, and
- c. argumentative text types. Further distinction could be made between argumentation for the purpose of persuasion or conviction, and argumentation for other purposes. (see Meiland, 1989, for arguments as inquiry and arguments as persuasion.)

Based on these notions of text, the situational/dimensional model will be extended to include textual features as described in this chapter, and most importantly the textual structure.

The extended situational/textual model could be illustrated as follows:

A. Dimensions of Language User:

1. Geographical Origin
2. Social Class
3. Time

B. Dimensions of Language Use:

1. Orientation of Discourse
 - a. interactional orientation
 - b. informational orientation
2. Participation: uni-directional / Bi-directional
3. Social Role Relationship
 - a. symmetrical role relationship
 - b. asymmetrical role relationship
4. Presentation of Information
 - a. author's involvement
 - b. author's efacement or disengagement
5. Genre/type
 - a. social recognizance of text
 - b. text ultimate aim

**fig. 13 The Extended Situational/Textual Dimensions Model
for the Translation Quality Assessment**

The linguistic elements that correlate with the extended situational/textual dimensions model can be broken down, as in House (1981), into three types: lexical, syntactic, and textual. Their analysis in terms of the above set of dimensions would reveal the SLT 'textual profile' which will characterize the function of the text. The SLT textual profile will be, then, taken as the "yardstick" against which the quality of the TLT will be measured. The decision making criteria for the three types of the linguistic correlates, the method of operation of the model, and the application of the model will be discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Five

The Situational/Textual Dimensions Model

Method of Operation

5.0 The situational dimensions model has been modified to comply with the needs of evaluating texts belonging to different text types in general, and to argumentative texts, in particular.

Before embarking on the analysis of the two Arabic editorial texts along the lines of the situational/textual dimensions model, an account of the method of operation of the model, in addition to the decision making criteria for the dimensions linguistic correlates, will be presented and discussed in this chapter. Whereas the methodology followed in this study concerning first, the reason for choosing a single text type, data collection, and the nature of the informants, ^{the section that} seems to be of paramount importance for clarifying the course this study has followed, will be presented in chapter six.

5.1 Method of Operation

Since the ST textual profile which is the result of a thorough analysis of the text along the situational/textual dimensions is to be taken as 'the norm against which the quality of the TT is to be measured', a description of how the model operates seems to be necessary.

Throughout this study, House's model will be referred to as "situational dimensions model", whereas the model adapted for this study will be known as the "situational/textual dimensions model".

5.1.1 Situational dimensions method of operation

I. The SLT is analysed in terms of the set of the situational dimensions as outlined in chapter four (see p. 114). This is done by indicating how these situational dimensions are realized linguistically.

On each of the situational dimensions, House (1981) differentiates three types of linguistic correlates: lexical, syntactic, and textual. Each of these linguistic correlates is analyzed according to well known models. House, however, does not seem to set a clear criteria according to which the three-type linguistic correlates are to be chosen. For House, lexis is viewed in terms of semantic features [+/-Human], [+/-abstract] etc. Quirk and Greenbaum's (1973) approach to grammar is used as a model for syntactic analysis. Speech Act Theory is also made use of in order to establish the ultimate aim of the

linguistic elements, and that of the text as a whole. The concepts of foregrounding/ automatization are used to determine the textuality of a text. Moreover, Enkvist's (1973) approach to theme-dynamics and the insights gained from the Prague School work on sentence connectivity are eclectically made use of in House's analysis.

II. The situational dimensions and their linguistic correlates will then provide a 'textual profile' that underlies the ST function.

III. The resultant textual profile underlying the function of the ST is then taken as a 'yardstick' against which the TT's textual profile is measured. The degree of match or mismatch will, then, determine the quality of the translation.

Notwithstanding the importance of the above approach, it, nevertheless, seems necessary for more clarity to establish a relatively appropriate criteria for the choice of the three-type correlates.

5.1.2 Situational/textual Dimensions Linguistic Correlates:

Decision Making Problems

In the pursuit for a SL 'text profile' against which the TL 'text profile' will be measured several decision criteria are needed. In order to establish relatively appropriate linguistic measures that would be seen to correlate with the situational/textual dimensions in general and with the characteristics of a particular text type in particular, decisions related to the nature and characteristics of these measures are necessary to establish at the outset. By nature and

characteristics of the linguistic measures, I mean the syntactic, semantic and textual features that characterize an item, a group of items, or groups of items, in a continuous discourse. What seems to determine the nature of these measures is their basic function in context.

The following is an account of how the decision criteria have been reached with reference to three different but interrelated levels of language: lexical, syntactic and textual.

A. LEXICAL MEASURES

In connected speech lexical items interact within and beyond the sentence boundary to form a unified whole made up of phrases, clauses and sentences. Lexical items used for the purpose of communication in a stretch of connected language never cease to refer forward and backward in accordance with the cohesive entity discussed in Halliday and Hasan (1976) and elsewhere (de Beaugrande 1980; de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981, Stotsky 1983; etc.).

Individual, isolated lexical items should not be taken as the ultimate aim of translating. What is translatable, in a general sense, is not the form as such but the meaning in its three different but interrelated aspects: semantic, pragmatic and textual.

However, and for the purpose of this study, lexical items will be seen in terms of such broad categories as modifiers, connectors, and content words, that is words with stateable lexical meaning (see Crystal 1980; and Lyons 1968). Modifiers and connectors are subsumed

under lexical measures as constituents that could be seen as mediating between lexis, syntax and textuality. In a continuous discourse, such items cannot be seen in isolation, since within a sentence, their function is to modify or qualify nouns or verbs, whereas across sentence boundaries, they may be used as inter-clause connectors.

Content words in their turn, will be further analyzed in terms of repetition, morpho-repetition, inclusion, synonymy/antonymy and collocation. These form what Halliday and Hasan (1976) refer to as lexical cohesion. As suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 288), Lexical cohesion could be examined within the following framework:

Types of lexical cohesion which include reiteration and collocation, and a range of referential relations which vary between the same referent to an unrelated formal referent. (see Halliday and Hasan 1976: 288). Grabe (1984) notes that this framework does not differentiate between types of repetition. He refers to Rottweiler's (1984) suggestion to distinguish between exact form repetition and repetition involving morphological and/or syntactic class change. (cf. Grabe 1984: 191-192). This distinction is very useful when examining lexical cohesion in Arabic texts. It is useful in the sense that repetition, morpho-repetition, synonymy/antonymy, etc., are interesting items, first in that the root-pattern system of the Arabic language allows for a functional use of such text construction features. Secondly, their usefulness is most apparent in the fact that they could be used as measures for the structural pattern of a text which in its turn could be indicative of how the flow of ideas are structured. Such a phenomenon may in its turn be indicative of the

writer's attitude and his endeavour to influence the reader(s).

Modifiers will be discussed in greater detail when dealing with textual measures since they seem to be among the indicators of attitude mainly in argumentative texts.

Connectors will form part of cohesion analysis since they serve to relate clauses and sentences together to create unity in the text.

Content words and their sub-classification will be encircled in the two Arabic texts while the other two categories will be underlined for future use. The two texts can be found in appendix A. Meanwhile, the most significant and relevant items in both texts will be shown in table 1 and table 2.

The analysis of Text1 reveals that a great number of these content words relates to the major theme of the text: politics and economy. Some of them are genre-related such as قانون الإطار, qānun l-'itār, literally "law frame"; دولة, d-dawla, "state"; مشروع القوانين, maSārī' l-qawānīn, "draft resolutions"; الخصخصة, al-Kawsasa, "privatisation"; الاستثمار, al-'istithmār, "investment" and the others are more general than specific, i.e., they could be found in different other genres. The analysis also demonstrates that the use of the linking system in Arabic suffers from a duality syndrome: classical Arabic system relying on such connectors as wa, و; fa, ف; and ba, ب; and the Western system of punctuation.

LEXICAL MEASURES

Text 1

CONTENT WORDS	MODIFIERS	CONNECTORS
المسؤولية / مجلس النواب	الملقاة / ضمنية	وهي / وبمعنى /
الخصوصية / التأمين	معدومة / ضخامة	أحي
القطاع العام / الخاص	اقتصادية وطنية	ولكن / بل / إنما
الحكومة / المجلس	التي ...	و / ومنه هنا /
مشاريع القوانين /	المعدة للخبر	وعرضه هذه ...
قانون البحار	أكبر عدد / بعض / كثير	هذه
المؤسسات	التنمية / سليمة	إذا / أما / ف
الاستثمار	الأرباح	ذلك
مصلحة	تفصيلية	
بحث / استفتاء / روية	الإنتاجية / المالية	
أرباح / الأرباح / مكاسب /	الإدارية	
مردودية	التسمية	
مذكرة	الإدارية	
الوضعية	ومن الطبيعي	
آفاق		
الإجراءات		

TABLE 1

Lexical Items of Text 1: al-Kawsasa

LEXICAL MEASURES

Text 2

CONTENT WORDS	MODIFIERS	CONNECTORS
قرصنة / الطائفة	الكويتية - الجوية	ورغم
تعذيب - الركاب - الطاقم	الفلسطينيين / السياسي	اللهم إلا إذا
أطراف - المأساة	الإنسانية المحترمة	
تفاوض - الاخوة	منبصر واضحة	
الالتزامات	المقدسة - العربية	و
الناطقين / الابتزاز	البطولي - الباسلة	و
الأبرياء / المسافرين	الاسرائيلي	و
الإسلام - القيم - الأعراف	السياسي - الدبلوماسي	ف
الشهيرة	الاعلامى / النضالى / المشرف	فبعد
التنديد / الخفاف - التوبيخ	العربى / العالمى	فى هذا
ضحاياها / الأشقاء	خليفة نوعية	
رؤية	التحررى	و
الجماهير / الشعب / العرب	الوحشية - الإرهابية	و
قضية / العرب	المنتفض	
الكفاح / الاحتلال / الانتفاضة	الموالية / المحتلة	إلا أن
القضية / المواطن / الضمير	المستروعة	
الكيان الصهيونى / طعنة	المصادقة	
العرب - المسلمين / البطش		
المساندة / طبيعة الكفاح		

TABLE 2

Lexical Items of Text 2: The Tragedy

The content column in Text2 comprises those lexical items deemed relevant to the subject matter "The harm caused to the Intifada, to the Muslim and Arab population at large." The bulk of the items seems to refer to two main but contradictory concepts: the achievement of the Intifada and the damage caused to the Muslim and Arabs in general and to the Intifada in particular, by the act of hijacking. The items seem to be utilized to serve an ultimate aim of contrasting the act of hijacking with two important but relatively different issues. First the contrast between the act of hijacking and its universal condemnation, and secondly the response of the Kuwaiti "brothers". Most importantly still, the items refer to the act of terrorism and the plight of the Palestinians under the Israeli occupation, in addition to their achievement through the Intifada.

Lexical items in this particular text are made operational in as much as comparing/contrasting concepts and deeds are concerned. A look at table 2, for instance, would probably reveal the frequent use of antonymy, e.g. *الابتزاز/القيم*, *القنوية/التفدي*, *الكفاح/الاحتلال*, *الخطافين/المخاطفين الأبرياء*, *الانتفاضة/المقصصة*. Unlike the previous text where connectors and mainly adversative connectors prevail, text 2 seems to be characterized by a scarcity of such connectors.

Modifiers, however, seem to proliferate. The author uses a great number of value adjectives and nouns with which he praises the Kuwaiti response to the hijackers' demands. They are also used to value the Palestinian Intifada and at the same time they seem to be used to condemn the act of piracy and its perpetrators. Modifiers, adjectives or adverbs are markers of the writer's attitude. By mere choice of a

particular adjective/adverb rather than another the writer betrays his stance.

B. SYNTACTIC MEASURE

Syntactic variables, in their systematized combination within and across sentence boundaries, interact in such a way as to form a unified whole, i.e., text. In text analysis, and mainly in translation quality assessment, syntactic variables are not seen as individual entities but rather they are viewed in their globality as a means to achieving a particular goal or effect.

In an attempt to analyze the syntactic structures that would correlate with the situational/textual dimensions a decision as to their nature and characteristics has to be made. As a first step towards that aim, a preliminary classification of the clause units in the two texts under study seemed to be necessary. However, the decision criteria concerning such a classification raised several questions.

What is to be considered as the basic clausal unit? How do coordinated and subordinated clauses relate to each other in terms of dependent, independent? How can clausal boundaries be determined? How could we determine the nature of these boundaries in Arabic in particular? and could a complex sentence made up of several coordinated units in addition to a number of embedded units be the basic unit of analysis?

To answer the above questions and several others that may arise in the course of the analysis, we will have to consider some of the characteristics of the Arabic language.

Linguistic research has revealed that languages in their diversity segment reality in their own terms and consequently adapt the syntactic structure to how the outside world reality is conceived. Moreover, communicative requirements and situational restraints impose on the language certain forms rather than others. Most of the Western languages use the verb *to be* to mark existence and to link subject to its complement, and combined with verb + *ing*, it marks the progressive or the continuous aspect of the action. In Arabic, however, there seems to be no need for such a phenomenon. The concept is realized through subject/predicate *المبتدأ / الخبر* where the predicate *الخبر* complement the subject *المبتدأ*. In Arabic action has precedence over the agent of the action thus the frequent structure characterising Arabic is VSO, while in English the most frequent structure is SVO.

However, Arabic is one of those languages that can admit more than one linear order without the fear of jeopardising the syntactic structure of each of the clauses (see for instance Text1, Line 28). The distinction between word classes is determined not by the place of the word vis-a-vis the main verb but by case endings. Nevertheless, there must exist a basic structure against which other structures can be measured. Bakir (1980) suggests that a given word order would be singled out to be the BASIC order on the basis of such notions as FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE, NEUTRALITY or UNRESTRICTED OCCURRENCE, etc.'

(Bakir 1980:5). Thus the basic word order in Arabic could be considered to be the VSO order, i.e., the verbal structure that is not marked pragmatically; it is not used for emotive purposes (cf Bakir 1980 and Fibras 1964). A pragmatically marked structure in Arabic, will be known as the nominal structure SVO or SC_n. This use is characterised by a deviation from the frequently used VSO, the fact that would emphasize its purposeful usage in a continuous stretch of language, i.e., text.

The other problem that may arise in the process of classifying the syntactic components of the text, is that of clause boundaries. If we consider that the basic word order is VSO, and admit the existence of other types of linear orders in a continuous discourse, what then are the boundaries that mark one unit from the other? Could the boundaries be marked by punctuation? if so what about coordinated clauses, are they not themselves independent clauses that can stand on their own? and how could we determine punctuation in Arabic? The major stumbling block in deciding what constitutes the boundary of clauses is the irregular use of punctuation in MSA. MSA, in this respect, seems to operate on a dual basis. It combines the classical Arabic linking system as marked by wa و, fa (فـ), and sometimes bi (بـ) (طبيعة الحال), and the Western system of punctuation learned through contact with Western languages.

To solve the above problem, we may consider what Winterowd (1970) refers to as T-unit. A T-unit could be defined as an "independent clause along with any subordinate structures attached to or embedded in it" (Sloan 1983: 447). Coordinated structures will be considered,

then, as T-units themselves and thus in a coordinated stretch of discourse, the first clause and the second one following a coordinating word will be considered independent clauses. The subordinate clauses will form part of the independent clauses. Such a consideration will help solve the present problem and will be of major importance in dealing with theme-rheme organization and cohesion later on in the study. Cohesion will be seen as taken place between T-units rather than sentences. Theme-rheme organization will also be viewed in terms of T-units but with a modification that takes into account the concept of communicative dynamism advocated by Fribas (1964) (see textual measures in part C of this section).

For the purpose of this preliminary analysis, the syntactic measures will be first divided into two distinct but textually significant categories:

- a. the most frequently encountered structure, VSO which will be referred to here as the verbal structure, and
- b. the structure used for particular purposes, SVO, which will be referred to as the nominal structure.

	line		line
VERBAL UNITS	no	NOMINAL UNITS	no
ولا يتخذ المجلس قراراً ...	13	المسؤولية الملقاة على عاتقه ...	1
		ولا نعرف ... ومجلس النواب لا يعرف ...	2
ويجب أن تتفطن ...	32	ولكن مسؤولية مجلس النواب تعظم ...	6
		بمعنى أن التحويل قرار ينطبعه ...	7
ولذا حدث ذلك ...	44	بل القضية قضية ...	8
		والتحويل يدور مع المطالبة ...	9
أما إذا حدث دون ...	46	أي أن المؤسسة التي تحققه مملوكة ...	10
		والمؤسسة التي فشل ...	11
		(ومن هنا تأتي صعوبته وضخامته)	15
		(ومن الطبيعي أن تكون نفس ...)	16
		ذلك أن الهدف ليس هو ...	17
		وليس الهدف كذلك تبكيني ...	18
		ولكن الهدف هو تنمية ...	19
		والهدف كذلك هو ...	22
		والهدف كذلك تنمية ...	23
		فالتشغيل نفسه استثمار ...	24
		(وعلى ضوء هذه الأهداف جميعها)	26
		والبحث لا يمكن أن يكون ...	28
		فإن الحكومة مطالبة ...	28
		المجلس طالب بأن يراجع ...	34
		الحكومة والمجلس معا ينبغي أن ...	38
		الحكومة مطالبة ...	40
		هذه الدراسة ستكون ...	44
		إن المهم في قضية التنمية ...	49
		والأهم هو مدهى ...	50
		وكل مشروع لا يحققه ذلك ...	51

TABLE 3

TEXT 1: SYNTACTIC MEASURES

From the above, we may conclude that the least marked word order which is classified under Verbal units is pragmatically unrestricted. The other kind of word order found under Nominal units is restricted in that it is used for special purposes. The nominal structures are used, in this editorial, to contrast two stand points: that of the government which is embarked on the project of privatisation, and that of the representatives and consequently the general public that propose to put the national economic interest at the top of the country's general agenda. The predominance of the nominal structures in this text indicates that it is not the events and action in their chronological order that form the core of this text but rather it is the concepts and their relations to the writer's attitude that are the main focus of the editorial. Hence, it may be said that the text is strongly cohesive mainly in its frequent use of lexical cohesion, and strictly coherent in its close-net concepts/relations.

	line		line
VERBAL UNITS	no	NOMINAL UNITS	no
ورغم تدخل عدة أطراف..	٤	أكثر من أسبوع من على قرصنة..	1
فبعد ٤٠ قفزة الإنتفاضة	17	إن القرصنة الجوية ...	4
وأظهرت	18	(الهم لا إذا كان تفاؤل الإضحة...)	3
وهزت	19	(وإذا كان عمل كهذا يوجب ...)	8
وكسرت	21	فهم من جانب آخر يمثل المجاهدين	11
وخلفت	22	إن عملية القرصنة من حيث هي..	13
(فيما صعدت إسرائيل..)	30	(في هذا الوقت بالذات تأتي عملية...)	23
ولا يستقيم هذا الوضع..	37	(ولا أدل على هذا من انصراف...)	25
خدمته	38	فإن الصعافة الموالية ...	28
وبضرت	39	كل هذا لم يؤثر على ...	32
وأساءت	39	إلا أن المساندة الصادقة ...	35

TABLE 4

TEXT 2: SYNTACTIC MEASURES

It may be noticed from the above that text 1 differs from text 2 in that nominal clauses in text 2 do not predominate to a great extent and in the same manner as in text 1. This could be related to the fact that text 2 is presented in what Martin (1985) calls a report, i.e.,

reporting events in a chronological order. The event in Text 2 is introduced dramatically, using a vague temporal length but emphasizing the effect and the damage the act has done to passengers and crew. The narrative technique used serves to present arguments which support the author's claim. In fact this introduction paves the way for the major claim of the editorial, which is the damage caused to the Intifada by the act of hijacking. Unlike Text 1, most of the NPs in Text 2 are subjects of verbs of action: *مر*, passed; *تدخل*, intervene; *قفزت* (jump) bring to the surface; *خللت*, shake etc.. However, their use in such a textual context is not to tell a story but to argue a point. To achieve this aim, the text seems to highlight the contrast between the hijacking and its negative effect on the Palestinian uprising. Therefore, the notion of the harm caused to the Intifada is illustrated through contrasting a series of actions and counter actions all triggered by the act of hijacking.

The above classification into verbal and nominal structures in Arabic is not without its problems. If we consider the old Arab grammarians' insistence that a nominal sentence must have a noun as Subject and another noun as predicate with no obvious linking device such the copula in English, then how could we account for clauses with noun preposing their verbs as in the first unit in Text 2. Moreover, would the clausal unit on line 25 be considered as a nominal clause? *kāna كان* also creates a problem along these lines. Are we to consider it as a full verb like the verb to be in the past, in this case the whole clause is verbal, not nominal? Or will it be considered as a defective verb used to simply mark temporality, then the clause

remains nominal?

In Arabic grammar, however, *kāna* كان has always been considered as a defective verb the function of which is to only affect the case ending of the Subject and predicate it is attached to. According to Hassan (1981), the subject of a nominal sentence introduced by *kāna* loses its *موضوعية*, i.e., thematicity but keeps its nominal status. This issue will be raised and discussed in more detail when dealing with theme and rheme as components of textuality in the next section.

C. Textual Measures

In our discussion of text-oriented translation models, text has been viewed in terms of interaction taken place between writer and some potential audience within a socio-cultural context. As defined by de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) a text is a 'communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality.' (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 3). The seven standards of textuality in question are:

- a. cohesion, coherence, which concern the way in which the text makes links with itself and with the outside world;
- b. intentionality, acceptability refer to the writer's intentions, attitude and assumption of receiver's degree of knowledge of the subject matter, and the receiver's attitude towards the presented text;
- c. informativity refers to how the information is organized in a text relative to expected vs. unexpected;
- d. situationality concerns itself with showing the relevance of the

communicative occurrences to the situation in which events or actions have taken place;

e. intertextuality concerns the factors that mark the text as belonging to one type of texts or the other, and the ways in which they are recognized as such by the users of texts.

These standards of textuality interrelate with each other in such a way as to give the text its texture, i.e. its textual characteristics that may distinguish it from a non-text.

As a prerequisite to any communicative occurrence, certain 'constitutive factors' must be present during the act of communication, otherwise communication may not take place. Communication involves the following elements: a) sender of a message, b) the message coded in a particular system, c) the outside world reality to which the message refers, d) channel through which the message is conveyed, and e) the receiver who is assumed to share linguistic and socio-cultural knowledge of the discourse community the text has been produced in (see Jakobson 1960: 353; Nida 1964; Kinneavy 1969; and for more details see chapter three, section 3.1, and chapter four, section 4.2.1 in this study).

