Say: "If the ocean were ink (wherewith to write out) the words of my Lord. Sooner would the ocean be exhausted than would the words of my Lord, even if we added another ocean like it, for its aid."

(Qur'an 18:109)
Error Assessment in the Teaching of Translation:

A Case of Garyounis University, Libya

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Submitted in Accordance with the Requirement of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Leeds

School of Modern Languages and Cultures

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Dedication

To my beloved son, SIRAJ-EDDIN
May Allah give him courage and determination
to overcome his disability

To my dear family
For their love, inspiration, support and patience during the
time we spent in Manchester
Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisors, Dr Dionisius A. Agius and Dr Hussein Abdul-Raof, whose unfailing interest in the topic and constructive comments on my work have enabled this thesis to reach the light. This work could not have evolved properly without their insightful discussions and valuable remarks, and so to them I am indebted.

I am very grateful to the staff members and students of translation in the Department of Translation at the University of Garyounis, Benghazi, Libya for answering the translation tests and completing the questionnaire.

My thanks are also due to the members of staff in the Department of Arabic and Middle Eastern Studies of the University of Leeds for their kindness and moral support, especially Professor Ian R. Netton, Head of the Department.

I owe thanks to all the people who encouraged me throughout my study specifically Dr Stephen Thomas, Dr Said Faiq, and my best friends Mr Mustafa Aabi and Mr Atif El-Hasia. To them all I am very grateful.

Finally, I am indebted to the General Peoples' Committee of Higher Education in Libya for their financial support during my stay in the UK.
Abstract

The research investigates the ways in which the needs of a particular translation teaching-situation are provided for. The argument runs against the general practice where a translation model is independently adopted and is thought to provide the teacher with the necessary methodological and pedagogical background. The study demonstrates that active interaction rather than the passive reception from the teacher within the existing models is essential. This is possible in the light of a product-based analysis of actual training in which the identification of a translation problem must precede the development or adoption of a theory of translation. Error analysis offers in this case the appropriate tool to check the students' needs in a particular training situation in terms of the actual text being translated. In the event of an error analysis, three main interdependent processes should be observed: diagnosis of the deficiency, evaluation of its gravity and recommendation of the appropriate translation teaching therapy.

On the basis of an analysis of Arabic/English trainees' performance and teachers' evaluation, we have identified a number of problems relating to the students' use of language and translation skills, and teachers' assessment of their trainees' errors. A two-stage translation course is recommended accordingly. The first is preparatory; it serves to eliminate the students' language deficiencies and provide the necessary background for teachers to devise the appropriate translation teaching tools. The second emphasises their needs in terms of translation skills, which our results show, are best identified and represented in a text-typological format.
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<td>bt</td>
<td>backtranslation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>contrastive analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD</td>
<td>communicative dynamism</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>error analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>evaluator</td>
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<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td>error elimination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fem</td>
<td>feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLT</td>
<td>foreign language teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>FSP</td>
<td>functional sentence perspective</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lit</td>
<td>literally</td>
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<tr>
<td>L₁</td>
<td>first language</td>
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<tr>
<td>L₂</td>
<td>second/foreign language</td>
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<tr>
<td>masc</td>
<td>masculine</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSA</td>
<td>Modern Standard Arabic</td>
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<tr>
<td>NEG</td>
<td>negative</td>
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<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>noun phrase</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>person</td>
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<tr>
<td>pl</td>
<td>plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P₁</td>
<td>teaching problem</td>
</tr>
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<td>P₂</td>
<td>resulting situation</td>
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<tr>
<td>3p</td>
<td>third person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>prepositional phrase</td>
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<td>S</td>
<td>sample</td>
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<td>sing.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>source language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>source Text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVO</td>
<td>subject verb object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>target language</td>
</tr>
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<td>TP</td>
<td>thematic progression</td>
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<td>trial solution</td>
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<td>testees</td>
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<td>target text</td>
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<td>verb</td>
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<td>verbal phrase</td>
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<td>VSO</td>
<td>verb subject object</td>
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Backtranslation

It is important to stress the fact that much of the backtranslation employed in this thesis is very literal. The English used in backtranslation is not meant to reflect the quality of the translation itself. I would like to draw the attention of readers, especially non-native speakers of English, to the fact that the English used in the backtranslations is not necessarily perfect and, therefore, is not to be confused with natural English.
Transliteration

The following Arabic transliteration system\(^1\) has been employed throughout this thesis.

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**VOWELS**

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\(^1\) Note: the Arabic terms, Allah, Qur'an and Hadith have not been included in the transliteration system.
Scope and Purpose of the Study

The importance of translation emerges from its vital role of transmitting meaning and culture, as language is probably the most important vehicle serving this purpose. The appropriateness of a translation can play a salient role in the enhancement as well as breakdown of international communication. This leads Hjelmslev to conclude that

...understanding between the West and the East [let alone the Third World] is in the last analysis largely a problem of translation (in Newmark 1991:148).

Different translation models and approaches have sought to eradicate such translational misunderstandings, yet each of them has engendered more controversies than solving existing ones. Mistranslation and translational problems are a persistent obstacle to the translator and therefore for the teacher of translation.

Teachers, in their turn, are frequently confronted not only with texts that are problematic owing to linguistic and/or socio-cultural boundaries between the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) but also with the problem of teaching according to the needs of the different trainees concerned. The translation teacher's task is most often twofold: (i) to explain the linguistic difficulties embedded in the source texts, and (ii) to explicate the translation strategies required to render the source text (ST) into the target text (TT). For vi
instance, if a SL text involves a cultural problem it would require first an explanation of the cultural meaning of the lexical item concerned and then the finding of an equivalent meaning in the TL.

The demand to teach according to the needs of the different trainees concerned is also important. These can be either syntactic, lexical (terminological), and/or pragmatic depending on the objectives of the course and trainees' aptitude. However, these needs, as Smith (1991:24-25) points out, are at present independently provided for by conventional translation theory. A sufficient degree of flexibility, he argues, will require active interaction rather than the passive reception of the teacher/analyst within the existing models. Error analysis offers in this case the appropriate tool to check upon the students' needs and relate them to translation theory.

Translation teachers often rely on teaching models which anticipate the students' difficulties usually on the basis of a comparative analysis of both languages and in most cases, they depart from two languages to claim universality. That is, a translation theory or model, often assumed to apply to all sets of languages, is usually based on findings from a particular group of students or predictions of the theorist from his/her knowledge of a particular set of languages. Such translation models, although providing insightful methodological and pedagogical means for the teacher, are not always suitable for all groups of students and all types of language.
This divorce between translation theory and the context of the teaching situation can be bridged, as we shall discuss throughout this research, through the practice of Error Analysis (EA) and evaluation of students' performance. We shall demonstrate that the practice of EA provides the teacher with the necessary feedback regarding the particularity of the group or individual students and the suitability of the teacher's methodology, information which translation theory alone fails to supply. In short, EA provides the teacher with valuable information about trainees' areas of failure and the efficiency or inefficiency of teaching methods and practices. Errors should, therefore, be considered as an inevitable part of any learning or training situation which requires creativity or the ability to analyse and regularise (Tylor, 1980).

The primary concern of this study will, therefore, consist of examining and assessing students' errors when translating between English-Arabic-English. The study analyses the different types of error and their frequency. It seeks to explain the source of errors and examine the teachers' evaluation of their seriousness. Of particular interest to this study is the way different text-types place different demands on the students and induce specific types and distribution of errors. This is, to the best of my knowledge, the first study that investigates exhaustively the relationship between text-typology and students' errors and argues for a translation teaching model within these parameters. To achieve this purpose, the study examines the students' errors in terms of the three Hallidayan text-types of argumentation, exposition and instruction. The
text-typological model provides a an exhaustive feedback and reliable tool for the evaluation of students errors (see 4.1.1 for more details). That is, the errors analysed and assessed in this work are taken from students' translations of the above mentioned text-types.

Organisation of the Study

This thesis consists of seven chapters. This introduction has given a miniature discussion of the scope and purpose of this study and the way it is organised.

Chapter One is mainly concerned with some relevant material that has been produced in the field of cross-cultural studies and translation. It attempts to investigate the implications of cross-linguistic and cultural variation - with specific reference to English-Arabic-English - for the translation. It also examines how the different perceptions of the notion of equivalence cater for problems posed by linguistic and cultural variation. This examination is included simply because the assessment of students' errors, which is our main concern, cannot be carried out properly unless we know the correct equivalent form we are seeking.

Chapter Two is a re-examination of translation teaching models. We have examined in this regard the linguistic, communicative and text linguistic models which represent a continuum rather than clear-cut typologies. The purpose of this chapter is to situate the assessment of errors in its context of
translation teaching methodology. Translation teachers often choose a teaching model and assess their students' performance according to a given model.

Chapter Three investigates the procedures and criteria necessary for a proper assessment of students' errors. We have proposed in this regard three a priori procedures (identification, description and explanation of errors) and five principles (frequency, generality, intelligibility, interpretation and naturalness) as different possible criteria to determine the gravity of the errors and their consistency.

Chapters Four and Five are mainly concerned with the analysis of students' errors. The choice of the types of text and the language direction of translation conforms to the testees' course design. Chapter Four examines errors made when translating two argumentative texts, one from Arabic into English (Text One) and the other from English into Arabic (Text Two). Translation into the foreign language (English) will be referred to as thème translation\(^1\). As for Chapter Five, it analyses errors made by students when translating an expository (Text Three) and an instructive (Text Four) text from English into Arabic. After the identification, description and explanation of errors, we examine how teachers assess the gravity of these errors.

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\(^1\) This term is borrowed from Seguinot (1991:79).
This brings us to Chapter Six, which focuses on teachers' evaluation of these errors. It attempts to investigate what criteria, if any, teachers base their evaluation on and to what extent they are inter- and intra-consistent when performing this task. This is followed by Chapter Seven, which concludes the study by summarising the results of our analysis and examining its pedagogical implications.
CHAPTER ONE

Language, Culture and the Notion of Equivalence in Translation Teaching

1.1 Introduction

Most debates within the circles of translation theory have evolved around the notion of equivalence. Wilss (1982:134) claims in this respect that equivalence between the ST and TT is one of the controversial issues in translation theory. Svejcer holds the same notion:

...equivalence is one of the central issues in the theory of translation and yet one on which linguists seem to have agreed to disagree (in Gutt 1991:10).

The determination of the nature of the appropriate TL equivalent is often a source of controversy that might even give rise to conflict. A case in point is the Israeli-Palestinian conflict over the meaning of the English and its French version of the United Nations Resolution 242 (1967) principle (i); the Palestinians cling to the French translation, while the Israelis cling to the English text. Each, however, has its own different interpretation:

(1) Withdrawal of Israeli armed forces from territories occupied in the recent conflict;
(2) Retrait des forces armées israéliennes des territoires occupés lors du conflit récent;
We notice the absence of the definite article before the word "territories" in the English text which has been interpreted by the Israelis as requiring a withdrawal from "some" and not "all" occupied "territories" which is made specific in its Arabic translation:

(1a) insihāb al-quwwāt al-musallaha l-isrāʾiiliyya min arādin ihtalathā xilāla laḥab al-ʔaxīra.

On the other hand, the French phrase "des territoires" ("des" representing morphologically de + les, "of the") makes it clear that the withdrawal is inclusive of "all territories" occupied during the recent conflict. This point is made clear in the following Arabic rendering:

(2a) insihāb al-quwwāt al-musallaha l-isrāʾiiliyya min al-arādī allatī ihtalathā xilāla ḥarīb al-ʔaxīra.

It follows that the lack of total equivalence can be either intentionally manipulated or unintentionally controversial. A sound analysis and assessment of the students' translation, however, is only possible if the issue of equivalence is settled. That is, we cannot assess a translation properly unless we know what type of equivalent TT we are looking for. Equivalence, however, as a general concept, will necessarily involve different views and opinions since concepts are often a subject of controversy and debate. Different frames of reference have been proposed for defining equivalence. Some would associate translation with the ST. But, can translation-teaching programmes that are ST-oriented provide the necessary skills for the preparation of professional translators?
Translation does not consist merely of the interaction of the translator with the ST. Translators may interact perfectly with the ST but may fail to transfer its meaning or a similar epistemic effect if their TL competence is inadequate. Hence, the mastery of the TL is equally important and the translator should be "a nice critic in his mother tongue before he attempts to translate" (Dryden in Schulte and Biguenet 1992:1).

Nevertheless, even if we assume that the trainee achieves a level of mastery of both languages, various questions come into mind: how can trainees and teachers alike deal with socio-cultural differences inherent in language? Does the process of translation teaching consist of levels of meaning (cf. Nida and Taber's back-transformation 1969)? Does the teaching process have to focus on style, meaning or both in order to achieve a similar effect in the receptive culture? In short, should the student be trained to find meaning in the text, the author, the reader or in some interaction between the three (see 1.3)?

These questions fall within the larger context of translation programmes which we shall attempt to account for in the first two chapters before the process of error analysis and evaluation in translation equivalence can proceed. Therefore, to develop a theory of translation which can achieve the most possible equivalence based on the analysis and assessment of trainees' errors, we need first to pinpoint these errors in their socio-linguistic background. That is, we must ask the question, how do languages (in this case English and
1.2 Language and Culture in Translation

We cannot hope to compare two cultures unless we have more accurate understanding of each of the cultures being compared (Lado 1986:53).

Language is not simply a set of sounds, words and structures. It emanates from and reaches into the domain of human interaction and culture. Every use of language reflects its author's social experiences (including exposure to other texts) characteristic of his/her own socio-culture (cf. Beaugrande de and Dressler 1981). The translator must not therefore turn a blind eye to the cultural component during the process of analysis and rendering of the ST. Our assessment of the translation adequacy should take account of the two cultures since each society sets rules according to which concrete statements are interpreted. A translation cannot be said to be successful unless it conforms to the linguistic and social rules of the host culture.

Assuming that language and culture are closely interdependent we may still wonder how different languages relate to each other, indeed if there is any link at all. The most famous approach to this issue is that provided by the two anthropological linguists Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf in their theory of linguistic determinism known as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis.
1.2.1 Language Determinism and Translation Teaching

The basic principle of the theory of linguistic determinism embodied in the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is that language shapes our world-view and vice versa. In its most extreme version, the theory claims that people speaking different languages perceive the world differently, i.e., the language we speak determines the way we perceive and organise things and events (Sapir 1921:13-18).

The most obvious influence of language on our world-view is that of vocabulary. The language of French New Guinea has only two words - "bright" and "dark" - covering all colours, so that the New Guinean perceives all colours, no matter how numerous they might be in other people's perception, as either bright or dark (Wardhaugh 1993:201-2). However, this fact does not mean that the New Guineans cannot distinguish between other colours as do, say, English speakers. It is just that language does not provide a larger set of names of colours than their perception could assimilate, probably because this was not a crucial aspect of their daily life. We cannot claim, for instance, that English speakers are unable to differentiate or perceive the difference between a male camel, a female camel, and/or a young camel because the English language offers only one word (camel) that covers all three; in Arabic, however, we can distinguish between "jamal" (he-camel), "nāqa" (she-camel) and "huwār" (baby-camel). Nor can we say that Arabic speakers do not perceive the four different English climatic
temperatures - cold, hot, cool, and warm - because Arabic offers only three
degrees: "hār" or "sāxin" both referring to "hot" "bārid" referring to "cold"/"cool" and "dāfī?" for "warm".

It is clear that language can influence "thought" or world-view, but it cannot
shape it completely as is claimed by the strong version of Whorfianism. According to this theory, people speaking different languages perceive the
world differently. Thus, communication between them is impossible even when one speaks the other language to a native-like standard. Obviously, this assumption suggests that translation is impossible. Yet

the mere fact that interlanguage communication and translation have been going on for thousands of years is considered sufficient proof that Sapir and Whorf were wrong (Schogt 1992:200).

Ironically, Whorf’s grammatical and lexical evidence that Hopi (an American Indian tribe) speakers view the world differently from English speakers has been used as a counter-argument to the very same claim simply because Whorf himself was able to explain the Hopi example to English readers through translation. Thus, the claim in its strongest form is false since the example can be paraphrased in another language.

However, even if the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is rejected, the translator still has to deal with differences in structures at the level of syntax, lexis and style.
Such differences may be either linguistically inherent or due to the different socio-linguistic contexts of each language (Johnstone 1991:218). This is better clarified within the scope of the weak version of Whorfianism, which suggests that language reflects (sometimes reinforces) the cultural structures it describes. Indeed, different cultures give rise to different linguistic classifications of reality.

Thus, a linguistic categorisation of reality (the way we perceive the world) is often culture-bound. This may represent a source of difficulty for Arab trainee translators and language learners alike who usually learn the TL outside its cultural context. This, may not strengthen their target "cultural capital" (Bourdieu 1991) in comparison with the native speaker no matter how culture-oriented the teaching approach is. The bilingual dictionary is often of no help to trainees in such a case, as we shall see during the analysis of the students' translation. It tends to be more misleading than helpful in the sense that it offers equivalents with a restricted semantic use (i.e. without reference to the associative meanings and with no illustrative sentences to see the meaning in a context). For instance, Arab students mix the term "collaborate" which may connote working with the enemy, with its synonym "cooperate" which does not share this connotative meaning. The word "gay" is understood by some Arab students as well as by most bilingual dictionaries to mean "happy" without their being aware of the new denotation (homosexual) that has accompanied the evolution of this term. In the following section, we shall
attempt to explain this important aspect of meaning which represents a
translation problem encountered daily by translators.

1.2.2 Connotative Meaning and Translation

Very often connotation is described in opposition to denotation. Following
Hjelmslev, Barthes (1974:6-7) describes connotation as a second-order
meaning which, in order to signify, builds on a first-order system, that of
denotation. Barthes has had recourse to the Hjelmslevian paradigm in which
the signifier and the signified work together to bring about a sign which has a
denotative meaning\(^1\). Then, the entire denotative sign becomes a signifier in a
new signifying transaction, that of connotation. Indeed, Hjelmslev (1961:119)
views all connotators as

content for which the denotative semiotics are
expression... In other words, after the analysis of the
denotative semiotic [at the level of signifier and signified]
is completed, the connotative semiotic must be subjected
to an analysis according to just the same procedure.

Consider, for instance, Sentence 3:

(3) umm al-ma:\(\text{\`a}rik^{2}\)

(the mother of battles)

---

1 For details on signifier and signified, see de Saussure 1983.
2 A name given to the Gulf War by the Iraqi media.
The linguistic text itself, i.e. the graphical signs constitute the denotative signifier, while the concept of the above phrase, i.e. the Gulf war that broke out in 1990 between Iraq and the allied forces following Iraq's occupation of Kuwait, provides the denotative signified. The graphic signs combined with their corresponding concepts constitute the denotative sign which becomes a signifier in the second transaction of connotation. Thus, the denotative sign functions in its entirety as a signifier for ideological significations such as "holy war", "victory" and "Pan-Islamism".

In this respect, Barthes views connotation as a means whereby a text can be made to express values of a group in a given historical period (Silverman 1983:29). He then proposes an interpretative strategy which bears in particular upon connotation and may be of great use for the translator. He suggests that all contradictory meanings of each textual element should be multiplied up by the reader before proceeding to the next one and that no attempt should be made to harmonise these contradictions. For instance, the photograph of a black soldier saluting a French flag, he argues, is a denotative sign which generates contradictory connotative meanings of "colonialism", "militarism", "nationalism" and "reverence". This model of reading is based upon Pierce's idea of endless commutability of the signified (Silverman 1983:15).

In other words, meaning has no closure or singularity. A sign which becomes a connotator may, through the process of naturalisation, gain back the single
meaning (denotator) which is originally a connotative attribute; the same operation recurs with subsequent connotators. This makes Barthes rethink the relationship between connotation and denotation. Although denotation is associated with closure and singularity of meaning, it is just, as Silverman (1983:32) claims, "a metaphysical fiction which passes itself off as...the light of truth". Thus, denotation, Barthes (1974:9) points out

...is not the first meaning, but pretends to be so; under this illusion, it is ultimately no more than the last of the connotations (the one which seems both to establish and to close the reading).

In this respect, every text is a free-play signification system of connotations. Barthes describes later connotation as the invasion of a text by a "code" and a digression away from that text toward the larger discursive field (ibid.:20-1). Thus, signs acquire their meaning through being structured into codes. According to Silverman (1983:239) codes supply a text with meaning by referring to other previously encountered texts and the cultural reality order which it defines. This process is referred to in translation as intertextuality.

For instance, the following slogan was used during the funeral of a Palestinian alleged to have been killed by Israelis:

(4) al-janna tahta ?aqdām C'ayyāš
(Paradise is under Ayash's feet)

---

1 See 2.3.3.1 for a more elaborate discussion of intertextuality.
Sentence 4 cannot be thoroughly discerned unless other related texts and the symbolic order it represents are taken into consideration. It may refer, for instance, to the Hadith\(^1\) text:

\[(5) \text{al-janna tahta aqdām al-ummahāt} \]

(Paradise lies under mothers' feet)

and also to the cultural reality that there is an act of martyrdom.

Obviously, Barthes's theory of meaning is very useful especially for the translation of social texts as they are pregnant with connotation in comparison, for instance, with technical texts. Though the application of his model to translation may be a complex and long process, it is sometimes quite indispensable. For instance, it is unlikely that we will understand the conversational implicatures meaning (cf. Grice 1975) i.e. the embedded meaning until we allow a free play of connotations without any attempt at naturalisation, i.e. without confining ourselves to a single fixed meaning.

Applying Barthes's model to translation, it can be said that the English expression: "green with envy" cannot be translated as "iṣḍarра wajhuḥuḥ ḥasadan" (his face became green with envy) because of the positive connotations the green colour assimilates in the Arab culture. "Black" is rather the equivalent colour in Arabic that carries a relatively similar negative association as can be seen in the Qur'an when Allah describes the unbelievers in Surah ١١٢٣ Cimrān ۱۰۶ as "iṣwaddat wuẓúḥuhum" (whose faces will be black).

---

\(^1\) Sayings and deeds of the Prophet Muḥammad.
Thus, an equivalent effective translation of the English expression above would be "iswadda wajhuhu hasadan" (his face became black with envy). It should also be noted that the colour "green" has gained a new positive association owing to the recent ecological movements that seek to protect nature symbolised in that colour.

It is not surprising, then, that this Barthean model of analysis not only removes the veil on concealed ideologies and meaning in the text but also explains how they may be problematic in translation. This can be explained if we consider how connotation of the following text (6) holds paradigmatically for both the Arab/English (Western) reader.

(6) al-ḥarakāt al-?islāmiyya
(Islamic movements)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Western Connotations</th>
<th>Islamic fundamentalism</th>
<th>A bunch of fanatics</th>
<th>Clandestine activities</th>
<th>Suicide attack</th>
<th>Death squad</th>
<th>Terrorist attack</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arab Connotations</td>
<td>Party of God</td>
<td>Brothers in Islam</td>
<td>Prayer meeting</td>
<td>Martyrdom</td>
<td>Holy war</td>
<td>Self-denying act of heroism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table One: clash of connotations)

The problem in this case is not, as Weldon (1953:44) argues, that "...if the translators did their job better there might be better understanding". It is more complex than Weldon might have thought and involves not only the translator but also the language, the politician, the culture, the media, the reader ... etc.

1 Table One adapted from Hatim and Mason 1990:114.
Besides, even if translators (let alone interpreters) would have enough time for such analysis, they could not limit its plurality of meaning to make the text ready for translation, nor would they have enough space because a single lexeme can "open onto the same amount of meaning as... a 500-page novel, connotation leads [then] to a serious attribution" (Silverman 1983:31).

In the light of our reference to Whorf’s approach and Barthes’s theory of connotation, we can claim that despite the fact that language is to a great extent culture-specific and highly potent with connotative meaning, translation, despite losses, is possible. Trainees, we believe, can be acculturated even to a relatively native-like standard in which they can allow a free-play of significance and decide accordingly the lexico-syntactical selection in their TL.

1.2.3 Arabic-English Language and Culture

English-Arabic translation is bound to encounter many difficulties that relate to language and culture. While English maintains itself as the most favoured second or foreign language worldwide, Arabic has the reputation among Western speakers of being a difficult language (Justice 1987). Obviously, the judgement is based on the contrastive claim that the more different two languages are, the more difficult the learning process becomes. It is this predictive power of the comparative analysis that helps teachers to anticipate some problems which confront their trainees. The power of comparative
analysis, on the other hand, lies in verifying these predictions and pinpointing those the teacher fails to anticipate. The source of difficulty in Arabic, as in any other language, lies outside the language as an abstract system. These problems are both linguistic and socio-cultural.

It is then part and parcel of a comprehensive understanding of the students' error to shed some light on linguistic and cultural aspects of both Arabic and English. The following sections seek to highlight the significance of linguistic and cultural features of Arabic and English for the translation teacher as far as errors among trainees in the two languages are concerned. We will attempt to elicit those areas which are more significant to the practising teacher.

1.2.3.1 Linguistic Aspects

Unlike English, Arabic shows a big disparity between its written and spoken forms. Written Arabic, structurally and functionally, is often different from the spoken dialects. Thus:

the learner [of Arabic] has less reinforcement from the audial pathway. This may represent a significant handicap, as for many people the spoken word imprints better than the written (Justice 1987:19).

The principal aim of this section is, however, to confine the contrast of the linguistic features of Arabic with those of English and consider how they hinder or reinforce the translation process. These features are represented at the phonological, morphological, syntactical and textual levels.
i. Phonological Level

The phonological difficulty of Arabic for an English speaker is partly attributable to the fact that short vowels are not usually written so that the same word can be read in different ways. For example, "hiwar" (dialogue) can alternatively be pronounced as "huwar" (baby-camel) and the trilateral radicals /c.l.m./ can mean "flag" if pronounced as "c.alam"; "science" or "knowledge" if pronounced as "c.ilm". Thus, vocalisation is very decisive to meaning in Arabic and plays an important role in the process of Arabic into English translation. As it happens most texts are unvocalized and ambiguity has to be checked in good dictionaries. Though not to the same level of seriousness, phonological problems can also manifest themselves, at the level of the English language. Thus, words such as "separate" which can be confusingly translated into Arabic either as the adjective "munfaṣil" (separate) or the verbs "yanfaṣil or yafṣil" (to separate).

ii. Morpho-syntactic Level

There are fewer differences than similarities between Arabic and English morphological rules. In Arabic, as in English, an affix can produce a new word, as in "fann/fannīy" and "art/artistic". Most words in English are simple roots while in Arabic derivation plays a much more pervasive role. Derivation differs from inflection in that unlike inflectional morphemes, derivational morphemes form new words either by changing the meaning of the base to which they are attached (cf. E.g. "grace" and "disgrace") or by changing the
word class that a base belongs to (cf. E.g. "grace" and "graceful"). In Arabic almost all words are derived from roots by the addition of affixes. Thus, from the radicals /k. t. b./, denoting "writing", we extract:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kataba} & \quad \text{(he-wrote)} & \text{kitāb} & \quad \text{(book)} \\
\text{kāṭīb} & \quad \text{(writer)} & \text{maktūb} & \quad \text{(written)} \\
\text{maktab} & \quad \text{(office)} & \text{and so forth.}
\end{align*}
\]

The richness of the Arabic derivatives in comparison with English can represent a source of difficulty for trainees translating into Arabic who have to learn new morphological rules before any serious attempt in translation training is made. On the contrary, Arab trainees are less prone to such problems considering the fact that the ST (Arabic) is richer. Deficiencies, i.e. elements in the ST which do not have a counterpart in the TL, are less problematic than exuberances which involve the addition of elements to the SL text because of the demands of its language (Ortega 1959:1-2).

Indeed, as far as the derivational system is concerned, previous research (cf. Kharma and Hajajj 1989) shows that most mistakes are due to the wrong choice of affixes and not interference, e.g. "inpolite" instead of "impolite" and "unrelevant" instead of "irrelevant". Derivation would not be as difficult for the Arab trainee as for the English reader who is faced with the problem of selecting from the many choices that exist in Arabic. Therefore, as far as Arab students are concerned, derivation as a deficiency would not represent any
serious source of difficulty in translation because they are expected to move from complex rules in Arabic to simpler rules in English.

Differences between Arabic and English can also be realised at both phrase and sentence level. By phrase level we mean those elements of which the grammatical category is determined by other phrasal elements such as number and gender. For instance, in Arabic nouns are classified either as feminine, such as "al-šams" (the sun) or masculine, like "al-qamar" (the moon), and share this feature with their modifiers or following predicate verbs. We say for example:

(7) ṭala\textsuperscript{C}at al-šams
[appeared-fem the - sun]

(8) ṭala\textsuperscript{C}a al-qamar
[appeared-masc the - moon]

English, however, has no grammatical gender, so that "sun" and "moon" are both neutral nouns as far as gender is concerned. Hence, English verbs cannot be inflected for gender. English words of the type brother/sister and stallion/mare are related to sex rather than to grammatical gender.

Number can also be a source of difficulty when translating into Arabic. For instance, a trainee who is not familiar with the British political culture and does not have further co-textual clues for a text like "the sons of the Queen of Britain" would not be able to decide whether "sons" is a plural or dual form, so
that s/he may confuse "abnā' malikat barīṭāniyā" (the Queen of Britain's sons) and "ibnayy malikat barīṭāniyā" (the Queen of Britain's two sons).

Arabic is also different from English in the "construct-phrase" (iḍāfa) whereby strings of more than two nouns are possible (Holes 1995: 166-67). While, for instance, in English a noun agreement with another noun is always expected via an adjunct or a possessive, in Arabic such grammatical functions are licensed.

At the sentence level, Arabic is canonically labelled as a VSO language because of its sentential structure which, unlike English, starts with verb, followed by subject and then object. That the two structures are different may at first be an area of difficulty for the trainee. For instance, in Arabic, phrases like:

(9) waṣūl al-malik
(10) fi muxtalaf anhā' al-ḍālam

there is no constituent (e.g. possessive particle) between the head nouns and their possessors as in the English counterparts:

(9a) the arrival of the king/the king's arrival.
(10a) in various places of the world.

1 For more discussion about agreement the reader is referred to Haegeman 1994 and Ouhalla 1994.
2 For an elaborate discussion on word order in Arabic, see Agius 1991.
The presence of agreement in Arabic depends on the location of the VP in relation to the inflectional NP (subject). If the VP precedes the subject, number-agreement is not realised as in the case of examples 11 and 12:

(11) waṣala
 arrived-3p sing. masc
 al-awlād
 the-boys-3p pl masc
 (the boys arrived)

(12) waṣalat
 arrived-3p sing. fem.
 al-banāt
 the-girls-3p pl fem
 (the girls arrived)

But when the subject precedes the VP, number-agreement becomes necessary:

(13) al-?awlādu
 the-boys-3p pl masc.
 waṣalū
 arrived-3p pl masc
 (the boys arrived)

On the contrary, the one choice [+agreement] and one sentential structure SVO in English simplifies the grammatical rule of agreement and therefore makes the choice easier for the translator.

Baker (1992:84) argues in this respect that the restrictions on syntactic choice do not leave any option for translators and consequently make their task difficult. Accordingly, the one and only one grammatical choice would make the translators' task difficult. This is not, however, always the case. Grammatical invariability, though problematic, can in some instances help trainees to rule out the many options that may rather confuse them (see Chapters Four and Five).
iii. Textual Level

Differences between Arabic and English at the text level or what Khanna and Hajjaj (1989) term "mechanics of discourse" can also represent a source of difficulty for the trainee. For instance, unlike English, Arabic has no capitalisation. The conjunction "wāw" or "fā" (and; other meanings too depending on the context) can join together not only several words as in English, but also sentences and sometimes paragraphs as well as introduce adverbial clauses equivalent to an English participle form as in Sentence 14:

(14) jā?a wa-huwa rākib. (he came riding).

In the Arabic text expressions such as "wa C alā naqīd ḍālik" (on the contrary), "idā ā ilā ḍālik" (in addition to), "wa-lākin" (but, however) are more frequently used to link sentences and phrases than in the English text. This is in fact an area of confusion and difficulty for Arab students translating into Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) as we shall see in Chapters Four and Five. This difficulty can be traced back to the cross-linguistic variation between the two languages and perhaps to the fact that MSA is not the first language of Arab students. MSA is some sort of a supra-national language of all Arab countries which, grammatically and syntactically, can be different from the spoken Arabic dialects to a point that they can be mutually incomprehensible. Yet, such organisational functions are no less serious problems than the rhetorical aspects1.

1 For illustration, see examples about directness and ways of argumentation in the following section.
Arabic and English are two structurally different languages. However, we cannot claim that only such differences lie behind any source of difficulty or interference for trainees. There are also instances where similarities between two languages may be a source of confusion rather than help. For example, the simple past tense in French (passé composé) is sometimes transferred negatively into the "structurally" similar English present perfect as in Sentence 15:

(15) J'ai vu le film hier
(15a) I have seen the film yesterday
rather than

(15b) I saw the film yesterday

In other cases, however, translation involves more than linguistic signs, the transfer from one culture to another. Meaning can be adequately realised only if the text is situated in its cultural framework, as we shall see in the following section.

1.2.3.2 Cultural Aspects

Most translation theorists, such as Nida and Taber (1969), Chau (1983), Larson (1984), Bassnet (1991), hold that translation is not a mere rendition from one linguistic system into another; "one does not translate LANGUAGES, one translates CULTURES" (Casagrande 1954:338). Arabic culture, like any other culture, is based on language, religion, education, politics, economy, social norms and so forth. Yet, Arabic culture is more religiously oriented than English culture. Arabic has also different regional
cultures (e.g. Libyan, Saudi, Moroccan, etc.) that vary to a great extent politically, economically and socially, but as a unified culture, Arabic has acquired vital religious dimensions being the language of the divine revelation (the Qur’an). It is not surprising, therefore, that Islam and Arabic interact to produce a distinctive cultural thought that has its own reflections in language and therefore translation. The impact of the ecology of social structure of the Arab world on the language is no less influential. The extent to which translation involves culture has been illustrated by Nida (1964a: 91) through five types of cultural knowledge, namely (1) ecology, (2) material culture, (3) social culture, (4) religious culture and (5) linguistic culture.

i. Ecology

Ecological knowledge embraces climate, fauna and flora. The fact that these ecological features differ from one place to another creates different thought patterns. For instance, the English saying "save for a rainy day" can be translated into Arabic as "al-qirş al-?abyad yanfaṣ fi-l-yawm al-?aswad" (the white piastre helps in a black day) because the attitude of the Arab reader towards "rain" is different from that of the English reader. "Rain" for the Arab reader gives a positive psychological effect as a sign of water reserve and good harvest. On the other hand, it lends to have a negative effect on the English reader as it can be associated with bad weather (flood) and even probably damage to the harvest.
Furthermore, consider for example the rendering of the Arabic expression:

(16) aØlaja šadrī

(it froze my heart).

Apparently, the Arabic metaphor indicates a state of relief and content because of the positive attitude towards snow in a hot region like the Arab World. The English translation, on the other hand, refers to a state of frustration and disappointment owing to the fact that "freezing" is rather the norm of Western bad weather. Opposite concepts, such as sun, summer, and hot weather, would create a similar response to that of Arabic, as can be realised from the French idiomatic expression,

(17) çà m'a rechauffé le coeur

(it warmed my heart).

ii. Material Culture

This type of cultural knowledge involves cultural features connected with food, clothing, transportation etc. For instance, it may involve different epistemic changes in the mind of the reader depending on whether s/he is an Arabic or English speaker as in "imra?a mu hakkaba" (a veiled woman). While the Arab reader may associate the veil on a woman with Islam and decency, the English, and by large the Western reader, will associate it with fanaticism, primitiveness, or a socio-political symbol of Islam depending on whether the reader is educated or semi-educated (cf. Hessini 1996).
As to food, most names, particularly when translating from Arabic into English, are paraphrased or just transliterated because of their extensive use within the host culture. For instance, the common English translation for "lahm halāl" is "halal meat"\(^1\). However, the response of English readers to the Arabic loanword depends on their attitude towards the Arabic language and culture. The same can be said about "burger" (Arabic birjir) that has become a borrowing in colloquial Arabic. On the other hand, other food names like "tabbūla" (traditional Middle Eastern dish consisting of vegetables and liver) or "harira" (Moroccan vegetable soup) are untranslatable into English unless paraphrased.

### iii. Social Culture

This type of knowledge involves traditions, social norms, kinship relations etc., which distinguish one culture from another. For example, in Arabic we can differentiate between "camm" (paternal uncle) and "xāl" (maternal uncle) probably because each assumes a different social status; the "camm" most often plays the same role as that of the father in the case of the absence - or even the presence - of the father of the nephew which is not the case with the "xāl" who usually has in that respect an "empty" social role, i.e. without substantial influence. This can be traced back to other social factors such as the different family names (unlike the "xāl", the "camm" has the same family name) and male dominance in the sense that Arab traditional families are

\(^1\) Meat of animals slaughtered according to Islamic law.
patriarchal (father-dominated). On account of this fact, "brothers of the father" enjoy more "power" (in a social sense) than "brothers of the mother". On the other hand, there is only one English equivalent, "uncle", possibly because the social functions of the two kinds of uncle are not much different in English society.

iv. Religious Culture

This category relates obviously to religion. According to Nida (1964b), it causes the most perplexing problems of translation. The difficulty of translation in this area lies in the sensitivity and heavy connotative significance of religious texts, or what Nida calls words for "sanctity" and "holiness" which make their use in the TL awkward. "A foreign [religious] word often implies an alien God" (ibid.:14). For instance, the Arabic word "Allah" (God) is often associated by non-Muslims with other ideological connotations such as "fanaticism" and/or "Arabs". The English counterpart - "God, the father", "God, the Son" and "God, the Holy Spirit" (the persons of the Trinity) - is interpreted by an Arab Muslim reader as an expression of polytheism.

Thus, in translation, texts relating to religion are usually integrated into the host culture. For instance, phrases like "sexual intercourse/making love", that are socially acceptable in the Western (Christian) culture are usually said in a decorous way in Arabic. Thus, the above English phrase can only be rendered
as "mu'āšarat al-azwāj" (they live like husband and wife), because any sexual intercourse outside the marital framework is socially unacceptable and highly tabooed in Arab-Islamic culture. This is clearly apparent in the following Qur'anic verses:

(18) aw lāmastum al-nisā?
"Or ye have been in contact with women"
(Qur'an: 4.43, Ali 1982:194)

(19) wa-qālat hayta lak
"and [she] said: now come thou (dear one)!
(Qur'an: 12.23; Ali 1982:558)

in which reference to sexual intercourse is made, as we have said earlier, in a very implicit way. Culture-specificity of religious terms can also give rise to untranslatability. Such terms can be either transliterated as in the case of "Ramadān" (the month of fasting) or given a close equivalent, though different, like the translation of "al-wudu" as "ablution".

v. Linguistic Culture

Differences inherent in the linguistic systems, i.e. differences that are not culturally determined such as the case of the construct-phrase (see 1.2.3.1, syntactic level), may also give rise to translation problems. Nida (1964b:14) argues in this respect that

language is part of culture, but translation from one language to another involves, in addition to the other cultural problems, the special characteristic of the respective language.
For instance, English enjoys a wide variety of tenses while in Arabic there are only two main aspect systems: complete and incomplete action. Arabic "tenses" often represent a struggle for the student because they do not have as accurate time significance as tenses in Indo-European languages. Beeston (1970:76) points out in this respect that "very few Arabic verbs embody a wholly unambiguous time signal". Arabic lacks overt (i.e. morphologically indicated) realisation of the perfective and progressive time dimensions existing in English. That is, Arabic "tenses", from a functional perspective, convey just two pragmatic aspects: accomplished or unaccomplished act. In English, in addition to the two above aspects, tense can refer to acts that have started and have not yet been finished e.g. "I am working on it", or that started in the past and have just been finished in the "immediate" present, i.e. "the time of utterance, e.g. "I have just done the job".

So far, we have briefly discussed some areas of cross-linguistic and cultural variation between Arabic and English which can represent a source of difficulty for Arab students of translation. We have also emphasised throughout our discussion the claim of Hervey and Higgins (1992:28) that translation should involve the choice of features that are compatible with or indigenous to the TL and the target culture in preference to features with their roots in the source culture.
However, this process of domestication i.e. of ascribing a sense of the TL and culture to the ST to the extent that no foreignness can be sensed in the translated text is not devoid of limitations. It rather keeps translation away from its primary aim of introducing the TL reader to a new culture. Though it may achieve the same, or even a better, response than the ST, it confines the target readers to their own culture without the possibility of an opening on to other cultural values and thoughts. The TL can open on to the ST cultural values and thoughts by allowing, for instance, some Arabic words to appear in the TT or providing them with equivalents with further annotations when concepts are largely different, as in the example reported earlier of "camm" and "xāl" or "Allah" and "God".

1.3 The Concept of Equivalence

The principle of equivalence is one of the least defined notions in the field of translation studies. In general terms, translation equivalence can be described as an

...intuitive common sense term for describing the ideal relationship that a reader would expect to exist between an original and its translation (Newman, 1994:4694).

However, the clarification of this relationship is still beset by contradictory statements involving relatively the same dichotomy: is translation a science or an art? Should it consist of transfer of style or of meaning from a context? These are some terminological questions that attempt to conceptualise the
notion of equivalence and define the translator's behaviour, i.e. the translation process.

Far from prescribing such abstract rules for the translator's behaviour, it seems preferable as Hatim and Mason (1990:16) suggest that we attempt rather to describe the basic orientations of the translator. These are (1) author-oriented translation, (2) reader-oriented translation and (3) text-oriented translation.

1.3.1 Author-Oriented Translation

According to Hatim and Mason (1990:16-18), the author-oriented approach requires the familiarisation of the trainees with the author of the ST and its interpretation in the light of what they know about the intended meaning. This is because, as Steiner (1992) puts it, the best translators are often those in tune with the original producer.

By focusing the attention on the authorship, it can be argued that this model is source-text-oriented. It involves the investigation and interpretation of the ST regardless of the TL implications. Associated with this model is the "hermeneutic" approach which claims that the text is "a co-subject with which the translator, as an interpreter, falls into dialogue to create new meanings" (Chau 1983:131). Thus, the "scientific" view of a totally objective understanding of text is rejected. The task of the translator is to interpret and render the ST in a manner favourable to the author's intended meaning.
terms of actual teaching, Chau states that this approach trains students "...to criticise texts and recreate them...the students gradually generalise principles from insights gained in this way" (ibid.).

This approach, however, is deemed to be limited in scope. We believe that teaching translation according to this model, as in the case of hermeneutics, cannot be effective. This is because in a translation training activity, time is limited in comparison with the huge demands of a usually unnecessary biographical analysis of the ST author(s). Moreover, teachers would spend much of their time in the analysis and interpretation of the ST regardless of the TL and audience. In addition, translation is an operation performed on both the ST and the TT. Trainees, according to this method, should also be taught how to transmit the discovered meaning in the TL. Besides, the model in question gives much freedom to the translator in interpreting the ST which may give rise to translators' interference resulting in partial translations. By focusing the attention on the authorship, the translator is likely to distance him/herself from the meaning which can readily be extracted from the actual ST and other available contextual cues. In ignoring such textual and contextual values, which often represent the basis for a relatively objective analysis of the ST (as total objectivity is impossible) the translator is bound to reflect consciously or unconsciously his/her association or disassociation with the ST author.
1.3.2 Reader-Oriented Translation

At the other end of the continuum, the reader-oriented model claims that the focus should shift from authorship to readership. In other words, focus should be on the response of the TL receptor rather than on the producer of the text. This method, known as dynamic equivalence, suggests that the response of the ST must be compared with the way in which the original receptors presumably reacted to the message when it was given in its original setting (Nida and Taber 1969:1).

Thus, Nida and Taber have realised that meaning cannot be divorced from the cultural framework of the person receiving the message. That is, "... ideas must be modified to fit with the conceptual map of experience of the different context" (Gentzler 1993:52). The dynamic principle has a universalist assumption: any allusions or references to source culture can or indeed must be replaced by target culture material so that the translation should be perfectly natural. Take for instance the Arabic expression:

(20) raja^c\bi-xuffay hunayn

The application of the dynamic principle is necessary for the translation of this example. Otherwise, the equivalent would be either unintelligible to the TL reader and the meaning distorted as in a formal transfer in Sentence 20a:

(20a) he came back with the shoes of "hunayn"

or ineffective and dull in comparison with the ST such as the pragmatic translation in Sentence 20b:

(20b) he did not achieve what he was aiming at.
Thus, a more appropriate equivalent that benefits from the target culture material without sacrificing the general meaning, Sentence 20c, would be:

(20c) he came back empty handed.

Yet, it can be argued that neither of the translations above reproduce an identical effect or meaning since translation is a process that necessarily involves losses (and/or gains) such as the folkloric values of "hunayn" in Sentence 20. Nida (1964b:166) himself admits that the aim of the dynamic principle is to produce only "...the closest natural equivalent". Bassnet (1991:29) holds the same idea:

Equivalence in translation, then, should not be approached as a search for sameness, since sameness cannot even exist between two TL versions of the same text, let alone between the SL and the TL version.

A more refined perception of the dynamic principle is that of Newmark (1988a), which he calls "communicative translation". Though it is similar to Nida's (1964b:39) in that it defines translation as "...an attempt to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original," communicative translation differs in its more comprehensive conception of translation. In other words, it views translation as a communicative unit whose goal is to reproduce a certain message with a specific meaning and not only an equivalent effect irrespective of whether the ST meaning is in effect.
Teaching according to the dynamic equivalence method will necessarily imply a comparison between SL and culture and TL and culture. Indeed, the use of comparative studies can be beneficial for the translation theorist and teacher alike. For instance, Lado (1986:46) shows that the most serious areas of difficulty that confront translators and foreign language learners in general are those that pertain to cross-cultural dissimilarities or untranslatability of the text itself.

It is then important to understand how cultural mismatch affects the learning/teaching process of translation. Assuming that translation is a communicative act, its failure can be due to three types of cross-cultural differences suggested by Gumperz et al. (1979).

i. Different Cultural Assumptions

Communicative difficulties constantly confront a trainee translator when the text begins with unshared assumptions about its communicative purpose. Consider, for example, the English word "bar" which has opposite cultural values in Arabic. For an English reader, it is a place where people get together, chat, drink, and play games. By contrast, the Arabic equivalents, "xammāra/hāna" (a place for drinking alcohol), is in itself a stigmatising term in the Libyan context. This is because it involves "xamr" (wine), which is forbidden in Islamic culture and is associated with moral deviance and religious corruption.
Instances of cross-cultural assumptions between Arabic and English are usually subject to a shift of ideology. For example, the word "gay" in its extended meaning from the adjective, "gay" meaning happy, as its denotative (see, 1.2.1), is most often translated into Arabic as:

(21) ṣād jinsiyyan! (queer).

Notice that, unlike the English, the Arabic "ṣād" denotes deviance from the sexual norm. Thus, the two nouns (English and Arabic) represent two conflicting cultural assumptions which involve an ideological loss when substituting one for the other.

As can be noticed, meaning does not always stem from the word or its immediate surrounding but from its use in its cultural context. This phenomenon is referred to by Halliday and Hasan (1989:46) as "context of culture" in apposition to Malinowski's (1923) "context of situation". Context of situation refers to the immediate environment in which a text is uttered and corresponds, according to Halliday and Hasan, to the three communicative metafunctions (alias discourse parameters)\(^1\) of field, mode and tenor. On the other hand, the context of culture is much broader and consists of the values, traditions and patterns of thought of the culture in which the text occurs. Awareness of the context of culture is therefore essential in every

\(^1\) For an elaborate discussion of discourse parameters, see Halliday and Hasan 1989; see also sections 3.2.2 and 4.5.3.
communicative activity including teaching as has been illustrated by Halliday and Hasan (1989:46):

If the student coming into school with a first language other than English finds difficulty in using English to learn with, this is likely to be in part because he has not yet learnt to **expect** in English to use the context in this predictive way.

Several roles are assumed for teachers in this case. They have to explain the semantic difference and connotation of the word in order to facilitate the communication process between their trainees and the target culture. Teachers are required to maximise and upgrade their trainees' target cultural knowledge and awareness.

**ii Different Ways of Structuring Information**

Mismatch of conventions in structuring information and agreement constitute a source of difficulty for the translation trainee. For instance, translation from Arabic of a business letter in which directness is positively valued such as

\[(22)\) al-raja? ifâ?unā bi-nawāyākum fawran,\]

may result in an offence in English:

\[(22a)\) kindly inform us immediately of your intentions,\]

where a conventional way of requesting a favour would be:

\[(22b)\) we should be grateful if you would let us know (Hatim and Mason 1990:76).\]
Another basic characteristic ascribed to Arab trainees translating into English that is often a source of communicative failure of the translation is that of rhetorical overassertion and exaggeration (Khharma and Hajjaj 1989). This has been proved to some extent by Prothero (1955:10), who claims:

...it seems justifiable from our results that Arab students are more prone to overassertion than are American students, that American students are more given to understatement than are Arab students...[and]...that statements which seem to Arabs to be mere statements of fact will seem to Americans to be extreme or even violent assertions. Statements which Arabs view as showing firmness and strength may sound to Americans as exaggerated.

We believe that it is the teacher's role to introduce the trainees to a variety of texts that reflect the natural target (English) communicative settings which will enable them to grasp the difference. It is also beneficial to focus on the use of context as a system of resources available to the translator for the comprehension and expression of meaning, i.e. how best lexical items and grammatical structures can be used effectively in their language environment (Bell, 1991:115). By introducing trainees into the TL (i.e. English) and culture, as well as developing in them a context-sensitive functional view of text, they will be able to overcome major errors resulting from lack of contextual awareness such as stylistic inappropriateness and undesirable social norms.
iii. Different Ways of Speaking

This type may seem more relevant to the interpreter than to the translator as it rather concerns spoken language. Nonetheless, any text, spoken or written, is a dialogue that involves an interlocutor (particular or anonymous) and an audience. Thus, it is part of the translator's task to recognise and transfer appropriately, whenever possible, the ways of speaking of the original speaker. For example, when delivering a certain message, conversational techniques may differ from one language to another and also represent some kind of difficulty for the trainee. For instance, in Arabic the linguistic production of a speaker is usually accompanied by other non-verbal signs such as hand-movements which are not very desirable in the English etiquette. The tone also varies in Arabic depending on the age (old or young) of the conversing participant. Such a correlation between tone and age is not very apparent in the English culture though it exists in others such as Japanese, according to my Japanese informant. In conversations, it seems that the raising of voice is not desirable behaviour in English while it can pass unmarked in Arabic.

1.3.3 Text-Oriented Translation

Being culture-bound linguistic signs, both the source text and the target text are determined by the communicative situation in which they serve to convey a message (Nord 1991:7).
Though ST and TT are closely related, one being the translation of the other, they apparently take place each in a different type of situation. The ST is often transferred and adjusted to suit the new TL situation. But how can translators find out whether or not the TT is suitable for the new situation in the TL and target culture? In other words, on what basis can they judge that the TT satisfies the communicative function that is fulfilled in the ST?