What is involved in this act of communication is the process of encoding and decoding. This operation is done through several linguistic, cognitive and socio-cultural means that could be subsumed under the category textuality.

In this section, most of the elements of textuality will be discussed in connection with theme-rheme analysis. In the course of discussing theme-rheme, reference will be made to Fibras's (1964) article on Functional Sentence Analysis. Fibras (1964) discusses the

definitions provided by both Mathesius (1947) and Travnicsek (1962). Mathesius defines theme as that " which is known or at least obvious in the given situation, and from which the speaker proceeds" (Mathesius 1947: 234). Travnicsek (1962) contends that " conveyance of known information is not the essential feature of the theme," (Fibras 1964:268). For Travnicsek a theme of a sentence is that element that "links up directly with the object of thought, proceeds from it and opens the sentence thereby" (Travnicsek 1962: 166). None of the above definitions, Fibras argues, account for the hearer/reader. Mathesius and Travnicsek's starting point seems to be what goes on in the speaker/writer's mind. Therefore the first elements of a sentence at the left of the verb may be considered as known or "link up directly with the object of thought". However, from the hearer/reader's point of view, the whole initial sentence may be unknown . Therefore, what might be considered the theme of a sentence may be unknown information to the hearer/reader.

Text 1 in this study may be taken as an example to clarify the confusion that surrounds the term "theme". The initial clause element al-mas'ūliyya **المسؤولية**, and its complement **دائمة** **Dakima**, are unknown information to the reader and in particular to the translator trainees to whom the text has been assigned. An assessment of the quality of students' translation should take into consideration the fact that decontextualised texts may create problems of thematic organization as students may not know which of the elements of the clause should be made known and which should come as new information. For example, in translating text 1, a newspaper editorial, one may consider the two elements of the initial clause, al-mas'ūliyya

المسؤولية and ~~DaKhma~~ - ضخمـة as unknown information. Consequently, they will be translated as the rheme of the sentence (this could be found in one of the Ph.D students' translation, (5.2) see Appendix B).On the other hand, the emphasis could be put on the element ~~DaKhma~~ - ضخمـة as most of the translator trainees' translations show. The end result would be then, "responsibility" as the theme of the sentence, and "enormous" as the rheme of the sentence.

In dealing with editorials, however, certain characteristics of the form have to be noted. If we consider Mathesius's definition of theme, we may notice that he takes for granted the existence of precedence that justifies theme. This may be a technical means for fictive writing. In analytical or scientific writing, establishing a certain context at the outset is of paramount importance for the intended audience. However, as far as editorials are concerned, certain assumptions are made as a starting point in the editorials. The main assumption that could be made is that the addressees may be thought to share some background knowledge to the event, process or opinion expressed in the editorial. Therefore what may be considered as new at text initial clause, is in fact related to some previous extra-text knowledge (i.e., a front page article in the same newspaper, or some political event that is occurring in the same period). Consequently the first element of the initial clause in an editorial becomes known information from which the author proceeds. This will be clarified in our discussion of the degree to which students translations have preserved the theme-rheme relation and structure found in the SL texts.

Before going any further in our discussion of theme-rheme organization, the thematic structure of text 1 and text 2 will first be mapped in tables 5 and 6 below:

TRANSITION	THEME	RHEME	LINE No
Th 1 المسؤولية/مجلس النواب		Rh 1 مسؤولية ضمنية	1
Th 2(Th1) وهي (المسؤولية)		Rh 2 المتعلقة بالثبوتية	1
Th 3(Rh2) أي (الخصوصية)		Rh 3(Rh2) كثير من المؤسسات	2
Th 4... لا، Th 4... ومجلس النواب ...	Tr 1 عرف	Rh 4(Rh3) قبل أن يتم هذه المؤسسات	3
Th 5(Th1) ولكن مسؤولية	Tr 2 تعظم	Rh 5 - أن القومية	6
Th 6(Rh5) بمعنى أن التحويل		Rh 6(Rh3) قرار ينظمه	7
Th 7(Rh5) بل القضية		Rh 7 - قضية مصلحة وطنية	8
Th 8(Rh5) والتحويل	Tr 3 دور	Rh 8(Rh7) مع المصلحة	9
Th 9(Rh8) أي أن المؤسسة	Tr 4 يجب أن تبقى	Rh 9 تحت مسؤولية	9
Th10(Th9) والمؤسسة التي ...		Rh10 فهي التي ينظم	11
Tr 5 ... ولا يتم المجلس ...	Th11(Th5) المجلس	Rh11 - لا بعد ... Rh11 قرار	13
Rh12(Rh7) ومن هنا	Tr 6 تفتي	Th12(Th1&5) ... صعوبة وضمان	15
Tr7 ... ومن الطبيعي أن يكون ...	Th13(Th12) نفس المسؤولية	Rh13 سلطات على عاتق الحكومة	16
Rh14 ... ذلك أن الهدف ...	Tr 8 (ليس هو)	Th14 تخلف الحكومة	17
Rh15(Rh14) ... وليس الهدف كذلك ...		Th15 تمكين بعض	18
Th16 (Rh14) ... ولكن الهدف ...		Rh16(Rh7) هو تنمية الاستثمار	20
Th17(Th16) ... والهدف كذلك ...		Rh17(Rh7) استفادة أكبر	22
Th18(Th16) ... والهدف كذلك ...		Rh18(Rh7) تنمية وتشغيل	23
Th19(Rh18) ... فالتشغيل نفسه		Rh19(Rh7) استثمار	24
Rh20(Rh7) على ضوء هذه الأهداف	Tr 9 يجب بحث	Th20(Rh11) كل مشروع	26
Th21(Rh20) والتجسس	Tr10 لا يمكن أن يكون	Rh21 بغير وصاف البحث	28
Th22(Rh20/21) وهذه فإن الحكومة	Tr11 طالبة بأن تقدم	Rh22(Rh4) مذكرة	28
Tr12 ... ويجب أن تتضمن ...	Th23(Rh22) المذكرة	Rh23 الرؤية المستقبلية	32
Th24(Th11) المجلس	Tr13 مطالب بأن يراجع	Rh24(Rh11) كل المعلومات	34
Tr14 ... وإن يعمد بجمع به		Rh25(Rh22) ... الأسباب	34
Th25(Th13) هذه المسؤولية			36
Th26(Th24) (Rh2, 3, 6...) وكلها			36
Th27(Rh22, 23) ومن البحث في			37
Th28(Th20&23) الحكومة والمجلس معا	Tr15 ينبغي أن تكون	Rh26(Rh22) عند صياغة قانون	38
Th29(Th22) الحكومة	Tr16 طالبة بأن تقدم	Rh27(Rh22) دراسة مثالية	40
Th30(Rh27) هذه الدراسة	Tr17 ستكون ولا شك	Rh28(Rh11, 24, 25) محل اختيار	44
Th31(Rh28) إذا حدث ذلك	Tr18 ... فسيقع	Rh29(Rh7) التحويل الصالح	46
Th32(Th30) أما إذا حدث دون	Tr19 ... فسيكون	Rh30 ... مسرعة	46
Th33 ... لأن المهم من قضية	Tr20 ... (ليس هو)	Rh31 تقليد الذين	49
Th34(Th32) ... وإنما المهم		Rh32(Rh7) ... صومر ما	50
Th35(Rh27) ... وكل مشروع	Tr21 لا يحق ذلك	Rh33 فهو رد	51

TABLE 5
THE THEMATIC ORGANIZATION OF TEXT 1

Theme-rheme decision criteria

The decision criteria concerning theme-rheme and their development in a continuous discourse are nearly the same as those concerning syntax in this section. However, certain problem areas that are characteristic of theme-rheme organization may prove to cause difficulties in the course of the analysis, mainly if the analysis is carried out in a restricted framework, such as the one carried out on Text 1 and Text 2 in this study. Therefore, there is a need for a certain degree of flexibility concerning the limit or extension of every theme or rheme in a sentence (i.e., where the import of theme or rheme begins or ends). This would allow us to account for the load of information conveyed not only by what may seem to be the rheme of the sentence but also by embedded clauses. As will be seen in Texts 1&2, these embedded clauses contribute more to the development of communication than the designated rheme of the sentence (see comment on Table 6).

The first problem encountered in this respect, was whether embedded clauses such as those of lines 1&2 in Text 1, should be considered as an extension of the rheme of the sentence or whether they should be seen as having their own theme-rheme relation. The solution to this problem, in Text 1, has been to view the first sentence, consisting of the main clause and two explanatory clauses, as containing three themes, two complementing each other, and the third one as an extension of rheme 2.

This tendency to overexplain may be taken as an indication of the author's endeavour to cram too much information in so little a space. The editorial is initiated with: a) the concept of responsibility qualified as enormous, and b) the object of this responsibility, i.e., privatisation. This is further explained in a scholarly way to the public at large. Intentionally or unintentionally, the interpretation is qualified by the quantity adjective, many ~~كثير~~, the fact that reveals, at the outset, the author's intentions vis-a-vis the government policy of privatisation. It also reveals his inclination for explicitness, as the editorial is assumed to address a large number of people from different educational backgrounds.

For convenience, the conjoint clauses in the two texts under analysis, will be treated as if they form independent clauses. Such an analysis intends to highlight their interrelationship: the semantic and the pragmatic relationship that exists between and across clauses. At the same time, such an initiative is hoped to show the personality of the writer in dealing with information leading towards the ultimate aim, in text 1 : any step towards privatisation should consider first and foremost the national economic interest.

The second serious problem encountered in the theme-rheme analysis is subordination. The second sentence in this editorial contains an apposition and a subordinated clause. As has been mentioned in part B of this section, coordination is considered as a T-unit, i.e. an independent clause. However, in this sentence the question that could be asked is whether both *na* (نـا) and *majlisu n-nuwābi* مجلس النواب will be seen as constituting one theme or two

separate themes. It is concluded that these two elements of the sentence constitute two separate themes for the same rheme. The subordinate clause in this sentence is of major importance to the development of the text since the draft projects *مشروع القوانين* that the government intends to present to the parliament form the core of the dispute. Moreover, the arguments presented in the text in support of the claim have strong relation with this subordinate clause. Yet the theme-rheme analysis as it is explained so far does not account for such a phenomenon. What is needed is a stronger framework that would account for such elements of text. This framework is offered by Fibras (1964). He called it "communicative dynamism". "Communicative dynamism" will be referred to in our discussion of theme-rheme organization of Text 2. (see Table 6 on the following page)

The analysis of Text 2 in terms of theme-rheme as defined by Mathesius is met with several obstacles. At the outset, the theme *أكثر من أسبوع* more than a week, is supposed to be known or obvious from the given situation, and the rest of the clause, after the transition, should be considered as the rheme of the utterance. However, and due to the nature of the editorial (see our discussion of the nature of editorials earlier in this part of section 5.1.2) both theme and rheme of the initial clause, are known to the general public, mainly to those who have been following the news of the incident, i.e. the hijacking of the Kuwaiti airliner. Therefore, theme-rheme organization should not be seen merely in terms of known-unknown information but also from a rather different criteria which should determine not only

LINE			
No	TRANSITION	T H E M E	R H E M E
1	Th 1 .. سبوع ..	Tr 1	Rh 1
2	Tr 2 .. ورغم قد دخل ..	Th 2	Rh 2
3	Tr 3 .. اللهم لا اذا كان ..	Th 3(Th2)	Rh 3
4	Th 4(Rh1) ... بأن الفرضية ...	Tr 4	Rh 4
8	Th 5(Th4) ... واذا كان عمل كهذا ..	Tr 5	Rh 5
9	Tr 6(Tr5) مثلما يوجب	Th 6(Th5 ellipted)	Rh 6
11	Th 7(Th5) فهو من جانب آخر	Tr 7(Tr6)	Rh 7
13	Th 8(Th4) ... بأن عملية القرصنة ... والإقدام عليها ...	Tr 8	Rh 8
17	Tr 9 .. فبعد أن قفرت ..	Th 9(Rh8)	Rh 9
18	Tr10(Tr9) .. وم ظهرت ..	Th 9	Rh10(Rh9)
19	Tr11(Tr9) .. وصرت ..	Th 9	Rh11
21	Tr12(Tr9) .. وكسرت ..	Th 9	Rh12
22	Tr13(Tr9) .. وخالخت ..	Th 9	Rh13
23	Rh14(Th8) .. في هذا الوقت بالذات ..	Tr14	Rh14(Tr8)
25	Th11(Rh14) .. ولا لم دل على هذا ..	-----	Rh15
28	Th12(Rh14) .. وكعادتها فإن الصحافة ..	Tr15	Rh16
30	Tr16 .. فيما صعدت ..	Th13(Rh13)	Rh17(Rh14)
32	Th14(Rhs.14,15,17) .. كما هذا ..	Tr17	Rh18
35	Th15 ... بالامان المساندة ...	Tr18	Rh19
37	Tr19 .. ولا يستقيم ..	Th16	Rh20(Rhs8,&19)

خدمته مصلحة الكيان الصهيوني

TABLE 6

THEME-RHEME STRUCTURE OF TEXT 2

what constitutes the theme or rheme of a clause or a sentence, but the thematic development in discourse.

As an outlet to the problem of the relation of theme-rheme to known-unknown information, a return to Fibras's (1964) solution may be of major importance to the present study. Fibras suggests the criterion of the degree of communicative dynamism 'carried by the sentence element.' He defines communicative dynamism (CD) as "the extent to which the sentence element contributes to the development of the communication," and the extent to which it 'pushes the communication forward' (Fibras 1964: 270). Fibras notes that the degree of CD carried by the sentence element vary enormously from one element to the other. He notes that 'the elements conveying new, unknown information show higher degrees of CD than elements conveying known information.' (ibid). Regardless of whether the element of a sentence conveys known or unknown information, the emphasis should be put on whether or not the element contributes to the progress of the communication. It is only by measuring the degree of this contribution (for example textual or extratextual information retrieval, the relation of the element(s) to the topic of the text, etc..) that the terms theme or rheme could acquire their value and the analysis could assign them to appropriate element(s).

In this context, *أكثر من أسبوع*, more than a week, recedes to the background as the least contributing to the development of the communication, whereas *القصة الجيدة*, the hijacking, and especially *ويعذّب عن تبقوا من الركاب*, the suffering caused to the remaining passengers and crew, bear the load of information intended to affect the reader.

This can be seen in terms of its relation to the rest of the text, i.e., how the idea expressed in the text is developed or used as a means to an end. In Text 2 the manipulation of theme-rheme structure seems to be used for a purpose: to highlight the fact that the act of hijacking, at this moment of universal recognition of the right of the Palestinians to self determination, is very harmful to the Muslims and the Arabs' reputation and mainly to the first Arab cause, the Palestinian cause. This is justified by the juxtaposition of the noun *المأساة*, tragedy, at the very outset, with *وغير تدخّل عدة أطراف لإنهاء المأساة*, those parties intervening to put an end to the hijacking. This simple juxtaposition does not seem to be used to qualify "the intervening parties", but rather the act of hijacking. Simultaneously, the juxtaposition seems to subtly suggest that every body considers the act of hijacking to be tragic. This rhetorical technique is a first step towards preparing the reader for the climactic argumentative claim.

The concept of the progress of communication is not restricted to clauses or sentences but it stretches along the whole text. The communicative progress takes the form of theme-rheme development which could be based on different criteria. Enkvist (1973) suggests a classification of thematic progression based on syntactic function. For example, a theme may be found to move from the subject of one sentence to the subject of another sentence, as it could move from subject to object, from object to object and so on. Another criterion, Enkvist suggests could be the syntactic structure. Movement could be performed from NP to VP, from PP to another PP. etc.. This relational movement is not operant at proximity only. Distant sentences may be

related to the initial theme through various ties provided by cohesion system as discussed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and elsewhere (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981; Longacre 1979; Witte and Faigley 1981; Carrell 1982...). (see section 4.1.3, p. 102 for different theme-rheme patterns.)

Using the concept of communicative dynamism as a tool to analyze the development of clauses and sentences in a text seems to solve those problems created by sentence length, subordination and subordination conjuncts, such as ~~والله~~ and ~~وعنهم~~ in the first paragraph of Text 2.

Stylistic features, in Text 1, such as ~~المسؤولية~~ repeated twice in the same sentence, and the sentence length that seems to characterise this text, are used for rhetorical effect. Theme-dynamism does not seem to account for them. However, sentence length can be seen in terms of stretching the rhematic effect over the sentence for relational and rhetorical reasons. By relational, it is understood the continuity holding the text together, and by rhetorical, the effect such a juxtaposition has at the reception end of the communication.

Unlike Text 1, Text 2 emphasizes action using parallelism in order to achieve the required effect. The author uses action verbs that depict all that the Intifada has achieved since it started until the hijacking. This causes disruption to theme-rheme flow. Hence the abrupt stop that puts an end to the rhythmic flow of action: the prepositional phrase fronting, ~~في هذا الوقت بالذات~~, (literal translation: at this very moment; see Lines 17-23). This, on its turn, seems to create a criteria decision. Should it be considered as theme of the sentence

or does it form part of the rheme? It may be noticed that it strongly links with the adjunct **فبعد**: "after", which stresses the importance of the temporal factor in the incidence, i.e., the hijacking (see Line 17). Consequently, and due to the above factors this initial PP will be considered here as the rheme of the preceding clauses. **ولا أدل على هذا** on Line 25, in connection with the following nominalization **انصراف** *diversion* is related to rheme 14 by substitution. Therefore it will be considered here as the theme of the sentence that includes them.

Another example which could constitute a problem vis-a-vis thematic progression is what Arab grammarians refer to as defective verbs such as *kāna* and related verbs. A criteria is needed in order to make a decision as to whether *kāna* and the related verbs should be considered as accessories to nominal phrases, i.e., **المبتدأ** and **الخبر** (subject/ predicate) as is the case for classical Arab Grammarians, or rather view them as temporal markers. In the first case *kāna* will form part of the thematic stretch of language, and in the second case it will be considered as a transitional element. Based on the "thematic dynamism" insights, *kāna* could best be seen both as marking the temporality of the nominal phrase and contributing to the thematic movement in the text.

From the above account of theme progression, it may be noticed that the major standards of textuality have a certain degree of affinity with theme-rheme progression. In this connection, theme-dynamics could be seen as a *porte-manteau* for most of the standards of textuality. The most important elements of theme-dynamics

are the terms theme-rheme viewed in their contribution to the progress of the text towards the intended goal. The preliminary analysis of theme-rheme in the Arabic texts under study revealed that there is a strong link between the thematic progression and cohesion-coherence. The relation between theme-rheme and cohesion-coherence could be seen in the ways in which thematic or rhematic elements are linked to the following or preceding clause(s) in the text. The relation manifests itself in one of the cohesive ties discussed in Halliday and Hasan (1976), i.e., reference, substitution, ellipsis, lexical cohesion, etc.. Causative, contrastive relations form parts of the thematic elements that serve as a link among clauses. The analysis also reveals that the choice and the frequency of a certain thematic pattern rather than the other, could be indicative of the writer's intended meaning (intentionality). Moreover, theme and rheme following a certain pattern (e.g. th1. tr1. rh1 + th2(rh1). tr2. rh2, etc..) may be considered as one of the elements that would indicate the type of text, though, this needs to be tested on a considerable number of other texts belonging to the same type (intertextuality) (cf. Biber 1984; Grabe 1984).

A good number of Arabic texts examined showed that nominative clauses are more frequent in texts that intend to change the present state of affair, i.e., to persuade, than texts that narrate a story or report an event. The discussion of given-new information in FSP may shed light on another standard of textuality: informativity.

However, a point of caution should be made at this stage. Unlike textlinguistics which takes text as its unit of analysis, the FSP theory considers the sentence as the "unit of the highest order".

Nevertheless, the FSP theory is not directed towards the description of the sentence in isolation but rather "from the point of view of its (potential) use in a message (framed in a text or a situation.)" (Palkova and Palek 1978: 212).

5.1.3 Summary of the method of operation

Translation quality assessment presupposes a systematic analysis of both the SLT and the TLT along the situational/textual dimensions. The SLT will be first analyzed along these dimensions by indicating their linguistic correlates (lexical, syntactic, and textual). The resulting "textual profile" that underlies the SLT function will then be taken as a "yardstick" against which the TLT's "textual profile" will be measured. The extent to which the two profile match or mismatch will determine the quality of the translation.

Following this method of analysis and comparison, mismatches on any one dimension, will be presented and discussed. Any mismatch that occurs on any situational dimension is considered to be an error. A distinction, however, should be made between two types of errors: *covertly erroneous errors*, and *overtly erroneous errors*.

a. Covertly erroneous errors are those errors which result from a mismatch along the situational dimensions. House calls these types of errors, dimensional errors.

b. Overtly erroneous errors are non-dimensional. They are either errors occurring at the level of denotative meaning or they are 'a breach of the target language system', that does not occur on any

one of the situational dimensions but still they may be found to abound mainly in students' translations from Arabic into English.

The main emphasis in House's model is put on dimensional mismatches. Consequently, the adequacy of a translation is measured in terms of the amount of covertly erroneous errors that may be found in it. Non-dimensional mismatches, House (1981) maintains 'will have a certain specifiable impact on the relative match of the functional components in ST. and TT.' She hypothesizes that:

'mismatches of the denotative meaning
of ST. and TT. elements detract from
a match of the ideational functional
components of the two texts.'

(House 1981: 57)

However, non-dimensional errors, in our model, will be given due consideration, considering that it is students' translations which form the main body of the analysed data. By students I mean those translators who are at their early stages of translation training. Moreover, these overtly erroneous errors may be considered insofar as they give an insight into translation process and student's translation strategies. For instance, when dealing with problems of denotative meaning, translators seem to resort to the following: omission, addition or substitution.

5.2 Situational/Textual Dimensions Schema

Before concluding this chapter, the following figure attempts to give a general overview of the method of operation of the translation

quality assessment model:

METHOD OF OPERATION

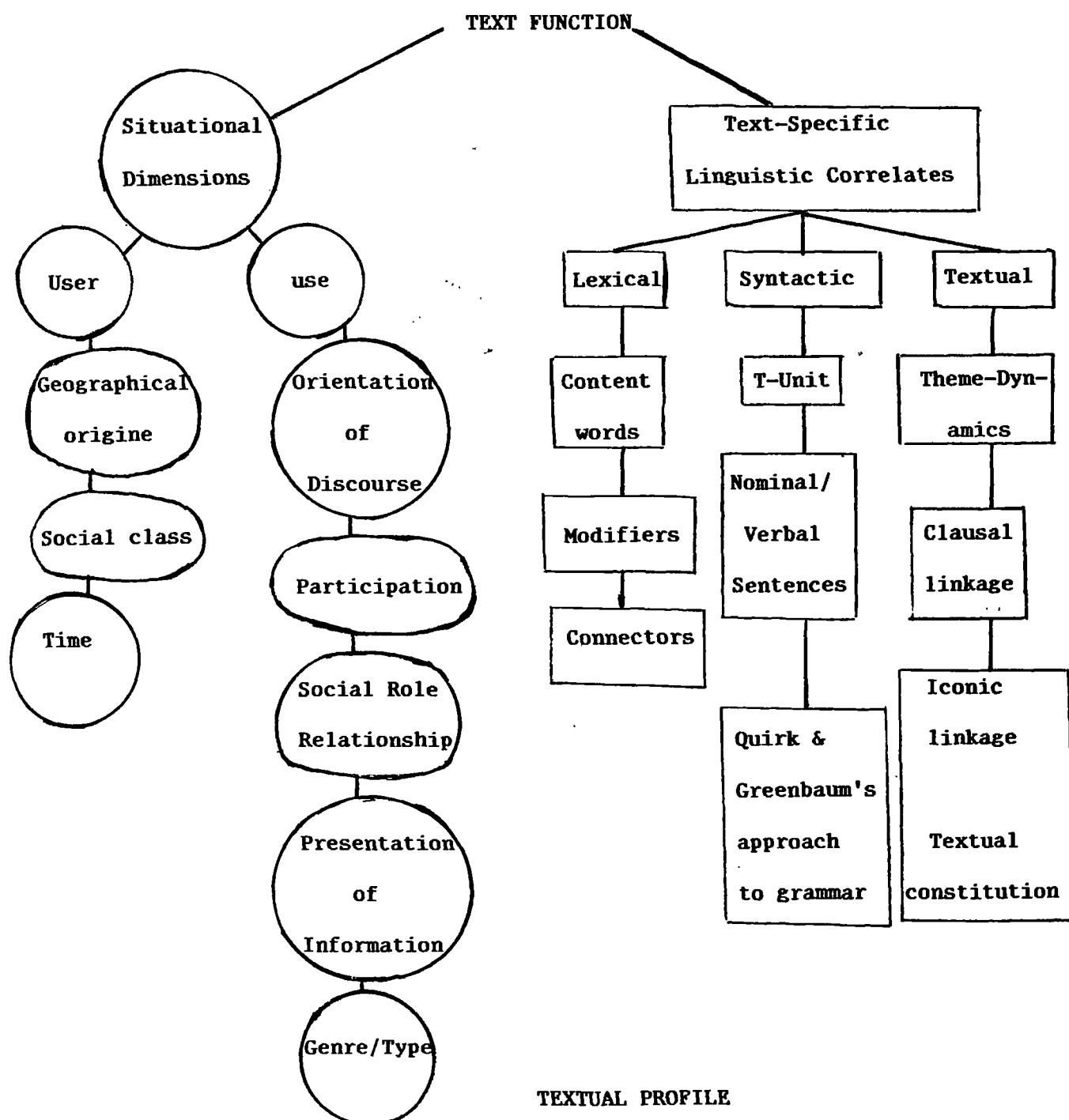


Fig. 14 Situational/Textual Dimensions Method of Operation

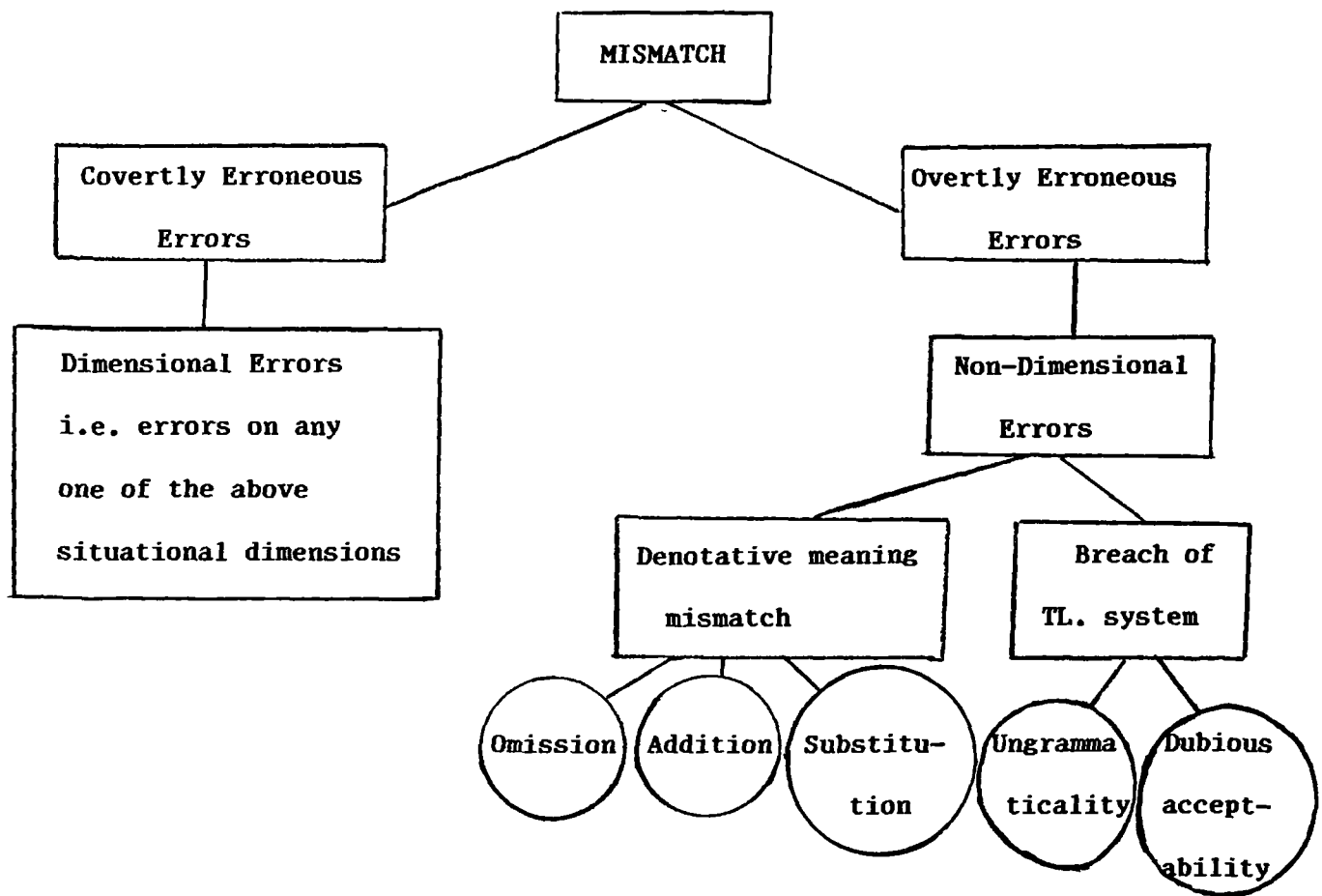


Fig.15 Covertly Errors vs. Overtly Errors

For a comparison of a mismatch on a situational dimension to constitute a covertly erroneous error, House (op.cit: 58-9), presupposes three conditions:

1. No considerable differences at the level of socio-cultural norms may be marked.
2. The differences between the two languages (in her case, English and German) are 'such that they can largely be overcome in translation.'
3. The translation is not carried out for a special purpose, i.e. a specialised text is not translated for children, for instance.

In Arabic-English translation the above assumptions may not be adequate. Arabic and English show signs of differences at various levels, mainly linguistic and cultural. The socio-cultural differences between Arabic and English are such that they should be spelt out in the course of the analysis. Moreover, the overall textual structure of the argumentative texts differs in English and Arabic editorials (see for example, 6.2. below). For this reason, the linguistic and cultural differences have to be accounted for in the course of comparing Arabic SLTs and the English TLTs. Another important factor in the comparison of the SLT and TLT is the fact that the two Arabic texts have been translated by undergraduate students except when it is mentioned otherwise. The translation has been carried out in a limited time period, three hours, and no access to dictionaries was allowed. The following chapter will give an account on the reasons for choosing argumentative texts in the form of editorials, on how the data has been collected, and finally an account will be given, on how the analysis of the two Arabic editorials has been conducted.

CHAPTER SIX

The Application of the Model

6.0 In this chapter particular attention will be given to the application of the model on argumentative texts in the form of editorials. The chapter will be divided into two main parts. The first part of this chapter presents the methodology followed in this study concerning first, the reason for choosing a single text type, i.e., argumentative texts in the form of editorials, in addition to a brief account of what argument stands for and how an argumentative text is structured. The nature of the informants from whom the data have been collected is included in the first part of this chapter. The second part will deal with the application of the situational/textual model on two Arabic newspaper editorials.

6.1 Argumentative Text Types

6.1.1 Why Argumentative Texts?

Argumentative text type is part and parcel of a lot of text genres, such as scientific texts, academic papers, literary criticism, journalism, etc.. In every genre, scientists, scholars, critics, or editors of newspapers, have recourse to argumentative means to argue a point, attempt to conquer audience adhesion to the position they hold in their respective occupations, or draw people's attention to certain points through the use of assertions and presentations (cf. Halsall 1988). All the quality newspapers for instance, devote a reasonable amount of columns for this purpose.

In the field of translation training, argumentative texts seem to present difficulties at the level of beliefs, attitudes and mainly, in distant languages such as Arabic and English, difficulties can be found at the level of values (see Zanummer, 1986; Ganer, 1987). The difficulty of argumentative texts lies in the fact that they seem to be more subjective than the other types of texts. What is presented in an argumentative text is a personal or group's opinion or beliefs, supported with "evidence" that, in most cases, needs to be further supported by generally accepted "facts" (cf. Brockriede and Ehninger 1960, and Hillocks Jr. 1987). Moreover, argumentative texts, occurring within a single discourse community, are usually the outcome of particular situation events in which argumentation plays a major role

in solving the problem or at least making the others aware of the beliefs, values and attitudes of the participants in the argument. However, arguments may find a fertile field when it comes to two peoples or groups of people belonging to different discourse communities.

6.1.2 Argumentative Texts: Definitions and Structure

As quoted by Halsall (1988), Oléron defines argumentation as a

"démarche par laquelle une personne--ou un groupe--
entreprind d'amener un auditoire à adopter une position
par le recours à des présentations ou assertions--
arguments-- qui visent à en montrer la validité ou
le bien-fondé."

(Oléron 1983: 4, as quoted in Halsall 1988: 143-4)

'means through which a person--or a group of persons--
attempts to guide an audience into adopting a certain
stand through the use of presentations or assertions--
arguments--that aim to demonstrate the validity or the
solid foundation of the arguments.'

(my translation)

Argumentation presupposes both the writer's intention to produce an effect on his audience, and the receivers acceptance or refusal of the writer's intentions. Argumentation has as an ultimate aim the transmission of the writer's beliefs and values. The writer, through the use of argumentative means, sets to defend his beliefs and values, and consequently seeks his audience adherence to his line of thought. According to Oléron (1983), this can be done through presentations or assertions.

Presentation requires the organization of the discourse by means of narrative reasoning, i.e., through presentation of events in a chronological order for the purpose of persuasion (the case of Text 2 in this study).

Assertions or arguments follow a pattern of deductive reasoning consisting of premises and conclusions, what is referred to in philosophy as syllogism. Toulmin (1958) notes that when we make an assertion we commit ourselves to a claim, and when this claim is challenged or feared to be challenged, the claim has to be well grounded and justifiable. In order to achieve this, we have to appeal to facts, authority in the subject matter, or well established ideas. Toulmin (1958) suggests that 'if the claim is challenged, it is up to us to appeal to these facts, and present them as the foundation upon which our claim is based.' (Toulmin 1958: 97). The question that may be asked here, is how can facts support a claim in order to arrive at a wished for conclusion? For this, we need to define argument and trace the movement the facts follow to achieve an assertion.

An argument as described by Toulmin is a 'movement from accepted data, through a warrant, to a claim' (Brockriede and Ehninger 1960: 44). According to Toulmin, these are 'the main phases marking the progress of the argument from the initial statement of an unsettled problem to the final presentation of a conclusion.' (Toulmin 1958: 94). The main structure of argumentation as advocated by Toulmin (1958), and illustrated and explained by Brockriede and Ehninger (1960) could be simplified as follows:

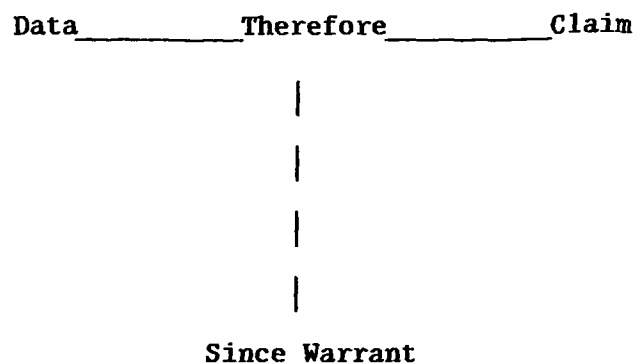


fig. 16 the core of argumentative structure

(in Brockriede and Ehninger, 1960: 45)

Most of argumentative texts seem to present as their data, some facts, quotations, statements by an authority in the field, or what may be taken as a divine authority. Data in this respect, may be seen as assumed facts produced for the purpose of supporting the main phase of an argument, the claim.

A claim, Brockriede and Ehninger (1960) contend, is 'the explicit appeal produced by the argument, and is always of a potentially controversial nature' (Brockriede and Ehninger 1960: 44). Toulmin (1958) regards the claim as the natural conclusion that may result from the acceptance of the data. However, a claim may be an 'intermediate statement' that could itself serve as data for a 'subsequent inference' (Brockriede and Ehninger 1960: 45). What is central in argumentation, in any position a claim may be, is that the claim relies for its support on accepted or what could be taken as reasonable data.

Data should be warranted by shared beliefs, or values. A warrant is a statement that serves to guarantee that the data used to support the claim is valid. Moreover, it provides an explanation for the reason why the data support the claim (cf. Hillocks 1987).

However, the phases marking the progress of an argument are not restricted to these broad categories. When the claim or data are challenged, or when a writer feels that these may be challenged he resorts to other tools that would further back the warrant, qualify the claim and rebut or refute the challenge as ungrounded. These second triad of components are referred to as qualifier, backing and rebuttal. When these added components are superimposed on the argumentative structural core, as illustrated above, the new diagram will read as follows:

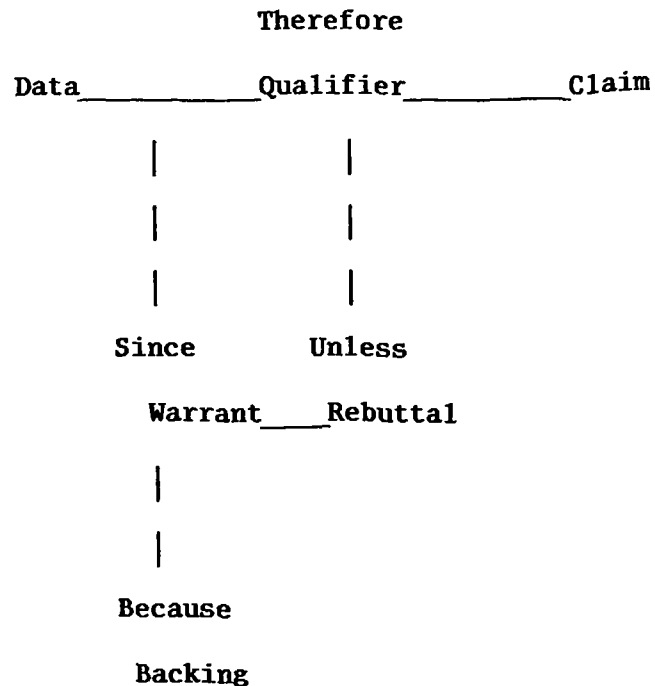


fig. 17 the structure of argumentative text as presented in
Brockriede and Ehninger (1960: 46)

When the claim is deemed to be controvertible, the author feels the need to use certain qualifiers. Terms such as "probably", "certainly", "possibly", etc., may be used to 'register the degree of force which the maker believes his claim to possess.' (ibid).

Rebuttal is usually related to a qualified claim, since it is used to indicate areas where the claim may not 'hold good' or 'will hold good only in a qualified and restricted way.' Its use serves to refute possible objections to the claim.

Backing serves as an indication of why a statement should be accepted as a warrant for the data. It is used to certify that the assumption expressed in the warrant is valid. Backing is resorted to

when the warrant is felt to be challenged.

Brockriede and Ehninger (1960) give the following example to illustrate the model (the components of the argumentative structure will be referred to by their initials, e.g., claim (C), data (D), etc.)

Russia has violated 50 of 52 international agreements (D). (Since) past violations are symptomatic of probable future violations (W). (Because) expert X states that nations which have been chronic violators nearly always continued such acts (B). (Unless) the ban on nuclear weapons testing is significantly different from the violated agreements (R). Russia would probably (Q) violate the proposed ban on nuclear weapons testing (C).

This example should not be taken as the model of argument structure. The requirements of production and reception may differ from one text to another in one single language. Furthermore still, the difference may be greater when we are dealing with two distant languages such as Arabic and English.

The main concern of this study is argumentative texts in the form of editorials. It is assumed that argumentative texts in both Arabic and English share the general features of argumentation as discussed above, i.e., in the process of argument there is a movement from data through warrant to claim. However, Arabic and English argumentative texts differ in the manner of structuring themselves in order to achieve their goals.

In his attempt to compare and contrast the structure and texture of editorials in both Arabic and English, Sa'adeddin (1987) provides a functional, interpersonal and structural description which tends to identify editorials in these languages. In English Sa'adeddin identifies an editorial as:

- i) 'a statement of opinion which communicates to the receiver an evaluation or argument in order to bring about the goal of persuasion;
- ii) as a text where the dominant "particularistic" sociolinguistic "relation"... between the producer and the receiver is that of an insider to an outsider;
- iii) as a text wherein the plan-preference in the advance towards the communicative goal is that of a fact-proposing, argument, and conclusion.' (Sa'adeddin 1987: 150).

In comparing these features to Arabic editorials, the difference seems to be functional. This difference of function is dictated by the requirement of Arabic and English respective social contexts. In this connection Sa'adeddin defines an Arabic editorial as follows:

- i) 'as a statement of opinion often intent on communicating an evaluation to native Arabic literates in order to further existing agreement between the producer and the receiver;
- ii) as a text wherein the dominant "particularistic" sociolinguistic "relation" between the producer and the receiver is that of an insider to an insider who shares the same unwritten assumptions with the producer;
- iii) as a text wherein the plan-preference is that of audience-entertainment (...), reinforcement and intensification of effect, argument, and conclusion.' (ibid)

In our analysis of the SL texts and the TL texts, the above comparison will be taken as the basis for comparing or contrasting the two Arabic editorials and their translations.

6.2 Data Collection and subjects

The data consist of 81 translations collected with a view to evaluating the quality of translations from Arabic into English. The data could also serve as a means to exploiting the theoretical and practical implications of the situational/textual model for the training of translators in the Arab world.

The test was carried out at Fahd School of Advanced Translation, Tanger, Morocco, in November 1989. The choice of Fahd school is based on the fact that it is the first translation school, training translators for professional purposes, in Morocco. Translation, though forms part of the courses given in the departments of languages in Moroccan universities. However, translation, in these departments, is taught mostly for academic purposes.

The student population at the school form a spectrum of different hues. They come from faculties of letters where languages, such as English, French and Spanish are taught, in addition to different other humanities subjects. A respectable number of students have a scientific, law or administrative background. Admission to the school, however, is restricted to two categories of students:

a. Those who have passed their second year at their respective faculties. These are admitted as first year students after taking and succeeding an admission exam.

b. Graduates from the other faculties of the kingdom, (i.e., B.A. holders) are admitted as second year students.

To this variety of student population four texts were presented with a view to translating them in an atmosphere similar to that of the exam.

The type of text chosen for the test is argumentative, and the text forms assigned to translation trainees are two Moroccan quality newspaper editorials.

The two Arabic texts were given to first, second, and third year students all together, on two separate days. The translation has been performed under conditions similar to those of an exam session; time was restricted to three hours, and no access to dictionaries was allowed. The translations, together with some rough drafts -- those belonging to students who did not embark on immediate translating-- were collected at the end of the third hour.

The 81 translations, in addition to 5 Ph.D students' translations, were first classified into good translations and weak translations by two teachers of translation and one postgraduate students who also teaches Arabic to non-native speakers of Arabic. In addition to this classification, the teachers were asked to give their comments on why they consider individual translations to be good or bad. No specific model other than the judges' personal opinion was taken as a basis for the evaluation of the translations.

Out of the 81 corpus, 10 translations were randomly selected from each of the three levels, in addition to the 5 Ph.D students' translations (a total of 35 translations). Two sets of translations

that could be evenly divided emerge from this selection. The two sets were first classified into good translations and weak translations. These translations will be subjected to an analysis in which the major textlinguistic textual standards are taken into account. The analysis will take the extended situational/textual dimensions as a model on the basis of which the translations will be evaluated.

The model in question is based on the definition that translation is the replacement of a text in the source language (SL) by a semantically, textually, and pragmatically equivalent text in the target language (TL) (cf. House, 1981). The model, then, takes text as the unit of analysis. This assumption is based on the definition of the text as a functional entity written with the ultimate aim to communicate.

Communication may be said to occur in response to certain occasional or situational needs which gives the occurrence its apparent unique characteristics.

The uniqueness of the occurrence of a text as advocated by House (1981: 37) could be justified by the particular situational conditions that together, help produce that text. Therefore, what is needed in order to arrive at a certain "textual profile" that characterizes the function of a text, is an analysis of this text along the situational/textual dimensions model which has been developed to include the textual and intertextual characteristics of text. The resulting "textual profile" is expected to reflect the text function which will be taken as a 'yardstick' against which the quality of the translation texts can be assessed.