The text is a whole communicative unit and must be translated as a whole and not in bits and bites. The ST should be thoroughly analysed and all factors and constituents, social and linguistic, must be taken into consideration. Thus, the ST analysis can provide the legitimate foundation for the determination of the equivalence framework without overlooking the particular requirements of the target situation. The analysis should show the different structures and functions of the text in relation to the immediate recipients and target groups as it is only through these extra-textual and intra-textual features that the text attains its communicative function (Wilss 1982).

The textual and contextual factors are relational in character in that they are interdependent and determinative of each other (see Nord 1991:127-30). The reader builds up a certain expectation regarding the intra-textual characteristics of the text by observing its general situation or context but reciprocally it is only through text that the translator can identify the relevant contextual cues to its meaning (ibid.).
In real life, contexts precede texts as the situation is prior to the discourse that relates to it (Halliday and Hasan 1989:5). The translator is expected to encompass the whole situation of the text in question and its communicative function has to be considered within that framework. Hartmann argues that "...if we want to translate a text we must find its situationally equivalent counterpart in the other language" (1980:52), i.e. in terms of the social and intertextual play involved and the function of the text. For instance, it is only by considering the social relationship involved in the ST in Sentence 23 that the translator can choose between Sentences 23a and 23b:

(23) Your contribution is a valuable initiative.
(23a) inna mušāarakatakum lanā la-bādira ṭayyiba
(23b) inna mušāarakataka lanā la-bādira ṭayyiba

If the tenor of the ST involves power and/or formality, translation 23a will be more appropriate and vice versa. The translation can also be decided according to the rhetorical purpose of the text whether argumentative, expository, and/or instructive, as can be illustrated through the single word "suffer", which can be interpreted differently in Arabic according to the text type: as "yu'cānī" (he suffers) in a medical expository text such as "yu'cānī min marād muzmin" (he suffers from an incurable disease) or as "yuqāsī" (he suffers) in a social argumentative text such as "yuqāsī min ḍank al-cāyš" (he suffers from hardship).
However, such situational analysis based on the idea that no linguistic or contextual factors are reflected in a linguistic form presupposes that the text is a nucleus around which other contextual factors cluster; otherwise, the translator would be lost in an unlimited semiotic commutability. Although context is a crucial element in determining the structure of the text, the latter in its turn shapes and defines context. Thus, the analysis at the textual level is part of a thorough approach to translation. Nonetheless, text should not be viewed as another kind of sentence only bigger (Halliday and Hasan 1989). That is, text is not a mere composite of linguistic elements organised hierarchically: words combined to create phrases, and sentences to form text. Text is rather a communicative unit which borrows its meaning from both the compositionality of its linguistic elements as well as its context. It (text) is both a product and a process; a product in the sense that it is the creation of an author and a process in that it involves the negotiation of meaning that may vary according to the participants of discourse (producers and receivers of text) (Hatim and Mason 1990:3-4).

It is then necessary that the trainee throughout the process of translation should be encouraged to approach texts, not words and structures. Trainees must also be encouraged to transfer the text as a whole and to acquire awareness to language use. They should be able to analyse and reconstruct rather than recreate the ST (Chau 1983:130). Although this approach can be

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1 For an elaborate discussion of semiotic commutability, see Peirce 1931.
challenging for trainee translators, it can have very promising results. The students not only gain competence in languages and their cultures, but also develop critical faculties that enable them to identify and transfer all hidden intra- and extra-linguistic features and explicit social cues.

1.4 Conclusion

Translation can be defined as an operation performed not only on two texts but also on two cultures, as one cannot separate language from culture. Nida points out, in this respect, that "...language is best described as part of culture" (1964a:90).

Throughout the first part of this chapter we have tried to give a brief cross-cultural account of English and Arabic and its role in the process of translation. We have seen that trainee translators should be aware of the need to bridge the cultural gap (with language being part of it) in order to give the closest possible meaning of the original in their translation. Nida emphasises this point when he claims,

The person who is engaged in translating from one language into another ought to be constantly aware of the contrast in the entire range of culture represented by the two languages [SL and TL] (ibid.).

Thus, the task of the translation teachers becomes difficult as they must concentrate on comparing not only the linguistic features of the two languages
in question but also the features of the two cultures. The task becomes even more intractable when translation involves texts from widely unrelated cultures such as the Arabic- and English-speaking worlds. Comparative teaching can be useful in this respect as trainees should be able to take into account the different cultural presuppositions in the two languages involved.

In the second part of this chapter we have focused attention on the problem of equivalence. It can be argued, on the one hand, that the hermeneutic and dynamic approaches are limited in scope; the former locates meaning within the ST regardless of the receptive culture and audience, whereas the latter works on the target culture without paying attention to the immediate context of text itself and the interdependence of its intertextual features. On the other hand, the text-oriented approach limits itself to the text as a sole unit in the translation process without taking into consideration the interplay of the text and its dynamic nature with its author in a TL context.

Having touched upon the problem of equivalence in translation, it would appear difficult to analyse translation in a systematic way because translation involves more than transferring words or structures; it also involves a network of ideas, meanings and above all socio-cultural norms and traditions. Translation should not be observed from one angle only. An interdisciplinary approach, which involves the interaction of all these models must be effected. However, it is an undeniable fact that the approaches discussed above offer
some insights that could be of great help for the translation teacher as we shall attempt to show in the following chapter. In our analysis of the students' errors all these angles will be taken into consideration and will be checked in terms of the gravity of the error.
CHAPTER TWO

Re-examination of Translation Teaching Models

2.1 Introduction

In Chapter One we attempted to situate the investigation within the Arabic-English linguistic and cultural context for a better understanding of the translation teaching process in general and trainees' errors in particular. Special focus was on the cross-linguistic and cross-cultural variation between Arabic and English and consequent potential areas of difficulty that may be encountered by translation-students. On the basis of these anticipations, teachers can devise a teaching programme for their students. This, however, does not remove their doubts and uncertainties about the course of the teaching/learning process which Kussmaul (1995:5) conflates in a cluster of questions:

Do we really put enough emphasis on the right areas? Or could it be that we stress problems which are not problems for our students after all, and that we actually disregard areas where they encounter difficulties? And has it ever crossed our minds that our students might perhaps have found ways of dealing with problems which we may never have thought of and which, if they are successful, may serve as models for our teaching?

Analysis and assessment of the students' performance become a useful tool to check the (in)validity of such doubts. Yet, assessment is not merely a tool for judging wrong performance of students. I believe that one of the main goals must
be to appraise the effectiveness of the total teaching programme before any attempt is made to assess the students' performance and errors. It therefore becomes necessary to consider and review the translation teaching model from which any criteria or measures for judging errors must essentially derive.

2.2 Teaching Translation: the Conflict between Theory and Practice

Translation theory offers more than one model. Different models have been proposed and subjected to heated debate amongst theoreticians. To this effect, students are often confused as to what translation theory is and what the best model is that can consolidate their translation skills. As a result, the teaching of translation has been seriously impeded by what Snell-Hornby (1983:105) described as the great gulf between translation theory and practice. She points out that while students express frustration at being burdened with theoretical consideration (both of translation theory and general linguistics) which they feel have nothing to do with the activity of translating, scholars talk scathingly of translators who are unwilling to investigate the theoretical basis of their work, thus reducing it to a "mere practical skill".

This can be traced back, as Thomas (1992:117-119) postulates, to the way models of translation are presented by their creators. The translation theorist develops a model and argues that it is better than the others. Therefore, the issue remains an area of open-ended discussion with no explicit consensual theory.
Thomas proposes an eclectic approach whereby translation theory is determined according to the type of text being translated. He suggests that the identification of a translation problem should precede the choice of the appropriate theory. For example, the decision to translate the following line from one of Shakespeare's sonnets:

(24) shall I compare thee to a Summer's day?

either in terms of dynamic equivalence (Sentence 24a) or of formal equivalence (Sentence 24b) should be dependent on the readership. If the reader is familiar with the foreign language culture, the former method is preferred, as in Sentence 24b:

(24a) hal li muqāranatuki bi-yawmin rabiʿi?
(Shall I compare thee to a Spring's day?)
(24b) hal li muqāranatuki bi-yawmin šayṭī
(Shall I compare thee to a Summer's day?)

Thus, before making a decision about a translation teaching theory, we should follow the procedures Thomas (1992) borrowed from Karl Popper: identify a teaching problem (P1), introduce a trial solution (TS), an error elimination (EE), and finally construct the theory according to the resulting situation (P2). This linear formula can be represented as follows:

\[ P1 \rightarrow TS \rightarrow EE \rightarrow P2 \]

(Figure One: the linear process of translation)

In this respect, an EA of students' performance would provide a crucial feedback to the teacher helping to identify P1 as a first step towards determination of the
translation teaching model. However, the feedback from students' errors only exhibits inadequacies of the model being taught. In other words, we can identify a problem (P1) only in respect of a theory; the concept "problem" itself suggests *a priori* theory. The students' errors are often measured in terms of what has been taught or what objectives are aimed at. We cannot assess students' errors without referring to a theoretical framework that is adopted or will be implemented as a teaching model. Thus, the construction of a theoretical framework P2 should precede and conclude the formula above. P1 (problem) remains the teaching variable which keeps changing according to different training situations and generating different theoretical perspectives. Therefore, we would imagine that the process is cyclical rather than linear as suggested above by Thomas:

(Figure Two: the cyclical process of translation)

Any translation practice presupposes, therefore, an existing theoretical framework. But to determine how translation theory operates or rather should operate remains a controversial issue among linguists. In crude terms, the debate revolves around the process versus product dichotomy, a view that is expressed by Hartmann (1980:52) as follows:
one of the perennial difficulties in translation theory is that we do not have direct access to the *act* or process of translating, so we have to rely on indirect evidence in the form of the *product* or result of that process.

Yet, reducing translation to product-to-product comparison between the ST and the TT is bound to impair our understanding of the nature of translating as a communicative process (Hatim and Mason 1990:3). While Hartmann (1980:52) emphasised the product-approach to translation, Hatim and Mason (1990:3) adopted the other extreme which views translation as a process. It is my view that each claim complements the other. The translation process cannot have any validity without evidence from the product as a means of tracing the translation procedures. Likewise, a good product cannot be achieved without a solid framework of ST and TT procedures, i.e. the regularities of the translation process, in particular genres, cultures, and historical periods. This comprehensive view of translation is also suggested by Bell (1991:13), who claims that translation consists of three interrelated meanings:

a. Translating, which is the process by which we translate a communicative occurrence taking place within a social framework.

b. A translation, which he identifies as the product of translating i.e. the translated text.

c. Translation, which is the abstract that encompasses both the process of translation and the product of that process.
Translation is therefore both a process and a product: a process which involves the negotiation of meaning in the translator's mind and ends up in a product which is the actual translated text that will enter another meaning transaction. This is why we associate the translation process with the translator in Figure Three, since it takes place in the translator's mind.

Having accepted that translation is both a process and a product, teachers are confronted with the problem of how to represent these two aspects in the teaching of translation. They can make use in this respect of the different existing methodological approaches to translation teaching. Kussmaul (1995:6) argues that the value of these approaches lies essentially in their pedagogical function. He writes,
...they [different approaches to translation] can help us to put our students on the right path, as it were, and if they have lost their way these approaches can help them to get a clearer view of their destination again.

I shall discuss below some translation teaching models and see how far a product-oriented EA can be incorporated within a more encompassing translation process.

2.3 Translation Teaching Models

Teaching methodology in translation and foreign language teaching alike revolve around the same dichotomy of "competence" and "performance"; in other words, teaching the linguistic aspects of the language over (or without) the functional aspects and vice versa. We can add a third model that seeks to combine both aspects. In fact, these approaches constitute a continuum rather than distinct clear-cut typologies. Translation is a complex process and all approaches can make useful contributions and in many different ways to an integrated perspective.

2.3.1 The Linguistic Model

The structural theory of language constitutes the backbone of the linguistic model. The study of language is thought of as an analysis of the text at different levels of structural organisation viz. phonology, morphology and syntax (Richards 1986:48). This scientific approach to language analysis is believed to
offer the foundations for the ideal approach to translation teaching. Translation training, it is assumed, entails the mastering of elements or building blocks of the languages in question (i.e. that are being taught) and acquiring the rules by which these elements are combined from phonic, graphic, lexical and grammatical units. One of the main proponents of applying the linguistic approach to translation is Catford (1965:viii) who holds that,

since translation has to do with language, the analysis and description of translation processes must make considerable use of categories set up for the description of languages.

Catford (1965:120) views translation as a replacement of each textual element in the SL by an equivalent textual element in the TL. According to Catford, this replacement can be achieved by making the structure of a language, which is seen as a set of universal scales, operate at four levels namely phonic, graphic, lexical, and grammatical, as represented in the diagram below:

(Figure Four: the linguistic model of translation)
Although Catford's claim involves equality of grammatical structures as well as the meaning between lexical items as can be illustrated through Sentence 25:

(25) wa-nādaynā ixwānanā fī l-Cālam

[Grammatical] We /nādaynā/ -ed upon our /ixwānanā/ in the /Cālam/

[Lexical] /wa-/ call /-nā/ brothers /fī/ /l-/ world

[grammatical - lexical - graphic] We called upon our brothers in the world,

it has been proved by Catford himself to be limited. This is because, when moving from one linguistic system to another, the translator is likely to face grammatical or lexical non-correspondences especially between languages which are pragma-linguistically incongruent like Arabic and English. The application of this model to the translation of Sentence 26:

(26) Make hay while the sun shines

may produce a nonsensical translation if interpreted literally in which case the intended message will be distorted as in Sentence 26a:

(26a) išnaC al-qašC inda ṭulūC al-šams.

The intended meaning of the ST, however, is the urge to make good use of chances. Sentence 26 can be best represented by the Arabic idiomatic expression in Sentence 26b:

(26b) lā tu?ajjilC amal al-yawm ilā l-ğad
    (do not postpone what should be done today till tomorrow).

We can also claim that this theory of language does not go beyond sentence level. There is often a tendency to manipulate language and disregard meaning
(Al-Mutawa and Kailani, 1989). The theory's main problem arises when it comes to coherence which is one of the most important standards of textuality. Coherence relates to the whole body of the text as a single unit rather than sentences independent of each other. I believe that the division of SL text into smaller meaning units (e.g. sentences or phrases) does not ensure the translation of the communicative meaning of the SL text, owing to the co-textual independence of sentences, phrases, words, etc. and their inter-textual extension as a coherent unit. Consider, for instance, Sentence 27:

(27) The Prime Minister launched his counter-attack during questions in the Commons after Margaret Beckett, Labour's deputy leader, accused him of presiding over "the biggest tax hike in British history", adding: "From April, this Government will squeeze every British family until the pips squeak".

(An extract from a translation test for undergraduate diploma students, University of Salford, January 1994.)

Here, the text can be translated successfully if it is considered as a whole and not broken into fragments. For instance, the processing of the following fragment on its own may represent some difficulty for foreign readers when unaided by the co-text:

(27a) From April, this Government will squeeze every British family until the pips squeak.

The determination of the metaphorical meaning of "squeeze" and "pips squeak" is even harder for a foreign reader such as the Arab translator. Although the meaning of the formula "squeeze somebody until the pips squeak" may be apparent for a native speaker, it is not often the case for a foreign reader.
Formulae are often parts of language that non-native speakers are less exposed to and therefore their meaning becomes difficult unless retrieved from the whole co-text. The translator should in this regard consider the text as a sequence of interdependent sentences rather than singly occurring fragments. For example, consideration of previous information conveyed in the text will undoubtedly make the interpretation of such fragments much easier:

(i) the government is accused
(ii) there is a tax rise
(iii) families will be affected from April.

By way of pragmatic inference, we can deduce various "missing links" (Brown and Yule 1984) which will assess and pave the way for the interpretation of the text. We can infer that the government is establishing a tax rise, the tax rise will be in effect in April and the British family will have to pay it from April. It will be then easier to deduce that the act of squeezing is caused by the government's tax rise and the term is used to reflect the British families' suffering as a result. In much the same way, the meaning of "the pips squeak" can be determined as referring to the degree of suffering. Such inferences, as we can see, are possible only by way of free movement within the text and without establishing rigid borderlines between sentences.

Context is also a crucial aspect of translation. For instance, unless we know the situational context of Sentence 28, various interpretations arise:
(28) he is going home
(i) he is going to his house.
(ii) he is going to his country.
(iii) he is going to his home-town.

This example shows that neither the translation at the sentence level nor the mechanistic transformation at the word level can solve the ambiguity in the comprehension of the ST Sentence 28 reflected in Sentences i, ii and iii. The principle of

abstraction and generalisation of the linguistic sign [makes] the semantic field studies [i.e. meaning] stay in the realm of language, or competence. However translators work with texts, and operate at the level of parole, or performance (Schogt 1992:196).

Thus, only co-textual or contextual cues can determine the intended meaning of the sentence or other smaller meaning units. So far, we have been dealing with "what" we teach to the trainees in the light of the linguistic model but we still have to ask "how" this is possible. Indeed,

a method cannot be based simply on a theory of language. It also needs to refer to the psychology of learning and to learning theory (Richards 1986:50).

This mechanistic view of translation is similar to the behaviourist concept of language. Behaviourism is an empirically based approach to language\(^1\) (cf. Skinner 1957). It claims that language is a habit, the learning of which is dependent on three crucial elements: stimulus, response, and reinforcement.

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\(^{1}\) For a non-empirical view of language, see Chomsky 1965.
We can claim that a contrastive analysis (CA) of the source and target language would help teachers predict their trainees' potential areas of difficulty. Interference between the two languages, Lado (1957) believes, is the main source of students' errors; that is why a CA method to compare SL and TL is needed. However, CA made claims that are both strong and weak: strong in the sense that they overestimated, at times, the role of interference in cross-linguistic interaction and weak in the sense that they failed to predict other non-interference errors which have sometimes been an obstacle to the learning process. In this respect EA is also essential to identify uncovered areas of difficulty by CA. EA has also the power as a retrospective process, to verify predictions made by CA and provide accordingly appropriate teaching techniques.

If we view translation as a behaviourist practice, both the ST and the teacher's instruction on how to translate represent the stimulus component of the process. The response, on the other hand, is triggered by stimulus. It represents the trainees' reaction to the ST and the teacher's instruction. Finally, reinforcement is an important element in the training process because it increases the likelihood that the behaviour will not occur again, by positively reinforcing trainees' successful translation and negatively reinforcing their inadequate translation. The whole process can be represented in the following figure:
Let us consider again the reinforcement procedure, as it is a complex but essential one. If the TT is an adequate reflection of the ST, this means that the trainee has succeeded in following or adhering to the teacher's instruction. As a result, there will be positive reinforcement to the trainee's production (TT) and obviously to her/his method of translation. But what will happen if the trainee's reaction does not conform to the teacher's instruction? How can we judge a translation to be right or wrong if we consider the fact that a ST may have different but adequate translations?

Obviously, if teachers view translation as a habit reinforcement where errors should be eradicated by all means, they would fail to account for the creativity of trainees who can find effective ways of translation other than the teacher's. This is because translation training is a process that necessarily involves trial and
error. It is generally held that in a learning/training process, learners who play a reactive role by responding to the teacher’s stimulus are often left with little control over the content, pace, or style of learning. They are not encouraged to initiate interaction, because this may lead to mistakes (Richards, 1986:56).

The teacher’s role then becomes central and dominating. S/He "models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, monitors and corrects the learners' performance" (ibid.). As a result, learners/trainees avoid going into areas which they are not sure they can master and teachers consequently do not construct a complete picture of their students’ progress.

Thus, the linguistic paradigm of translation teaching and practice can be called into question. We can claim here that translation training is more than a set of habits that are to be reinforced either positively or negatively. Our claim, therefore, runs contrary to a similar claim made by Healy (1978: 55), namely that "translators are, willy nilly, to a large extent made." We can also add that translation training is a process that involves the creation of a meaning and response in the TL, but equally undergoes the influence of the translator in a communicative transaction.

2.3.2 The Communicative Model

There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless (Hymes 1972:278).
The communicative model comes partly as a response to criticism that faced the linguistic model. Emphasis has moved to another fundamental dimension that was inadequately covered in the linguistic model - the functional and communicative potential of the text (e.g. Searle 1969 and Halliday 1978).

Proponents of the communicative approach (e.g. Newmark 1988a) attempt to investigate the systems of meaning that lie behind the communicative uses of text. The approach accounts for both the grammatical and notional implications of the text. It starts from a theory of language as communication where translation is a means to deliver a communicative goal in another language. Therefore,

if the purpose of translation is to achieve a particular function for the target addressee, anything that obstructs the achievement of this purpose is a translation error (Nord 1997:74)

The approach was primarily designed to train students to produce in the receptor language the natural equivalent to the message of the SL (Nida 1964b). Take for instance the following Hadith:

(29) allāhumma fa-şad innī qad ballağtu
allāhumma fa-şad innī qad ballağtu
allāhumma fa-şad innī qad ballağtu
(As God is my witness, I have conveyed the message. As God is my witness, I have conveyed the message. As God is my witness, I have conveyed the message).
The repetition in the Arabic text is very crucial to meaning as it is used as a stylistic device to emphasise the message (see also 4.5.2). Its parallel counterpart in the TL, however, produces an unnatural text because repetition is most often avoided in English. Therefore, a natural communicative equivalent could be:

(29b) I declare, as God is my witness, that the message has been conveyed where repetition is omitted in the English text but its communicative function of emphasis is re-expressed by converting the SL active voice structure to a passive voice TT, as English would favour a passive construction in this context.

Newmark (1988a:82-83) views the approach as an approximate translation where a SL cultural word is translated by a TL word. The choice of features indigenous to the target language and culture is made in preference to features with their roots in the SL. The result, Hervey and Higgins (1992:28) argue, is to minimise the forcing of SL-specific features in the TT, thereby converting it to some extent into a natural TL text within a target cultural setting.

Cultural transplantation represents the extreme degree of the communicative model whereby the ST undergoes a "wholesale" conversion into the TL without any trace of foreignness. For example, the title of the famous fictional novel in Sentence 30:

(30) Alice in Wonderland
can be transplanted into Arabic as in Sentence 30a:

(30a) laylā fi bilād al-ṣajā`íb
(Layla in Wonderland).
The result of this technique is that translation will fail to convey its role as a means of better understanding between cultures. The TL readers are often presented with a reflection of their own cultures which overlooks the cultural specificity of the ST. As a result, cases of cultural clash often abound in actual language contact situations. Trainees, in their turn, will tend to project their own cultural frame of reference onto the foreign text and culture. The interpretation of the ST, in this context, is performed in accordance with the TL cultural norms and patterns (Witte 1994:70). With such a process, there is the risk of distorting the intended meaning of the ST. Translation in this event functions as a gatekeeping device which reinforces a set of familiar and ideologically friendly ideas as a faithful rendering from one language into another (Megrab 1999).

The communicative model holds, therefore, the view that everything which is said in one language should be said with the same communicative effect in the other. Nida and Taber's (1969) dynamic equivalence can be said to fall within this framework. It assumes that translation consists in producing in the receptor language the most natural equivalent to the message of the SL.

However, the principle of natural and similar effect most often compromises the originality of the ST and may even alter its function as mentioned before. A more moderate view of this approach is Newmark's (1988b:47) communicative translation where he assumes that translation should:
render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.

The difference between the two (Nida and Newmark) is that Nida distinguishes between (i) formal equivalence as the closest possible match of form and content most applicable in legal and diplomatic contexts and (ii) dynamic equivalence as the closest match of effect. Newmark (1988a:39), on the other hand, distinguishes between semantic and communicative translation. Hatim and Mason (1990:7) argue, in this respect, that the advantage of [Newmark’s] formulation is that the categories (semantic and communicative) cover more of the middle ground of translation practice. Semantic translation attempting to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original is less extreme than formal equivalence and therefore conforms more closely to common translation strategy.

In the teaching activity, proponents of the cultural approach attempt to acculturate their students in both languages so that cultural gaps are bridged as for as possible. Trainees would be made aware of the fact that translation is a message provided to a particular audience in a particular communication situation. As a result, errors that may affect the intelligibility of the translated text to the target audience would be sanctioned as serious within this framework. There is here the risk of overlooking the quality of translation in terms of
faithfulness to the ST and altering the type and function that the text is set to fulfil.

2.3.3 The Text-Linguistic Model

While the linguistic model identifies translation with a transfer of structural sub-levels of text (e.g. word and sentence) and the communicative model defines it as a purposive communicative act, the text-linguistic model goes beyond the two approaches by catering for other essential meaning aspects. It starts from context as a crucial element which determines the meaning of the text. We can distinguish within the text-linguistic model between two conflicting claims: Nord's (1997, among others) call for a ST-oriented translation analysis where primacy is given to the ST, whereas Toury (1980, among others) emphasises the need for a target-oriented translation. In either case, the idea of text linguistics is organised around seven principles which Beaugrande de and Dressler (1981) term as standards of textuality. Yet, the text itself is considered the primary unit of study from which the reader or the translator can infer and refer to other contextual elements.

2.3.3.1 Standards of Textuality

The importance of the text linguistic model is that it treats the text not as a set of separate words and sentences and not as a linguistic unit intended to impress or merely to inform, but as a whole communicative unit which derives its meaning from other aspects of context. The treatment of
sentences taken in isolation from their surrounding text will often be highly ambiguous, and sometimes practically meaningless; much of the message of text itself can only be understood when seen as a single structure (Papegaaij and Schubert 1988:20).

To this effect, an error analysis within the text-linguistic model should assess to what extent the translation preserves its communicative unity. The analyst/translator still has to devise the appropriate tools to determine and examine the preservation of the text's unity. This goal consists, as Beaugrande de and Dressler (1981:37) point out, of describing and explaining both shared and distinct features between texts. It should describe the way texts as communicative occurrences are

connected to others via grammatical dependencies on the surface (cohesion); via conceptual dependencies in the textual world (coherence); via the attitudes of the participants toward the text (intentionality and acceptability); via the incorporation of the new and the unexpected (informativity); via the setting (situationality); and via the mutual relevance of separate texts (intertextuality).