6.3 Analysis of Text 1

Text1 is an Arabic newspaper editorial written on the occasion of the discussion, in the Moroccan Parliament, of the possibilities involving privatisation. The text will first be analysed along the following situational/ textual dimensions:

Dimensions of Language User:

1. Geographical Origin
2. Social Class
3. Time

Dimensions of Language Use :

1. Orientation of Discourse:
 - a. Uni-directional: Oral or Literate
 - b. Bi-directional : Oral-literate/Literate-oral
2. Participation: Uni-directional/Bi-directional
3. Social Role Relationship
 - a. symmetrical role relationship
 - b. asymmetrical role relationship
4. Presentation of Information
 - a. author's involvement
 - b. author's efacement or disengagement
5. Genre/type
 - a. social recognizance of text
 - b. text ultimate aim

6.3.1 The SLT Analysis of:

**PRIVATISATION:
A BURDEN FOR PARLIAMENT**

Dimension of user:

1. Geographical origin: marked, (Modern Standard Arabic as used in Morocco)

(M.S.A. in Morocco could be marked only at the level of lexis, in so far as terms are not 'panarabially' standardised e.g.:

الخوصصة, Al-khausasa; مجلس النواب, majlisu n-nuwāb;
 قانون الإطار, qanūnu l-l'itār; المغربية, al-mağraba;
 الجماعة المحلية, al-meshwaru s-sa'īdu; الجماعة القروية,
 al-jamā'atu l-lmaħaliyya; الجماعة القروية, al-jamā'a
 l-lqarawiyya; مراقب الدروس, murāqibu d-durūsi; etc..

2. Social class: marked; editor is a member of the opposition, whose purpose in writing this editorial is to attempt an effect on the public opinion, and simultaneously seeks MPs' adherence to the position of the opposition by drawing their attention to what he judges to be the main issue. This characterization is realized by the following means:

i. Lexical means:

- a. presence of some politically ironic items such as

دَوِيّ الْيَسَارِ, dawī al-yassār, "the well-off";

تَمَلُّكٌ, tamalluk, "possessing";

الْمَذَرَّةُ لِلْخَيْرِ, al-muḍirra lil khayr, "prosperous institutions";

خَوَاصٌّ, khawās, "private people, or private investors."

- b. use of the verb تَمَكَّنَ, tamkīn, "enabling"; to show that the institutions are restricted; therefore they need some freedom of action.

ii. Syntactic means:

- a. Government is associated with dynamic verbs, an attempt to show the dynamic monopolistic aspect of its role as opposed to that of the parliament which assumes, more than acts, e.g., تَتَقَدَّمُ الْحُكُومَةُ, tataqaddam l-Hukūmatu; تَخْلُصُ الْحُكُومَةُ, takhallusu l-Hukūmati; تُرَشِّحُهَا الْحُكُومَةُ, turashiḥuha al-Hukūma; etc.. (see the first sentences of paragraph 1&2). Whereas parliament is associated with verbs or expressions suggesting that it only assumes, e.g., مَجْلِسُ النُّوَّابِ لَا يَعْرفُ, majlisu n-nuwāb lā yaʿrif,

iii. Textual means:

- a. the use of negative parallelism to imply what the government might really intend to do, instead of

performing the act that would serve the national interest. Serving the interest of the nation is what the editor seems to emphasize in this editorial,:

ليس الهدف هو... وليس الهدف هو... ولكن الهدف هو...

laysa al-hadaf huwa..., wa laysa al-hadaf huwa,.... wa
lākinna l-hadaf huwa.....

3. Time:

unmarked: contemporary Modern Standard Arabic as used
in Morocco.

Dimension of Use:

1. Orientation of Discourse:

Uni-directional: The text is characterized by a "distant interactional orientation" since it is written to be read. The predominant feature of the editorial is literacy. However, elements of orality co-exist with those of literacy for the purpose of achieving the ultimate aim of the text: persuasion.

This characterization is manifest in the following linguistic and textual means:

i. Lexical means:

- a. presence of specifically genre-related lexical items,
e.g., - *مشاريع القوانين*, mashārī' al-qawānīn; - *القطاع*,
al-qilā' al-'ām/ al-khās, etc..

- b. presence of value adjectives and nouns, e.g., ضخمة
 Dakhma; صعوبة, su'ubatu; ... which may
 simultaneously serve as emotive adjectives used to
 create a dramatic effect.
- c. presence of lexical repetition for emphasis, e.g.,
وبنفس الصعوبة وبنفس الضخامة
 wa bi nafsi ṣ-su'ubati, wa bi nafsi D-Dakhāmātī
- d. presence of emotive subjectivity markers such as
 emotive adjectives and plural personal pronouns,
 coupled with cognitive verbs such as نعرف,
 na'rifu; عرفنا, 'arafnā.

ii. Syntactic means:

- a. presence of initial NPs as markers of truth conditions
 of propositions, i.e. they are used as statements of
 facts that may or may not need to be substantiated by
 further statements. In a language which is mainly VSO,
 this kind of use is functional. Nearly almost all the
 paragraphs in the text start with nominal sentences.
 Another marker of the written mode is the presence of
 initial PPs which could be used as clauses of purpose,
 e.g. see Lines 15 and 26.
- b. presence of loosely-structured clauses featuring
 parenthetical and appositional structures either
 inside the main clause or extraposed (cf. parag. 1),
 the fact that suggests no advance preparation of the

text as would be the case in the strictly formal written mode. The complex embedding in the second paragraph is also an indication of unpremeditation. Unpremeditation could be clearly illustrated by the unconnected and loosely-structured clauses at the beginning of the sixth paragraph,

- c. presence of extraposed clause. The last sentence of the third paragraph, is indicative of the spoken mode, it is as if the writer is saying: by the way.
- d. frequency of clause initial ~~wa~~, wa, that is used either as a syndetical coordinator, or as a punctuation device characteristic of the Arabic language.

iii. Textual means:

Because this is an editorial written to serve the needs of a large and diversified audience, ranging from highly educated to the general lay public, the language varies in its use of the situation at hand:

- a. the text is predominantly emic, in that the editor does not rely on the immediate situation to present and argue his point. 'The immediate circumstances of the production and reception of the text are clearly irrelevant for the organization of the message. As a result of this , the text is largely determined through text-immanent criteria and is marked by an explicitness typical of the written mode' (House:

1981: 83). There are, however, few references or markers of orality indicated by the use of the first person plural personal pronoun *nä*,----; in addition to the extraposed apposition which is used as an "after thought", (a feature of classical Arabic used extensively in Al-JäHid's texts such as *al-bayän wa t-tabyyin* and *al-Hayawän*. The first person plural personal or possessive pronoun is a feature characteristic of the Arabic writing used to invoke togetherness and solidarity. In the case of this editorial written by a member of the Istiqlal Party in Morocco, one may venture and say that *nä* could be referring to the Istiqlal Party members of the parliament.

This tendency to include the addressee(s) in the discussion is further marked by the frequent use of appositions, a device used for clarity and explicitness. This could be seen through the frequent use of *أي*, 'ay, "that is to say"; or *بمعنى*, *bi ma'nā*, "meaning". This tendency to over explain leads to redundancy and repetition. The repetition in this text, though, cannot be dismissed as negative. Some of the repeated clauses operate as linking devices between the paragraphs, e.g. the first clause of the third paragraph serves as a link between this paragraph and the previous ones. Moreover, repetition

in Arabic is functional in as much as it emphasizes the point made and attempt to represent the addressee as holding the same view.

2. Participation:

Uni-directional, in the sense that the text is a monologue. However, there is an implicit attempt to involve the addressee in the discussion of the issue. In addition, the writer anticipates some objection. Hence the use of negation and a high degree of explicitness in order to support his point.

These characteristics are realised through the following means:

i. Syntactic means:

- a. use of نحن, *nā*, as a marker of first person plural personal pronouns, involving the addressee directly in order to heighten their interest in the subject matter and to imply the common agreement.
- b. presence of elliptical structures, eg., كما حدث بالفعل, *kamā Hadaṭḥā bil bil fi'l fi ba'di l-qīṭā'āt*, (L.19), i.e., as has happened in those sectors (that have been transferred to the privates but, as we all know have failed to contribute to the country's economic development). There is a subtle addressee invitation implied by the ellipted phrase as we all know.

3. Social Role Relationship

Asymmetrical role relationship: addresser feels he is more knowledgeable in the subject matter than his readers. Thus, as a patriot working for the noble interest of the people, he finds it his duty to impart with information and suggestions concerning the well-being of the national economic development.

- a. Position Role: Editor of a national newspaper
 - b. Situational Role: writer of an article with a view to drawing attention to the gravity of the situation and consequently having an effect on public opinion.
- The above characteristics are realized with the following means:

i. Syntatic means:

- a. presence of explanatory phrases and clauses, in apposition and extraposition as in Lines 2, 7, 9, and 24.
- b. repetition of complete clauses, e.g., *المسؤولية الملقاة* the responsibility assumed by the ..., is repeated completely or with a slight variation in Lines 6, 15, and 36.
- c. presence of requests put to the government through the use of the verb *مطلبتان*, *mutālaba bi 'an*, (i.e., the government is required to (Line 28). The verb is used in the passive, coupled with the mandative

subjective in 'an-clause (Line 29). The use of the passive, here, is to mark objectivity which, in Arabic, is performed through verbs in the passive form, e.g., يُنظَرُ, yunẓaru; or المعلقة (participle) as in Lines 1, 13, and 14. In addition there is a frequent use of the modals of obligation such يجب yajibu, "should, must or ought to", in Lines 26, 28, & 32.

- d. special use of personal pronouns, such as عرفنا / نعرف, 'aṣrafnä/ na'rifu, to invoke togetherness and solidarity.

ii. Textual means:

- a. the salient means of connectivity at the level of paragraphs seems to be repetition. Repetition is used as a tool for emphasizing the points to be argued, and at the same time, it is used as a means for drawing the readers' attention to what the writer thinks is the main issue.
- b. presence of rhetorical attention-orientation (i.e., orienting the attention of the addressee(s) to certain points with the exclusion of others), and action-orientation utterances (i.e., utterances that suggest or urge for action), used in negative and parallelistic forms in order to achieve dramatic effect, e.g. القضية ليست قضية... بل القضية قضية, al-qaḍiyya laysat qaḍiyya.... bal al-qaḍiyya qaḍiyya,

in Lines 6-8); and ~~الهدف ليس...~~ ولكن الهدف..., al-hadaf laysa wa lākinna l-hadaf...., in Lines.17-20, and 22-23. This is further supported by the use of the "undoubtfull" future for more emphasis on the orientation towards the intended aim, e.g., ~~هذه الدراسات ستكون ولا شك~~, hādīhi d-dirāsatū satakūnu wa lāshakka...., in Lines 43-44.

4. Presentation of Information

In the process of presenting and defending his point, the writer's involvement with the subject matter could be perceived in the dual system of alienating and involving the addressees through the manipulation of various linguistic and textual means.

Consequently, the style of this editorial seems to fluctuate between formal and consultative (i.e., a neutral style level usually resorted to when the addressees participation is left unclear. This characteristic is manifest in the following syntactic and textual means.

i. Syntactic means:

- a. frequent use of initial NPs, e.g., ~~المسؤولية الملقاة...~~, al-mas'ūliyya l-mulqāt ..., (Line 1); ~~البحث لا يكون...~~, al-baḥṭhulā yumkinu..., (Line 28), and ~~الحكومة والمجلس معًا...~~, al-Hukūmatu wa l-majlis

ma`an..., (Lines 38-39).

- b. presence of complex clause construction, (see for instance the second and third paragraph, Lines 6-11, and Lines 17-24 respectively.

parallel to the above construction that are usually associated with formal style, other types of construction may be found:

- c. presence of appositive constructions beginning with 'ay, أي, that is to say, (Lines 2 & 9), in addition to the use of comment parenthesis (i.e. a parenthesis is open for the purpose of clarifying or elaborating on the clause it is embedded in, see Lines 19, 30, 40).

ii. Textual means:

- a. repetition of key words in order to focus the attention of the addressees on the issue the writer aims at highlighting, e.g., مسؤولية ضمنية, mas'ūliyya daKhma (Lines 6, 15, 36); محبوبة وضمانية, su'ūbatu wa daKhāmatu (Lines 15-16); مسألة اقتصادية وطنية, maslaHa qtisādiyya waṭaniyya, (Lines 7,9, &50-51).
- b. alternation between the use of passive and active for the purpose of emphasizing the objectivity of the information presented, and for soliciting the addressees' solidarity (Lines 13, 15-17, 34-35).

5. Genre/Type:

Genre: newspaper article.

type : Argumentative.

form : editorial

The elements of argumentation as described in section 6.1.2 may be said to be realised in the Arabic editorial by the following syntactic and textual means:

i. Syntactic means:

- a. frequent use of initial NPs in a language known to be predominantly VSO. NP in the initial position, in this case, is functional. It is a statement of what the writer thinks to be the truth.
- b. predominance of emphatic clauses, e.g. أنا الحمد لله, 'anna l-hadafa, (Line 17), and repetition and parallelism for dramatic effect (see Lines 6-10, 17-24, 28-29, 34).

ii. Textual means:

Being an argumentative text type in the form of editorial, the present text makes use of several means to connect the textual components in a way as to advance the argument forward.

Theme Dynamics:

- a. the major focus is on the theme "enormity and difficulty" of the task facing the representatives of

the House of Parliament. The theme is used as a linking device that relates most of the paragraphs in the text in a way as to form a global unity (see Lines 1, 6, 15, 36). This superordinate theme, as it is sometimes called, serves as a data for the editor claim that what is at stake in the whole debate is the "national economic interest" (see Line 8).

- b. use of NP in initial position as an element to push the dynamics of theme/rheme forward. The theme and rheme, however, get mixed up in the repetition technique allowed in Arabic, (see, for instance, the first sentence of the first paragraph: the initial المسؤولية, al-mas'ūliyya..., may be mistaken to be as theme, where in this text, it is a device used for emphasis. Initial NPs and PPs, in addition to paraphrasing and partial synonymy are used with a view to producing a dramatic effect.
- c. use of parenthetical and appositional structure as a means to back the writers claim.
- d. use of negative parallelism as an anticipation to any refutation of the claim.
- e. use of logical connectors as links between data and claim. Frequent amongst them are adversative conjuncts in their different forms in Arabic such as إنما, 'innamā; بل, bal; لكن, lākin. Their use serves to highlight the contrast between what is done or intended to be done and what should really happen for

the national economic interest. Moreover, such devices are especially used to introduce the main argumentative import of the discourse in contrast to providing simple information which might produce undesirable attitudes within this political atmosphere (see Lines 6-8, 17-24, 49-51).

6.3.2 Statement of Function

The text being of an argumentative type, it comprises all the components of language function, i.e., ideation, interaction and textual components as advocated by Halliday (1970, 1971, and 1976). These components are channelled through the argumentative structure for the purpose of producing a certain change in the public opinion. The function of the Arabic text analyzed above, may be summed up as follows:

a. to inform the readers of the problem that is at the moment the main issue of debate at the parliament. More importantly still, the text tends

b. to influence the general opinion to adopting the writer's views on the subject: privatisation should be viewed in terms of what is good for the development of the national economy, not what is good for the happy few.

c. However, what the writer completely blacks out is privatisation itself. It is not presented to the large audience as an issue in itself. It is the manner privatisation should be conducted which is the main issue of the editorial.

This "textual profile" has been achieved through the linguistic and textual correlates of the situational/textual dimensions as discussed above, and most importantly through the following argumentative text structure:

CLAIM

على الخصوصية أن تهتم بالصالح
الاقتصادي الوطني
Privatization has to consider the
national economic interest.

DATA

الخصوصية هي موضوع الساعة
الخصوصية مسؤولية البرلمانية
التعويض مقرون بمزايا المصلحة الوطنية
على الحكومة أن تقدم اقتراحات معقولة
البرلمان مسؤول عن بحث ودراية هذه الاقتراحات
-- privatization is the issue of
discussion at the present
moment.
-- it a serious issue for the
parliament.
-- any change has to consider the
the national interest.
-- the government has to provide
sound proposals.
-- the parliament has to weight,
investigate and discuss all
these proposals.

WARRANT

الخصوصية بدون مراقبة فتسهل اعتكاف
المليح بمصالح المربحة من طمس
الغنى
privatization is enabling the
rich to monopolize profitable
institutions.
(Moroccanization has proved that
before.) (the warrant here is
rather implicit). The warrant has
been illustrated through the nega
tive parallelism in Lines 17-24.

CONCLUSION

للهدف الذي يرمى من الخصوصية هو تحقيق تطور
اقتصادي للبلاد
-- the emphasis is on the profits that
may be gained from privatization that
aims for public interest and economic
development.

fig. 18 The Argumentative Structure of Text 1

6.4 Analysis of Text 2

AN UNFORTUNATE TRAGEDY

"AN Unfortunate Tragedy" is a translation of the title of the second Arabic text. The text is an Arabic newspaper editorial written on the occasion of the hijacking of the Kuwaiti airliner "Al-Jabiriyya". The text was written in April 1988, during the negotiation taken place on the airport of Algiers between the hijackers on the one hand, and the Algerian government and the Palestinians, on the other hand.

Following the same procedure of analysis as in 6.3, text 2, as a SL text, will also be analyzed along the situational/textual dimensions as illustrated in figure 13.

6.4.1 The SLT Analysis

Dimension of user:

1. Geographical origin: unmarked, Modern Standard Arabic.
2. Social class: unmarked, educated middle class.
3. Time: unmarked: contemporary Modern Standard Arabic.

Dimension of Use:

1. Orientation of Discourse:

Uni-directional: the text is predominantly literate, it is characterized by a distant interactional orientation: it does not rely, for its production and reception, on the immediate situation. The text is meant to be read. However, being an editorial written to a wide range of readers with different education background, there are certain markers of orality that are usually associated with the spoken mode.

This characterization may be found in the following means:

i. Lexical means:

- a. frequent use of value adjectives and nouns, e.g., the الجماعة العربية, 1-jamāhira 1-ʿarabiyyati, "Arab Masses", (Line 12); قضية العرب المقدسة, qadiyyatu 1-ʿarabi 1-muqaddasati "the sacred Arab issue", (Line 13); الأعمال الوحشية والإرهابية, 1-ʿaʿmālu 1-waHshiyyatu wa 1-ʿirhābiyyatu, "terrorit acts and savage punishment...", (Line 27),; etc..
- b. frequent use of emotive subjectivity markers: e.g. الإخوة, 1-ʾikhwati, "brothers", (Line 3); الأشقاء, 1-ʾashiqāʾi, "close brothers", (Line 10);

الكفاح البطولي, l-kifāhi l-butūliyyi, "heroic struggle", (Line 14); الوجه النضالي المشرق, al-wajhu n-nidāliyyu l-mushriqu... "the resplendid side of the Arab struggle", (Line 19); etc..

- b. presence of lexical repetition for emphasis, e.g.,

قضية الشعب الفلسطيني, qaḍiyya, ash-shaʿbu l-falastīniyyi, "the Palestinian people, issue", (in Lines, 13, 17, 19, 20, 21,...)

- c. presence of a vocative device اللهم, al-lah-humma, used mostly in speech. (Line, 3).

ii. Syntactic means:

- a. predominance of declarative, complete and complex sentences, a marker of the written mode, (see Lines 1-2, 2-4, 4-8, 17-25, etc..)

- b. frequency of the N + Adj. pattern, a device frequent in written MSA., e.g., الطائرة الكويتية, at-Tā'iratu l-kuwiytiyatu "the Kuwaiti airplane", (Line 1); القرصنة الجوية, al-qarsanatu l-jawwiyyatu, "hijacking", (Line 5); القيم والأعراف الإنسانية, al-qiyamu wa l-'aʿrāfu l-'insāniyyatu, "human values and conventions", (Line 8); الكفاح الفلسطيني, l-kifāhu l-falasTīniyyu, "the Palestinian struggle", (Line 35).

- c. frequent use of abstractions, and their association with verbs that usually collocate with [+ animate] another marker of the written mode, e.g.,

~~فبعد ذلك قفزت الانتفاضة الباسلة بالقضية~~, faba⁴da an qafazat al-'intifādatu l-bāsilatu bil l-qadiyyati l-falasTīniyyati 'ilā markazi ṣ-ṣadāratī, "After the heroic Intifada has "made" the Palestinian issue "jump" to the forefront of...", (Line 17),
~~وأظهرت الوجه المشرق~~, wa 'aḏharat al-wajha ... l-mushriq, "and showed the shining face of..." (Line 18); etc..

- d. presence of an appositive clause initiated with a marker of the spoken mode, (in English this could be rendered by a colon: ~~إلا وهي قضية الشعب الفلسطيني~~), 'alā wa hiyya qadiyyatu sh-sha⁴bi l-falasTīniyyi "it is but the Palestinian people's issue", (Line 13).

iii. Textual means:

The text is predominantly emic, i.e., it does not rely for the production of its message on the immediate situation of production and reception. However, the organisation and production of editorials, produced under pressure of time (immediate response to a newly occurring event) is such that the producer makes certain assumptions pertaining to the spoken mode, e.g., the conditional clause of limitation, ~~إلا إذا كان تفاؤل الإخوة الفلسطينيين~~, 'illa 'īda kāna tafā'ulu l-'ikhwati l-falasTīniyyīna, "unless the optimism of our Palestinian brothers, in (Lines

3-4). In this sentence the editor assumes the readers already know about the role the Palestinians play in the negotiations for the release of the hostages and the plane.

2. Participation:

Uni-directional, i.e. the text is directed towards a large readership, it is written to be read. However, there is an implicit attempt to solicitate the addressees' consent and solidarity. Notice the use of the lexical items in (Lines 3,7, and 33).

This characterization is realized through the following linguistic and textual means:

i. Lexical means:

- a. presence of brotherhood markers, e.g., الإخوة, al-'ikhwatu, "brothers" (Line 3); الأشقاء, l-'ashiqā'i, "real brothers" (Line10); إخواننا, 'ikhwānanā, "our brothers" (Line 33).
- b. frequent use of lexical items that have a direct reference to certain values the editor assumes are shared by the addressees, e.g., Islam, revolutionary principles, human conventions and values الإسلام, l-'islām, "Islam"; الثورية, ath-thawriyya, "revolutionary principles"; القيم والأعراف الإنسانية

al-qi' yamī wa l-'a'rāfī l-'insāniyyati..., human values and conventions in (Lines 7 and 8).

ii. Syntactic means:

- a. Absence of direct address forms except the presence of the first person plural possessive pronoun in (L.33), a device used, here, not as a direct address form but rather as a marker of solidarity, "togetherness", "being a member of one great family".
- b. absence of interrogative, and imperative sentences, a suggestion of non-assumption of addressees' presence.

3. Social Role Relationship:

Asymmetrical role relationship: addresser feels he has some moral obligation urging him, as a member of the large Arab and Muslim society, to express his worries about, and warn the fellow Arabs and Muslims of, the damages such an act of piracy can cause at this particular period of time.

- a. Position Role: Editor of a national newspaper
- b. Situational Role: writer of an article concerning a delicate political event.

The above characteristics are realized with the following means:

i. Syntactic means:

The role of the unbiased judge is characterized by the presence of the following syntactic means:

- a. duties and requests put to the addressees through the use of the verbs *يُوجِب*, yujibu, "necessitate or demand", and *يُحْمِلُ*, yuhammilu, "urge" in (Lines 8-9, and 12). Such verbs may be said to have special syntactic status, since at the surface they seem to be active but semantically they are passive.
- b. presence of contrastive parallelism as in (Lines 8-10), through the use of contrasts, *المقابلة*, al-muqābalatu.
- c. use of action verbs in parallel position as a mechanism contributing to building the climactic "coup de théâtre", i.e., dramatic effect, e.g. (see Ls. 17-22), (see also a similar phenomenon in Text 1 Lines 17-24).

iii. Textual means:

- a. The role of an unbiased judge who attempts to draw the attention of the fellow Arabs and Muslims to the dangers of hijacking is obvious. This may be noticed in the way in which the addresser praises the achievements of the Intifada, while undermining the

act of hijacking. For instance, it is made clear that such a deed is not only harmful to the Intifada alone but to the whole Arab and Muslim community. The act of hijacking, however, is not openly condemned. The condemnation of the act is left to the addressees to assume that it is a matter of fact. Notice for instance, the use of ولا داعي للتأكيد, wa lā dā'ī li t-ta'kīdi..., "there is no need to confirm.." in (Line 4) and its repetition for emphasis in (Line 6). This could be simply rendered into English through the use of the existential *there*

- b. use of a special passive as a means of connecting the clauses on (Lines 8-13): يُوجِبُ, yūjibu, "demand"; يُحْمِلُ, yuhammilu, "require or urge".
- c. use of contrastive parallelism: covert condemnation as opposed to overt praising, as in (Lines 8-9).
- d. addresser's intrusion in (Lines 32-35), a technique used here to link the previous paragraph with the concluding clause. This is introduced with the adverb بطبيعة الحال, bi Ṭabī'ati l-Māli, "naturally".
- e. one of the most noticeable means of connectivity at the level of paragraphs seems to be repetition. Repetition is manifest at the lexical and syntactic levels, e.g., قَرْصَانَةٌ, qarsanatu, "hijacking"; قَضِيَّةُ الشَّعْبِ الْفَلَسْطِينِي, qaḍiyyatu sh-sha'bi l-falasTīniyyi, "the Palestinian issue"; كِفْلَح,

kifāhu "struggle"; and action verb + noun + adjective, mainly in the second paragraph. Repetition is used as a tool for emphasizing the point the writer is trying to make, and at the same time it is used as a means for drawing the readers' attention to what the writer judges to be the main issue.

4. Presentation of Information

The editorial is addressed to a wide range of Moroccan readers. However, and due to the nature of the subject matter, the editorial could be said to be addressed to the Arab and Muslim readership in general, and to the "Kuwaiti brothers" (Line 10), in particular. The writer's involvement in the subject matter could be perceived in the ways in which the linguistic and the textual means are manipulated in order to achieve the general purpose of orienting the attention of the Arabs and the Muslims to the damage such an act of hijacking could inflict on the Palestinian Intifada. Therefore, the style of this editorial seems to fluctuate between formal and consultative. The writer in this editorial, seems to move from audience alienation to audience involvement, in a more subtle way than the other Arabic article. This can be seen through certain lexical, syntactic and textual means

already mentioned above.

i. Lexical means:

- a. frequent use of highly charged political lexical items, e.g. القراصنة الجوية, 1-qarsanata 1-jawwiyata, "hijacking", and الابتزاز السياسي, li 1-l'ibtizâzi s-siyyassiy, "for political extortion" (Line 5); الكيان الصهيوني, 1-kiyāna ṣ-ṣuhyūniyyi, the Zionist entity. (L.22); etc..

ii. Syntactic means:

- a. frequency of complex clauses to the extent that the construction becomes redundant, e.g., the use of complex embedding separated by اللاهم, al-lahumma as in (Lines 2-4), and the repetition of "there is no need twice in one single sentence" (Lines 4-7).
- b. completeness of clauses except in the first and the last paragraph where instances of ellipsis in coordinated clauses appear, (Lines 1, and 32-34 respectively)
- c. presence of appositive constructions, (e.g., see Lines 13, 14, and 38).

iii. Textual means

- a. frequent use of *wa* , a linking system device used in Arabic to mark continuity and cohesion (it has to be differentiated from the coordinating *wa* which serves as a linking device within a sentence, see for instance the difference between the use of *wa* in line 1, and that in line 2).
- b. frequent use of passivization as a means of complex syntactic linkage. Such a device also serves as a means for advancing the argument and developing the theme, e.g., in (Ls. 8, 9, 12, and 36).

5. Genre/Type:

Genre: Newspaper Article

Type : Argumentative

Form : Editorial

This is an article written by an editor of one of the quality newspapers in Morocco. It is written with a view to pointing out, to the Arab and Muslim community at large, the dangers of hijacking the Kuwaiti airliner. The article does not simply draw the attention to the dangers such an act of piracy may bring about, but also to the damage it causes to the first Arab issue: The Palestinian issue. In addition to the linguistic and textual

correlates, the present text makes extensive use of the elements of argumentation as described and discussed in chapter six, section 6.1.2.

The above characteristics have been arrived at through the following means:

i. Lexical Means

- a. frequent use of value adjectives and nouns with an intent to persuading and drawing the attention of the addressees to the problem, e.g., قضية العرب المقدسة, qaḍiyyatu 'al-ʿarabi 'al-muqaddasati, "the sacred Arab issue", (Line 13); الانتفاضة الباسلة, 'al-intifādatu 'al-bāsilatu, "the heroic Intifada", (Line 17).
- b. preponderance of certain lexical items with positive connotation when related to the issue and negative connotation when the hijackers and the Israelis are mentioned, e.g., القرصنة، الابتزاز, 'al-qarsanatu, 'al-'ibtizāzi, "hijacking, extortion," (Line 5); ادعاء الشورية, 'diʿā'i awriyati, "claiming to be revolutionaries", (Line 7), العدو الصهيوني, 'al-ʿaduwwu ṣ-ṣahyuni, "the Zionist ennemy", (line 24).

ii. Syntactic Means

- a. frequent use of cumulative clausal coordination: a sequence of clauses joint together through the use of the coordinator *wa* in one single sentence. Such a device is used to achieve a dramatic effect (see Lines 1-2, 17-22, and 32-35).
- b. use of initial NPs, a typical device used in Arabic for discourse topicalization, i.e. giving eminence to the theme of the sentence, e.g., (Line 1). This use is further supported in this text by the employemnt of the conditional particle '*idä*' in (Lines 3,& 8).
- c. use of assertive propositions, e.g., $\frac{\text{inna}}{\text{wa}}$, '*inna*' in (Lines 13, 35& 37).

iii. Textual Means

the text being an argumentative type, it relies heavily on textual cohesion to advance the arguments and to achieve the ultimate goal of warning the Arabs and the Muslims of the dangers of hijacking. Diverting the attention from the main issue of the Arabs may prove to be disastrous for the Palestinian cause. This is achieved through the following textual means.

a. Theme Dynamics:

1. repetition of certain key words such as الانتفاضة, السَّعْبُ الفلَاسْطِينِي, القضية, al-'intifada ash-sha'bu l-falastīniyu, al-qadiya, "Intifada", "the Palestinian people", "the issue", with various collocational potentials. These are contrasted with other key words, such as القرصنة, العدو الصهيوني, الإبتيزاز, al-qarsanatu, al-'ibtizāzu, al-'aduwwu ṣ-sahyuniyyu, "the hijacking", "the extortion", "the Zionist ennemy". This repetition plays a major role in the development of the theme, in addition to its facilitating a full exploitation of the meaning potential of the repeated lexical items.
2. presence of strong lexical cohesion,
3. use of rhetorical devices is manifest in the introduction of a non-specific and vague item to refer to those who offered their services as negotiators in the dispute, followed by a reference to الإخوان, الفلَاسْطِينِيينَ, al-'ikhwatu al-falastīniyyīna, "the Palestinian brothers", (Line 3). Such a use serves as a linking chain between the good act of the Palestinians and the damaging act of the hijackers.

b. Iconic Linkage:

1. Iconic linkage of special verb forms, e.g., ~~إذا كان عمل~~
~~كهذا يوجب الجهر مثلما يوجب... فهو من جانب آخر يوجب...~~
'idā kāna ʿamalun ka hādha yujibu al-jahra miḥlāmā
yujibu.... fahuwa min jānib 'ākar yuḥammilu... (Lines
 8-12). This special use of passive is used to compare
 and contrast the act of hijacking and the position the
 Kuwaitis have taken vis-a-vis the situation. It also
 serves to heighten the interest of the Arab and Muslim
 readers of the article.
2. Iconic linkage of main clauses, e.g., ~~أظهرت الوجه الضال~~
'aḍharati al-wajha n-niḍāliyy (Line 18) ; ~~هزت جزءا أصغا~~
hazzat juz'an wāsi'an, (Line 19); ~~كسرت الجمود~~
kassarati l-jumuda (Line 20); ~~خلخلت الكيان الصهيوني~~
khalkhalati l-kiyāna s-sahyuni (Line 22).
3. Iconic linkage of prepositional phrases, e.g., ~~على استمرار~~
ʿalā stimrāri (Line 32), ~~وعلى صمود~~, *wa ʿalā*
sumūsdi (Line 32), ~~وعلى تنويع~~, *wa ʿalā tanwī'i*
 (Line 33).

c. Clausal linkage:

This is marked by the use of logical connectors such as
~~إلا إذا~~, *'illa idā*, "unless", in (Line 3). It is a
 logical connector relating the two sentences in (Lines 2
 & 3) together. Such devices highlight the contrast and

specifically contribute to the import of the argumentation in contrast to just imparting with information.

Statement of Function

The text being of argumentative type, it contains all the components of language function: ideational, interpersonal, and textual, as advocated by Halliday (1970, 1971, and 1976). The text function, thus, may be summarized in the following way: The text attempts to achieve the following:

a) to draw addressees' attention to the dangers of hijacking an Arab and Muslim airliner by Muslim "revolutionaries", and at the same time, b) to persuade the addressees that such an act is more damaging to the Palestinian issue: the Intifada, than anything else tried by the Israelis or their allies. The above characteristics have been derived from the analysis of SLT along the situational/textual dimensions.

On the dimension of orientation of discourse, the characteristics of distant interactional orientation supports the informational orientation, which may be said to correspond to the ideational functional component of the text. In a language such as Arabic where MSA is mostly read than heard (I use heard here as a reference to the spoken language used for daily life needs as is the case with the different Arabic colloquial varieties), the mode written to be read serves to construe information in a particular way. The complex, well-structured clauses are indicative of premeditation. On the dimension of participation the monologous aspect of the text also

supports the ideational functional component of the text. The author addresses the intended audience through a network of premeditated, well-organized construction which serves the purpose of advancing and promoting the argument leading to the final aim of persuasion and consequently gaining addressees' adherence to the editor's statement. However, the addressees' participation is subtly solicited through the use of emotive and evaluative language, the fact that supports the interpersonal functional component of the text. This is further made clear by the results obtained on the dimension of social role relationship. Though the nature of the relation is asymmetrical, in that the addresser assumes the role of an unbiased judge in an issue concerning the whole Arab and Muslim community, there is an attempt to persuade the addressees of the dangers involved in this act of hijacking. More importantly, the editor of the article seeks his addressees' adherence to the principle statement: the act of hijacking at this moment is harmful to the Palestinian Intifada.

On the dimension of Presentation of Information the formal-consultative style serves to support both the ideation and the interpersonal functional components, in that it maintains the equilibrium needed for this particular type of text form, i.e., editorial written for a wide audience with varying degrees of educational background.

Finally, on the genre-type dimension the presence of strong cohesion and the frequent use of commulative clausal coordination, in addition to iconic and clausal linkage allowed by Arabic are all used to achieve the ultimate aim of the text: affect the reader through making the text more convincing.

Not only has the "textual profile" been achieved through the linguistic and textual correlates of the situational/textual dimensions but also through the exploitation of the argumentative text structure as illustrated below:

CLAIM

عملية القراصنة الخطيرة وتضر بقضية العرب
الأولى، قضية الشعب الفلسطيني.
Hijacking seriously damages the first
Arab issue: the Palestinian issue.

DATA

تدخل عدة أطراف لم ينته بها المسعى
المقام بعملية القراصنة ويجب التنبه به
موقف الكويتيين، وموقف الفلسطينيين
يجب على الجماهير العربية الانتباه مثل هذا الخطر
توقيف عملية القراصنة
طريقة فكيف الشعب الفلسطيني
-- various interventions has not
ended the tragedy,
-- hijacking should be condemned
-- Kuwaiti's position should be
praised,
-- Arab people should be aware
of danger,
-- the timing of hijacking,
-- a strong blow to the Palesti-
nian people's struggle.

WARRANT

لاستعمال القراصنة لابتزاز سياسي
متناقض مع مبادئ الإسلام ومع
القيم والأعراف الإنسانية المعترسة
وأنه لا يمكن المجازاة الثورية
مثل هذا العمل يؤدي إلى إضرار الإسلام
-- the use of hijacking for poli-
tical extortion is incompat-
ible with the teaching of
Islam, respected human values
and conventions, and with
revolutionary principles.
-- such an act serves to change
public opinion from the
principal issue to side
issues.

CONCLUSION

إن عملية القراصنة في هذا الوقت بالذات
مفترقة، ككثافة الشعب الفلسطيني ومنهية
في نفس الوقت للعرب والمسلمين
-- it should be emphasized that the
hijacking taking place at this
very moment, is harmful to the
the Palestinian people's strug-
gle, and to the Arab and Muslim
reputation.

fig. 19 The Argumentative Structure of Text2

The structure of argumentative text types in Arabic and English may be said to be similar as figures 18 and 19 demonstrate. However, when it comes to the ways in which the structure is made use of for the ultimate purpose of the text, Arabic and English argumentative text structures differ. The difference is mainly functional. As Sa'adeddin (1987) points out the statement of opinion in the Arabic editorial does not communicate an evaluation in order to bring about the goal of persuasion. It is rather intent on communicating an evaluation to the readers in order to strengthen existing agreement (cf. Sa'adeddin 1987: 150). This could be seen through frequent use of emotive adjectives and appeals to solidarity and togetherness in Text1 and Text2 analyzed above.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SOURCE LANGUAGE TEXTS/ TARGET LANGUAGE TEXTS:

A Statement of Comparison

7.0 The two Arabic texts have been analyzed along the situational/textual dimensions, as discribed in the model discussed in chapter four. The "textual profile" of each of the two texts, and the functions of the texts revealed by the analysis will be taken as the basis for assessing the quality of the translations under study. For this purpose a summary of the statements of function of the two Arabic texts will be sketched in section 7.1. Statements of comparison based on match or mismatch of the SLT and TLT will be presented in 7.2.

Section 7.3 will illustrate some of the errors obtained from the comparative study of SLT and TLT. Section 7.4 will comment on impresionistic, intuitive assessments, and present and compare some general results of a preliminary assessment conducted by three judges, with those obtained from the analysis of the students' translations along the Situational/Textual dimensions. Finally section 7.6 will discuss the results and their implications in the training of Arab translators.

7.1 The statements of function of the two Arabic editorials

The analysis of the two Arabic editorials along the situational dimensions has resulted into the following text functions:

TEXT 1:

- a. orientation of the addressees' attention towards the current debate on privatisation in the House of Representative in Morocco (debates of the Spring Session 1988)
- b. writer's attempt at persuading addressees to adopting the view that privatisation is a matter of national economic interest.
- c. privatisation is accepted as a principle but not from the government point of view.

TEXT 2:

- a. orientation of the addressees' attention towards the dangers of hijacking in general and hijacking an Arab and Muslim

airliner in particular.

- b. the editor's attempt at persuading the readers that such an act constitutes a danger on the main Arab issue: the Palestinian Intifada.
- c. ~~El~~licitation of Arab and Muslim solidarity (hence the hijacking is not openly condemned. It is covertly condemned through appeals to values accepted by Arabs and Muslims).

The "textual profile" along with the resulting function of each of the two Arabic texts will be taken as the background against which the students' translations will be analyzed.

7.2 SLT and TLT Comparison, and the Statement of Quality

From the 86 students' translations assessed intuitively (see sections 7.4 and 7.5 blow), 30 translations have been randomly chosen from the Very Good, Good/Average and Weak columns. Five translations of Text 1 and the same number from Text 2 have been taken from each of the three levels of FST. Five Ph.D students' translations have been added to form the total of 35 translations. These translations will be submitted to an analysis along the dimensions of the Translation Quality Assessment Situational/Textual Model.

7.2.1 SLT and TLT Comparison: Text 1

As a result of the analysis of the translator trainees translations along the situational/textual dimensions, and their comparison with the source Text 1, the following mismatches have been discovered:

I . Orientation of Discourse:

Fewer orality markers are noted in the translations in comparison to the original text. They are most noticeable in the presence or absence of the following linguistic and textual features:

-- appositive structures; out of 17 translations only 4 translations have maintained the appositive structures, and none of them from the first year (2.5; 3.2, 3.7; 5.2).

-- comment parentheses; out of 17 translations only 4 translations have preseved all comment parentheses as found in the SLT (1.1, 1.3; 3.8; 5.2).

-- complex subordinated constructions; first and third year students vary in their use of complex structures. First year students seem to resort to such phenomenon only as a consequence of SL-bound translation, i.e. the fact of not being able to detach oneself from the SL text. This very often results in loosely structured clauses which may be noticed in most of the first year students and some of the other students of different levels. The use of complex constructions by third year students seems to be a result of a long exposure to and insistance on formal style. This could sometimes give

undesirable results, mainly when the original text is more casual or consultative than formal. The second year students vary between the two.

-- elliptical constructions (see genre/text).

-- one instance of anacolutha (i.e. syntactic break in grammatical sequences within a sentence), (2.4).

II. Participation

Ellicitation of addressees' participation is not consistent in most of the translations. Out of seven third year and Ph.D students, only one (3.7), clearly marks addressees' involvement. First year and second year students vary between using first person plural personal/object pronouns (i.e. "we" and "us") in a negative conjunction, as in 1.8, 1.9, 1.1, 1.3, 2.4, 2.6, 2.14; and/or employing "anyone", "anybody" in different constructions, as in 2.2. "We" as a device appealing to solidarity and togetherness has, in many instances, been used in a more formal way; notice for instance the following examples taken from 2.5, 3.2, 3.4, and 5.2:

1. becomes greater when we bear in mind that the...
2. Nobody knows so far, not even the
3. No one as yet know and the Parliament itself does not ...
5. So far, nobody knows, and the House itself does not

The use of the pronoun "we" in "we do not know", in juxtaposition with the appositive structure, "and the House of Representative itself does

not know," is functional. It serves in the SLT to solicit the addressees' participation, appeal to their solidarity, and orient their attention to the subject matter. Out of seventeen students' translations, only four translations mark this function, 2.5, 3.2, 3.7 5.2.

III. Social Role Relationship

On this dimension, the translated texts (TT) have been found to be either equally explicit, or less explicit in their interaction with the addressees. The source text 1 is said to be explicit in the sense that it is clear in its manipulation of the addressees through highlighting the issue, i.e. orienting their attention to the debated subject, and heightening the addressees' interest through action orientation, i.e. suggestions of steps to be taken in order to achieve the intended aim. For this purpose, the original writer uses a condescending tone in his attempt to explain to a wide range of readership the complexities of the operation taking place in the political quarters.

The analysis of TTs along this dimension has revealed that the majority of the translations (thirteen out of seventeen), are less explicit in their manipulation. Some of the third year and Ph.D students tend to use more complex constructions, and more passives, neglecting, thus the condescending tone of the original. Notice for instance (in 5.1, 5.2, 3.7, 3.8, 3.4, and 1.8) (+ formal) lexis, inconsistency in the use of expalnatory phrases, more use of the passives instead of alternating between the passive and the active as

in the SLT1, and more complex structures which sometimes obscure the intended effect. On the other hand, weak translations are marked with an absence of clauses of purpose, i.e. prepositional phrases used initially to mark the purpose for what is being said, in addition to their function as a linking device between paragraphs. The degree of lack of manipulative power in weaker translations is manifest in the intensive use of complex construction that sometimes verges on awkwardness or unintelligibility (see for instance 1.1, 1.3, 1.10, 2.14, 3.2, and 3.10).

IV. Presentation of Information

The analysis of the translated texts along this dimension shows that inconsistency of style is the predominant factor in most of the translations. Unlike the SLT1 which seems to maintain a certain balance between formal and consultative styles, the information in TTs seems to be presented in one or more different styles.

Four out of seventeen translations are, in their different ways, more formal than the original (1.8, 3.7, 3.8, and 5.2). Four other translations seem to relatively maintain the formal/consultative style of the SLT1 (2.2, 2.4, 3.4, and 5.1), while three fluctuate between formal and consultative, sometimes verging on the casual (1.9, 2.5, and 2.6). The rest are less formal than the original (1.1, 1.3, 1.10, 2.14, 3.2, and 3.10). The linguistic correlates to the different styles found to exist in the translations vary from (+ formal) lexis, complex constructions, intensive passivization to (- formal) lexis, complex but loosely structured clauses, loosely connected structures,

internally within the boundaries of clauses and sentences, and externally, beyond sentence boundaries and with the external world.

V. Genre/Type

The analysis has revealed that the majority of the translations, nine out of seventeen, show different degrees of argumentative structure negligence. Even among the eight translations that seem to have maintained the argumentative structure (1.8, 1.9, 2.2, 3.4, 3.7, 3.8, 5.1, and 5.2), differences in the way the structure of the text has been preserved, can be noticed (a marked difference could be seen between 3.7, 5.2 and the rest of the translations). For instance the communicative dynamism of certain passages in the text is marked in Arabic through the element of repetition. In text1 this is marked through the repetition of the lexical items المسؤولية، القضية والهدف, al-mas'ūliyya, al-qāḍiyya, and al-hadaf, "the responsibility, the issue, and the aim". The fronting of المسؤولية al-mas'ūliyya in most of the translations has derobed it of its rhematic importance, and has, consequently caused the disruption of the thematic progression. Another example of text structure disruption concerns the ways in which different structures are built up in order to achieve a dramatic effect. The building up of climatic elements in paragraphs two and three are sustained through the use of negative parallelism and repetition (repetition of key words for emphasis, e.g., القضية, al-qāḍiyya, "the issue" and الهدف, al-hadaf, "the aim"). This rhetorical aspect seems to disappear in most of the translations. It is either pronominalized, replaced by a partial

synonymy, or it is so integrated in a complex, multiple embedded clauses that it loses its intended effect. Furthermore still, the building up of arguments, their substantiation through warranted propositions are maintained in the SLT1 through thematic progression, textual cohesion and coherence. These elements do not seem to be fully maintained in almost all the translations.