These features are called the seven standards of textuality which every text should meet in order to satisfy its communicative function. The role of error analysis will, therefore, consist of checking that the standards of textuality existing in the ST are also satisfied in the TT.
i. Cohesion and Coherence

The first two standards, as Bell (1991:164-165) notes, though not the same, share the common features of binding the text together by creating sequences of meaning. Cohesion serves to connect the surface components of text while coherence requires the sequencing of concepts and relations of the textual world (ibid.). It should be noted, however, that cohesion and coherence are not always manifested in the same way cross-linguistically and the analyst/translator should be well aware of this fact. For instance, cohesion is usually language-specific; thus, the analyst/evaluator should examine whether the student has managed to find equivalent sequences of connectivity in the TT. Coherence relations such as the cause/effect relation, should remain, whenever possible, constant in translation from ST to TT because of the shift of emphasis or meaning their alteration may cause. Consider for example the following Hadith:

(31) là yu?min aḥadukum ḥattā yuḥibba li-axīḥ mā yuḥibb li-nafsīḥ
If the translation does not preserve the condition relation that holds in the ST, meaning can be distorted, as in Sentence 31a:

(31a) He who wishes for his brother what he wishes for himself truly believes in God.
Translation of Sentence 31a implies that such a wish is what makes one a true believer in God whereas in the original text (Sentence 31) such a wish is just part of true belief in God. A more faithful translation should preserve the condition relation existing in the ST as in Sentence 31b:

(31b) None of you [truly] believes in God until he wishes for his brother what he wishes for himself.
Notice that the addition of the adverb "truly" is vital to the determination of the expression's intended meaning: belief in God does not depend only on wishing your fellow-humans well since this is just part of what is involved (Megrab 1997:232). In dealing with such texts, the analyst should carefully observe meanings and how they are conceptually related within the scope of what is intended and, as is apparent, the text-linguistic model offers the necessary framework to complete this task.

ii. Intentionality and Acceptability

While cohesion and coherence can be seen as two text-phenomena, the notions of intentionality and acceptability have a strict pragmatic foregrounding in the sense that they are primarily concerned with the relations which obtain between participants in discourse. At this level, the text is viewed as wholly emanating from the individual using specific strategies (e.g. cohesion and coherence) to communicate a certain "act" to the receiver. Thus, the text would involve a producer who performs a communicative act with particular intended meaning (intentionality) and a receiver who would react to the act either positively or negatively (acceptability). Notice that the communicative model has been incorporated in this context.

Another task of the analyst is to examine whether the two notions in the ST are well represented in the TT. But this is not an easy task because, for instance, once intentionality, is identified, the translator faces two alternatives, namely
managing or monitoring the text (Beaugrande de and Dressler 1981: 113-137). In managing, the translator attempts to manage or steer the ST in a manner favourable to the TT goals in respect of the TL receivers' response. This technique is usually very effective in translation teaching as it leaves some freedom for the students to learn how to develop an approach to translation that suits their personal characteristics and to act as responsible translators (Holz­Manttari, 1984:180-81).

However, the technique can be criticised for being partial or unfaithful because of the high subjectivisation of translation that it may induce, particularly in cases of sensitive texts where the general norm requires all possible objectivity. The role of EA in this case is to pinpoint those excesses of freedom translators allow themselves at times. In a monitoring situation, the translator provides as detached a translation as possible which may however compromise the communicative goal of the ST if the thought or cultural structure in the TT is alien and incomprehensible to the TL reader or is likely to provoke an opposite effect from that existing in the ST. It is for the analyst to decide whether the translation as such should be interdependent of a complete textual analysis in which other communication components are taken into consideration.

iii. Informativity, Situationality and Intertextuality

The three remaining standards of textuality concern the way the text's information is structured, the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of
occurrence, and the relationship of the text to other preceding and surrounding texts. Thus, every text would have an information structure, a relevant situation, and an intertextual extension. If information in the text is structured in a predictable way, the text will be easy to read but uninteresting in the sense that it does not involve any significant efforts in processing. In other words,

...the less predictable a choice is, the more informative and interesting it is; excessive unpredictability may produce an unreadable text, though (Bell 1991:167-68).

Thus, the students should be trained to define some limits whereby predictability must not be too high to the level of unreadability or too low to the level of boredom. Bell (1991:220-1) suggests in this respect three regulative principles:

a. Efficiency, which requires economy of effort by participants in discourse (producer and receiver).

b. Effectiveness, which consists of creating the required conditions for the achievement of the communicative goal aimed at.

c. Appropriateness, which attempts to provide a balance between (a) and (b).

This is not an easy task to accomplish because efficiency and effectiveness tend to be in conflict. Thus, the teachers' analysis of their students' translations should allow scope of encouragement of trainees to make a personal but responsible decision, because translation is a process which usually requires decision-making. A teacher-dominant view of translation teaching which emphasises a strict adherence to the teacher's method or technique rather than giving way to the student's role would rather produce
translators who have primarily learned how to adapt their translating styles to please their various teachers, and [show] the general passivity and absence of communication which are the natural consequences of performance magistrale (Kiraly 1995:23).

The analysis of the text does not consist only of the linguistic signs it is composed of and the participants in discourse but involves as well its relevance to the situation in which it occurs. Consider, for example, the metaphor in Sentence 32:

(32) I can see a light at the end of the tunnel.

This cannot be understood properly unless its situation occurrence is taken into account. For instance, the reader may take it literally if its immediate situation concerns a passenger waiting for a train near a tunnel. But situationality is just part of the contextual-meaning network of text. Translators should also be trained to go beyond the linguistic text, the participants and the immediate context in order to find meaning in other contextually "far" but related texts.

Intertextuality is, in this respect, an important principle which relates textual occurrences to each other by evoking our previous textual experience. Using the preceding textual experience as a guide, the translator is consciously reconstructing elements of intentionality, acceptability, situationality, informativity, coherence, and cohesion to conform to the textual expectations of the target audience (Neubert and Shreve 1992:119). Intertextuality is a global
pattern that perpetuates and organises the other standards. Thus, inadequacies in translation, as Neubert and Shreve (ibid.) postulate,

...are usually the result of an objective divergence between the textual conventions of the two communicative communities and the translator’s failure to mediate the divergence.

A successful translation would involve a successful intertextual mediation that puts the ST at the disposal of the TL reader through a process of semiotic transformation of all SL signs into a TL matrix. In other words, the translated text should read as a natural monolingual text that is fully integrated in the TL’s textual world. This is, however, an ideal goal for translation theory to pursue and for translation practice to achieve because translation, as Duff (1981:xi) observes, no matter how competent, often reads like a foreign tongue. Thus, it is more realistic and more objective as well to create what Neubert and Shreve (1992:120) call "exotic intertextual hybrids". The translator can allow the intertextuality of the ST to show through in the TT which would consequently implement cross-cultural communication and acquaintance.

Intertextuality is an important factor in determining the meaning of the text. The abstraction of the meaning of a particular text implies making some intertextual resemblance/distinction with other types of text. Intertextuality is therefore closely related to the notion of text-type. Intertextual distinctions, Neubert and Shreve (ibid.) argue, are first-order text-typological distinctions.
2.3.3.2 Text-Types

One of the characteristics of text that we noted above is its resemblance to or difference from other texts. But we may wonder, as did Bell (1991:202), "how is it given that each text is unique, that some texts are treated as the same?" The key concept for answering such a question, he suggests "...is that of a type-token relationship; each individual text is a token - a realisation - of some ideal type which underlies it" (ibid.).

In this respect, many attempts have been made to set up a typology of texts for translation. We can distinguish mainly between formal, functional and rhetorical typologies. The formal typology draws heavily on the study of register. It associates text-typology with the prevailing register distinction between text-types like institutional, technical, and literary (cf. Neubert and Shreve 1992). There are, however, various obstacles to the application of the formal typological model to translation. The number of types is not definite, and there is a vagueness about the meaning of concepts such as "literary", "technical" or "scientific". Traits that can be said to belong to one of the types can be found in another. Thus, field, the basis of formal typology categorisation cannot act as an adequate discriminator between texts.

Proponents of the functional typological model (e.g. Newmark 1988a, 1988b) divide texts according to Buhler's (1965) three main functions of language: the expressive, the informative and the vocative. The expressive type consists of the
feelings of the author (producer) regardless of any response. The second type concerns the facts of a topic such as reported ideas or theories. The third type is concerned with the readership or the addressee. One advantage of this typology is that it makes it possible to list each text-type under a function. But the functional typology overlooks how these functions are rhetorically represented in the text.

Finally, rhetorical typologists (e.g. Halliday and Hasan 1976, Hatim and Mason 1990) prefer to divide texts according to the rhetorical purposes that characterise every text. Within this model, three major text-types - with other branching subtypes - can be listed. First, an expository text is used to analyse concepts with the aim of informing or narrating. Second, an argumentative text is used to evaluate objects, events or concepts with the aim of influencing future behaviour. Third, an instructive text is used to direct the receiver towards a certain course of action. As we shall see when analysing students' translations in subsequent chapters (Four and Five), the notion of rhetorical text-typology is very useful. Each text-type requires a specific format which facilitates the task of the analyst in examining the communicative textuality of translation (see Chapters Four and Five).

Yet, the three typological notions (formal, functional and rhetorical) may not exclude each other. They overlap in some instances; for example, both the functional category "vocative" and the rhetorical category "instructive" tend to
aim at the readership. The notions may also complement each other; for example, the formal categories may serve as a format for either the functional or rhetorical typology. Texts can be categorised as (a.) expressive, literary or (b.) expository, scientific.

We may conclude that the translator is first of all a text-analyst who should determine a type and a format; a profile - using House's (1977) term - for the text s/he is dealing with. The translator will then need to consciously manipulate and combine the features of the profile that are essential to make the translated text an instance of the text type in the TL and culture.

2.4 Conclusion

This summary of translation theory and teaching models is an attempt to integrate the empirical study of error analysis into the theory of translation. Translation teachers usually choose a model of translation and judge their students' performance accordingly. The process of analysis is not, however, as simple, since models of translation differ in focus and therefore in assessment. We have seen that the linguistic model locates meaning within the structural system, the communicative model within culture and communication, and the text-linguistic model within the text. We have shown that the text-linguistic model is more comprehensive, involving, as it does, the interaction of all the different models, although sometimes translating a text can be mainly related to one of them, depending on the knowledge that prevails in it. More important, translating is made more successful not by adapting one particular model but by
a better understanding of how different perspectives on translation relate to each other. This view of translation is also expressed by Neubert and Shreve (1992:32) who believe that despite the particularities of each model, their interdependencies are much greater and can contribute to the establishment of a comprehensive and integrated theory of translation.

Thus, every particular teaching situation would have its drawbacks and advantages, and the task of the teacher is to retain the advantageous aspects. However, this eclectic view of translation theory may also add to the confusion of students about the appropriate model of translation. Accordingly, an EA process is needed as feedback to track the students' areas of confusion and difficulty, to redirect them, and then to provide remedial teaching or reassessment of the existing teaching models or pedagogy.

The text-linguistic model starts from context as a crucial element which determines the meaning of the text. Yet, the text itself is considered the primary unit of study from which the reader or the translator can infer and refer to other contextual elements.
CHAPTER THREE

Evaluation of Translation Errors: Procedures and Criteria

3.1 Introduction

The domain of errors is a complex issue that requires a solid theoretical background before any attempt is made to induce or generalise conclusions about students. Although researchers in this field differ in their participation in the teaching process, they (e.g. Corder 1981, Davies 1982, Kussmaul 1995) generally uphold similar methodological criteria. They suggest that a sound account of students' errors should be organised in terms of certain procedural steps, namely identification of errors (discovering the deficiency), description of errors (looking at the symptoms), explanation of errors (diagnosing the reasons for the error), and evaluation of errors (assessing the gravity of the error and accordingly recommending the appropriate therapy). Thus, an effective evaluation, which is the main goal of this research, cannot proceed without the \textit{a priori} stages of identification, description and explanation.

First, errors in the corpus (students' translations) must be detected. For this, it seems necessary that the teacher should make an accurate critical analysis of the students' translations so as to be able to identify errors. In describing the identified errors, teachers should try to see in what way the student has failed to communicate or transfer the ST message by comparing the ST and the student's target product. Then, they will have to explain how the trainee has
deviated from an adequate translation and what rules s/he has broken. Finally, the teacher should adopt evaluative measures and seek appropriate pedagogical assistance.

3.2 Preliminaries to Error Evaluation

3.2.1 Identification

Recognition of translation errors is not as easy a task as it may appear. Teachers usually find it hard to define what is erroneous and what is not. Pym (1993:102) distinguishes in this respect between errors and mistakes. The idea is adopted originally from foreign language teaching (Corder 1973:256-61) although the definitions of "mistake" and "error" have been altered. For Pym (ibid.), a mistake (which is usually the case in a foreign language class) reflects a deficiency in the linguistic competence of the student. It is binary as it can be judged as wrong or right. An error, on the other hand, (usually typical of the translation class) reflects a deficiency in translation skills. It is non-binary and can only be assessed in terms of acceptability or appropriateness. That is, it requires that the actually selected TT is contrasted to at least one further target version which could have been selected, and then to other possible acceptable answers (Pym 1992:279-88). The non-binary nature of translation errors makes the process of recognition a point of controversy among teachers because, as Newmark (1988b:6) points out, "a satisfactory translation is always possible ...there is no such thing as a perfect, ideal or 'correct' translation."
Translation quality assessment should then be performed in such terms rather than the right/wrong dichotomy. Satisfactory/acceptable translation is used here to indicate that the translated text cannot be judged as simply wrong or right as it is in monolingual statements such as:

(33) the earth is flat.

A translation cannot be either rejected completely or taken for granted as true or right. For example, the Arabic expression:

(34) ġamaliyya istišhādiyya
(martyr operation)

is often rendered into English as:

(34a) suicide attack

The reverse translation of the English text (34a) will produce in Arabic a different meaning from the original text. This is likely to be because of a clash of cultures which is enacted in the two linguistic texts. In the Western culture such acts are often associated with violence, terrorism, and even fanaticism, whatever their reason or purpose. In the Arab-Islamic culture, however, such acts are a sign of self-sacrifice and courage especially when they are committed against a so-called "enemy" or "occupier". However, despite the ideological shift in translation (34a), it cannot be judged as simply true because it deviates from the ST meaning or simply false because it has been managed in a manner that serves the TL reader's thought and therefore the communicative purpose of translation.
To this effect, translation teachers may differ as to which translation can be considered acceptable/accurate or unacceptable/inaccurate and consequently as to what is to be considered as erroneous. An error sanctioned by a teacher as serious may be overlooked by another provided that the meaning is still effected. Consider Sentence 35:

(35) the decree was signed by the president
    (35a) wuqqi‘a l-qarār min qibal al-ra‘īs
    (35b) waqqā‘a l-ra‘īs al-qarār.

Passivised forms like Sentence 35 are acceptable in English, while the acceptability of the corresponding Arabic form in Sentence 35a varies according to the teacher and the context in which it occurs. This is because Arabic passives are typically agentless (Saad 1982:2). Translation 35a, however, is acceptable in media discourse which is more open to Western styles and structures.

Disparity between teachers also arises when the error is due to cultural mismatch. For instance, judgement of Sentence 36a as accurate or erroneous may depend on whether the translator intends to introduce the TL reader to the SL’s religious culture or simply has failed to observe the cultural demands of the TL:

(36) Jesus, Son of God
    (36a) Cīsā ibn Allah.

Nonetheless, not all translation failures can be clearly identified as either belonging to the category of "mistake" or "error". For instance, it would be hard to tell whether the inappropriateness of Sentence 36a is due to the
producer's lack of the necessary linguistic (pragmatic) knowledge and therefore should be identified as a mistake; or whether it simply reflects a lack of the necessary translational skills to differentiate between a literal and dynamic method of translation according to situation and context, and should therefore be classified as an error. Only our feedback from the producer's linguistic knowledge may solve the confusion. To this effect, my analysis in the following chapters will incorporate all types of error. I will also argue in Chapter Seven that this typology is not useful, at least in the context of my study.

Having said this, a feedback from the students being assessed is still an essential component of a well-informed judgement of their errors. The teacher can have recourse to this type of feedback in the process of error detection in two different ways. In the case of an informal assessment process, the teacher may, if necessary, ask the students what they want to convey by the erroneous translation in question. This can pave the way to discovering whether the error can be traced either back to a misunderstanding of the ST or a lack of competence in the TL. In the former case, the teacher would be carrying out an authoritative interpretation (Corder 1981:37-38) of the student's erroneous translation. The second type is often performed when no direct contact can be made with the student whose errors are studied. The teacher should, therefore, infer the student's intention whenever possible from his/her knowledge of the
idiosyncratic style and the strategies used. This process is referred to as a plausible interpretation (ibid.).

In translation practice, however, some teachers tend to opt for a plausible interpretation of their students' translations given the negative pedagogical implications the authoritative interpretation may induce. Students often feel demotivated and may even develop lack of self-confidence if they are repeatedly pressed to explain their errors for which they may feel embarrassed. Thus, I believe it is advisable that teachers should be lenient at this level of EA, particularly at early training stages, in order to allow students to get to grips with practical translation skills and strategies.

3.2.2 Description

Describing a translation error is describing the difference between what the trainee has done and what should have been done. That is, the teacher checks where the student has failed to communicate the meaning or part of the meaning of the ST. The process is a comparison between the trainee's erroneous construction and the teacher's reconstructed one. EA coincides at this level with CA in that they both have the methodology of a bilingual comparison which, as far as translation is concerned, is most suitable.

We may, however, still wonder how teachers design their reconstruction to which the student's erroneous translation is contrasted. This evaluative
procedure contrasting the student's construction to an ideal reconstruction compared by the teacher is often performed, as Bassnet-Susan (1991:9) notes, from one of two standpoints: from the view of the closeness of the translation to the SL text or from treatment of the TL text as a work in its own language. Both views are, however, limited in scope. If the teacher describes the student's error merely on the basis of his reconstruction designed according to Bassnet-Susan's first view, i.e. the principle of equivalence of the TT to the ST, the teacher then overlooks the non-binary nature of translation, i.e., that there are several possible translations of one ST. Therefore, while a teacher may describe a student's erroneous translation as serious on the basis that it is too distant from her/his own, the student's same translation can be closer to one of other possible reconstructions, and consequently less serious. The teacher is then required to have an open view of other translations and interpretations offered by the students themselves.

The latter view observes the student's erroneous translation merely within the framework of the TL. This approach also faces the same controversy among teachers. For example, a grammatical error may, according to one teacher, display incompetence and therefore be heavily penalised. The same error may be sanctioned more tolerantly by another teacher on the basis that, though grammatically incorrect, it makes sense within the context and does not distort the meaning intended in the ST.

(37) al-ijrā?ān al-awwalān

(37a) the two first procedures
(37b) the first two procedures
(38) the lesson is not easy
(38a) al-dars laysa sahlan
(38b) laysa l-dars sahlan

(39) Hope Hospital adopts a non-smoking policy
(39a) tattabi'yu mustašfā hūb siyāsat  c adam al-tadxīn
(39b) yattabi'yu mustašfā hūb siyāsat  c adam al-tadxīn

Erroneous translations such as Sentences 37a, 38a and 39a above may not be considered by some teachers as serious in so far as they do not affect the communicative meaning of the ST. Yet, other teachers may consider these errors as a reflection of the student's incompetence and seek, therefore, remedial teaching because, as Kussmaul (1995: 144) argues, "...the more basic these errors are, the more heavily they are usually penalised".

In addition, the view of assessing translation only within the TL framework borrows heavily from a purely monolingual position which ignores the role of the ST in the modelling of the translation before being rendered into the TL and culture. Thus, any description of translation errors should take into account the ST as well as the TL and culture.

However, a teacher's task is not restricted to the description of errors. S/He should also discover the cause of the error in order to provide a solution. For instance, the teacher's description of the erroneous Sentence 40a below by providing the appropriate translation in Sentence 40b is not adequate in
determining or constructing a reteaching plan to enable students to avoid errors of the same type that are generally made by Arab students:

(40) dawr al-ilm fi l-mujtama
(40a) the role of the media in the society
(40b) the role of media in society.
(41) super predators arrive
(41a) luṣṣuş fawqa al-άada wasalū
(41b) wuṣūl luṣṣuş fawqa l-άada

In this case, the teacher needs to explain the errors in Sentence 40a as resulting from an inaccurate transfer from Arabic due to the divergence in use between the two languages of the definite article system. In Sentence 41a, the student transferred the English sentence structure (SVO) into Arabic which requires a different syntagmatic distribution (VSO). Though a possible structure without a verb can be rendered as 41b notice, however, that one of the characteristics of Arabic is the relative fluidity of its word order as it permits as many ways of ordering the constituents of the sentence as possible (Abdul-Raof 1998:44). The transfer in Sentence 41a is from the foreign language (L₂) into the mother tongue (L₁) in contrast to the common assumption that transfer errors occur the other way round, i.e. from L₁ to L₂.

Trainees need to be introduced to such linguistic differences; it is the teacher's responsibility to explain such differences and make them part of translation strategies. Since translation errors vary a great deal, seeking different remedies according to the type of error would be realistic in translation practice. Thus, a classification of errors, though often overlapping, is essential. It should be
noted, however, that such a compartmentalisation does not necessarily imply a clear-cut line between translation errors as an error can be classified in more than one category.

In translation, we can distinguish between two major types of error: errors committed at micro-textual level and those at macro-textual level the two of which (micro- and macro-levels) constitute the standards of textuality of text. Micro-errors refer to those deficiencies in the organisation of the textual elements in the text, i.e. the way the surface components of text (phonology, morphology and syntax) relate together. Errors at the micro-level are mainly threefold: syntactical, semantic, and stylistic. The idea is an amalgamation of Widdowson's (1979) categorisation of equivalence and Kussmaul's (1995) typology of errors.

At the micro-level, the syntactical type is usually more important in foreign language teaching but appears also in translations (Kussmaul, 1995:143-55). It includes errors such as the wrong use of conjugation, prepositions, agreement and word order. Semantic errors often refer to the wrong selection of a word's meaning particularly in judging between polysems and synonyms such as the French "savoir"/"connaitre" or the English "see"/"watch", or the Arabic "inṣarafa" (went away)/"ḡādara" (departed) or "akala" (ate) /"tanāwala" (had a meal or tackled a certain subject). The stylistic type represents the student's inability to distinguish between intrinsic stylistic features peculiar to each language or different situations within the same language. Indeed, different
styles are often used with different genres. For instance, repetition is a prominent stylistic feature that characterises Arabic texts and often shows up in English texts translated by native Arab speakers. In English, however, repetition is often considered redundant and is usually required to be avoided in translation from Arabic (cf. Williams 1984).

Macro-errors, however, refer to failures to render the extra-linguistic meaning of the surface components and the communicative functions they perform. We can distinguish, within this contextual aspect of text, two types of error: one relating to situational adequacy and the other to general cultural adequacy. Situational errors involve failure to preserve any of the three Hallidayan discourse parameters of field, tenor and mode of the ST in the TT. Field is an abstract term which refers to what the text is about. Linguistic choices in translation are often determined in terms of the field of discourse. For instance, in a military context, Sentence 42 would be more appropriate than Sentence 43:

(42) execute one's orders
(43) do one's orders.

Misrepresentation of tenor, on the other hand, is often a result of a failure to transfer the ST's interpersonal relationships. For example, Sentence 44 would be undesirable in a formal context whereas Sentence 45 would be more appropriate:

(44) cops came to his home
(45) the police came to his home.
The mode of discourse, however, is concerned with the role language plays in the interactive process (Halliday and Hasan 1989:24). For example, "re" is appropriate in a business letter but is rarely, if ever, used in spoken English (Baker 1992:16). Likewise, "basmala" an (acronym of the Arabic phrase meaning "In the Name of Allah, the Most Beneficent, the Most Merciful") is widely used in written Arabic but is unlikely to be acceptable in spoken Arabic varieties. These language choice restrictions ("re" and "basmala") are in both cases likely to be imposed, as Baker (ibid.) explains, by the fact that speakers of each language have certain expectations about what kind of language is appropriate to particular situations.

As to cultural errors, they refer to the failure to represent the embedded cultural meaning of the ST into the TT. Difficulty in translating the cultural embedding often increases when the text is of what House (1977:188-204) calls the covert type. She distinguishes in this respect between covert and overt translation. In a covert translation "... the ST is tied in a specific way to the source language community and culture" (ibid.:189), that is, the "field" of the ST is not shared by or common to the target culture. Cultural problems usually arise at this level for the student who, in such a situation, is often undecided about whether to opt for a cultural adaptation as a way of compensation or keep the exotic character of the ST as a way of enhancing cross-cultural rapprochement. Kussmaul (1995:134) argues that trainees should be left in such cases to decide for themselves, though they should be
advised to take into consideration the readership. Overt translation, on the other hand, is one which

enjoys the status of an original ST in the target culture..., [that is, one which] is not marked pragmatically as TT of an ST but may, conceivably, have been created in its own right (House 1977:194).

This translation type does not usually represent any major cultural problems since the text is culturally of equal concern for both the source and target reader. It should be noted, however, that at the macro-textual level we are concerned with what is linguistically realised either syntagmatically or paradigmatically. That is, failure to represent the macro-textual level in translation is often related to a failure to make the appropriate choice of grammar or vocabulary as can be clearly observed in Sentence 42 versus Sentences 43 and Sentence 44 versus 45 discussed above. Thus, errors will be classified linguistically, in our data analysis, as syntactic, semantic or stylistic and then a check will be made whether they affect the micro- and/or macro-textual quality of the translation.