7.2.2 Statement of Quality

It may be noticed from the comparison of the SL Text1 with the TL translations in section 7.3.1 above that mismatches are practically found on all five dimensions of language use. While these mismatches could be found to be marked only partially on the dimensions of Orientation of Discourse and Participation, in some translations, they can be seen to be more significant on the other three dimensions. The analysis of the SLT has revealed that the text function is to persuade through suggesting and orienting (attention and action). This textual function does not seem to have been fully maintained in most of the translations, mainly first and second year students' translations. This, however, does not exclude some of the third year students' translations (see for instance 3.2; 3.10).

On the dimensions of Orientation of Discourse and Participation, the SLT use of elements of orality, and the attempt to elicit the addressee's participation in order to involve him in the debated issue, have not been found to be consistent in the students'

translations. This has given way to more emphasis on the informational direction of discourse on the expense of the interactional direction.

On the dimension of Social Role Relationship, the manipulation of the addressee is less marked in most of the translations than it is in the SLT. The condescending tone of the SLT seems to disappear in the majority of the translations as a result of the emphasis on the informational aspect of the text (see for instance 3.7, 5.1, and 5.2).

All through the spectrum of the translations, the information has been presented in different types of style. The balance between formal and consultative as found in the SLT has not been consistently maintained. On the dimension of Presentation of Information, the analysis has revealed that the style of the translations vary from more formal (1.8; 3.7; and 5.2), formal/consultative (2.2, 2.4; 3.4; 5.1), formal/consultative verging on the casual (1.9; 2.5, 2.6; 3.16), to less formal (the rest of the translations).

On Genre/Type dimension, the translations generally appear to have neglected the argumentative structure of the original text, thus causing the translations to divert from the purpose of writing the text on the first place. As it has been mentioned in section 7.3.1, not all the translations have failed in recognizing the significance of text structure. The intention of the original text to orient addressees' attention towards the main political issue, and to influence the general public opinion into adopting the writer's views on the subject of privatisation, has not been realized in the different translations to the same degree as it has been in the SLT. However, some translations have, with a varying degree of

approximation, been found to maintain the SLT function (1.8, 1.9; 2.2; 3.7, 3.8; 5.1 and 5.2).

In addition to these dimensional mismatches, other errors referred to as overt errors, have been found to prevail mainly in the first, second and some of the third and Ph.d students translations (for more details on overt errors, see section 7.3).

7.2.3 SLT and TLT Comparison: Text2

The analysis of the students' translations of Text2, along the Situational/Textual dimensions has revealed the following (mis)matches:

I. Orientation of Discourse

Fewer orality markers could be found to exist in most of good to average translations of Text2 (1.9; 2.5, 2.6; 3.2, 3.7, 3.16; 5.3, and 5.4). Markers of orality could be seen in the presence or absence of the following linguistic and textual features:

--absence of E.S.M, e.g., brotherhood markers and emotive adjectives. Out of eight good to average translations, only two (5.3 and 5.4) mark the presence of brotherhood. The emotive adjectives such as *الجماعير العربية* "the Arab masses", *القضية المقدسة*, "the sacred issue", *الانتفاضة الباسلة*, "the heroic ~Intifada'", etc.. are either transferred faithfully, or reduced in number.

--presence of loosely structured and sometimes loosely connected clauses. The ambiguous function of *و*, "and", sometimes as a

coordinated conjunct, and some other time as a punctuation marker, seems to create translation problems for most of the students. A faithful transfer, or what is referred to in this study as SL-bound translation, usually result in looseness of structure and connectivity internal and external.

--presence of appositive structure. Six out of eight good to average translations have marked the presence of appositive structures, it is only absent from 1.9, and 2.6.

Weak translations mark orality to a greater degree than could be found in good to average translations.

--presence of E.S.M in most of the weak translations except 2.2, 2.4, and 2.14 that exhibit an absence of brotherhood markers.

--presence of uncompleted sentences as in 1.1, 1.3, 1.8; and 3.4.

--presence of contractions in 1.10; 3.10.

--presence of long, complex, loosely structured and loosely connected sentences in almost all of the weak translations.

--presence of redundant repetition as in 2.2, and what is referred here as "forced" ellipsis e.g. "No need to confirm" in 2.2 and 2.4.

II. Participation

Good to average translations show fewer traces of addressee's participation, whereas weak translations vary between inconsistency in addressee' participation and a marked addressee's participation as in 3.4, 3.10, and 5.5.

--the presence of emotive subjectivity markers (E.S.M) is not

consistent in most of the first and second year students (1.1, 1.3, 1.8, 1.10; 2.2, 2.4, and 2.14). Third year students (3.4, and 3.10), and the Ph.D student 5.5, seem to make the appeal to the addressee's participation more obvious through the use of the first person personal "we", possessive "our" and object "us" pronouns.

III. Social Role Relationship

The role of the unbiased judge urging the fellow Arabs and Muslims to perceive of the dangers of the hijacking and the damage caused to the "Intifada", is not always maintained in most of the translations. The degree of this role preservation in the translated texts varies from not fully maintained, confused or obscured to less marked.

Out of eighteen translations, only 5.3 and 5.4 seem to have managed to preserve to a great extent the role of the original writer. The difference between 5.3 and 5.4 lies in the semantics of such verbs as "demand", "make", or "necessitate", "call for/on" and "urge". The ST verbs ~~يوجب~~ and ~~يجل~~, are used in contrastive parallelism, as a vehicle for the subtle condemnation of the act of hijacking and the open praising of the Kuwaitis' stand and the achievement of the "Intifada".

The condemnation of the act of hijacking is not made direct in the SLT. It is made through an appeal to the addressee's beliefs (Islam), and to generally accepted values. In Arabic this is achieved through the medium of repetition for emphasis, using the idiomatic construction ~~لاداعي للتأكيد~~, "there is no need to confirm" repeated

twice. This particular rhetorical feature has not been successfully rendered in most of the translations. The failure to adequately transfer such a feature could be related to wrong restructuring of the whole sentence, wrong idiomatic choice, e.g., "there is no point/no use" in 2.6, "It is obvious that.." in 2.5, and "As a matter of fact, hijacking..." in 3.16. The complexity of this particular sentence, in addition to the following long, multi-embedded sentence in the ST, and the attempt to transfer them faithfully, have contributed to the failure of effectively achieving the ST implication, that of the indirect condemnation of the hijacking.

IV. Presentation of Information

On this dimension, the information in the translated texts does not seem to be presented in an alternating formal/consultative style, but rather, it is presented in one, sometimes two, and often three different types of style. For instance, in 1.9, the information is presented in a formal style, but certain disruptions occur; e.g., there is an intensive coordination as a result of being SL-bound, in some other instances in the same translation, the clauses are found to be loosely structured and loosely connected. The translations 2.5 and 2.6 attempt to keep the balance between formal and consultative styles but the balance is, in some instances, blurred by certain lexical and syntactic wrong selections. Three third year students' translations (3.2, 3.7, and 3.16) and two Ph.D students' translations (5.3 and 5.4) show an alternation between more formal and formal/consultative. This

is characterized by the presence of (+ formal) lexis, more use of abstraction, and fewer loosely structured and connected clauses. The flow of information is sometimes confused or obscured through distant cohesion (in 3.2, for instance, it is difficult to know whether the subject of the string of the action verbs is the hijacking or the "Intifada"), or through wrong use of coordination and ellipsis as in 3.7.

V. Genre/Type

The analysis of the translated texts along this dimension has revealed serious mismatches. What seems to have been mostly neglected in the majority of the translations is the text structure that marks a text as belonging to a particular type rather than the other. However, other related features that also contribute to the constructions of text, have been totally or partially left unmarked. Important among these factors are theme dynamics, textual cohesion, parallelism and functional repetition, and most importantly the build up towards the climactic effect which in argumentation is referred to as the claim.

The majority of the translations, ten out of eighteen, have not clearly demonstrated the argumentative structure of Text2. This lack of clarity is mostly related to the disruption caused to thematic progression, the inconsistency of textual cohesion, namely that of logical connectivity, reference, and ellipsis (see for instance, 1.1, 1.3, 1.8, and 1.10). Thematic progression disruption and textual

cohesion ambiguity is often a result of restructuring, and paraphrasing, a strategy usually adopted by students in order to overcome SL text sentence complexity (see for instance 1.9, and 5.5).

The climactic build up is achieved in Text2 through contrastive parallelism, a set of active verbs collocated with abstractive nouns, and through pragmatic presupposition. In most of the TTs, this is usually confused or obscured through the use of complex constructions, loosely structured and loosely connected clauses. Such a confusion or obscurity happens as a result of restructuring, paraphrasing and sometimes as a breach of the TL system (2.2, 2.4, 2.14; 3.4, 3.10, and 5.5).

Non-dimensional errors, i.e. overt errors, have been found to exist mostly in the first, second year students' translations, and also in some of the third year students' translations. One Ph.D student's translation, also displays some overt errors (5.5) (This will be dealt with in section 7.3 below).

7.2.4 Statement of Quality

The comparison of the SL Text2 with the TL translations in 7.2.3 above, shows that there are mismatches on all five dimensions of language use. Mismatches, however, are found to be more significant on the dimensions of Social Role Relationship, Presentation of Information, and especially on Genre/Type. These mismatches have caused the majority of the translated texts function to be at *best* confused and obscured and at *worst* lacking the clarity of the original.

The analysis of the original SL Text2 has given the following functions:

a) an attempt to orient the addressees' attention to the dangers of hijacking in general, and hijacking an Arab and Muslim airliner by "Muslim revolutionaries" in particular.

b) an attempt to persuade the addressees that hijacking at this very moment of the "Intifada" international recognition, is tremendously harmful and damaging to the Palestinian issue.

This textual function has been either confused, disrupted or not clearly specified in most of the translations including a Ph.D students' translation (5.5).

On the dimension of Orientation of Discourse, the presence of orality is less markedly obvious in good to average translations than it is in the original text. Weak translations, however, are characterized by marked orality. On Participation, fewer traces of addressee's participation have been found to exist in good to average translations. This clearly indicates that more importance has been given to the informational direction of the discourse than to the interactional.

On the dimension of Social Role Relationship, the role of the unbiased judge who urges the fellow Arabs and Muslims to perceive of the dangers of hijacking and its negative effect on the "Intifada", is not fully maintained in good to average translations and less so in weak translations. The appeal to solidarity and the effect intended to influence addressees' judgement seem to be less apparent in good to average translations, and more confused or obscured in weak

translations. Here again, more importance is given to the informational direction, mainly in good to average translations.

On the dimension of Presentation of Information, a variety of different types of style may be noticed all through the evaluation grid, i.e. from the good to the very weak translations, and sometimes within a single translation. Few translations have kept the balance between formal/consultative styles as could be found in the SLT; and even in these translations, (2.5, 2.6), instances of style confusion emerge (e.g., 2.5 is marked by wrong lexical selection, and 2.6 by wrong restructuring which affect and weakens the original impact). Most good to average translations seem to be more formal in some instances than the SLT (for example 1.9, 3.2, 3.7, 3.16). 5.3, and 5.4 seem to have managed to relatively keep the balance between formal/consultative.

Apart from 5.3, and 5.4 which have maintained the argumentative structure of Text2, to a large extent, most of good to average translations do not seem to fully mark the text as belonging to the argumentative text type. Weak translations are characterized by a lack of clarity and text structure disruption. These have deeply affected the intended purpose of the original text. As mentioned earlier in this paragraph, not all the translations have failed to recognize the significance of text structure. The intention of the original text to orient addressees' attention towards the dangers of hijacking and the tremendous damage inflicted on the "Intifada" has, with varying degree of precision, been preserved in some translations (namely in 5.3 and 5.4; 3.2, 3.7, and 3.16; 2.5, 2.6; and 1.9).

7.3 Students' errors at the various levels of language

The analysis of the students' translations along the Situational/Textual dimensions, has discovered that errors are not made only at the level of lexis and syntax but most importantly at the textual level, and in particular text structure negligence.

7.3.1 Lexis: at the level of lexis students seem to have difficulties in the following areas:

lexical selection:

Text1: 5.1 ~~مبدئية~~, ideological; 1.10 ~~لا يتخذ المجلس قراراً فيها~~, does not claim any resolution; 1.1 ~~المصعوبة~~, delicacy; 3.10 ~~ضخمة~~, large.

Text2: 1.3 ~~تتباين~~, contrasting; ~~ادعاء الثورية~~, pretending of revolution;

collocation:

Text1: 1.9 ~~الانتفاضة الجسلة~~, brave uprising; 3.8 ~~ملقاة على عاتق الحكومة~~, falls on the government; 3.7 ~~المؤسسات الموفرة للخير~~, lucrative institutions..

terminology:

Text1: 3.2 ~~مذكرة~~, circular; 3.7 ~~الفروع البرلمانية~~, Parliamentary coalition; 3.10 ~~الحكومة~~, cabinet..

Text2: 2.2 ~~الإعلامي~~, information; 3.2 ~~الإعلامي~~, mediatic..

7.3.2 Syntax: at this level, the difficulty of transfer is greater. Arab students translating into English seem to find it difficult to comply with the English word order, tense and aspect, conjunctions, coordination and subordination, prepositions and articles. The difficulty becomes greater, mainly for beginner trainees, when they are faced with the transfer of complex constructions. The students do not seem to adopt appropriate strategies that would help them find a way out of sentence complexity, e.g., sequencing the concepts involved in a long complex Arabic sentence through exploiting the English linking system: punctuation and cohesion. Let us take as an example the frequently occurring error of translation in Arabic-English translation, i.e., wrong selection of conjunction.

Conjunction in general and coordinate conjunction in particular, seem to create a considerable difficulty for the translator trainees. According to Schiffrin (1986), 'and' is a 'coordinate conjunction which binds together two or more grammatically equivalent constituents.' (Schiffrin 1986: 41). The main characteristic of such an element is to join together equivalent structures. Most of the first and second year students conjoined two grammatically unequivalent structures. Some of the third year students' translations also display what House (1981) calls 'overt erroneous errors' (House 1982: 57). Consider for example, this extract from student 3.4's translation of Text 1:

وعلى ضوء هذه الأهداف جميعها يجب بحث كل مشروع تنقدم
به الحكومة لتمويل مؤسسة من القطاع العام إلى القطاع
الخاص.

"In the light of all these aims, it is necessary to consider every project introduced by the government *and* aiming to the transfer of an institution."

The Arabic sentence does not involve any coordination. On the contrary the relation existing between the clauses of the sentence is that of causality. The English rendering of the sentence fails in that respect since translating the Arabic causality marker as 'and' has caused information disturbance and probably have confused the meaning of the sentence.

7.3.3 Textual level: It could be hypothesized at this point, that the elements of textuality are not being largely emphasized in the training and most probably in the assessment of the students' translations. The abbreviated remarks on the margins of the students' translations relate mostly to grammar and lexis. This is not to say that the training is the sole responsible for students failure to deal with such a problem. Other factors are involved, mainly the inherent complexity of textuality which is strongly tied to the precepts of the speech or discourse community culture. To understand these factors one has to be aware of the fact that, in order to achieve its communicative aim, a text draws upon linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. these linguistic and extra-linguistic factors become so entangled that the students seem to lose sight of the real function of the text to be translated. The following are some of the textual components that create difficulties for translator trainees:

--Thematic progression, i.e., 'failure to preserve the ST macrothematic pattern in the translation' (Tirkkonen-Condit 1982: 28)

--Cohesion/ coherence: problems of intra/inter-cohesive ties and the problems of logical sequencing,

--Breach of text type characteristics, e.g., in an argumentative text the claim is downplayed in most of the translations. Thus, nominalization, and prepositional phrase initial--elements used as a means for abstraction and objecivization--are not usually respected in the students' translations.

--Neglect of Author's implications and assumptions

Text1, Line 2 : ... ثمى نحو بل كثير من مؤسسات

Text1, Line 20: ... كما حدث بالفعل في بعض القطاعات ...

Text2, Lines 3-4 ... اللهم إلا إذا كان تفاؤل الإخوة الفلسطينيين ...

Text2, Line 26 ... إلى متابعة مناجات الجابرية

What is implied in these examples does not seem to be grasped by the majority of the trainees.

--Cross-reference, i.e. the students' error in translating what is implicitly understood in the SL text by the same equivalent which in the TL needs to be explicitly expressed (compare Text2 with 1.9, for instance).

--Lexical repetition:

Arabic construction system allows lexical repetition for various purposes, the most important of which are emphasis, lexical cohesion and thematic prominence. Consider the following example from Text1 and Text2:

Text1, Line 1: المسؤولية
 Text1, Line 6: القضية
 Text2, Line 4: لاداعي للتأكيد
 Text2, Line 6: لاداعي للتأكيد

In both texts, lexical repetition seems to be used as a means to pave the way for the introduction of the claim. In addition, it is used as a factor contributing to the dramatic effect which is wished to be created by such constructions. The claim introduced thus, seems to be placed in a more dramatic setting than if it has been introduced otherwise. The majority of the translations under study seem to have either missed this point, or confused/obscured it through various linguistic and textual errors.

7.4 Intuition and "objective" translation quality assessment

7.4.1 An impressionistic, intuitive assessment of the students' translations

There seems to be a wide consensus concerning the general characteristics of a good translation, since teachers seem to expect students' translations to be accurate, fluent and natural. These general qualities form the basis of many translation quality assessment approaches (Nida 1964 and Nida and Taber 1969). The first of the above three qualities, is not so difficult to achieve. Tirkkonen-Condit (1982) states that 'accuracy of propositional

content and terminology are relatively easy to establish.' (Tirkkonen-Condit 1982:3). However, The two other qualities, fluency and naturalness seem to present enormous difficulties for the trainees, at least at their early stages of translation training. Fluency and naturalness require as Tirkkonen-Condit puts it 'compliance with the TL norms' (ibid), since the general assumption concerning translation quality assessment is that a translation should respect the systems usually accepted as norm in the TL. A glance at the analysis results of the advanced students' translations reveals that these last qualities, fluency and naturalness, are not fully developed in the translations.

Fluency and naturalness may be said to be normally assessed in an intuitive or comparative manner, i.e., the assessment may be based on the judge's linguistic, social and cultural knowledge, and on his experience as a translation teacher. The evaluation of translations in term of good or weak may be carried out in their comparison with the best translations provided by the students themselves. The assessment, thus, seems to be based on the impression that the translation makes on the addressees, in our case on the evaluators themselves.

Assessments of students' work based on impressionistic judgement often varies from ^{on} evaluator to another. From the results of an assessment based entirely on the personal judgements of three judges (see tables 1 to 6 in Appendix C), it may be noticed that though there is a general agreement on certain translations, mainly those classified as weak or very weak, some discrepancies may be found among the results of the three judges. For instance, 5.1 a Ph.D students has

been classified as very good by judges 1 and 3, but weak by judge 2. Student 1.6 is considered to be good to average by judge 1 but not by the two other judges. The discrepancy between judge 1 and judge 3 does not seem to be too wide but the gap widens between judge 1, judge 3 and judge 2. The difference could be related to the fact that judges 1 and 3 have had a certain degree of experience in evaluating Arabic students translations, while judge 2, an M.A student and teacher of English and Arabic to non-native speakers of the languages, does not seem to be familiar with translation evaluation. Nevertheless, the judgement of the third assessor seems to be important in that it is based entirely on the knowledge of the judge's own native language, English.

However, such a discrepancy could not be related simply to the fact that judge 1 is a teacher of translation, judge 2 is a postgraduate student of Arabic, and judge 3 a Ph.D student undertaking a research on translation quality assessment. A survey of some translator trainers in the Fahd School of Translation, in Morocco shows that most of the translation teachers rely on their linguistic competence in their assessment of students translations. There is, however, a system of grading, but as one of the teachers of the school put it, intuition and experience in the field of translation training play a major role in translation assessment.

The discrepancy that arises when assessing the same translations by various evaluators is indicative of the fact that intuitions are not always shared. People react to the same text in different ways. The following experiment conducted while collecting the data in FST,

will serve as an example that may clarify the above claim.

The researcher's translation of the second Arabic editorial was given to three of the teachers at FST. Two of them are native speakers of Arabic and the third is an English teacher with a long experience in the field of translation from Arabic into English. They were asked to read the English translation and answer the following questions:

- 1) Do you think that the text conveys a feeling of togetherness/solidarity?
- 2) Does it aim at reader orienting?
- 3) Is the condemnation of the hijacking overt or covert?
- 4) Do you think that this is an argumentative text?

For ease of reference, the two Arab teachers will be referred to as A1 and A2, and the English teacher as E1. A1 and A2's answers to questions 1 and 2 are both positive while E's answer is negative. A1's comment on question 3 is that through the use of such devices as justification and reader-orientation, the text attempts to persuade the reader that what has been done is wrong. This comment covers the last question as well. A2 thinks that the condemnation is overt and that the text is argumentative since it attempts to persuade the reader that hijacking is a condemnable act.

E1. refrained from answering the third question. But in a long comment, he stated that these kinds of editorials are oriented to a specific audience. In rendering such an editorial into English, the target audience has to be taken into consideration. Therefore, a large number of specific phrases that either show solidarity or reveal

writer's viewpoint should be replaced by familiar phrases that may cause in the target audience the required effect. For example the phrase 'Kuwaiti or Palestinian brother' does not appeal to Westerners. Thus, for the purpose of argumentation, the text has to achieve universal means of persuasion, i.e., it has to appeal to the universal audience at large, using linguistic means that are not specifically oriented to the Arab community alone. Otherwise, El. continues, a Westerner would feel that it is a matter of inter-Arab dispute that does not concern the world community at large.

The difference in judgements of a particular text, as shown in tables 1-6 in Appendix C, and as illustrated by the above-mentioned experiment, could be indicative of the difficulties surrounding the attempts to define 'norm'. Tirkkonen-Condit (1982) referring to Enkvist (1973: 22) hypothesizes that 'comparison between a text and the "norm" gives variable results, if there is not unanimity about the norm.' (Tirkkonen-Condit 1982: 4).

However, in translation, compliance with TL norm, even when a "norm" is commonly accepted, is not the only problem faced in the pursuit for a relatively objective model for translation quality assessment. Another, equally important problem is required to consider in translation quality assessment: the problem of equivalence viewed in connection with the SL text (cf; Tirkkonen-Condit 1982: 4).

7.4.2 Intuitive assessment vs. translation quality assessment

The impressionistic, intuitive assessment seems to have been based on some general, abstract notions of accuracy, appropriateness, idiomacity, precision and naturalness. For this end it has taken as its grid the traditional order of descendance from excellent to very weak. The majority of the translator trainees' translations occupied the weak column. The three judges' intuitive assessment indicates that disagreement in what constitutes a good or bad translation may arise in the course of comparing the results of different assessors.

Evaluating students' translations along some objectives dimensions such as the situational/textual dimensions may bridge the gap between different evaluators. However, for further test of this hypothesis, more experiments are needed. These experiments should account for more variables such as adding the number of judges, diversifying the number of students, and presenting for translation more than one type of texts.

As it may be noticed from the two tables below, the difference between the results obtained from the intuitive assessment and those arrived at through the analysis of the students' translations along the situational/textual dimensions do not appear to be substantial. However, it may be said that intuitive assessment, unlike the dimensional assessment, does not tell us much about the texts to be translated, and the failure or in that matter, the successes of the translations. (Tables 1 and 2 will shown on the following pages.)

Intuitive assessment results
of Text1 and Text2

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD/AVERAGE	WEAK	VERY WEAK
		1.9 1.1 1.6 1.2 1.5	1.3 1.4 1.7 1.8 1.10 1.11	
		2.5 2.6 2.16	2.1 2.2 2.3 2.4 2.7 2.8 2.9 2.10 2.11 2.12 2.13 2.14	
		3.1 3.2 3.3 3.7 3.16	3.4 3.5 3.6 3.8 3.9 3.10 3.11 3.12 3.13 3.14 3.15	
		5.1 5.2 5.3 5.4	5.5	

Table 1

Translation quality assessment results
of Text1 and Text2

Translation quality assessment results
of Text1 and Text2

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD/AVERAGE	WEAK	VERY WEAK
		1.8	1.1	
		1.9	1.3	
			1.10	
		2.5		
		2.6	2.2	
			2.4	
			2.14	
		3.2	3.4	
		3.7	3.10	
		3.16		
		5.1	5.5	
		5.2		
		5.3		
		5.4		

Table 2

7.6 Implications for translators training

The results obtained from the analysis of the 35 students' translations along the Situational/Textual dimensions could serve as guidelines for the training of translators in Arab universities and institutes. This could be illustrated through the discussion of the following points.

7.6.1 Arabic-English translation failures

Thirty five students' translations have been analyzed along the situational/textual dimensions model. The comparison of the translations "textual profiles" with those of Text1 and Text2 has displayed a variety of (mis)matches on all the eight dimensions. It may be noticed however, that all the mismatches have been found to occur on the dimensions of use. The dimensions of Geographical Origin and Time are unmarked in both the SLT and the TLT, since both use Modern Standard Arabic and Standard British English respectively. On the dimension of Social Class, however, one may venture and say that most of the students seem to be less knowledgeable in the subject matter compared to the original writer. This may be said to have its impact on the use or misuse of certain pragmatic features of the text, e.g., many translations have totally or partially neglected the impact of certain presuppositions, appeals to solidarity, and reference to beliefs and values.

On the dimensions of use, the analysis has revealed that the translations under study vary from equivalently similar to the SLT, to linguistically and textually different. Similarities and differences could also be seen to exist among the translations of different levels, i.e., first year, second year, third year, and Ph.D students' translations. For example, not much difference is recorded at the dimensions of orientation of discourse and participation. Whereas at the dimensions of social role relationship, presentation of information and in particular genre/type the differences are significant.

Most of the translations analyzed along the dimensions of language use, showed consistent trends supporting the hypothesis B in the introductory chapter, section 1.2. What may be noticed in the process of analysis, is that while first year students struggle with lexis and syntax transfer, third year and Ph.D students fall into the trap of selection. The latter seem to have a considerable language repertoire from which wrong selection is often performed. Text1, for example, uses الهدف, al-hadaf in its simplest meaning, i.e. "aim", whereas a considerable number of advanced students chose "objectives, ends, purpose", as in 3.2, 3.7, and 3.8, or as in 5.1 where both "objective" and "aim" are used. Such a practice has resulted in the negligence of textual viability, i.e. complying with the TL norm.

For House (1981), the ST "textual profile" has to be taken as the norm against which the TT "textual profile" is to be measured. If the norm is to be taken as an accepted piece of discourse used in particular occasions to serve defined purposes, then the ST "textual

profile" could not entirely be taken as the norm. House (1981) maintains that breaches of the norm are dimensional, that a mismatch on any dimension inevitably constitutes an error which is referred to as "covert erroneous error". For such an error to occur, it should be noted that a) 'the cultural distance between the respective source and target language communities is not substantial,' b) the differences between the two languages are such that 'they can largely be overcome in translation', and c) the translation is not used for a purpose different from that of the original, e.g., translation of major works for secondary school students (see House 1981: 58).

Such conditions do not seem to leave room for differences that exist between norms of different languages. Though English and German as House hypothesizes are similar in their deep structure, they probably differ in the ways different genres are structurally and textually organised. Let us take the example of letter writing in English and French, the two languages I am familiar with. An application for a job or a letter sent to senior administrators, has to follow a particular norm which in French, could be said to be characterized by flattery and show of respect, e.g.,

"J'ai l'honneur de solliciter de votre bienveillance de
m'accorder ..."

The literal translation of this type of letter writing could be as follows:

"I have the honour to seek from your benevolence to accept my ..."

whereas in English the application is straight forward:

" I would like to apply for the ... advertised in"

In languages such as Arabic and English, the differences could be even greater. Consequently, it could be hypothesized at this stage, that in translation what should be looked for is not only translation equivalence: semantic, pragmatic and textual, but also translation viability, i.e. the norm that prevails in the discourse community of the TL.

Translation training could make use of the Situational/Textual modal not only in the assessment of the translation quality but also in the classification and grading of the texts to be used in the course. Much importance could be given to different text types in the SL and their counterparts in the TL. Basing their courses on potential mismatches that occur on the dimensions of the model, and mainly those pertaining to Genre/Type dimension, may prove to be beneficial and rewarding to both students and teachers.

The resultant "textual profiles" could not be said to be comprehensively representative of the text type used in this study, first because the number of texts used is small and second because the analysis has been limited to one text form, editorials. Further research could be carried out on different other forms of

argumentative text types, such as letters to the editor, religious/political speeches, oral or written debates about particular issues of national interest, or general debates conducted in the classrooms by students of different ages. Alternatively, other types of texts such as expository (narrative or descriptive), or instructive texts could be analyzed along the Situational/Textual dimensions. The model, moreover, can be tried on different types of text translated by professional translators in order to see a) to what extent textuality in general and text structure in particular are preserved in the TL, and b) how approximate the translations are to the TL norm.

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APPENDIX

أمام مسؤولية الخوصصة

1 المسؤولية الملقاة على عاتق مجلس النواب مسؤولية ضخمة، وهي
2 المتعلقة بالخصوصية أي تحويل كثير من المؤسسات القطاع العام إلى القطاع
3 الخاص. ولا نعرف حتى الآن، (مجلس النواب) أيضا لا يعرف، هذه
4 المؤسسات قبل أن تتقدم الحكومة بمشاريع القوانين التي تتيح هذه
5 الخصوصية.

6 ولكن مسؤولية مجلس النواب تعظم إذا عرفنا أن القضية ليست قضية
7 مبدئية، بمعنى أن التحويل قرار ينطبق على كل المؤسسات وخاصة التي
8 ترشحها الحكومة لذلك. بل القضية قضية مصلحة اقتصادية وطنية.
9 والتحويل يدور مع المصلحة وجودا وعندما كما يقول المناطق. أي أن
10 المؤسسة التي تحلق مصلحة اقتصادية استثمارية وطنية في ظل القطاع
11 العام يجب أن تبقى تحت مسؤولية الدولة. (المؤسسة) التي فشل القطاع العام
12 في إدارتها وتسييرها وأصبحت عبئا على الدولة لا تحقق استثمارا جيدا ولا
13 تطورا اقتصاديا فهي التي ينظر في أمرها. ولا يتخذ المجلس قرارا فيها إلا
14 بعد بحث واستقصاء وروية.

15 ومن هنا تأتي صعوبة الضخامة المسؤولية الملقاة على عاتق المجلس
16 ومن الطبيعي أن تكون نفس المسؤولية وب نفس الصعوبة والضخامة ملقاة
17 على عاتق الحكومة. ذلك أن الهدف ليس هو تخلص الحكومة من مسؤولية
18 إدارة وتسيير مؤسسات ومكاتب، حتى تتخلص منها كيفما اتفق، وليس
19 الهدف كذلك تمكين بعض ذوي اليسار (أي الاغنياء) من تملك بعض
20 المؤسسات المدرة للخير، كما حدث بالفعل في بعض القطاعات، ولكن الهدف
21 هو تنمية الاستثمارات الاقتصادية، وتمكين هذه المؤسسات والمكاتب من
22 أداء رسالتها التنموية في ظروف سليمة. والهدف كذلك هو استفادة أكبر
23 عدد من المواطنين من ربح هذه المؤسسات، والهدف كذلك تنمية تشغيل أكبر
24 عدد من العمال. فالتشغيل نفسه استثمار ولو أدى إلى تقلص مردودية
25 الأرباح.

26 على ضوء هذه الأهداف جميعها يجب بحث كل مشروع تتقدم به الحكومة
27 لتحويل مؤسسة من القطاع العام إلى القطاع الخاص.

28 والبحث لا يمكن أن يكون بغير وسائل البحث. ولهذا فإن الحكومة مطالبة
29 بأن تقدم إلى مجلس النواب مع كل مشروع مذكرة تفصيلية تشرح فيها
30 الوضعية الاستراتيجية (تطورها إلى أعلى أو إلى أسفل) والوضعية المالية
31 والإدارية، ثم الأسباب التي دفعت الحكومة إلى ترشيح المؤسسة للتحويل من
32 العام إلى الخاص. (يجب) أن تتضمن المذكرة الرؤية المستقبلية للمؤسسة
33 حتى لا تقع في يد خواص من نوع الذين تحققت «المغربة» على يدهم.
34 المجلس (مطالب) بأن يراجع كل المعلومات التي تقدمها المذكرة، وأن يبحث
35 بجديّة الأسباب التي تعتمد عليها الحكومة في التحويل.

36 هذه المسؤولية تكثري (الملقاة) على عاتق الحكومة والمجلس معا. وكلها
37 تتعلق بتحويل كل مؤسسة أو مكتب. ومن البحث في النماذج والأمثلة التي
38 تقدمها الحكومة إلى البحث في عموم الموضوع. الحكومة والمجلس معا
39 (ينبغي) أن يكون عندهما تصور كامل لتطور التنمية الاقتصادية من جراء هذه
40 السياسة. الحكومة (مطالبة) بأن تقدم (مع قانون الاطار) دراسة شاملة
41 للاستثمارات الجديدة التي ستحدث، ولأفاق التنمية، وللمكاسب التي
42 ستحققها الخصوصية، وللمردودية ذلك على الأرباح، ولما تؤدي إليه
43 الخصوصية من تحرير للإدارة المغربية، وتسهيل في الإجراءات الإدارية
44 وتشغيل للعمال. هذه الدراسة ستكون ولا شك محل اختبار من الفرق
45 البرلمانية. ومحل دراسة ميدانية ومناقشة موضوعية.

46 إذا حدث ذلك فسيقع التحويل لصالح التنمية الاقتصادية. أما إذا حدث دون
47 بحث أو تحييص أو دراسة فسيكون - ولا شك في ذلك - مغامرة لا يدرى إلا الله
48 نتائجها.

49 إن المهم في قضية التنمية ليس هو تقليد الذين يؤمنون أو الذين
50 يخصصون. وإنما المهم هو مدى ما يحققه التأميم أو الخصوصية من فائدة
51 للمواطنين عموما ولتنمية الاقتصادية على الأخص. وكل مشروع لا يخلق
52

The responsibility for privatisation, that is, the transference of many public sector institutions to the private sector, is a heavy burden which encumbers the House of Representatives. Neither we nor the House yet know these institutions before the Government have introduced bills allowing this privatisation.

The responsibility of the House of Representatives gains in importance however when we know that the question is not ^{one} of principles, which means that the transference is a decision applicable to all of the institutions, particularly those designed by the Government. It is rather a question of national economic interest, and ~~as every~~ the logicians ^{say} transference always depends of interest. In other words, the institution which achieves national interest in economy and investment while belonging to the public sector should remain under the responsibility of the state. The institution which, on the other hand, the public sector has failed in running and which has become a burden for the state, achieving poor investment and no economic development, must be taken into consideration. The House shall not take any decision regarding these institutions before undertaking thoughtful investigation.

That is the reason why the responsibility which lays upon the shoulders of the House is so difficult and lofty to handle. And it is only natural that the Government should have the same responsibility, equally difficult and lofty. That is because the Government's aim is not to get rid of the responsibility for administering and running institutions and offices indiscriminately; neither it is the enabling of some wealthy individuals to own some lucrative institutions, which in effect happened in some sectors. The Government's aim is rather the development of economic investment and permitting these institutions and offices to carry out their mission in development in appropriate conditions. The aim is ^{growing} ~~also~~ large numbers of citizens to benefit from these institutions and increasing employment opportunities for the largest number of workers.

1.9

for employment, even if it leads to a diminishing in profits, is an investment in itself.

Every bill (should then be) introduced by the Government for the transfer of an institution from the public to the private sector should then be studied on the light of all these aims.

As a study cannot be carried out without its ~~proper~~ proper means, the Government is required to introduce to the House of Representatives, along with every bill, a detailed agenda explaining production conditions (their evolution upward or downward), financial and administrative conditions as well, then the reasons which ^{have} pushed the Government to nominate the institution for transfer from the public to the private sector. The agenda should include the prospects of the institution so that it will not fall at the hands of the type of individuals who have achieved the "Moroccanization". The House is required to review the information contained in the agenda and to study seriously the reasons the Government ^{has} relied upon in the transfer.

This great responsibility is one shared by both the Government and the House of Representatives and which concerns the transfer of every institution or office and the (study) transition from the study of models and examples presented by the Government to a more general study of the subject. Both the Government and the House should have a comprehensive conception of the evolution of economic development as a consequence of this policy. The Government is required to present (along with the framework law) a comprehensive study of the impending investments, of new horizons for development, of the gains which privatization can bring and the effects of these on profits, of the liberation of Moroccan administration thanks to privatization, and of the facilitating of administrative proceedings and of employment. This study will no doubt be the subject of tests by parliamentary groups and the subject of a field study and an objective debate.

If this were to happen, economic development would benefit from the transfer. But if it happened without thoughtfulness and without a serious study it (would) will no doubt be an adventure that only God knows what results it might have.

What is important about the question of development is not the aping of those who nationalize or privatize; it is rather ^{the extent to which} the citizens in general and economic development in particular can benefit from nationalization or privatization. And any project which does not achieve this goal is rejected.

The responsibility that the Council of MPs (CMP) has to shoulder is tremendous. So far neither we nor the CMP know the institutions to be privatized until the government (Govt.) proposes the laws allowing for privatization.

The responsibility of the CMP becomes even greater when we know that the problem is not an ideological one, that is, the decision of privatization applies to all institutions, particularly those nominated by the Govt. It is a problem of national economic benefit, and privatization goes with benefit, whether it is or not as logicians say. In other words, the institution that achieves national economic benefit in the public sector is to be under the responsibility of the state whereas the institutions to be considered for privatization is the one that the public sector has failed to run and has become a burden on the Govt; not achieving efficient investment or economic development. The CMP decides upon such an institution after a close investigation and detection of the case.

It is from here that the difficulty of the responsibility of the CMP stems. And it is natural that the same difficult responsibility to be shouldered by the Govt. Therefore, it is not the objective of the Govt. to escape the responsibility of running institutions and offices so that it can dispense with them. Neither is it the aim to enable the rich to own some benefit-bringing institutions as it actually happened in some sectors. Instead, the aim is to develop economic investment and enable these institutions and offices to perform their duties in favourable conditions. It is the aim also to make the largest possible number of people benefit from these institutions. In addition, the aim is to employ as many workers as possible. Employment itself is investment even if it reduces the profit margin.

In the light of all these objectives, every project that the Govt. advances for privatization should be studied.

The study cannot be done in any other way rather than using the known means of study. Therefore, the Govt. is required to raise a detailed report with every project showing the production condition (its development or decline), the financial and administrative situation together with the reasons behind nominating the institution for privatization. The report should include the future prospects of the institution so that it may not fall in the hands of certain people like those who achieved (Moroc...!!). The CPM is required to check all the information in the report and seriously examine the reasons for which the Govt. proposes privatization.

This great responsibility is to be shouldered by both the CPM and the Govt., and it is all about privatizing any institution or office. From looking at the examples that the Govt. proposes to the subject in general. Both the Govt. and the CPM should have a complete view of the progress of economic development as a result of this policy. The Govt. is required to present - with the frame law - a comprehensive study of the new investments that will take place, the horizons of development, the profits accruing from privatization, the effect of that on the profits, and the consequences of privatization regarding the liberation of Moroccan administration, facilitation of the administrative procedures, and the employment of workers. This proposal will, no doubt, be scrutinized by teams from the Parliament, as it will be an object of field study and objective discussion.

If that happens, privatization will be for the good of economic development. But if it happens without a close investigation, it will, no doubt, be an adventure whose results no one knows except God.

What is important in the problem of development is not to imitate those nationalize or privatize, rather it is the extent to which privatization or nationalization becomes beneficial to the people in general and to economic development in particular. Any project that does not achieve that aim is ~~rejected~~ rejected.

5.2

PRIVATISATION, A BURDEN FOR PARLIAMENT

The Moroccan House of Representatives takes on, ~~at present~~, a great responsibility: privatisation, that is the transfer of public sector assets to the private sector. So far, nobody knows, and the House itself does not know, which institutions will be privatised, not until the government has proposed a bill regulating privatisation.

However, the Parliament's responsibility becomes even greater not when the issue at hand is seen as a matter of principle, that is to say, the decision of transfer is automatically applicable to all public institutions, mainly those designated by the government. But *rather* when the issue is seen in terms of national economic interest which should be taken as a "yardstick" against which privatisation or otherwise can be measured. In other words, institutions that are economically profitable under public sector administration should remain under the state's control. While those that have failed to contribute to the country's economic development, and have become a burden on the state, should be considered for privatisation.

The Parliament, however, should not make any decision concerning privatisation until it has thoroughly considered, investigated, and discussed the issue. Hence the difficulty and the enormity of the responsibility placed on the House of Representatives. It is only natural that such a responsibility should also be placed on the government, since the ultimate aim is not for the government to rid itself of the responsibility of administering offices and institutions at random. Nor should it be to allow the well-off (i.e. the rich) to possess prosperous institutions, as it has, indeed, happened in some sectors. But the aim behind privatisation is to allow the development of economic profitability and enable firms and industry to play the role of promoting economy in a healthy atmosphere. It is, moreover, the gains that a great number of citizens enjoy, in addition to the promotion of job-opportunities for a great number of workers. Employment itself is an investment even if it causes a fall in profits.

In the light of all these aims, any government proposal to transfer an institution from the public sector to the private sector should be scrutinized. But this cannot be done without investigation tools. Therefore, the government is required to provide with every bill, a detailed explanation, presented in a governmental paper, of the productivity state (ascending or descending), the financial and administrative state, and the reasons for which a particular institution has been chosen to be transferred to the private sector. The paper should, however, foresee the future of the institution so that it will not fall in the hands of the elite, those that "Moroccanization" [as it stands today!] has been achieved on their hands. The House, then, is required to review all the information contained in the paper. It has to seriously investigate the reasons upon which the government choice is based.

This enormous responsibility requires both the government and the House to move from investigating particular examples to covering the whole issue of privatisation. Based on this policy, the government and the House should have a general conception of the development of the economic growth. The government is required to present (within

the legislative framework) a thorough study of the economic growth, gains, and the new investments that will be created by privatisation. The study should cover the impact of the economic growth on profits, the softening of administrative procedures as a result of privatisation, in addition to a wide opportunity for employment. This study will undoubtedly be scrutinized by parliamentary committees and will moreover, be the subject of objective discussions.

If the above has been considered, the move will certainly be towards economic growth. But if the transfer is carried out without investigation nor detailed study, it will undoubtedly be an adventure only God knows its results.

Imitation of nationalisation or privatisation is not an important factor in a country's development. What is important is how much can nationalisation or privatisation be beneficent to the citizens in general and to the economic development in particular. Any proposal that deviate from that is worthless.

المأساة الصادقة

أكثر من أسبوع مر على الفرصة الطائرة الكويتية وعلى تعذيب من تبلى فيها من الركاب والطاقم ورغم تدخل عدة أطراف لإنهاء المأساة فلا أحد يستطيع التكهّن بقرب انتهائها اللهم إلا إذا كان تفاؤل الاخوة الفلسطينيين قائما على التزامات لاتراجع فيها من قبل الخاطفين . ولاداعي للتأكيد بان الفرصة الجوية واستعمالها للابتزاز السياسي مع تعذيب الابرياء من نساء ورجال لاغنى لهم الا بكون المصادفة جعلتهم يكونون مسافرين . لاداعي للتأكيد بانها تتنافى تمام التنافي مع الاسلام وادعاء الثورة ومع القيم والاعراف الانسانية المحترمة . واذا كان عمل كهذا يوجب الجهر بالتنديد بمن أقدم عليه والنضام مع ضحاياه مثلما يوجب التنويه بموقف الثبات ورفض الابتزاز من طرف الائتلاء الكويتيين انطلاقا من رؤية متبصرة وواضحة لا تميز بين قنر الاسرة الصغيرة والاسرة الكبيرة من جانب فهو جانب آخر يحمل الجماهير العربية على تبين مخاطره حاضرا ومستقبلا على قضية العرب المقدسة، الا وهي قضية الشعب الفلسطيني، ان عملية الفرصة من حيث هي، والاقدام عليها في هذا الوقت بالذات اضر ويضر بالكفاح البطولي الذي يخوضه الشعب الفلسطيني ضد الاحتلال الاسرائيلي منذ أكثر من اربعة شهور .

فبعد ان قفزت الانتفاضة الباسلة بالقضية الفلسطينية الى مركز الصدارة من الاهتمام السياسي والدبلوماسي والاعلامي واظهرت الوجه النضالي المشرق للمواطن العربي عبر الجماهير الفلسطينية وفزت جزءا واسعا من الضمير العالمي الذي استفاق على معاناة الشعب الفلسطيني الرازح تحت الاحتلال وكسرت الجمود الذي لف ملف القضية الفلسطينية الى ما قبل الانتفاضة وخلخلت الكيان الصهيوني خلخلة نوعية لربما لاسابق لها، في هذا الوقت بالذات تأتي عملية الفرصة لتشكل طعنة دامية لنضال الشعب الفلسطيني لم يكن يحلم بها العدو الصهيوني ولا حلفاؤه في اوربا وامريكا . ولا أكل على هذا من انصراف الاهتمام الاعلامي الى متابعة مفاجات الجابرية بدل متابعة البطولات الفلسطينية في مقاومة الاحتلال ومتابعة الاعمال الوحشية والارهابية التي تتماذى الحكومة الاسرائيلية في ازالها يوما بالشعب المنتفض . وكما نراها، فان الصحافة الموالية للصهيونية لم تنخر جهدا لاستغلال عملية الفرصة للاساءة الى العرب والمسلمين وللتعظيم عما يجري داخل الارض المحتلة فيما صعدت اسرائيل من عمليات البطش والتعذيب بفرض تطويق الانتفاضة والتأثير عليها .