After the identification and description of the error as affecting the micro- and/or macro-level of meaning, a necessary step forward is needed, as explanation, identification and description alone cannot provide any viable solution for translation problems. It is also essential to look for the reason of errors, that is to provide an explanatory account of the students' errors.
3.2.3 Explanation

Explanation of error has been one of the main concerns of foreign language teaching (FLT) in general and one of the theoretical objectives of EA in particular. It has generally been assumed that most foreign language learners' errors are traced back to what is referred to as interlanguage transfer (Corder 1981:65). It is held that errors are attributable to transfer from the SL, which occurs when the student cannot help mixing up two systems, at the same time, ending up with a new one of his/her own belonging to neither of them.

Translation teachers can also make use of the inter-language approach, but not at an advanced stage as Kussmaul (1995:6) noted. That is to say, beginners in a translation course are more prone to transfer errors and are consequently often advised, like foreign language learners, to distance themselves, as far as possible, from the SL. As far as Arab trainees are concerned, I believe that they have to be encouraged at the first stage of their programme to gain confidence and competence in the TL (English) and culture. At a more advanced stage, however, it becomes clear that translation is not the same as FLT. While FLT's main concern is with the TL, translation involves, in addition to the TL, SL which is the primary source of information the translator departs from and should keep in with whenever possible.

The trainee translator's task becomes more complex than that of the foreign language learner. While the latter is well advised to use the thought patterns of
the TL independently of the SL, the former is often faced with the problem of how to represent the thought patterns of the SL into the TL without affecting the structure of either of them. Thus, translation errors, though they may sometimes be transfer errors, are most often typical in a sense that they relate to translation skills and nothing else. Yet, explanation of errors is often speculative as we can only infer what has gone on in a student's mind. Such inferences, or rather guesses, may either coincide with the reality about the translation process or simply contradict it, as in the case of interpretation of a student's construction in a way that is different from what s/he means.

Kussmaul (ibid.) points out in this regard that

- our expectations and guesses may coincide with reality i.e. with what happens in the translation process, but there are also the well-known cases when we find mistakes in our students' translation which are explained to us by our students in a completely different manner from the way we should have explained them.

An approach to explain the process of error in translation has been developed recently (e.g. House and Blum-Kulka 1986, Kussmaul, 1995, Fraser, 1996). The approach draws on the findings of cognitive science and information processing. Trainees are asked to verbalise as many of their thoughts as possible. The performance is generally tape-recorded and the think-aloud protocols, that is the written representation of the recordings, provide the basis for the analysis of the student's mental process involved in translation. The approach is indeed a step forward in the development of a coherent account of
the cognitive process of translation without which explanation of errors would be mere speculation and guesses.

However, this approach faces both theoretical and practical drawbacks. First, not all cognitive processes are conscious and thus capable of verballisable (Fraser 1996:67) and even conscious processes are not wholly verbalised since verbalisation is another kind of translation which necessarily involves losses. For example, there are instances when we feel that we have a particular meaning in mind but we cannot find specific words to convey it completely. Second, at the practical level, the approach is not feasible in actual teaching situations when teachers are pressed for time and cannot afford long elicitation procedures which are more appropriate to research projects.

In the course of this section, I have attempted to highlight some necessary prior steps to the evaluation of translation errors. Any sound account and assessment of error should follow a correct identification, a formal description and an exhaustive explanation. Thus, evaluation is not a single independent operation but a network of procedures that can work only together. However, despite recent attempts to account for translation assessment by looking at the product and the process, it remains mainly performed on 

an intuitive basis establishing an experimental taxonomy of potential translational difficulties and of the general linguistic, extralinguistic and sociocultural impact a particular text makes on the student (Wilss 1992:395).
3.3 Possible Criteria for Evaluation

Although different criteria have been proposed in applied translation literature in order to eliminate the subjectivity of the evaluator, these attempts remain tentative and, consequently, evaluation is still an area of controversy. Evaluation is not an easy task especially because the requirement or ideal aim is to produce the objective out of the subjective. A sound evaluation should go beyond intuition to achieve objectivity and accuracy (Kupsch-Losereit 1985:177). In translation practice, however, the operation inevitably involves the making of personal judgements and cannot be a pure mechanical process.

For instance, Kussmaul (1995:127-148) distinguishes between situational and speech act adequacy (in addition to other criteria). Such criteria, however, may sometimes exclude one or the other, as for example in the translation of the following extract from a political speech by an Arab leader to members of the National Council. Consider Sentence 46:

\begin{align*}
(46) & \text{iyyākum wa-iyyākum an ta\textsuperscript{c}taqidū anna ayyata muškila lā tastahiqqu ijtimā\textsuperscript{c}a l-majlis} \\
(46a) & \text{Don't, don't ever think that any problem does not deserve the meeting of the Council.}
\end{align*}

In Sentence 46a, the speech act of command is realised but there is a communicative failure as such directness is not customary in a similar target situation and may even cause offence. Communicative translation would comprise other levels of meaning.
(46b) the Council will give full attention to all problems.

(46c) all problems should be given the full attention of the Council.

In Sentences 46b and 46c the situational aspect of tenor becomes different from that of the original text (Sentence 46) as the subjectivity of the SL text-producer becomes completely hidden. This confers on both Sentences, 46b and 46c unlike the ST, a character of formality.

I can claim, however, that such criteria will contribute to the construction of systematic assessment processes. Teachers are required to seek a basis for informed judgement built upon both theoretical consideration and experimental criteria. In this respect, this section attempts to discuss the main criteria which we borrow mainly from literature on FLT and translation quality assessment to see how far they serve this purpose.

3.3.1 The Frequency Criterion

This criterion is quantitatively orientated and assesses errors in terms of the number of their occurrence. Most translation teachers would, however, opt for a quality assessment as translation involves a transfer of meaning which can be affected by the quality of the error rather than its quantity. Yet, a high distribution of an error can always alarm teachers and arouse their suspicion, especially when it is widespread among various students. Thus, we can distinguish, in terms of the frequency criterion two different ways for assessment of the relative gravity of the error.
The first relates the gravity of the error to its frequency in the work of the same individual student. Obviously, the procedure is not often easy to achieve by the teacher who normally cannot single out every individual error on account of economy of time and effort. That is, the teacher cannot, in addition to determining the distribution of each student's errors, design reteaching methods for each student. This is not indeed a practical goal if we take into account the fact that, because of shortage of time, the teacher has to satisfy the needs of different classes rather than individual students.

The second is more likely to be of interest to our subject teachers as it concerns the frequency of errors within a group of students, the most recurrent being the most serious. It is not surprising that most errors falling within the parameters of this criterion have been heavily penalised (see 6.2.1). Indeed, frequent recurrence of an error-type among students should urge teachers to view their teaching methods and material, and consider reteaching or remedial measures if necessary. This is because high frequency of an error-type means that the teaching method either ignores aspects which represent the students' areas of difficulty or simply fails to address them correctly. Corrective measures should then be initiated depending on the type and source of error. Unfortunately, checking what remedial or corrective measures our subject teachers would adopt in such cases falls outside the scope of this research owing to time limitations.
In respect of the frequency criterion, some foreign language educationalists suggest statistical methods to account for the gravity of the error. For example, Norish (1983:103-4) proposes that we can calculate the relative frequency by multiplying the number of errors by one hundred and dividing the total by the number of words in the same text, so that a small quotient represents a low level of seriousness, and vice versa.

As far as translation is concerned, such distributional methods, statistical or otherwise, cannot reflect the quality of the translation. They may give some pedagogical insights for the teacher about what translation skills are mostly unmastered by students, but cannot provide a reliable measure for the accuracy assessment of the actual text being translated. In other words, the error should be assessed in terms of its situation of occurrence because the same error can occur in different translated texts but may affect the quality of the translations differently. Translation errors should therefore be judged accordingly, depending on their situation of occurrence. Consider, for instance, the translation of Sentence 47:

(47) he is studying linguistics
(47a) yadrus al-luğa
Translation 47a may be acceptable for a laymen in the field of language and linguistics although we recognise the wrong selection of the word "al-luğa" (language) instead of "al-lisāniyyāt" (linguistics). On the contrary, in a situation where distinction between "language" and "linguistics" is essential to the meaning of text, the error can be regarded as serious.
Davies (1982:30) suggests in this respect a similar view, though more restrictive, claiming that errors should not be evaluated on the basis of their recurrence, but on the frequency of texts or constructions in which they occur. For example, a student is bound to make more mistakes with article use than with, say, use of the present perfect tense because the need to use articles arises more frequently than that of modality (see discussion of errors relating to articles and modality in 4.3.2, 5.2.2, and 5.2.4). Nonetheless, it is unlikely that our teachers would say that such errors or such erroneous constructions are serious solely on the basis of their frequency; they would decidedly ignore the fact that translation is a quality instead of simply a quantity process. The quality of the text can be breached by grammatical errors affecting its syntax, semantic errors affecting its intelligibility, or pragmatic errors affecting the general communicative goal of the ST. For this reason, other criteria are needed in order to examine the different basis upon which our teachers base their judgement of errors.

3.3.2 The Generality Criterion

According to this criterion, evaluation should be performed in terms of the major/minor rules infringed, the more general being the more serious. Major errors refer to those failures to observe general grammatical rules such as case inflections in Arabic, or the insertion of the appropriate tense like the infinitive after a conjugated verb in English as in Sentence 48:
(48) the birds are singing

(48a) yuğarris al-ṭuyūr

singing-sing. -fem birds-pl-masc

In Arabic, the verb preceding the subject is always inflected for gender agreement. In Sentence 48a, the verb should take a feminine prefix number because it governs a non-human plural as in Sentence 48b:

(48b) tuğarris al-ṭuyūr.

On the other hand, minor errors refer to failures to observe exceptions to major rules which most often result in overgeneralisation. Foreign language students are more prone to such errors than translation students. However, these errors are still apparent in Arab students' translation when rendering into English. Consider the following erroneous translation, Sentence 49a, made by an Arab trainee when translating into English:

(49) jammaCtu kull al-maClümāt

(49a) I gathered all informations.

The student has overgeneralised the rule of the plural morpheme(s) forgetting that "information" is an uncountable noun.

According to the generality criterion, grammatical errors are more serious than lexical ones as error gravity is determined in terms of the syntactic structures they violate. Norish (1983:32) distinguishes in this respect between two types of error. The first involves local errors which are evaluated as less serious since they involve single lexical items which are unlikely to affect the entire
understanding of the message. The second involves global errors which occur in main clauses and are likely to affect the meaning of the whole message. Such a claim of this nature is unlikely to account for the complexity of translation quality assessment. An error relating to a single lexical item can be more detrimental to the meaning of a message than a breach in a general grammatical rule at main clause level or otherwise (see 3.3.3).

However, grammatical errors in translation should not be overlooked as happens with most translation theorists (e.g. Newmark 1988a, Neubert 1990). There is an increasing frequency in grammatical errors among Arab trainee translators which can be detrimental to the credibility of the profession, once they begin practising and can provoke the irritation of teachers. The criterion of grammaticality has indeed been very useful in identifying the irritation of teachers with some type of grammatical errors.

3.3.3 The Intelligibility Criterion

The generality criterion discussed above implies that the acquisition of lexis is a less fundamental skill for the translator than the mastery of grammatical structures. The intelligibility criterion, however, holds that we are more likely to be comprehensible with the help of meaning of words without syntax than with syntactic structures without words. That is, the communicative goals of a text are more seriously affected if the breaches involve wrong selection of words rather than syntactic structures.
According to the intelligibility criterion, lexical errors can affect the intelligibility of the translation in two different ways; first by making the intended message totally unintelligible and thus causing a breakdown in the communicative function of the text; and second, by distorting the meaning without impairing communication, so that the TL reader understands something other than the original author's intentions. The importance of this criterion to our analysis lies in the fact that it determines how teachers differently assess distortion of meaning and disruption of communication. For instance, the translation of Sentence 50a below is likely to be unintelligible or nonsensical to a TL reader while the Hadith translation in Sentence 51a distorts the meaning:

(50) yahūḏ ilā ʼamaliyyat naqīl damm  
(50a) he needs an operation of blood transport  
(50b) he needs a blood transfusion  
(51) al-yad al-ʻulûyā xayr min al-yad al-suflâ  
(51a) the upper hand is better than the lower hand  
(51b) the giving hand is better than the receiving hand.

Although the TL readers may be confused as to what "an operation of blood transport" means, they will probably be able to understand what the actual SL message is about. In 51a, however s/he is likely to associate "the upper hand" with power and authority which is completely different from the ST intended meaning successfully conveyed in Sentence 51b.
Nida and Taber (1969) among others recognise the impact of lexical and cultural words which tend to be etymologically obscure or unrelated to any corresponding words in the TL on the quality of translation. They suggest componential analysis as a technique to handle the lack of cross-linguistic correspondence between words. Newmark (1988b:114) points out that as far as translation and componential analysis are concerned,

...the basic process is to compare a SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning, but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense components.

Consider, for instance, Sentence 52:

(52) tanāqalat al-ṣūḥuf al-xabar
(52a) the newspapers reported the news.

The response of the Arab reader to Sentence 52 is different from that of the English reader to Sentence 52a because the Arabs and English have different attitudes towards news reported by mass media such as newspapers. They are likely to have conflicting attitudes as can be illustrated in the following figure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Informativeness</th>
<th>Readability</th>
<th>Objectivity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arab Daily</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Daily</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Figure Six: Arab and English readers' attitudes towards news reports)

Here the lack of informativeness and objectivity in Arab dailies, in contrast with their English counterparts, is mainly due to media censorship in the Arab
world and the fact that most of them are state-run. That both media share the feature of readability is motivated by the desire to reinforce or impose a certain ideological path. For this reason, the reliability of media in both cultures is often questioned by the audience.

However, the lexical division of labour within the text does not often determine the quality of translation nor the gravity of the error. As words are lexical units with a referential and/or pragmatic meaning, componential analysis may be useful to identify these components and even establish semantic limits so as to make translation possible. For example, the word "waθîr" can stretch to (comfortable) but not to "faxm" (luxurious). Yet componential analysis segmentation of meaning is not usually successful as it fails to account for the fact that the meaning of a word is decided via its content and context. For instance, the components of the word "interesting" in English cannot be determined unless its con-text (co-text and context) is taken into consideration. Consider Sentence 53:

(53) the story is interesting.

The word "interesting" in Sentence 53 can convey different meanings depending on con-text. It can be rendered as "mufîd" (useful), "muhimm" (important), "mumuC" (amusing), "musalli" (entertaining) etc. Componential analysis on its own cannot solve this problem of multiple choices with which translators are often faced. Only the con-text can help discover the intended meaning of the original author. That is, the meaning of a word is dependent on
other words which precede and follow, in and outside the text, and cannot be just atomised into semantic units irrespective of the linguistic and socio-semiotic situation of occurrence. We would therefore expect teachers to conceive different levels of seriousness in their assessment of intelligibility errors rather than be confined to the binary dichotomy of wrong/correct. For instance, the seriousness of confusion caused when substituting partial synonyms as in the "big/large" class is not the same as that caused by synonyms which are not mutually interchangeable in a certain context as in "big girl/large girl".

3.3.4 The Interpretation Criterion

The interpretation criterion takes the ST as a point of departure. It is precisely about how far the trainee's interpretation of the ST personified in the TL is correct or deviant. The teacher checks on the basis of a comparison between ST and TT to see whether all the information is included, and nothing is added, omitted and/or different (Larson, 1984:489-90). In other words, the criterion relates to the traditional paradigm of faithfulness in translation. Failure to be faithful to the ST can be either conscious or unconscious and the distinction between the two is essential in translation quality assessment. We shall investigate teachers' awareness of this distinction and the extent to which it is implemented in their assessment of the students' errors in Chapter Six. Now, I shall provide an account of how this operates in translation error assessment.
If the trainee consciously deviates from the ST in order to fulfil demands of the readership, the assessment procedure should be rather appreciative unless the circumstances are inappropriate. Consider, for instance, Sentence 54 below uttered by a Republican actor on the day of the American presidential elections:

(54) America has got a cold but this is not the time to change the doctor.

Without sufficient context information, the reader of Sentence 54, let alone the TL reader of its translated version, is unlikely to understand its meaning. In the absence of such information, the translator is required to decipher and interpret the ST in a way that makes its meaning less ambiguous for the TL reader as in Sentence 54a compared with Sentence 54b:

(54a) šahīh anna amrīkā tu zaman min ba’d al-mašākil wa-lākin lam yahīn waqti taqīr ra’īsihā.

(54b) laqad aşāba amrīkā maraq al-zukām wa-lākin hāda laysa bi-l-waqt al-munāsib li-taqīr ra’īsihā.

But there are indeed cases where the translator must not shift from the ST using his/her own interpretation. For example, as Hatim and Mason (1990:7) illustrate,

...at crucial points in diplomatic negotiations, interpreters may need to translate exactly what is said rather than assume responsibility for re-interpreting the sense....

On the other hand, if the translator unconsciously shifts from the ST, the effect on the quality of translation is likely to be serious and the error is, therefore, to
be assessed as such. Such errors are most often a result of misinterpretation of the ST which in turn produces a "betrayed" version of the ST.

This criterion is, therefore, ST-centred in the sense that it maintains that "...first loyalty is at all times with the source text" (ibid.:17). Thus, the quality of translation, according to this criterion, lies in the ability to comprehend and interpret correctly the ST. The comprehension and correct interpretation of the ST enable the trainee to provide an acceptable and accurate translation.

3.3.5 The Naturalness Criterion

No single criterion can deal with all aspects of translation quality assessment. The four criteria discussed so far have not dealt specifically with the extent to which translation should be integrated and read as a natural TL text. The translator may understand correctly the ST and even convey easily a discernible message to the TL reader. However, the TT may not reflect the natural and idiomatic forms of the receptor language (Larson, 1984:478). This means that the TT does not read naturally for the TL reader as the ST does for the ST reader.

In the process of my data analysis, it seems that problems relating to naturalness often arise when the text is of a covert type, which necessitates the management of the text in a way which meets the expectations of the TL audience. The risk of modifying the original text producer's intentions and discouraging inter-
cultural understanding is often higher with naturalistic approaches to translation. A naturalistic approach usually seeks a domestication of the ST into the TL and culture, thus compromising the culture-specific meaning of the ST. This process of acculturation often denies the TL reader the opportunity to acquaint her/himself with foreign thought patterns and violates the fundamental principle of historical fidelity in translation (Beekman and Callow 1974:203). On the other hand, encouraging a non-naturalistic approach to translation has the benefit of enriching the linguistic repertoire of the TL. In other words, the incorporation of SL features into TL features helps TL readers develop their potential for new terminologies. This whole process is referred to by Neubert (1990:100) as translational cross-fertilisation.

Naturalness is, however, a necessary risk that the translator sometimes has to take in order to produce an equivalent effect to that of the original. This view has been reflected in the teachers' assessment of the students' errors as attempts to acculturate the ST into the TL were rarely pointed out by teachers. It should be noted here that the naturalness of a text can be checked only by native speakers of the TL. Errors relating to naturalness are often a result of cross-linguistic differences at the discourse or stylistic level, such as that in the arrangement of information between Arabic and English. This can be clearly seen in rhetoric and stylistic differences between the two languages. Arabic utilises repetition and parallelism as tools to enhance the meaning and give the
language its unique ornamental value; this utilisation, however, can be seen as awkward in English because of its straightforward nature (Kaplan 1966:6-10).

More peculiar to Arabic (than to English) is the tendency to combine repetition and parallelism to create a stronger effect. Consider Sentence 55 taken from a speech made by the Libyan leader, Muammar Al-Qathafi, on 16 April 1983:

(55) inna allaðî yataªallaª alâ l-jamâhîr wa-yataªalâª âlâ l-shâªb bi-ilmih aw bi-rutbatih aw bi-darajatih yajib an yasqût tahta aqdâmînâ l-?ân.

bt: He who looks down upon the masses and who looks down upon the people because of his knowledge or rank or position must now fall under our feet.

Notice here that the positive response which the repetition of form and meaning "yataªalâª alâ l-jamâhîr/wa-yataªalâª alâ l-shâªb" may generate at the SL level is unlikely to be preserved if it is kept as such in English (cf. backtranslation above). Cutting down the repetition load in the Arabic ST when translating into English will produce, as in Sentence 55a, a more natural translation as far as the TL is concerned:

(55a) Those who look down upon other people because of their knowledge or position should immediately be eliminated.

From what precedes, it seems that the ways parts of language contribute to the form as well as the meaning of text should be checked cross-linguistically in order to maintain naturalness. It may be necessary, whenever need requires, to choose TL patterns over SL ones.
3.4 Conclusion

The preceding discussion of possible criteria for evaluation is an attempt to investigate different approaches to error gravity in translation. Many controversies in translation error assessment can be resolved by a better understanding of how the different criteria relate to each other. Each criterion, apart from the frequency criterion, represents a particular translation competence but they also have significant interdependencies. For instance, it is often assumed that those who make grammatical errors tend to commit lexical errors as well, and those who lack critical skills in dealing with the ST are likely to face the same at the TL level.

Thus, assessment of translation errors should not be determined in terms of a rigid typological division of skills but on the basis of their impact on the meaning of text as an all-inclusive communicative unit. The entire translation should be checked and, therefore, all the criteria are involved.

It is held here that if productive translation research is to continue, we must consider the usefulness and availability of error evaluation to advance translation training and address the concerns of teachers. Although EA has been traditionally criticised for being retrospective and result-oriented, recent research (e.g. Kussmaul, 1995) shows that it can be both product- and process-oriented.
However, it should be noted that errors are just part of the students' development process in training. Any sound account of this process should involve the other part of the students' performance which does not involve error-making. In other words, the teacher's analysis should not be limited solely to those areas that are problematic to the students but can be extended to those mastered skills in order to draw a complete picture of the training process.
CHAPTER FOUR

Error Analysis of Argumentative Texts: Text One (Thème Translation) and Text Two (Natural Translation)

4.1 Introducing the Data

Before we proceed in the analysis of students' errors, it is worth giving a brief description of the nature of our data. Throughout the previous chapters, we have discussed translation theory and practice in general and focused on the pedagogical orthodoxy of translation production. That is, we have been investigating how the study of translation errors can enhance our understanding of practical translation practice. We have tried in that respect to put forward several ideas on how such a task can be best realised or performed. These ideas will serve as a methodological matrix for the analysis and evaluation of actual translation errors derived from a real corpus which consists of two main databases.

4.1.1 Database One: Translation-Tests

The first database consists of four passages given as translation tests to Arab trainee-translators at Garyounis University, Libya (the four texts are attached as Appendix I). Testees (for each we assigned an alphabetical letter from A to K) were asked to produce the translations of three text-types (argumentative, instructive and expository) from English into their native language (Arabic)
and one thème translation (argumentative), i.e. into their foreign language (English). The four test-translations represent the main Hallidayan text types (expository, argumentative and instructive). Taking more than one sample from each trainee by testing them in terms of different text-types has two main implications for the present work. First, it increases representativeness of the student performance which varies even in similar tasks, let alone in producing different text-types. Second, it ensures the validity and reliability of the assessment of students' translations because the more samples we have from the output of each testee the more reliable the assessment is likely to be (Hughes 1989:81). Thus, the separation between text types is expected to provide a balanced assessment of errors because, as Hatim (1994:xiii) observes, the demands of each translation task vary according to the type of text being translated, certain types often being more demanding than others.

The tests were made under familiar test conditions. Testees were asked on four different occasions to translate each text, consisting of around 300 words, within a supervised time limit of 2 hours. Bilingual dictionaries were permitted during the performance of the tests.

Trainees who undertook the tests were final-year undergraduate students of translation at the University of Garyounis. Their ages varied between twenty one and twenty eight. We did not examine their language proficiency but students who enrol for the translation course normally have an intermediate
level of English and an advanced level of Arabic. English is a compulsory subject in preparatory and secondary education in Libya. It is taught six hours a week in secondary schools and four hours a week in preparatory schools. The method followed emphasises the teaching of grammar. Teachers frequently resort to translation into Arabic in the class. Arabic, on the other hand, is the language of instruction in pre-university education. It is also supported outside the class through media and communication channels. As it is expected, university students' proficiency in Arabic is normally high compared with that in English.

In the first two years, students of the translation course are taught only English and Arabic linguistics while the last two years are devoted to translation theory and translation practice. These two aspects of translation are taught by different teachers without any coordination. The theoretical part consists of teaching the different theories of translation. Reference, if any, to their impact on actual translation is often illustrated by words and, at most, by sentences. The practical part consists of mere translation of three text-types (argumentative, expository and instructive) from Arabic into English without any reference to or inference from translation theory. The direction of translation is centred towards Arabic, i.e., students were mainly trained to translate into their native language. The translation tests also reflected these characteristics of the students' syllabus to make their results more reliable. Both typology of the text and the direction of the translation were respected.
Students were asked to translate from English into Arabic three texts which correspond to their text-typological practice. Translation into their foreign language (English) was tested through one text only.

As to the analysis of the students' translations, it starts with the identification of discrepancies in each text. These discrepancies are, afterwards, described by locating their linguistic realisations. That is, the actual part of the text which bears the discrepancy is defined in terms of the descriptive parameters (syntactic, semantic, and stylistic) which have been set out in Chapter Three (see 3.2.2). Because the analysis of the macro-structure of a text can be verified in translation only through the choice and arrangement of its actual linguistic signs (given that they are the usual feedback that trainees are provided with), syntactic, semantic and stylistic errors will also be examined in terms of their effect on the macro-textual level of translations. The descriptive analysis will be carried out separately on each text-type.