بطبيعة الحال، كل هذا لم يؤثر على استمرار الانتفاضة وعلى صمود اخواننا في الاراضي المحتلة وعلى تنوع وتطوير أساليب مقاومتهم المشروعة للاحتلال أخذين بعين الاعتبار كل الظروف والملايسات والضربات في اي جهة كانت، الا ان المساندة الصادقة للكفاح الفلسطيني المشروع الذي يشكل طبيعة الكفاح التحرري في الوقت الراهن يوجب وضع النقط واضحة على الحروف ولايستقيم هذا الوضع الا بتأكيد ان عملية الفرصة من حيث هي، وبنوايتها وملايساتها، خدمت مصلحة الكيان الصهيوني واضرت ابلغ الضرر بانتفاضة اطفال الحجارة وأساءت الى سمعة العرب والمسلمين .

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(10)

Average(-)

More than a week has passed since the hijacking of the Kuwait airplane and the writhing of the rest of the travellers ^{and the others}. Though many sides intervened to end the tragedy nobody can predict its near end only if the Palestinian optimism should be based on commitments that the pirates won't get back on - there is no need to insist that the air piracy and its use in the political bribery with the writhing of innocent women and men who have no other aim than they happened to be travellers, extremely contradicts with Islam, the claiming of revolution and the respectable human values and conventions. If such a deed requires, ~~the explicit condemning to those who executed it and the consolidating with the victims~~ ~~on the one hand, the explicit condemning to those who executed it and the consolidating with the victims~~ as well as it requires ~~the~~ the praise of the stability of the perspective and the refusing of the bribery from the part of the Kuwaiti having a graphic view which does not separate the destiny of the small family from that of the large one; it requires on the other hand, ~~the~~ urging the Arab masses to consider the danger of this deed, now and in future. On the Arab's sacred problem which is the one of the Palestinian people the piracy as such, and executing it in this very time did and still does affect the heroic struggle of the Palestinian people against the Israeli occupation four months before. The heroic uprising has bounced the Palestinian problem on the front center of the press, diplomatic and the political interest, it has showed the bright, struggling face of the Arab citizen through the Palestinian masses, it has upraised a great part of the world mind who started to get aware of the suffering of the Palestinian people bounding under the occupation, it has broken the ~~representation~~ that covered the Palestinian problem before the uprising and made an mobilization of no antecedent at the socialist corps. After all this, and in this very time, the operation of the piracy happens to put a bloody beat in the struggle of the Palestinian people, the socialist enemy never dreamt of such a beat nor do his allies in Europe and America. This has its evidence in the interest of the press in the surprise of "Al-Jabir" (the Kuwait airplane) instead of the Palestinian championships ~~against~~ in resisting the occupation and the terrorist savage deeds which the Israeli Government imposes everyday on the uprising people. The press allied to the Zionism ~~was~~ was not thrifty, as it always does, to seize the operation of the piracy to hunt the Arab and Muslim and to stamp out what goes on in the occupied territories, ~~as the~~ ~~was~~ meanwhile Israeli increased her violence and migrating operations so as to restrict and affect the uprising. Of course, all that could not affect the continuity of the uprising and the resistance of our compatriots in the occupied territories nor the variation and the development of the means of their legal resistance against the occupation, they ~~do not~~ take into account all the circumstances and beats in any place. Still, the real support to the legal Palestinian struggle, being a symptom of the liberating struggle in the present time, requires fulfilling clear dots on the "i"s. This would not be straightened without the affirmation that the piracy operation, as such, and with its timing and circumstances, has served the Zionist Corps while it has extremely affected the "Intifada" and the children of Arabs, it has also hurt the reputation of the Arab and Muslims.

KHALIFI Mohame
3rd year

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The Great Tragedy:

More than a week has elapsed since the hijacking of the Kuwaiti airlines and the torture of its passengers and crew members. Despite the interference of several parties to bring this tragedy to an end, no one can predict a solution unless the optimism of the Palestinians is based upon irrevocable commitments on the part of the hijackers. Needless to say that this hijacking, ~~and~~ its exploitation, political blackmail and the torture of the innocent men and women who have committed no sin except ^{that} they happen to be passengers, are completely incompatible with Islam, claiming evolution and the common human values and norms.

And if such a deed / an act, on ^{the} one hand, necessitates the condemnation of the doers and the solidarity with its victims as much as the praise of the firm attitude and the refusal of blackmail on the part of the Kuwaitis ^{emanating} from a clear view which does not distinguish between the royal family and the nation, as a whole, it necessitates, on the part of the Arabs, a full awareness of its dangers on the Palestinian cause now and in

the future, on the other hand. The hijacking in itself at its time are determinative to the ^{now four month} ~~heroic~~ struggle of the Palestinian people against the Israeli occupation.

At this time, the hijacking has come as a stab in the back of the Palestinian people; a stab of which neither the Zionist entity nor his allies in America and Europe have dreamed, after the uprising has made the Palestinian cause attract the political and press attention and has made the struggle of the Arabs via the masses of Palestine crystal clear and the international opinion aware of the suffering of this people under the yoke of Israeli occupation and has broken the political stalemate about the Palestinian cause. This is because much of the media attention has focused on the developments of 'Al-Jabariya' instead of the ~~heroic~~ struggle of the Palestinians against the occupation and the brutal terrorist acts which the Israeli government inflicts on the people of the uprising. As usual, the pro-Zionist press has deployed all efforts to exploit the hijacking to attack the Arabs and the Muslims and to hide all that is going on in the occupied territories. At the same time Israel has increased its oppressive measures to control the uprising and influence it.

W. H. A. F. I. ¹⁹⁶⁶
3rd year

W. H. A. F. I. (1)

(3.7)

None of these will, of course, influence the continuity of the uprising and the steadfastness of the Palestinians in the occupied territories. Nor will it influence the diversification and the steadfastness of the Palestinians ~~and the diversification~~ and the development of the ways of their legitimate resistance against the occupation despite all the circumstances and conditions. The real support of the legitimate Palestinian struggle which is the vanguard of the liberation struggle at this moment calls for clarity and precision. This can be done only by maintaining that the hijack itself, its time and circumstances have done 2 favour to the Zionist occupation and have been determinative to the uprising.

- 1 -

A MISFORTUNATE TRAGEDY

More than a week has elapsed since the Kuwaiti airliner was hijacked with all the suffering caused to the remaining passengers and crew. In spite of many parties intervening to put an end to this tragedy, nobody can predict the end unless the Palestinian brothers' optimism is based on some irreversible commitments made to them by the hijackers.

There is no need to confirm that using hijacking for political extortion with all what that involves--torturing innocent people whose only "sin" is there being, by chance, on board of that plane-- is utterly incompatible with the teaching of Islam, with respected human values and conventions, and with revolutionary principles.

If such an act demands on the one hand loud condemnation of the hijackers, and solidarity with the victims, as well as a high esteem for the Kuwaiti brothers for their refusal to acquiesce to extortion and for their firm stand based on a clear and penetrating perception that does not differentiate between the destiny of individuals and that of the whole country. On the other hand, it makes the Arab world aware of the present and the future dangers of the hijacking on the first Arab issue, the Palestinian problem. Hijacking in general and the execution of the act at this very moment is harmful to the heroic four-month struggle the Palestinian people are waging against the Israeli occupation.

The uprising "Intifada" has achieved a great deal in the last four months. It has made the front headlines, become the focus of interest in the political and diplomatic circles, and has shown the resplendent side of the Arab struggle. In addition, it has affected the conscience of a large part of the international community which has become aware of the suffering the Palestinian people endure under the Israeli occupation. The state of stagnation that surrounded the Palestinian issue before the Intifada started, has been broken. This unprecedented act has shaken the Zionists to the root of their foundation. At this new phase of the Palestinian struggle, the hijacking occurs, dealing a serious blow to the Palestinian goal that neither the Zionist enemy nor their European and American allies have dreamed of achieving. As a consequence, the mass media has taken a different course. The international mass media preoccupation is not any more directed toward the Palestinian heroic resistance to the occupation, nor is it interested in the news of the terrorist acts and savage punishment the Israeli government never ceased to inflict on the uprising people. The main focus, now, is on the latest news of 'Al-Jabiriyya', the Kuwaiti airliner. As usual, the pro-Zionist media has taken advantage of the hijacking to do a great harm to the Arab and the Muslims' reputation. Moreover, they grasped this opportunity to blackout the news of the occupied territories. The Israelis, on the other hand, have found it an occasion to step up their atrocities and to carry out the expulsion of the Palestinians, hoping, thus, to undermine the Intifada and to limit its outspread.

All this, however, has had no effect on the continuity of the Intifada. It has not affected our brothers' determination to resist the enemy, either. Nor has it stopped them from developing and diversifying new ways and means for their legitimate resistance to the occupation, taking into consideration, of course, the circumstances of the situation and all the implications of their resistance, and even the blows that they may receive from different directions.

The genuine support that could be given to the legitimate struggle of the Palestinian, the struggle that is considered to be at the vanguard of the struggle for liberation, is the condemnation of the hijacking, which at the time being, serves not the uprising of the stone-throwing children nor the reputation of the Arabs and the Muslims, but the interests of the Zionist state.

APPENDIX B

The analysis of the students' translations along the situational/textual dimensions has revealed roughly two categories of translations: what are referred to here as "good/average" translations and "weak" translations. Through the process of the analysis, it has been discovered that these two categories are marked with what may be referred to as "text linguistically shared features". The notion of "shared features" should not be taken as similarity of different textual features, but should be viewed in terms of approximation. Tables 1 and 3 in this appendix illustrate the text linguistically shared features of text1 translations, and tables 2 and 4 illustrate those of text2 translations:

GOOD/AVERAGE TRANSLATIONS TEXT LINGUISTICALLY SHARED FEATURES T E X T 1

ORIENTATION of Discourse	Participation	SOCIAL ROLE RELATIONSHIP	Presentation of Information	GENRE/TYPE
FEW ORALITY FEATURES --absence of aptve. strs. in most of these tros. --absence of comment (..)s --complex sub. constrs. --few ellipti- cal constrs. --presence of loosely strd. clses. as a consequence of SL-bound tros. --presence of anacolutha (2.4)	ADSEE'S PRT. LESS MARKEDLY OBVIOUS THAN TEXT1 --frequent use of passiviza- tion --preference for negative conjunction, neither..nor. --use of "we" in a formal way, e.g., if we bear in mind	MANIPULATION OF ADSEE VARY FROM EQUALLY TO LESS EXPLI- CIT THAN ST. --(+formal) lexis. --lack of conde- scending tone --inconsistency in use of exp- lanatory phses --active/passive alternation is less clear --extensive use of rel. clses.	MAJORITY MORE FORMAL --(+formal) lexis. --intensive passivization --less explana- tory phrases. --instances of def. art. el- ipsis, cont- ractions, loose str., complex modi- fication	ARGVE. TEXT TYPE NOT FULLY MAIN- TAINED. --lexical coh- s. varies betwn. --maintained, --approximated, --not fully main- tained. --thematic prog. is not fully maintained as a result of SL-bd. --build up of cli- matic effect is disrupted thru parlsm. disrup- tion

Table 1: Good/average translations

WEAK TRANSLATIONS
TEXT LINGUISTICALLY SHARED FEATURES
T E X T 1

ORIENTATION of Discourse	Participation	SOCIAL ROLE RELATIONSHIP	Presentation of Information	GENRE/TYPE
<p>MARKED ORALITY except 3.2 and 3.10.</p> <p>--loosely strd and concted clses.</p> <p>--presence of elliptical str. (2.14)</p> <p>--absence of PPs.</p>	<p>ADSEE'S PRT. IS LESS MARKED LY STRESSED</p> <p>--absence of "we",</p> <p>--sometimes "we" used as part of nega- tive conjunc- tion.</p>	<p>ROLE OF WRITER IS LESS EXPLI- CIT.</p> <p>--wrg. wd. and stral. selec- tion.</p> <p>--active/passi- ve alternation is less clear- ly marked than in the ST.</p> <p>--features of att/act. orien- tation are blurred.</p>	<p>LESS FORMAL THAN ST</p> <p>--loosely strd clses.</p> <p>--internal and external con- nectivity is less marked.</p> <p>--complex con- strs. to the extent of un- intelligibili- ty.</p>	<p>EDITORIAL AS AN ARGVE TEXT FORM IS NOT CLEARLY MANIFESTED IN THE TROS.</p> <p>--lexical repeti- tion is not main- tained.</p> <p>--parallelism loses its effect thru pronomina- lization and complex constrs.</p> <p>--TT lacks the force of logical connectivity.</p> <p>--climactic build up is disrupted.</p> <p>--disruption of thematic prog. consequence of failure to mark superordinate Th</p>

Table 2: Weak translations

GOOD/AVERAGE TRANSLATIONS
TEXT LINGUISTICALLY SHARED FEATURES
T E X T 2

ORIENTATION of Discourse	Participation	SOCIAL ROLE RELATIONSHIP	Presentation of Information	GENRE/TYPE
FEW ORALITY MARKERS. --inconsisten- cy in the use of E.S.M. --few instan- ces of loose constrs. --absence of aptve. strs in some inst- ances. --wrg. wd. ch.	FEWER TRACES OF ADSEE'S PRT --absence of some E.S.Ms. --presence of emotive adjs.	ROLE OF WRITER NOT FULLY MAINTAINED --wrg. wd. ch. --complex, loos ely stred, often loosely connected clses --wrg. semantic transfer. --dramatic ef- fect disrupted thru restructu ring.	INCONSISTENCY IN STYLE --more formal - (+formal) lexis. --abstraction --few loosely stred. and connected cls --formal style not consistent --intensive cor dination --direct sugges tion and ap- peal to act- ion. --lack of ST preference for abstract. --formal/cons- ultative	ARGVE TEXT STR. NOT FULLY MAIN- TAINED. --loosenes of str and connectivity --restructuring and paraphrasing disturbs them- atic progression, in addition to disruption cau- sed to the cli- mactic build up.

Table 3: Good/average translations

WEAK TRANSLATIONS
TEXT LINGUISTICALLY SHARED FEATURES
T E X T 2

ORIENTATION of Discourse	Participation	SOCIAL ROLE RELATIONSHIP	Presentation of Information	GENRE/TYPE
MARKED ORALITY FEATURES --presence of E.S.Ms. --presence of apve. strs. --long complex loosely strd. & connected clses --redundant re petition. --forced ellip sis as in 2.2 and 2.4. (No need to..)	INCONSISTENCY IN ADSEE'S IN- VOLVEMENT --wrg. wd. ch. --absence of brotherhood markers. In some instan- ces they are more emphasi- zed.	ROLE OF WRITER IS LESS MARKED --complexity & looseness of str. --parallelism & active verbs for dramatic effect are dis- rupted.	LESS FORMAL --wrg. wd. ch. --long complex & loosely strd. & con- nected clses. --imcomplete- ness of cer- tain senten- ces. --in some ins- tances, absen- ce of abstra- ctions. --in some tros (e.g. 2.2) style verges on casual: --"forced" el- lipses, --constant abs- ence of def. arts.	ARGve. TEXT TYPE NOT CLEARLY PRE- SERVED. --wrg. wd. ch. --wrg. syn. ch. --thematic prog. disturbed in some instances as a result of SL-bound --climactic build up confused thru paraphrasing, --long, complex, loosely stred. & loodrly connect- ed sentences.

Table 4: Weak translations

Key to the abbreviations used above:

adj. = adjective
adsee = addressee
aptve. = appositive
argve. = argumentative
betwn. = between
clse. = clause
cohs. = cohesion
constr. = construction
def. art = definite article
E.S.M. = emotive subjectivity markers
PP. = prepositional phrase
parlsm. = parallelism
prog. = progression
rel. cles. = relative clause
SL. bd. = source language bound
str (al) = structure; structural

ST. = source text
th. = theme
tro. = translation
thru = through
TT. = translated text
wrg.wd.ch. = wrong word choice

APPENDIX C

Below is an account of the method and results obtained from a preliminary assessment based on personal judgement of three judges, in addition to an illustration of some results obtained from the assessment of the students' translations along the situational/textual dimensions model.

I. Preliminary assessment: method and results

A. Method:

In this preliminary assessment, the classification of the translations into good translations and weak translations relies mostly on the personal judgements of three judges. Two of these judges are native speakers of English whose command of the Arabic language is relatively good. The third judge is the researcher himself.

The two native speakers of English were given 81 photocopies of the original translations which had been translated by the students of Fahd School of Advanced Translation in Tanger, Morocco, in addition to five other translations by Postgraduate students of the department of Modern Languages, Salford University. The judges were asked to assess and classify 86 translations, basing their judgement on their competence as native speakers of English. The researcher suggested that the notions of accuracy, clarity and appropriateness could be used as a general guideline for such a purpose. The classification of the translations was carried out along the following scale: excellent, very good, good/average, weak, and very weak.

For ease of reference the translations were coded as follows: 1.1 to 1.11, 2.1 to 2.10, 3.1 to 3.16, representing first, second, and third year students of the Fahd School in Tanger, and 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, and 5.5 representing five Ph.D students of the department of Modern Languages, Salford University. The researcher followed the same method. The outcome of the assessment and the classification that has ensued from the assessment is the following:

B. Results:

The results of the preliminary assessment are shown in tables 1, 2, 3 for Text1, and 4, 5, 6 for Text2.

Preliminary assessment of students' translations
First Year: Text 1

S C A L E	J U D G E 1	J U D G E 2	J U D G E 3
Excellent	none	none	none
Very Good	none	none	none
Good/Average	1.6, 1.9	1.9	1.8, 1.9
Weak	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.5 1.7, 1.8, 1.10, 1.11.	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.5, 1.6, 1.7, 1.8, 1.10, 1.11.	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.5, 1.6.
Very weak:	none	none	1.7, 1.10, 1.11

TABLE 1: Preliminary Assessment of Translation Text 1

Second Year: Text 1

S C A L E	J U D G E 1	J U D G E 2	J U D G E 3
Excellent	none	none	none
Very Good	none	none	none
Good/Average	2.2, 2.6.	none	2.6
Weak	2.1, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.7, 2.8, 2.10.	2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.6 2.7, 2.8	2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.5, 2.9, 2.10
Very Weak	none	none	2.4, 2.7, 2.8.

TABLE 2: Preliminary Assessment of Translation Text 1

Third Year and Ph.D Students: Text 1

S C A L E	J U D G E 1	J U D G E 2	J U D G E 3
Excellent	5.2	none	none
Very Good	5.1	none	5.1, 5.2
Good/Average	3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.16.	3.2, 3.3, 3.7 5.2.	3.1, 3.2, 3.3 3.7, 3.9, 3.16
Weak	3.4, 3.5, 3.6, 3.7, 3.8, 3.9, 3.10, 3.11 3.12, 3.13, 3.14, 3.15.	3.1, 3.4, 3.5, 3.6, 3.8, 3.9, 3.10, 3.11 3.12, 3.14, 3.15, 3.16, 5.1.	3.4, 3.5, 3.6, 3.8, 3.10, 3.11, 3.12, 3.13, 3.14 3.15
Very Weak	none	none	none

Table 3: Preliminary Assessment of Translation Text 1

First year: Text 2

S C A L E	J U D G E 1	J U D G E 2	J U D G E 3
Excellent	none	none	none
Very Good	none	none	none
Good/Average	1.1, 1.2 1.5, 1.6 1.8, 1.9	1.8, 1.9	1.1, 1.8, 1.9
Weak	1.3, 1.4 1.7, 1.10 1.11	1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, 1.5, 1.6, 1.7, 1.10, 1.11	1.2, 1.5, 1.6
Very Weak			1.3, 1.4, 1.7, 1.10, 1.11

TABLE 4: Preliminary Assessment of Translation Text 2

Second Year: Text 2

S C A L E	J U D G E 1	J U D G E 2	J U D G E 3
Excellent	none	none	none
Very Good	2.6	none	none
Good/Average	2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.7, 2.8, 2.9, 2.14	2.6, 2.14	2.6
Weak	2.2, 2.10	2.2, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.7, 2.8 2.9, 2.10	2.2, 2.3, 2.9, 2.10 2.14
Very Weak	none	none	2.4, 2.5, 2.7, 2.8

Table 5: Preliminary assessment of Translation Text 2

Third Year and Ph.D Students: Text 2

S C A L E	J U D G E 1	J U D G E 2	J U D G E 3
Excellent	none	none	none
Very Good	3.7, 3.9, 3.16, 5.3	5.3	5.3
Good/Average	3.1, 3.4, 3.5, 3.10, 3.11, 3.13 3.14	3.2, 3.4, 3.7, 3.10, 3.16	3.2, 3.7, 3.9, 3.16 5.4
Weak	3.2	3.1, 3.5, 3.9, 3.11, 3.13, 3.14	3.1, 3.10, 3.11, 3.13, 3.14
Very Weak	none	none	3.4, 3.5, 5.5

Table 6: Preliminary assessment of Translation Text 2

II. Situational/Textual dimensions model: results

The results obtained from the assessment of the students' translations along the situational/textual dimensions are illustrated below in tables 7 and 8.

TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT SITUATIONAL/TEXTUAL DIMENSIONS ANALYSIS T E X T 1 : results

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD/AVERAGE	WEAK	VERY WEAK
		1.8 1.9	1.1 1.3 1.10	
		2.2 2.4 2.5 2.6	2.16	
		3.7 3.4 3.16	3.2 3.10	
		5.2 5.1		

Table 7: Situational/Textual dimensions assessment: results

TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT
SITUATIONAL/TEXTUAL DIMENSIONS ANALYSIS
T E X T 2 : results

EXCELLENT	VERY GOOD	GOOD/AVERAGE	WEAK	VERY WEAK
		1.9	1.8 1.10	1.1 1.3
		2.5 2.6	2.2 2.4 2.14	
		3.2 3.7 3.16	3.4 3.10	
		5.3 5.4	5.5	

Table 8 Situational/Textual dimensions assessment: results