Once the errors are classified as syntactic, semantic or stylistic, and it is determined whether they also affect the macro-textual level of the translation, we shall try to trace them back to their source. That is, errors will be explained as to whether they are stimulated by the trainee's lack of competence in the TL or transfer from the SL, etc. At this stage a comparative analysis is crucial. For example, comparison between the SL system and TL system is essential to

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1 Errors in the same sample are sometimes discussed in different sections, depending on whether they are syntactic, semantic, or stylistic.
trace interference. Comparison between errors of different text-types can also
determine the difficulties inherent in the rhetorical or discoursal nature of the
text-type being translated.

It is worth mentioning here that for the sake of economy, given the similarity
of some text-types, Argumentative Text One (thème translation) and
Argumentative Text Two (from English into Arabic) are analysed within a
single chapter (Chapter Four) while Expository Text Three and Instructive
Text Four (both from English into Arabic) are analysed within another chapter
(Chapter Five). This is not, however, to imply a clear-cut division between the
two chapters. Cross-reference along with the analysis of the four texts and
comparison of the errors have been followed in both chapters.

4.1.2 Database Two: the Questionnaire

After the analysis of students' errors in the corpus, assessment of teachers'
perception of their gravity is also essential to complete our evaluation task of
these errors (see Chapter Three). This was realised through the administration
of a questionnaire (see Appendix I) to ten evaluators. The questionnaire
consists of twenty translation errors described and explained during the
analysis of students' performance in Chapters Four and Five. The choice of
errors was random but representative at the same time. That is to say, there
was a selection of all possible categories of errors that can generate different
criteria of assessment but the choice between errors of the same type was
random. I enclosed copies of the four source texts to the questionnaire: one in Arabic (Text One) and three in English (Texts Two, Three and Four).

The questionnaire is divided into two main sections: Section A consists of translation samples from English into Arabic and Section B consists of samples from the translation of Arabic into English. For each erroneous construction, I have provided its corresponding ST with details of which text and line it is extracted from. For instance, Sample 6 is represented as follows:

1. Sample 6, Text Three, lines 1-3
   
   ...he seized what lay around him...
   wa-istafād min kull mā hawlah...

The direction of the translation is obvious because the evaluator will find it in Section A, which contains translation samples from English into Arabic. The contextualisation of the extract is also made easier by mentioning the number of the text and lines as all four texts and their lines are numerated and attached to the questionnaire. Teachers were required to assess these constructions on the basis of two scales. In the first scale, they had to determine the type of error(s) as syntactic, semantic and/or stylistic. In the second scale, they were asked to evaluate the erroneous constructions in terms of their gravity using a score system from 0 to 5. Score 5 stands for most serious errors and 0 for non-errors.
The evaluators were translation teachers at the University of Garyounis whose age varied between thirty five and sixty. They were all educated to a higher degree level (seven were PhD holders and three were MA holders) mainly in the field of Linguistics, but some in Translation Studies. Their teaching experience also varied between six and thirty years. The questionnaire was distributed amongst them at the same university and was collected one week later.

After the collection of the questionnaire, teachers' scores were compared to examine to what extent they made use of the evaluation criteria mentioned earlier and how consistent and reliable their assessment was. The analysis investigates two main aspects of teachers' evaluation: the first is concerned with their interaction with the aforementioned criteria of assessment (Chapter Six) and the second with their intra- and inter-consistency. Consistency can be defined in the context of this work as giving consistent information about the value of a learning variable being measured. As to inter-consistency, it is related to the production of similar judgements by different teachers when evaluating the same sample; the more similar the scores are, the higher is the inter-consistency achieved and vice versa. On the other hand, intra-consistency is achieved when almost identical test-results or scores are obtained each time the same sample or an alternative form is administered to the same group or individual.
4.2 The Analysis

As mentioned in the previous chapters, the main purpose of the analysis of students' errors when translating different text types is to examine their performance in different situations. In other words, the purpose is to examine whether each text places different demands on the students; if so, does their performance vary typologically, i.e. in terms of text types?

Our analysis here concerns two argumentative texts; therefore, the discussion focuses on difficulties in the translation of argumentation. This does not however, mean that all problems encountered by students when translating Texts One and Two (see Appendix I) are exclusively argumentative in nature. They also relate to the general linguistic and socio-pragmatic competence of the trainee and the demands imposed by the direction of the translation given that testees translated Text One into a foreign language (English) and Text Two into their native language (Arabic). The nature of the text may only motivate the surfacing of some errors more than others. For instance, tense errors can be more frequent when translating an argumentative text from English into Arabic than when translating an instructive text without option (see Chapter Five). This is because the narrative in argumentation involves higher temporal shifts according to the type and time of action or event, in addition to the cross-linguistic variation in terms of tense systems between Arabic and English. On the other hand, an instructive text without options tends to inflect consistently an indicative present tense (sometimes an
imperative) to instructional verbs or models and thus the likelihood of tense confusion is smaller because the translation of the indicative present tense, unlike some aspectual tenses, between English and Arabic is straightforward given the non-variation of the two languages in this respect. Such correlations will be explained in the present and subsequent chapter in terms of our error-taxonomy (syntactic, semantic and stylistic).

4.3 Syntactic Errors

The teaching of TL grammar has a significant impact on translation programmes. Trainees are usually assumed to have a good knowledge of the syntactic rules of both the ST and TT. However, as far as the corpus from argumentative texts is concerned, I have found that syntactic errors figure more than any others.

Syntactic errors made when translating Text Two are more similar to those made when translating exposition and instruction (Texts Three and Four) than to Text One. Although Texts One and Two belong to the same text type, the quality and frequency of the errors they involve vary quite largely. This implies that text-typology is not always the only factor which determines the type of errors students make; otherwise, errors in Texts One and Two will have been similar. In the process of our analysis of argumentation, we have identified three major types of syntactic errors namely, tense.aspect, preposition and article errors.
4.3.1 Tense/Aspect Errors

Before proceeding with the discussion of errors relating to tense and aspect, it is worth giving a brief definition of the meaning of the two terms in the present context. Both tense and aspect are concerned with correlation between grammatical forms and concepts of time: tense with location in time and aspect with continuing in time. Because of the closeness of the two grammatical forms, errors made in this context will be referred to as tense/aspect errors. This type of error represents in the corpus a high distribution compared with other syntactic errors and it figures more in Text One than in Text Two; for example, Table Two below illustrates the testees' translation of the main verbs in Text One (from Arabic into English). The discussion inferred from the table will be confined to tenses; other errors will be discussed at a later stage.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Ts</th>
<th>yattafiq</th>
<th>tamatta\textsuperscript{c}at</th>
<th>tabannat</th>
<th>tabṣul \textsuperscript{c}alā</th>
<th>našarat</th>
<th>akkada</th>
<th>laysat</th>
<th>aqlaqa</th>
<th>yusawwiğ</th>
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<td>published</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
<td>is not</td>
<td>get worry</td>
<td>began</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(Table Two: translations of English tenses in argumentation)
As can be deduced from the table above, students find it difficult to make the right choice especially between the perfective and imperfective. For instance, student A translates Sentence 56 as 56a using a present perfect where a simple past is needed:

(56) kamā akkada mustašār al-raʾīs anna mīr...

(56a) the adviser of the president has confirmed that Egypt...

Alternatively, trainees, like student G, substitute as well the present perfect for a past tense as in Sentences 57 and 58:

(57) ...al-Cālaqāt al-amīrīkiyya l-miṣriyya tamattaCāt li-akṯar min ġiḏ min al-zaman bi-ulfa wa-widd mumayyazayn.

(57a) ...the American-Egyptian relations enjoyed for more than a decade with a distinguished familiarity and cordiality.


(58a) the United States adopted a leading role for Egypt since the signing of the Egyptian-Israeli Peace Convention.

Inter-consistency can also be seen in the mixing between the Arabic imperfect (present) and perfect (past) aspects (Table Two). For example, the verb "yusawwīg" (justify) is translated by most students into a past tense while a present tense is more appropriate. The difficulty of translating Arabic aspects resides partially in the type of text being translated (argumentative). Unlike a narrative text where chronological hierarchy of the order of tenses is clear and
even predictable, or a descriptive text where the notion of time is often constant, argumentative texts usually allow an unrestricted play of all three time dimensions (present, past and future) whenever the argument requires.

The difficulty imposed by the rhetorical nature of the text in translating tense is further intensified by the cross-linguistic variation between the two languages. I have noticed that the students' common syntactic difficulty in both texts relates to the perfective, a syntactic aspect which the Arabic language system lacks (see Chapter One, iii. syntactic level). Thus, students find it difficult to cope with a range of more sophisticated choices. This type of error is developmental rather than inter-lingual in the sense that the student has no parallel feedback from his native language but simply makes false hypotheses about the TL.

Yet, such inherent variations are not usually an insurmountable problem if trainees are equipped with the appropriate interpretive tools. For example, in the case of Sentences 57 and 58 above, "tamattaCat" (enjoyed) and "tabannat" (adopted), are used to express the present perfect in English. The students' failure to recognise this function may not be due to the lack of an overt realisation of the perfective in Arabic, but to their interpretation of the text. This is made obvious by the fact that even those trainees who managed to translate "tabannat" correctly into the present perfect tense, still opted for a past tense for "tamattaCat".
This claim also finds justification when analysing students' errors in their translation of Text Two. For instance, the tense error in Sentence 59 below made by student B involves an obvious alteration of meaning arising from the students' failure to interpret the ST or the implication of his translation correctly:

(59)...with slashed budgets leading to fewer launches...

(59a)...bi-mīzāniyya muxaffaḍa tuʿaddī ilā aqall iṭlāqāt...

bt: with reduced budget that leads to fewer launches.

In Sentence 59a, we have a cause/effect relation: "mīzāniyya muxaffaḍa" indicates a present state of affairs and "aqall iṭlāqāt" a potential future state of affairs, i.e. the two parts of the sentence (expressing cause and effect) have different time dimensions: one present and the other future. This is not, however, the same in the ST as can be seen when considering parts of the co-text of Sentence 59 repeated below as Sentence 60:

(60) Ever since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world Sputnik, Gagarin and the space station Mir appeared to have fallen too with slashed budgets leading to fewer launches and worried whispers in the international communities that even those missions were dangerously underfinanced.

It is apparent from Sentence 60 that the transformation of the "big" agency into a "small" launching site is not a potential consequence. On the contrary, it is a de facto situation that started in the past and continues in the present and,
therefore, only an Arabic perfect aspect (addat) (led to) in this situation can fulfil this function.

Such examples (57, 58, and 59) indicate that students opt for a sentence-to-sentence strategy in their interpretation and translation of the ST which, in turn, reflects the teaching method followed at the Libyan Universities. Indeed, translation teachers in these universities conduct the process of teaching in the class by translating sentence-by-sentence with their students. That is, the translation of a text is made collectively, each student (sometimes different students) translating a sentence. In this way, students are not encouraged to view the text as a chain of meanings where the determination of each sentence's meaning is dependent on the others' and sometimes on world knowledge which may not be overtly expressed in the text but can be implicitly inferred, for example, by way of intertextuality.

4.3.2 Preposition and Article Error

Another recurrent error type in the translation of argumentation is the misuse of prepositions. Trainees used the preposition "of" for "by", or "of" instead of "for"; sometimes they simply added another preposition where only one is needed. For instance, consider the translation by student A of Sentence 61a, from Text One:
ST (61) fa-l-amārīkiyyūn kānū ṣaydātūn bi-stimrār ʿalā l-hukūma l-miṣrīyya li-talyīn mawqifahā min al-hukūma l-īsraʾīliyya.

(61a) [The Americans keep pressing] on the government of Egypt to soften its stand from Israeli government.

The wrong selection of the preposition "from" in sentence 61a can be traced back to a negative transfer from Arabic. The Arabic preposition "min" is usually translated into English as "from" and so the testee made this mechanical translation.

This type of transfer can also occur when translating into L₁ as Text Two indicates. Translation 59a, mentioned earlier, involves, in addition to the tense error, a wrong selection of preposition in "bi-mīzāniyya muxaffāda" instead of "bi-sabāb mīzāniyya muxaffāda" (owing to a reduced budget) or "natājat mīzāniyya muxaffāda" (as a result of a reduced budget). It seems in Sentence 59a that "mīzāniyya muxaffāda" modifies rather than holds a cause relation to "the falling of the agency" which makes the cause/effect relation ambiguous. This is because the preposition "bi-" in Arabic, unlike the often assumed English counterpart "with", cannot express a cause relation unless it is attached to the noun "sabāb" (cause) as Sentences 62 and 63 demonstrate:

(62) ḍāḥabtu bi-maraḏī ilā l-jāmiʿa
(I went to the university while I was ill)

(63) ḍāḥabtu bi-sabāb maraḏī (ilā l-mustašfā)
(I went to hospital because I was ill).
Preposition errors, reflecting a difficulty in the testees' competence in the TL or the SL, in Arabic or English, tend to be an idiosyncrasy of the individual rather than the group. Only a few have been detected in the corpus as group errors, like the translation of the preposition "to" in Sentence 64 from Text Two:

(64)...the spacecraft plummeting back **to** earth.

(64a) **hubūt** al-markaba bi-ṣūra ʿamūdiyya ilā l-ard

Most students translated Sentence 64 as 64a above. Although "**hubūt** ilā" is a sound grammatical structure, it is not as such in terms of its syntactic-pragmatic meaning. That is, the construction indicates a volitional, planned or expected act as in Sentence 65:

(65) kamā kāna mutawaqqad ʿhabaṭat al-markaba l-fadāʾiyya ilā l-ard yawma l-θāliθ min šahr nīsān al-munṣarim

(65a) as expected, the spacecraft **landed** on earth on the 3rd of last April.

The case in Sentence 64 above is not the same as in Sentence 65 because the word "plummeting" is a non-volitional act. The meaning of the ST in this situation is better expressed using the preposition "ṣawb" (towards) instead of "ilā" as in Sentence 65b:

(65b) **suqūt** al-markaba l-fadāʾiyya bi-ṣūra ʿamūdiyya šawba l-ard

bt: the falling of the spacecraft vertically towards the earth.
In fact, "to plummet" is to fall steeply. An Arabic equivalent which captures this meaning aspect is the verb "xarra" as it is used in the Qur'an:

\[(66) \text{wa-man yusrik bi-Allah fa-ka-annamā } \text{xarra } \text{min al-samā? fa-taxṭafuhu al-}]\text{ṭayr } (22:31)\]

(If anyone assigns Partners to God, he is as if he had fallen from heaven and been snatched up by birds) (translated by Ali 1982:859)

Therefore, Sentence 65 is best translated into Arabic as Sentence 65c:

\[(65c) \text{xarrat } \text{ṣawb/īlā l-ard.}\]

On the other hand, most errors relating to the use of the definite or indefinite article have been identified either as omissions or additions like "United States" instead of "the United States", or "a debts" instead of "debts". Most article errors in the corpus can be traced back to transfer within the TL itself. For example, student K did not use a definite article before "United States" given the general rule that names of countries must be article-free. This claim is further validated by the fact that all country names (e.g. Egypt, Israel, Libya, America) which appear in his translation are article-free.

Ironically enough, student H translated correctly the noun "the United States" but applied the article insertion rule to other country names (e.g. the Egypt, the America). Text One produced more article errors owing to an intralingual transfer than Text Two. Consider the translation of student B in Sentence 67a:

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1 See Abdul-Raof 1999:37-68 for further detailed discussion of the translation of the Qur'an.
(67) ...ya’taqidün annahu **hamla murakkaza**... didda miṣr

(67a) They consider as campaign focused on Egypt.

The highlighted noun phrase in Sentence 67a reflects an Arabic structure which has been transferred inappropriately into English. In Arabic, an indefinite noun, either singular or plural, always bears a zero article while in English the insertion of the indefinite article "a/an" is compulsory after a singular noun as in Sentence 67b:

(67b)...they consider as a campaign focused on Egypt.

On the whole, students show poor knowledge of preposition and article systems; however, the level of incompetence is higher in English. The effect of these two types of error on the communicative quality of the message in the translation is not the same. The examples discussed above show that while preposition errors can cause an alteration of meaning unless the TL reader has access to the ST, article errors are often easily retrievable as errors of grammatical competence without having recourse to the ST. Perhaps, the fact that prepositions are to some extent semantically richer than articles (though both are functional categories) makes the effect of their misuse more serious.

4.3.3 Other Syntactic Errors

The corpus drawn from students' translations (see Appendix II) provides a considerable number from a whole range of syntactic errors especially when
translating into English as can be illustrated by Sentences 68 69, 70, 71, and 72, the translation of trainees', A, G, H, J, and K:

(68) wa-aqlaqa anšār isrāʾīl anna qiyyādat ḥusnī mubārak...

(68a) the Israelis patrons disturbed for the Hossney Mubarak's leadership...

(69) mubdiyān istiğrabahu li-tawqīt al-ḥamla

(69a) he showed his surprising for campaign time

(70) abdat al-wilāyāt al-muttahīda inziCājan wādiḥan lil-taqārub al-mustamīr bayna miṣr wa-liṭyā

(70a) America show clearly displease from the continual convergence between Egypt and Libya

(71) wa-kānat miṣr qad ablagat al-hukūma l-amrīkiyya annāhā tarfūdu mawdūC...a

(71a) Egypt informed the American government that it is refused to discuss the subject...

(72)...li-annāhā tuqallīl min istiqlāliyyatihā l-siyāsiyya wa-min hurriyyat ḥarakatihā l-tafawudiyya

(72a) It weakens its political independence and negotiational power

As we may notice, trainees have made all sorts of errors, some of which change the meaning expressed in the ST. For example, trainee A substituted the passive voice for the active voice. Obviously, "Israelis disturbed" and "Israelis were disturbed" have two completely different propositional contents. Likewise, student J confused the two modes and passivized a form (it is refused) which must be active (it refuses) in order to maintain the meaning of
the ST. Yet, shifting of mode or categories does not always indicate a failure of the translator. It can be either forced upon the translator by the TL format or exploited in a bid to manage the text in favour of the target readership expectations.

One basic grammatical device which illustrates this function is nominalisation. This is defined by Hatim (1997:114) as the conversion of an agent-verb sequence into a single noun preceded by a nominaliser such as "inna" and "anna". For him, nominalisation is a device to mask real intentions. Nominalisation in his example "admission to being a spy" serves to deflect attention from who, if any body, admits what, and produces a version that is better suited for propaganda purposes (ibid.). Hatim's claim is, however, a strong view of this ideology of language; not all the language is pretentious or ideologically motivated. On the contrary, I believe nominalisation in the texts being translated mostly reflects an inherent tendency in the Arabic language rather than an intentional ideology. In English, on the other hand, this device is not as frequent and, when used, it is usually motivated. In their translation, most Arab testees turned the nominalised elements into verbs as can be seen in their translation of Sentence 73:

(73) illā anna l-wilāyāt al-muttahida kānat targarb fī dağṭ miṣrī ǧalā lībyā bi-hadaf žazl al-nidhām al-lībī.

(73a) The United States wants Egyptian pressure on Libya in order to isolate the Libyan leadership.
Turning the noun "isolation" into a verb "isolate" seems more natural in English than forcing a nominalised form. In fact, Sentence 73a will read even less ambiguously in English if the noun "pressure" is also changed into a verb as in Sentence 73b:

(73b) the United States wants Egypt to **pressurise** Libya in order to isolate the Libyan regime.

Surprisingly enough, native English-speaking trainees translated the same text and kept the ST nominalised forms in their translation as shown in Sentence 73c:

(73c) America wants Egypt to **pressurise** Libya with the aim of isolating the Libyan regime from its Arab neighbours.

The number of syntactic errors made in general when translating into Arabic was relatively small. The predicate structure was one source of confusion for students especially in long sentence structures. Consider Sentence 74:

(74) What raised eyebrows was not the loss of the satellites but Russia's inability to replace them.

(74a) *wa-mā aΘāra l-dahša fiClan lam yakun fuqādan al-qamarayn wa-lākin kāna quṣūr rūsyā C an istibdālihimā.*

Student C here intended to convey opposition between the two highlighted clauses in a way similar to Sentence 74b:

(74b) *wa-mā aΘāra l-dahša fiClan lam yakun fuqādan al-qamarayn wa-innāmā quṣūr rūsyā C an istibdālihimā.*
However, the addition of the copula "kāna" (lit. was) imposes a predicate structure which is different from Sentences 74a and 74b. The copula "kāna" in Arabic requires a predicate and an argument as in Sentence 74c:

(74c) kāna [quṣīr rūṣyā ᵃn istibdālihimā] [muṯīran lil-dahša]

argument 1 predicate

Related errors are like those found in the translation of student G, mentioned earlier, who translated "istigrāb" by "surprising" instead of "surprise". Student H also translated the noun "inziẖāj" by "displease" instead of "displeasure" which indicates the same type of error that cannot be traced to any form of transfer from the ST but rather to the failure of trainees to master the grammatical categories of English, such as "please" (verb), "pleasant" (adjective), and "pleasure" (noun). This rather reflects an intralingual transfer from the TL itself which is most recurrent when the students encounter selection of grammatical categories. For example, students H and K, uncertain about how to generate adjectival forms from base words, had recourse to the general rule of the English suffix "-al" inflection producing the forms "continual" and "negotiational".

Having said that, a common feature between the syntactic errors committed by most testees is their inconsistency. That is, the occurrence of an error-type is not systematic; the same constructions can be correct at one stage of the text and erroneous at another. This indicates the uncertainty or incompetence of the trainee about the TL's grammatical system and sometimes about the
interpretation of the ST itself. Syntactic errors are not simply a reflection of the student's incompetence in the TL (cf. Weir 1993); they also reflect a defect in the teaching method as well as a weakness in the students' interpretation, i.e. critical faculties when dealing with the ST.

Apart from a few instances, most syntactic errors made by students neither alter the core meaning of the original text nor affect the communicative message of the construction, whether it be a clause or a sentence in which they occur. In other words, their effect does not generally touch the macro-extension of the construction. However, if the text is assessed in terms of such syntactic errors, we find that they do actually affect the flow of information. That is, the high number of syntactic errors in the TT disturbs the naturalness with which the original text is read. In other words, too many syntactic errors may impair coherence of the text which is an important factor in keeping the original conceptual unity for the TL reader.

Errors, syntactic or otherwise, are unacceptable forms of the language if textness is to be observed; their repetitiveness is likely to alarm the TL reader. What also makes syntactic errors a source of alarm is that they are more marked than other erroneous forms as they are easier to be identified by a native layman even without having any prior knowledge about the ST or translation theories. Syntactic errors are often penalised heavily because of the
high expectations of the translation training courses about the student's syntactic competence. They may, therefore, damage the credibility of the translator even if they do not affect the quality of translation. A clear picture of how syntactic errors are and must be assessed will be completed by further discussion in Chapter Six.

4.4 Semantic Errors

Another type of error that originates in one specific linguistic field is semantic error. Error specificity does not, however, imply that the effect is limited to that particular area of meaning. The effect can be wide-ranging and impinges on almost all other levels of meaning (Hatim and Mason 1997:171).

Students' translations of Texts One and Two involve several types of semantic error which affect the quality of the translation in different ways. Like the other texts, Texts One and Two involve semantic errors caused by synonymy in the TL or inappropriate interpretation of the ST. But more peculiar to this type of text is the rise of errors when translating idioms, collocations or simple lexemes with high ideological load or strictly language specificity. This is not surprising given the fact that the need to use such devices arises more often in argumentation.
Comparing both texts in terms of House's (1977) overt/covert typology, Text One can be classified as belonging to the covert-type. It is not, therefore, expected to pose serious semantic difficulties due to cross-cultural variation given that the theme of West/Middle East political relations is as much discussed by the Western press as the Arab media. On the other hand, the theme of the "Russian space programme" in Text Two is not as common for the average Arab readership as the Western counterpart. The lack of sufficient knowledge on this theme is behind some problems Arab students encountered in their translations.

4.4.1 Synonymy Errors

Most semantic errors made when translating Texts One and Two are of the synonymy type. Trainees often select the wrong word from a set of other choices they know or find in the dictionary but cannot establish a precise distinction between them. In most cases, trainees find it difficult, owing to their insufficient knowledge of the semantic field of the TL words, to choose between more than one equivalent in the TL. Malone (1988:29) refers to this process in translation as "divergence" and defines it as "a translational nexus reflecting relative paradigmatic richness of the target resources compared with the source [resources]" (ibid.).
The analysis of Texts One and Two shows that divergence errors can have equally detrimental effects on the quality of the translation regardless of its direction. This parameter of direction does, however, affect the distribution of errors as they seem to have a higher frequency in Text One where English is the TL. Instances like Sentences 75 and 76 abound in Text One's translation:

(75) *ittifāqiyyat al-salām al-isrā'īliyya l-miṣriyya*

(75a) the Egyptian-Israeli peace *treatment*

(76) *wa-l-ṣaḥīḥ* anna ḥadādan min al-mātbūṭ al-amlīkīyya...našarat maqālāt wa-ta'liqat tahmilu ḥadā?an didda mīṣr

(76a) the *fact that* a lot of American press which carried campaign against Egypt...

In the translation of Sentence 75a, student G confused "treatment" with "treaty" because of phonological and graphic similarities. In Sentence 76, the word "al-ṣaḥīḥ" is used as a cohesive device meaning "in fact" in addition to other English equivalents which may suit in this context like "as a matter of fact" or "indeed". Student C, here, as in the case of Sentence 76a, confused phrases "in fact" and "the fact that".

This type of error is not as frequent when translating Text Two; only a very small number has been identified like Sentence 77 below:

(77) ...any technological solution can *fix* what ails it.

(77a) ...bi-imkān ayyat hulūl tīqaniyya tūṣliḥ adrarah

bt: any technological solution can *fix-up* its damage
Sentence 77a does not reflect a failure to understand or interpret the ST but rather a lack of knowledge of the semantics of the TL. The word "fixing" can be translated by either of the Arabic hyponyms "tašlih" or "išlāh". Being the superordinate, "išlāh" can be used in both contexts and can therefore replace "tašlih". The word "tašlih" is a hyponym and its use is restricted to situations which involve a manual process similar to the English counterpart "mending". Consider Sentences 78 and 79:

(78) tašlih sayyāra (fixing a car)
(79) tašlih al-CaHīqat (fixing relations)

This explains why Sentence 78 is correct whereas 79 is not. On the other hand, the word "išlāh" can be used alternatively in both cases as in Sentences 80 and 81:

(80) išlāh al-Calāqāt (restoring relations)
(81) išlāh al-CAFal (mending the fault)

It is clear that Sentence 77a above can be translated as 77b:

(77b) bi-imkān ayyat hulūl tiquaniyya tusāhim fī išlāh adrāarih

Confusion is not always a result of phonological or graphological similarity but can eventuate from failure to render effectively into the TL the semantic interplay the original author makes of the text. Errors of this type can have a more detrimental effect on the macro-structure of the text. As a matter of fact, Text One, being politically oriented, consists of various semantic strategies that serve its purposive role. Although recognised by most testees, they failed
to reproduce them in the TT. For instance, consider the translation of Sentence 82 below:

(82) inna mā yusammā bi-l-ḥamlā ḍalā mīṣr laysat jadīda

(82a) the so-called campaign against Egypt is not new

The word "mā yusammā" (lit. the so-called) does not cast any doubt on the fact that there is indeed a campaign against Egypt but rather questions indirectly its fairness. On the contrary, the English version, Sentence 82a, provided by some testees, casts some doubt on the existence of such a campaign and may serve in this respect the opposite purposive role of the ST. That is, the translation of Sentence 82a implies that an American campaign against Egypt is just an allegation.

The same can be said about the testees' translation of Sentence 83:

(83) rafḍ al-nidḥām al-lībī taslīm muttahamayh fi hādiθ tafjīr ṯāʾirat "ban am" fawqa iskutlando

bt: the refusal of the Libyan regime to extradite its two suspects in the Pan Am bombing accident over Scotland

The SL author used "ḥādiθ" (accident) with "tafjīr" (bombing) where it would have been possible for him/her to use "tafjīr" alone. Here, the author's semantic choice is potent with ideological meaning. The word "ḥādiθ" is used to play down the seriousness of the bombing. I asked native-English speakers who are students of Arabic at the University of Leeds to translate the same text. Comparing both groups' (Libyan and English) translation, the conflict of
ideologies is quite obvious. English trainees transferred "hādiθ tafjīr" (accident of bombing) into a single word "bombing". Likewise, the Libyan group opted for a single word translation but different in meaning "explosion". Suleiman (1997:75) reveals in this respect that if the socio-political frames of reference which envelop the ST are not immediately available to the TT reader, "it is inevitable that processing difficulties will obtain in some instances, leading to incorrect translations" (ibid.). The translation of Sentence 83 by Arab and British students is a case in point. Obviously, "bombing" is stigmatising while "explosion" is neutral.

In either case, the experiential meaning of the text (i.e. the meaning of the text as it is apprehended in the realm of the individual's experience) embraces that of the ST writer and that of the translator into the TL. Presumably, the encounter of two different types of experience is problematic especially when dealing with such a subject matter towards which participants respond subjectively. Subjective reaction is often expected on the part of either participants (Libyans or English) when their ideological beliefs become challenged or happen to be at variance with those of the SL writer (cf. Hatim 1997).

Experiential meaning is often investigated under the modal of transitivity (see Hatim 1997:179-81). This shows how individuals mentally encode in language
some pictures of reality to account for the world around them. Because it is concerned with the expression of ideas through the grammar of the text, transitivity depicts what Halliday (1985:101) calls the ideational function of language:

our most powerful conception of reality is that it consists of "goings-on": of doing, happening, feeling, being. These goings-on are sorted out in the semantic system of language, and expressed through the grammar of the clause.

Trainees, when translating can, therefore, be (un)consciously driven by the dominant ideologies in their native language and culture. Neither groups tried to copy the original author's strategy of synthesising both "verdicts" of bombing and explosion. On the contrary, each group managed (i.e. steered) the text in line with the ideological bias of their society.

Synonymy errors can also reflect a deficiency in the semantics of the words of the ST itself. Here again, the frequency of errors is affected by the direction of translation. This type of error hardly surfaces in Text Two while it is more frequent in Text One. This is not surprising given that testees are native speakers of Arabic and would naturally be more proficient in the semantics of their mother tongue than in those of English. The translation of Sentence 84 below illustrates one of the several errors of this type made when translating Text Two:
(84) this was enough to cause observers inside Russia and out to wonder aloud just how deep the space...

(84a) wa-kāna ḍāliya kāfiyan li-yajc̱al al-mulāhidhīn dāxil rūsyā wa-xārijihā yatasā?alūn bi-ṣawt c̱āl c̱an mādā c̱umq...

bt: this was enough to cause observers inside Russia and outside it wonder in a loud voice just how deep the space….

The expression "wonder aloud" in Sentence 84 is used figuratively in the sense that its literal meaning is transferred into another level of meaning. As Leech (1969:151) explains, "The figurative meaning F is derived from the literal meaning L in having the sense like L or perhaps it is as if L."

Indeed, the literal meaning of "wonder aloud" is something like using a loud rather than discrete voice to express or inquire about something; however, the figurative meaning it assumes in this situation is something like "not discrete about their worries", or more precisely, "not hiding their concern". The testee rendered only the literal meaning and, in doing so, failed to identify the figurative meaning. Such a type of error not only indicates a failure to translate a single word but also an inadequacy in translation skills. Had the ST been subjected, for instance, to a textual analysis, apparently a translation tool the testee is not aware of, the figurative meaning of "wonder aloud" would have been retrieved more clearly.

Among other errors which reflect a deficiency in the semantics of the SL, though not necessarily a result of synonymy confusion, are register errors.
They relate to what Baker (1992:15) calls evoked meaning and arise from dialect or register variation. Trainees find it difficult to interpret, let alone to translate, words from classical Arabic such as "yusawwiğ" (justify) in the ST. The ST writer could have used "yu'callil" or "yubarrir" (justify), a MSA which is more common and easier to understand, but he opted for the archaic alternative to fulfil extra semiotic values associated with this variety of Arabic. Most testees failed to interpret correctly this word (see Table Two:118) and those who succeeded could not find an equivalent with the same extra-semiotic values.

4.4.2 Equivalence Errors

Equivalence errors represent an inherent difficulty in the language itself as a result of partial or non-correspondence between the two languages and tend to be more frequent in Text One than Text Two.

1 See Holes 1995 for more details on the function and value of Classical Arabic.
Partial correspondence consists of SL items which have only partial equivalents in the TL. For example, "press" in Sentence 76a mentioned earlier represents just part of the meaning of the ST counterpart "maṭbūṭ at". The word "press" in Arabic is "šīhāfa" while "maṭbūṭ at" (lit. printed matters) is more inclusive. As a result, I have found that the translation of "maṭbūṭ at" differs from one testee to another. The ten testees provided seven different translations of "maṭbūṭ at" (see Table Three), all of which can be considered as superordinate of the hyponym "maṭbūṭ at". Likewise, the Arabic word "futūr" (lit. coldness) was translated into English by synonyms which reflect only parts of its meaning like, "tepidity" and "chilling".

(Table Three: translations of "maṭbūṭ at" and "futūr")
As for non-correspondence errors, they represent mainly words or expressions which do not have proper equivalents in English like the following Arabic expression taken from Text One:

(85) lā yaquddu madājiC al-mas?ūlīn al-amīriyyīn...

bt: it does not disturb the sleeping of the American officials...

In crude terms, the meaning of the figurative term "lā yaquddu madājiC" is (it does not bother...). Most testees succeeded in decoding that meaning. However, the meaning has been transferred into the TL, but the aesthetic and emotive function and its potential effect on the TL reader have been lost as an idiomatic equivalent in English, if any, would be hard to find by a foreign speaker. Such a loss must not, however, be underestimated and compensation must be sought given the discourse type of the ST. The ST is an argumentative political text where language can become a sequence of Pavlovian cues in which focus is given to response (see 2.3.3). In other words, a political text is often audience-oriented and the use of linguistic devices such as fixed expressions is simply one of the techniques which emphasises its primary function (response of the audience).

Such semantic failures can be traced back to a heavy reliance on bilingual dictionaries. Indeed, we find that almost all choices presented by the students figure out in most Arabic/English dictionaries. Trainees do not seem to resort to the contextual cues to resolve such problems of what Newmark (1988a:167) calls "referential synonymy". Trainees must recognise that "...no two words
out of context have the same meaning" (ibid.). That is, words must not be separated from their context in order to achieve an appropriate equivalent. For instance, the context of the word "Calaqāt" being international relations, will make it clear and obvious that "relations" rather than "relationships" is the appropriate translation.

Nonetheless, as far as the corpus is concerned, there is almost no guarantee that a clear contextual meaning of a word or expression will ensure a successful translation. For example, with regard to Text One, trainees were translating from their mother tongue; therefore, the meaning and context of "Calaqāt" (relations) is clear and straightforward. Yet, we find mistranslation which in this case can be explained in terms of insufficient knowledge of the semantics of the TL. Students cannot contextualise within the TL unless they know its semantics.

4.4.3 World Knowledge Errors

Semantic errors do not necessarily indicate lack of competence in the semantics of the SL or TL as in the case of synonymy errors or an inherent cross-linguistic variation as in the case of equivalence errors. They may also reflect an inherent difficulty due to the nature of the translation process. Translators, no matter how proficient they are, are bound to encounter difficulties relating to insufficient database (world knowledge) about the field
of the text they are translating; the more specific the field is, the harder the translator’s task becomes. The specificity of the field is often determined in terms of the familiarity of the translator with its technicality. Consider Sentence 86:

(86) Ever since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world Sputnik, Gagarin and the space station Mir appeared to have fallen too...

(86a) fa-munū ṣināʕ al-suyūʕiyā tilka l-hayʔa llatā qaddamat lil-alam al-qamar al-sbutnik qad jarra xalfahu inhiyar jajarín wa-l-mahaţta l-fadāʔiyā "mir".

bt: since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world the satellite Sputnik which resulted in the collapse of Gagarin and the space station Mir.

The radical alteration of meaning in Sentence 86a follows mainly from the limitation of the student's world knowledge. This becomes obvious when some testees interpreted the Russian astronaut Gagarin as a satellite, or a space station. Had the students had adequate knowledge about (Russian) space programmes such misinterpretations would have been avoided. To confirm this claim, I briefed the three students who translated Sentence 86 about the Russian space programme and asked them to translate again the first paragraph. Surprisingly, the quality of their second version improved significantly. The number of errors was reduced and the core meaning of the ST remained intact in their new translation.
Lack of world knowledge is clearer in some students' translation of "red planet" into Arabic as "kawkab rid" (كوكب ريد) or even "kawkab red" (كوكب ريد), keeping the English graphical form of the word "Red". This indicates that the students' astronomic knowledge is poor as they failed to realise that "Red Planet" is a metonymy for the Planet Mars. However, no matter how rich the world knowledge of the translators is, they are likely to encounter this kind of problem. The issue, then, is how to deal with such problems when encountered rather than what should have been done after they happened. Pym (1993:136) suggests that "you don't have to understand a text in order to translate it. You just have to know how to avoid errors". The implication of this statement for translation teaching is that it is necessary to equip the students with the skill to avoid the problem while trying to minimise the effect on the quality of the message as well. This strategy can be more practical in certain context than the strategy of exposing the problem without any deletion of information.

The practicality of Pym's claim depends on the standpoint of the translator and the receiver. This is well demonstrated by the example of "Red Planet" as in Sentence 87:

(87) Russia has been funnelling all its space resources into the launch of its Mir 1996 probe, unmanned spacecraft designed to orbit the Red Planet, dispatch a quartet of landers to the surface and, perhaps most
important, return the country to the space faring pre-eminence it once enjoyed.

(87a) َاكافط النسأة المُع؟ًاءن رَغب مُتَشِد الزمان الـفأذ؟ي لدّاحه مَشْرع يِئل الـمَرارِيخت 1996 وَهي سنة مَشِيناً بِالرَّوْبَود تَسمِمُها لـتـادةّ أرباً اجْـزةٌ اسْتِلْعاً السَّاحـة الــبَـكَـك وَالرَّبـم أَيْـدـان وَآكَأر الأهمَـيّـة تَـمْـدِيدها النـسأة مَدِيـها الـمـجِيد لـمـجاع الـفأذ؟ي؟

bt: lately, Russia has been funnelling all its space resources into the launch of Mars 1996 which is a spacecraft without a space crew designed to dispatch four exploratory devises to the surface of the planet and, perhaps most important, Russia regaining its glorious past in the space domain.

(87b) َاكافط النسأة المُع؟ًاءن رَغب مُتَشِد (كَأٰفط النسأة المَع؟ًاءن رَغب مُتَشِد (like 87a...تَسمِمُها لـتـادةّ السَّاحـة الــبَـكَـك وَالرَّبـم أَيْـدـان وَآكَأر الأهمَـيّـة تَـمْـدِيدها النـسأة مَدِيـها الـمـجِيد لـمـجاع الـفأذ؟ي؟)

bt: Russia (like 87a bt) designed to orbit the Red Planet, to dispatch...(like 87a bt).

Both versions, 87a and 87b, are relatively similar translations of the same ST. Students K and B, who produced these translations respectively, did not seem to understand parts of the meaning of the ST (the Red Planet). The only difference between the two is that student K simply avoided the information "to orbit the Red Planet" in his translation whereas student B ventured and included this part of the text despite his uncertainty about its meaning. The result, as Sentence 87b shows, was an inappropriate translation.
The translators used two different techniques when dealing with the same problem. The first group of translators resorted to the avoidance (or deletion) strategy without drastic changes in the core meaning of the text. The second kept the whole informational content of the ST despite doubts about the comprehension of some elements. Both options would not fit in a method where the ultimate goal is translation par excellence. However, this is a farfetched goal; translators are bound to encounter problems inherent in the language or culture owing to the limits of their linguistic or pragmatic competence.

In either case, compromises are necessary. Here, the option for one of the two compromises (Sentences: 87a or 87b) depends on various factors involved in the process of translation. For instance, if the performer is a professional translator, omissions of such information as "the Red Planet", which does not significantly affect the communication goal of the text, would be more appropriate. Errors like those in Sentence 87b would be badly received by the client and would represent a potential threat to the reputation of the performer as a translator.

As far as translation teaching is concerned, Pym's strategy of avoidance would be the least appropriate technique. Students should be encouraged to reveal their weaknesses rather than conceal them; otherwise, the teacher's feedback
from the students would be incomplete being based on what they know and not on what they tried to avoid as well. Assessing what the students know is only part of the evaluation process; confining the teaching process to this segment of the students' performance would overlook a basic part of their needs which is the main concern of every teaching method.

4.4.4 Collocation Errors

Semantic errors are not always a mere loss in the propositional content of the ST elements. They can simply reflect a failure to observe collocation restrictions where some lexical items tend to keep company with some other items. Collocation restriction, as Baker (1992:14) defines them, are "semantically arbitrary restrictions which do not follow logically from the propositional meaning of a word." Collocation errors showed up more in Texts One and Two than in Texts Three and Four. The frequency of collocation errors in the translation of Texts One and Two can be explained by the higher need of such devices in argumentation to serve the main goal of text (persuasion). This recurrence is also the result of the nature of collocation itself which tends to be language-specific and therefore a source of difficulty for students.

In respect of Text One, a significant number of semantic errors can be associated with this type; for instance, the word "musā'adāt" (aid) which has
been rendered as "help, assistance, contribution, etc." (see Table Four), all of which are acceptable translations. But if translated collocatively (i.e. in relation to the word(s) it collocates with: "musā'adāt iqtisādiyya", only the English corresponding collocation "economic aid" is most suitable.

The difficulty in translating collocation is even greater when translating Text Two, despite the fact that the Arabic (the students' L1) in this case is the TL.

<table>
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<th>the grand promenade</th>
<th>wonder aloud</th>
<th>musā'adāt</th>
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<td>help</td>
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<td>B</td>
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<td>C</td>
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<td>al-nuzha</td>
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<td>al-riḥla</td>
<td>yatasā'?alūn jahran</td>
<td>helpings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>bi-l-qurb min al-ard</td>
<td>al-nuzha l-kabīra</td>
<td>ta'ajjub kabīr</td>
<td>contributions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>darba ʕaksiyya muqawwasa</td>
<td>al-riḥla l-fadā'?iyya</td>
<td>yuṭīr al-tasā'?ul</td>
<td>assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>qaṭf muqawwasa ʕalā l-ard</td>
<td>riḥlat al-fadā'? al-ʕadhīma</td>
<td>yatasā'?alūn jahran</td>
<td>aids</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Four: collocation errors)

As can be seen from Table Four, students found it difficult to understand the expression "a near earth lob shot". However, their difficulty stemmed from different reasons. One group of students (C, D, G, and H) seemed to
understand the ST but was unable to find the appropriate translation. For example, the translation of student C indicates that the translator grasped the core meaning of the ST viz. "the spacecraft almost exploded over earth". However, its translation as "qunbula ardiyya" (earth explosion) lacks information like the description of the way the explosion would have occurred which exists in the ST word "lob". The translation also implies a complete destruction of earth while there is no such implication in the ST. As to the second group of students (A, B, and E) they simply did not understand the ST and, as a result, their translation was incorrect (see Table Four).

The "grand promenade" is another illustration of students' difficulty in translating collocation or fixed expressions. It has been translated by most students literally as "al-nuzha l-kabīra/l- adjudīma" (the big/great excursion). This literal translation lacks various meaning aspects existing in the ST. The use of French words in the ST is not meaningless, but serves the purpose of irony which the original author intended to achieve. In other words, French is often used in English to mark prestige or greatness, but is used here by the author ironically to indicate that what was claimed to be the "grand promenade" (notice the use of the polysyllabic Romance word) has turned out to be, in actual fact, an "earth lob shot" (notice parallelly the use of monosyllabic Germanic words).
Aware of the problem, students G and J simply preserved the core meaning of the text by translating it as "al-riḥla" (journey) and "al-riḥla l-fadā?iyya" (space journey) respectively. Both translations, however, failed to convey the sense of irony existing in the ST which can be re-conveyed in the phrase "riḥlat al-qarn" as in Sentence 88:

(88) tahawwalat riḥlat al-qarn ḥāābiḥi ʾilā...
(the journey of the century turned into...)

From what precedes, it seems that students tend to opt for a literal translation rather than interact with the ST in the TL and culture context. For instance, students D and E simply translated the expression "wonder aloud" as "yataCajjabūn" (they are surprised) which is a de-contextualised dictionary translation of the ST. This indicates that the students tend to extract the meaning of words in isolation remaining unaware of how they form part of a cohesive and coherent communicative unit which takes its meaning from a meaningful universe (context).

It is, therefore, essential, as emphasised throughout this study, that students are encouraged to translate the text as one whole unit rather than a set of separate sub-units. Words and sentences in a text are usually related to each other in their cohesive and conceptual unity within and outside the text. The interpretation of a word, sentence, or even text without placing it in its immediate or universal context is likely to allow the translation only partial access to its meaning.
In conclusion, semantic errors in the argumentative translation corpus are abundant and can sometimes be harmful to the quality of the text. In view of this fact, it seems that a proper measurement of semantic errors as a feedback for the (re)construction of effective teaching or remedial techniques is essential. This is only achievable if feedback from the teacher, the trainee and field research combine in order to produce an exhaustive account of the subject.

4.5 Stylistic Errors
Most often, the notion of style is tied to the social relationship that holds between participants in a certain exchange of discourse. Newmark (1997:14) defines style as "the study of features of the socially and situationally distinctive varieties of a language". That is, style varies according to the interrelationships existing in the text and situation of occurrence. In addition to defining style, these inter-relationships determine the appropriate type of text relevant to each situation by shaping its structural and conceptual connectivity. It is expected therefore that students, unless trained appropriately, will face serious difficulties in selecting or identifying the appropriate effective style and textual structure for the appropriate social exchange. The task of the translator can become even more difficult when the two socio-cultural systems vary largely as the same social exchange will not necessarily require the same style in both languages.
4.5.1 Cohesion

One of the most recurrent errors in the testees' translations is the negative transfer of the stylistic mechanics of Arabic into English and vice versa where the same situation requires different cohesive devices. Stylistic errors discovered in the corpus vary from those errors which affect the connectedness of clauses and sentences to those which disturb the general coherence of the whole text.

Although cohesion is considered by many researchers (e.g. Al-Jabr 1987 and Menacere 1992) as one of the most striking peculiarities of the Arabic language and, therefore, one which is likely to represent a source of difficulty in translation, the corpus shows that most testees succeeded on several occasions to free themselves from the surface constraints imposed by the cohesive devices in ST and to opt for the stylistic patterns of the TL. For example, the excessive use of the linking device "wāw" (lit. and) in Text One is avoided by most students in their translation as in Sentence 89:

(89) wa-l-ṣahih anna Ǧadadan min al-maṭbuʿat al-amrikiyya naṣarat maqālāt wa-tāʾīqāt taḥmil Ǧadaʔan dīdana miṣr wa-mašāliḥihā. wa-raddat al-ṣiḥāfa l-miṣriyya munaddida kamā anna mustašār al-raʔīs mubārak akkada anna miṣr laysat tābīʿa li-ʔaḥad

bt: and in fact a number of the American presses published articles and commentaries carrying hostility against Egypt and its interest. And the Egyptian press replied condemning (the act) and President Mubarak's counsellor...
English language does not allow such a series of conjunctions in discourse and is less favourable toward implicit inter-clause relationships. Most testees did indeed manage to cut down these structural functions which are often disfavoured in English. This paratactic form specific to Arabic where clauses are more additive than subordinative (Johnstone 1990:217) seems to be partly monitored by testees. For example, the above passage has been translated by most students as Sentence 89a:

(89a) in fact, a number of American printed press published articles and commentaries carrying hostility against Egypt and its interests. The Egyptian press replied condemning the act. President Mubarak's...

Notice that although linkage words which would be extraneous in English are avoided, the structure remains additive rather than subordinative. In other words, a native speaker of English would write it as in Sentence 89b:

(89b) in fact, a number of the American presses published commentaries which carry...

or simply as Sentence 89c:

(89c) in fact, a number of the American presses published articles hostile to the interests of Egypt which the Egyptian press has condemned.

When translating Text Two, students seemed to be equally aware about the cohesive requirements of Arabic. Arabic tends to make explicit inter-clause/sentence relationships, usually through conjunctions that English tends to leave implicit (Williams 1984:124-25). Consider Sentence 90:
(90) …for the Russian space programme, the comeback was supposed to begin last month. Ever since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world Sputnik appeared to have fallen too.

Sentence 90 as it stands would not be appropriate in Arabic. The lack of a linking marker between the two first sentences in Arabic would obscure the continuity of textual cohesion and development. Most students were aware of this aspect of textual cohesion as the two sentences were overtly connected using the conjunction "fa-" (lit. and) as in Sentence 90a:


4.5.2 Repetition

Repetition is a major difficulty testees faced in the translation of argumentation given the cross-linguistic variation between Arabic and English in this respect. Arabic is usually saturated with different types of repetition which English is not so tolerant about but tends rather to economy and precision. For example, "Arabic tends to favour lexical repetition while English prefers ellipsis" (ibid.). Repetition contributes more extensively in Arabic to creating a rise in momentum and a kind of tension which carries the arguments along without any overt substantiation of claims (Al-Jubouri 1984:110-11). Arab trainees, when translating across Arabic and English, do not seem to be aware that each language does not favour the same amount of redundancy or use the same mixture of means to maintain cohesion. Repetition
can be realised in different ways in Arabic one of which is the reiteration of
the same lexical element(s) as Sentence 91 from Text One illustrates:

(91) tarfuḍ bahΘa silāḥihā l-kimyā?ī aw mawdū’C al-silāh al-kimyā?ī
fi l-šarq al-awsaṭ.

bt: It refuses the search of its chemical weapons or the subject of
chemical weapons in the Middle East.
Out of ten testees, only student J avoided repetition of the phrase "chemical
weapons" in his translation as in Sentence 91a:

(91a) It refuses to discuss the issue of chemical weapons in Egypt or in
the Middle East.
The translation of repetition of synonymy or near synonymy represents no less
difficulty for the testees and is even a challenge for any claim that identical
equivalence in translation is possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ts</th>
<th>widd wa-ulfa</th>
<th>maqālāt wa-ta’līqāt</th>
<th>al-i’tidāl wa-l-lin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>harmony and cordiality</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>cordially</td>
<td>articles and commentaries</td>
<td>moderation and leniency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>familiarity and friendship</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>friendships</td>
<td>essays and comments</td>
<td>moderation and supplion!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>familiarity and cordiality</td>
<td>articles and commentaries</td>
<td>moderation and tradability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>close and friendly</td>
<td>articles and comments</td>
<td>moderation and softening up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>familiarity and cordiality</td>
<td>articles and comments</td>
<td>moderate and leaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>familiarity and cordiality</td>
<td>essays and comments</td>
<td>moderate and softness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>friendship</td>
<td>articles and comments</td>
<td>moderation and flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>good terms</td>
<td>articles and comments</td>
<td>moderation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Five: forms of repetition)

As can be seen from Table Five above, testees opted for different strategies
when translating such forms of repetition. For instance, repetition in Sentence
was kept in the student's translation, most of which involves wrong lexical choice:

\[(92)\] wa-kāna l-mas?ūlūn al-miṣriyyūn mā barihū yusawwiqūn al-\text{C}alāqāt taḥta ja₂b lībyā nahwa l-i\text{C}tidāl wa-l līn.

But even in the case of a correct lexical choice as in Sentence 91a rendered by Student B:

\[(92a)\] Egyptian officials have always been justifying their relation with Libya by attracting her towards moderation and leniency,

the preservation of repetition makes the style in the English text repetitive, as expressions consisting of two synonyms like "moderation and leniency" are not in frequent use in English. However, the domestication of this sentence according to the form and structure of the TL by avoiding peculiar Arabic stylistic forms, as did student K, may not reproduce the same effect of the ST:

\[(92b)\] Egyptian officials have always been justifying their relation with Libya by attracting her towards moderation.

Sentence 92b parallelly removes other important meaning elements existing in the ST such as the emphatic function of repetition and its aesthetic impact on the reader. Translation loss is inevitable in either case. Trainees and translators in general must accept the loss instead of denying it by looking for complete equivalence. They should rather identify the less serious loss if faced with different choices or find a way to reduce it by way of compensation. Compensation, as Hervey and Higgins (1992:37) tell us, does not have to be at the same level of the loss. It can be recreated in an earlier or later place in the TT. This does not, however, mean that the translation of this type of language involving repetition and parallelism from Arabic into English always involves
a translation loss. It is rather the case in literary works that pompous or pedantic devices should be included in the TT to maintain a certain flavour of the ST.

It has been demonstrated that argumentative texts in general (cf. El-Shiyab, 1989) and those in the Arabic language in particular (cf. Koch 1981 and Al-Jubouri 1984) can easily accommodate the repetition of lexical items. This entails the repetition of the same theme or reference to a previous rheme. The notion of theme-rheme is used here in the sense devised by the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP). According to the FSP, elements of the clause are different in terms of their contribution to the development of communication. Rheme is said to have greater Communicative Dynamism (CD) than theme which is usually retrievable from the context (cf. Abdul-Raof 1997). The location and progression of theme-rheme patterns are essential elements for determining the meaning and type of text (Hatim 1987). For instance, the occurrence of rheme in the initial position of the sentence often marks emphasis. Linear thematisation of rhemes is rather a characteristic of the Thematic Progression (TP) of hortatory discourse (like argumentation).

As far as Text One is concerned, the need for a compensation strategy is even greater when translating morphological or syntactic repetition such as that between "maqālāt" (articles) and "taʾlīqāt" (commentaries). The assonance between the two words has obviously an aesthetic value which most students
seem to ignore or to be unaware of. The same can be said about Sentences 93 and 94:

(93) wa-yucabbir al-mawqif al-miṣrī can ijma cC arabī
(the Egyptian stance reflects Arab unanimity)

or

(94) al-ṣamt al-ġarbī can al-silāḥ al-nawawī
(the silence of the West about the nuclear weapon).

The writer could have said "mawqif miṣr" (the Egyptian stance) or "ṣamt al-ġarb" (the silence of the West) but choose the other forms for the sake of syntactic parallelism as a way to generate a positive response from the Arab readers.

Argumentation is an area where extensive use of semantic as well as stylistic play is often the norm. Therefore, the meaning of text can be generated not only from the semantics of isolated words but also from the use of words as one textual unit which depends in turn on the socio-linguistic context of its occurrence.

4.5.3 Discourse Parameters

As mentioned earlier, style is often determined by the social relationship that holds between participants in discourse as, for instance, between the translator and the TL reader in the case of translation. This interaction between producer (trainee /translator) and receiver (TL reader) must also operate, as Hatim
(1997:25) points out, "within constraints imposed by the particular 'use' to which they [text producer and receiver] put their language".

He identifies these constraints as the three discourse parameters of tenor, mode and field (used here as defined in 3.2.2). He argues that tenor, perhaps the more determining factor of the translator/receiver relationship, overlaps with both fields resulting in formality and technicality. On the other facet, tenor overlaps with mode giving rise to functional tenor as illustrated in Figure Seven (Hatim 1997:26).

![Discourse parameters and their interface](image)

(Figure Seven: overlap of discourse parameters)

Discourse parameters and their interface can play an essential role in the quality of translation and can therefore be an important teaching element. Indeed, in the case of Text Two, we notice that the level of formality (tenor) is in fact an interval in that it overlaps in a number of significant ways with the field as well as the mode of discourse. For instance, the use of technical and French terms tenor and field interact to colour the text with a relatively high level of formality, as in Sentence 95:
(95) For a time the craft was going to hit Australia, endangering it not with just debris but also with the 270 grams of plutonium it was carrying as a power source.

The extract above consists of a relatively long Sentence (95) and has a high frequency of sophisticated terms like "debris" and "plutonium" which presuppose a readership with more than an average level of education. Translated into Arabic, Sentence 95 cannot keep the same level of formality/technicality for reasons connected with cross-linguistic and cultural variation. Generally, Arabic tends to borrow from other languages in the case of a lexical gap while the motive for borrowing (e.g. French words) in English is usually to fulfil a social function rather than to respond to a linguistic need. Technical terms tend also to be less common in Arabic compared with English. Therefore, losses at the level of formality/technicality are inevitable in this situation. However, their communicative function within the whole argumentative discourse can be maintained.

For instance, the expression "reconnaissance capabilities" from Text Two can be translated as "al-qudra ʕalā istiqṣāʔ al-maʕlūmāt" (the ability to trace knowledge). Although the tenor of the translation is not the same as that of the ST, it succeeds in reproducing the ST's sense of irony (cf. also discussion of "grand promenade" in 4.4.4) by the addition of another expression as in Sentence 96:
(96) li-tașila qudurātihā Ǧalā ʾistiqṣā? l-maʾlūmāt ilā mustawā lā tuhsadū Ǧalayh
(its reconnaissance capabilities have left Russia in an unenviable position).

Tenor interacts also with mode in terms of the function of the language to regulate or merely to inform through face-to-face encounters or indirectly as between writer and audience. It seems that Text Two is written to be read which emphasises the relative formality of the text and therefore indicates a relative physical distance between producer and receiver as well as between users and subject matter (Hatim and Mason 1997:22). However, the degree of physical proximity existing in the ST is not the same in the students' translation given the same reasons of cross-linguistic variation.

It seems from the analysis of Texts One and Two that the stylistic format of argumentation in Arabic and English can be linguistically variant although the pragmatic goal (persuasion) is the same. Perhaps if students learn how argumentation is linguistically formatted in both languages, they will be more likely to convey convincingly the information and style existing in the ST to the TL reader.

4.5.4 Text-type Format

It goes without saying that the type of text reinforces certain stylistic formats than others. The contextual focus tends to emphasise certain patterns more
than others. For instance, in argumentation the topic sentence sets the tone which must be substantiated and would exhibit a pattern like:

**Tone-setter > Thesis substantiated**

On the other hand, an exposition sets the scene which must be expounded and therefore would show a structure such as:

**Scene-setter > Aspects of the scene expounded**

(Hatim and Mason 1990:155-56)

Text Two is an argumentative one which evaluates through counter-argumentation. Hatim (1991:189-99) identifies, in this regard, two variants of argumentation in respect of Arabic and English.

The first variant is through argumentation and is initiated by a thesis to be supported through substantiation and then a conclusion reconfirming the initial thesis. Hatim argues that this type of argumentation is more typical of Arabic than English. Counter-argumentation represents the second variant and is initiated by a thesis to be opposed, then the opposition (anti-thesis) is supported by substantiations, and finally a conclusion (synthesis) is drawn. This type of argumentation, Hatim points out, is more frequently a characteristic of English and can be divided into two further sub-types: balance and lop-sided.

The balance type gives the text-producer the option of signalling explicitly or implicitly his/her antithesis after the claim to be opposed is made which is the
case in Text Two. On the contrary, antithesis in the lop-sided argument is anticipated in advance as the thesis to be opposed is initiated by an explicit concessive (e.g. while, although, despite, etc.). Hatim (1991:194), then, presented an order of preferences which may be taken as indicative of the general trend of argumentation in each language as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. the balance counter-argument</td>
<td>through-argumentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. through-argumentation</td>
<td>the lopsided argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. the lopsided argument</td>
<td>the balance argument</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Figure Eight: order of preference in argumentation (ibid.))

Texts can also have different levels of argumentation which Hatim (ibid.) identified as macro- and micro-argumentation. Macro-argumentation indicates the argumentative format of the entire text whereas micro-argumentation indicates an embedded argument within the macro-pattern of text. For instance, in Text Two, we have an explicit macro-balance argumentation signalled by the cohesive device "but" at the beginning of the second paragraph (line 11) and implicit micro-balance argumentation between the second sentence of the first paragraph (Ever since.... underfinanced), on the one hand, and the rest of the paragraph [sentences (i) and (iii)], on the other.

While translating Text Two into Arabic, all students kept the ST argumentation format. The following is a translation of the first paragraph similar in terms of argumentation structure to those produced by almost all students:
The Arabic translation above is a formal rendering of the ST (Text Two). The native speaker of Arabic is unlikely to perceive in it an underlying continuity in argumentation especially between sentences (i) and (ii). This is because Arabic rhetoric does not usually allow such formats as that linking sentences (i) and (ii), where a single statement claim is followed immediately and without previous anticipation by a counter-claim. The norm is rather that should follow a description, an explanation or supporting argumentation. The expectation of a support rather than an opposition is further highlighted by the use of the cohesive device "fa-") which mainly functions as the English conjunctive "and" or to express a cause/effect relation like "because" or "therefore". In the case of the translation above, it does not serve either function. Linking sentences (i) to (iii) by the connector "fa-") would be more
appropriate in Arabic as one supports the other. As to the macro-balance relation [sentences (i) and (iii) to (ii)], it is best translated taking Hatim's (1991:195) following suggestion into account: "To deal with this case of multi-level argumentation, the micro-balance would have to be transformed into a lop-sided format in Arabic".

Hence, a translation of the first paragraph which attempts to render the conceptual relationships more explicitly for the Arabic reader would be as in Sentence 98:


bt: despite the fall of the agency that gave the world Sputnik, Gagarin and the space station Mir, (in the wake of the collapse of communism) following the slashing of the agency's budget to fewer launches and the deep concerns of the international community about the dangers of those under-financed missions, the comeback of the Russian space programme was supposed to begin last month for Russia has been funnelling...
4.6 Conclusion

On the whole, the analysis of the translation of argumentation shows a number of weaknesses that can drastically affect the quality of the translation or the credibility of the translator. Students committed a variety of linguistic errors which can alter the micro- and/or macro-level of the translation. These tend, however, to be errors made by individual students and are not much different from those made when translating exposition and instruction. Some errors, however, are more frequent in argumentation than in the other text-types. Others are a mere result of cross-linguistic variation between the argumentation format of the two languages.

Errors relating to macro- and micro-format of argumentation tend to be group errors, i.e. made by most students. It seems that the structure of argumentation is difficult to handle especially when translating between languages different in their argumentation structure such as Arabic and English.

As far as translation of argumentation between Arabic and English is concerned, it is essential to acquaint the trainee with the argumentative format in each language and the ways variation could be dealt with. To convey the argumentation convincingly to the TL reader, the translator must do so within the constraints imposed by the discourse situation of the text. The realisation of these constraints, defined as field tenor and mode, can be cross-linguistically variant. In this case, the translator is compelled to work with the
constraint framework of the TL but must find at the same time compensating techniques to preserve the pragmatic goal of the ST.

The texts were hardly negotiated by the trainees and there was an obvious inclination towards the SL forms and rhetorical functions. In other words, trainees were not aware of the impact of the TL audience's modes of thought and response on the quality of the translation. Their rendering seemed to strip out the text from its aesthetic functions and ornamental values; the transfer of content, regardless of the appropriateness of its presentation in the TL, was their only concern.

In sum, trainees seemed to process the ST and the TT implications too uncritically and failed, as a result, to account for those aspects of meaning that could be derived from the immediate meaning of words and sentences. Translation is not a word-to-word relation but rather a word-to-word fit. Yet, from among all sorts of errors, some seem to affect the quality of the text more profoundly than others and to determine their gravity will certainly vary according to the view of evaluators and their concept of the whole process of assessment in translation.
CHAPTER FIVE

Error Analysis of Texts: Three (Expository) and Four (Instructive)

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with issues that are central to the understanding of English-Arabic translation errors when rendering exposition and instruction. When translating argumentative Texts (One and Two), there was not a significant dissimilarity between errors made in each text apart from their distribution. Not surprisingly, when translating exposition and instruction similar types of errors recur especially those relating to the linguistic competence of the students. But not all errors were the same neither was their distribution. Each text-type shows different idiosyncrasies and error distributions which indicate that performance in translation depends largely on the type of text and the rhetorical purposes and patterns which follow from the ST.

Before embarking on the discussion of errors made by testees, we shall provide a description of the texts under investigation. Text Three (see Appendix I) is an expository one in which the contextual focus (see Hatim and Mason 1990:154-55) is on the composition (synthesis) of concepts from constituent elements. That is, the author states the topic idea only after presenting a number of sub-topics. For instance, in presenting the topic idea
(synthesis) in Text Three, the author first describes how the principle of "necessity is the mother of invention" has governed human lifestyles throughout history. The second paragraph shows how the principle finds its way through the development of the study of matter. Only the third paragraph explicitly uncovers the main idea of the text concerning the development of the study of glass.

Text Four (see Appendix I), on the other hand, is an instructive one without option. The focus in the text is binding. It concerns the formation of a future action or mode of behaviour in the reader. That is, unlike other texts (e.g. advertisement) where the instruction can be optional as in Sentence 99,

(99) fly Air Malta,

the instruction in Text Four is compulsory as the addressee has no other option. It consists of a set of authoritative (medical) instructions which must unarguably be followed to the letter.

Both texts have relatively short sentences which are very condensed in terms of their informational load especially in Text Three. The rhetorical purpose of Text Four does not allow compression of meaning as clarity would be threatened by it. The technicality of its register (medical), as opposed to that of Text Three, emphasises the purpose of precision of information. Text Three involves very few technical words although it seems to present itself as scientific. In terms of general knowledge, both texts can be said to belong to
the overt type and testees are not expected to face difficulties related to
culture-specificity.

5.2 Syntactic Errors

Many syntactic errors which characterise the translation of argumentation did
not become manifest in the testees' translation of Texts Three and Four. The
simpler grammatical structures of Texts Three and Four tend to follow from
the rhetorical purposes of their type which often tend to avoid ambiguity,
misinterpretation or manipulation of meaning. Sentences, therefore, are
relatively short and do not represent complex structures for the trainee. Most
syntactic errors made by trainees do not reflect any difficulty inherent in the
translation process itself or misinterpretation of the ST structure. Like
argumentative text, syntactic errors mainly reflect a lack of competence in the
syntax of the TL as testees are very likely to make the same errors when
writing an Arabic essay.

On the whole, syntactic accuracy in the translation of exposition and
instruction was much higher. Apart from a few structures which are intricately
complex and difficult to understand, either in the grammar of English or
Arabic, most errors appear to be typical of individuals rather than the group,
i.e., not usually common among all testees.
5.2.1 Tense/Aspect Errors

The frequency of tense errors when translating Texts Three and Four is significantly low compared with that of argumentation. Most tenses were correctly assigned by most students in Text Three, apart from a few individual errors, as Sentence 100a below illustrates:

(100) right from the start he seized what lay around him

(100a) hayθu annahu yadaC yadah Cala kull mā hawlah

The testee used the imperfective in Sentence 100a instead of the past as in the ST sentence. But the fact that he has rendered all other tense elements correctly suggests the error made in Sentence 100a is not due to the basic incompetence of the student in grammar or tenses. It indicates that the source of failure derives from the construction being translated. Indeed, the adverbial "right from the start", introducing the sentence, is often an indicator of a present perfective in English, and this explains the occurrence of such an erroneous TL construction. Student E, on the other hand, chooses the appropriate tense but inserts a complementiser "an" where none is required. Consider Sentence 101:

(101) he seized what lay around him...

(101a) munðu l-bidāya an waḍaC a yadah Cala kull mā hawlah...

The erroneousness of Sentence 101a stems from the fact that the Arabic particle "an" is usually followed by an expressive verb which must be in the subjunctive mood. The two grammatical conditions are not met in the Arabic translation provided above.
Text Four shows an even higher degree of syntactic accuracy. This is because the choice of tense in instruction is very limited given that nearly all predicate verbs are in the imperative form if not preceded by an obligation. All tenses in Text Four point towards the influence or creation of a future behaviour and only an imperative or an instructive mode can directly fulfil this function. The singularity of this tense mode is clear enough for trainees not to get confused in contrast, for instance, with an argumentative text where time reference (i.e. moving across different times: past, present and future) is customary because of the usual cross-temporal demands of argumentation as mentioned earlier in section 4.2.

5.2.2 Article and Preposition Errors

Articles and prepositions seem to pose little threat for trainees when translating Texts Three and Four. Almost all articles, apart from a few instances like Sentence 102a below found in the translation of Text Three, were translated accurately despite surface cross-linguistic variations in this context between the two languages:

(102) ...shows that trial and error has done pretty well
(102a) ...tubayyin anna l-ṭarīqa l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṣa? al-ḥasana

The insertion of the definite article "al-" (the) before the noun "ṭarīqa" (method) is not grammatically correct in Arabic. This follows from the fact that a head noun of construct phrase in Arabic must always be indefinite. This error seems rather to be a slip of the pen as this type does not show at all either
within the translation of Student H or the corpus of the whole group. Sentence 102 also shows a typical English structure which is not easy to translate. In the ST, "error" and "trial" are considered as a single entity which accounts for the singular agreement form of the verb. On the contrary, a dual form in Arabic is compulsory in this case which inevitably results in a translation loss (i.e. trial and error are inseparable rather than independent entities). Compensation is possible at this stage and Sentence 102 can be translated, for instance, as follows:

(102b)...fa-inna l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? maʾan qad addayā dawrahumā calā akmal wajh

(both trial and error have done pretty well).

The addition of "maʾan" (both/together) compensates for, or at least reduces, the loss. These compensation techniques do not seem to be sought by the students; or, perhaps, they are not even aware of the loss.

Prepositional errors made in the process of translating Texts Three and Four do not generally impair the intelligibility of the TT. In some instances, they tend to belong to single individual students as in the case of Sentence 103 taken from exposition and translated as Sentences 103a and 103b by students B and C respectively:

(103)...he sews his way through life.
(103a)...yansuju darbah ābra l-ḥayāt

(hesews his path through life)
(103b)...yašuqq bi-hā ẓarīqahu ābra l-ḥayāt

(hesews with it his way through life)
While most testees translated the ST into an Arabic collocative equivalent "fi l-hayāt", students B and C transferred the expression "through life" literally into the Arabic: "cabra l-hayāt". Here, as in the many cases of thème translation, the students do not free themselves from the stylistic shackles of the ST even when they are incompatible with those of the TL.

Translation of prepositions becomes harder when they do not have a straightforward equivalent in Arabic as can be seen in Sentence 104:

(104) to build new properties into matter

Table Six below shows how testees translated the preposition "into" taken from Text Three:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Testees</th>
<th>To build new properties into matter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda dāxīl al-mawādd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda li-l-mādda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda li-l-mādda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda li-l-mādda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda fi l-mādda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda dāxīl al-mādda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ al-mādda l-jadīda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>li-binā? xaṣa?iṣ jadīda ilā l-mādda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda fi l-mādda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda fi l-mādda</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Six: rendering of the preposition “into”)

The translation of student G and H are unequivocally wrong. Student’s G’s translation means that there are already established new properties which the scientists will try to build. The preposition “ilā” (to) in student’s H rendering
simply does not make sense. The remaining translations, using either “dāxil”
(inside) or (fi), can be rejected on different grounds. First, they lack the
motional aspect expressed by “into” in the ST. That is as Quirk and
Greenbaum (1973:147) point out, “into” generally requires a dynamic verb
such as “build” while “in” generally expressed the notion of static position as
in Sentence 105:

(105) zayd fi/dāxil al-bayt

(Zayd was in/inside the house).

Second, their structural positions make the meaning of the sentence
ambiguous, i.e. open to more than one interpretation. Consider, for instance,
Sentence 106:

(106) li-yabnu xawaṣṣ jadīda fi/dāxil al-mādda.

Sentence 106 can have two different meanings, depending on whether the
prepositional phrase (PP) belongs to the noun phrase (NP), as in (i), or an
entity independent from the NP, as in (ii).


The meaning of Sentence (i) is that there are already new properties in the
matter and the task of scientists is to construct them.

(ii) [νP yabnū [NP xawaṣṣ jadīda NP] PP fi/dāxil al-mādda PP] VP].

Notice in Sentence (ii) that the PP is an independent constituent in relation to
the NP. A way to demonstrate such independence is topicalisation of the PP.
Consider Sentence 107:

(107) fi/dāxil al-mādda, yabnū xawaṣṣ jadīda

(into matter, they build new properties).
It is clear that only Sentence (ii) renders correctly the meaning of the ST, yet keeping the topicalised form to avoid the ambiguity adds an element of emphasis to the TT absent in corresponding ST. Therefore, the addition of a clarifying verb without the use of the stylistic technique of topicalisation will be much closer to the ST, as in Sentence 108:

(108) li-yabnu xawāṣṣ jadida tudāf ilā/takūn fī al-mādda
bt: to build new properties added to/to be in matter.

Like text three, translation of prepositions in Text Four represents significant difficulties for the students when there is a cross linguistic mismatch between the two language systems, more particularly, in the case of a TL deficiency such as the translation of the preposition “onto” in Text Four.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ts</th>
<th>Take care to avoid spreading onto surrounding normal skin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>ihūar tajannub našr qaṭarāt al-dawā? hawla I-jild al-salīm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>ihūar li-tajannub intišārihā ilā l-jild al-salīm wa-l-minṭaqa l-muḥīṭa bi-hā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>ihūar tajannub min intišār al-dawā? hawla l-jild al-salīm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>ihūar an lā tanṣūr al-ṣabīqa ʿalā l-jild al-ṣāliḥ al-mutajāwir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>wa-ʿalayk al-ḥādar kay lā tasmaḥ li-tilk al-niqāṭ an tuṣīb al-jīld al-salīm al-muḥīḍ bil-minṭaqa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>kun ḥādir wa-ḥālik li-tajannub intišār al-sā?i l-ʿalā l-jīld al-ṭabiʿī l-salīm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>ḥāwil an tatajannab intišār al-dawā? ilā l-jīld al-salīm al-muḥīṭ bil ʿūlīl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>kūnū ḥādirin min al-intišār ilā l-jīld al-ṭabiʿī l-muḥīṭ bil darar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>ihūar tajannub našr al-dawā? fawqa l-jīld al-salīm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>ihūar tajannub intišār al-dawā fawqa l-jīld al-salīm al-muḥīṭ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Seven: rendering of the preposition "onto")
As can be seen from the above table, the testees offered four different Arabic translations of the English preposition "onto". The difficulty in translating "onto" is similar to that involved in translating "into" as discussed earlier. Testees failed to observe the difference between "on" and "onto" and some could not find an equivalent preposition in Arabic. Basically, the difference between English "on" and "onto", as can be inferred from the definitions provided by *Webster's Encyclopaedic Dictionary* (1992:700-1), is that the former generally refers to a static position of someone or something put over (part of) the surface of something else (e.g. the lamp on the desk). On the other hand, "onto" refers to the position and the process by which the person or thing referred to has been positioned or has reached that position (e.g. climb onto the next train). However, Arabic does not have a corresponding preposition which refers to both the position and the manner (process) of positioning. As a result, some testees (e.g. D and F) rendered the static place aspect of the preposition as in Sentence 109:

(109) ālā tajannab intišār al-sā’il īlā al-jild al-salīm.

The preposition "ālā" refers to the position of something on the surface of something else and can therefore be said to correspond to the English preposition "on". The meaning aspect expressing the process of the positioning is lost in this translation. Testees B, G, and H, on the other hand, captured the missing meaning aspect in translation (109) by using "īlā" (to) but at the expense of the aspect referring to the position itself.
The erroneousness of the translations of other students, such as those of A and K, is not inherent in the language itself but rather in their failure to make the proper choice of prepositions. Consider their translations in Sentences 110 and 111 respectively:

(110) ihðar tajannub intiašár al-dawā? hawla l-jild al-salīm
bt: beware to avoid spreading of medicine around the normal skin.
(111) ihðar tajannub intišār al-dawā? fawqa l-jild al-salīm
bt: beware of the spreading of drops over the normal skin

Both translations alter the meaning of the ST. In Sentence 110, regardless of other mistakes which may also have their impact on the alteration of meaning, we are cautioned not to spread the drops around (hawla), rather than on(to), normal skin as in the original text. Similarly, in Sentence 111 the cautioning is against spreading the drops over (fawqa) rather than on(to) the surface of the normal skin. The preposition "to" in the same ST sentence, repeated here for convenience as Sentence 112, was also misinterpreted by some testees as it was by Student C in Sentence 112a:

(112) take care to avoid spreading onto surrounding normal skin
(112a) ihðar tajannub našr qaṭarāt al-dawā? hawla l-jild al-salīm

This translation is completely opposite to the intentionality of the ST. If translated back into English, Sentence 112a will be understood as Sentence 113:

(113) Be careful about avoiding to spread the drops around your normal skin.

The meaning of Sentence 113 is completely the opposite of that existing in the ST.
5.2.3 Agreement and Case-Marking Errors

Agreement is another minor area of difficulty where most errors are individually rather than collectively made and tends to reflect the students' lack of competence in Arabic grammar. For instance, the following erroneous constructions were made by students D and G respectively when translating Sentence 114 from Text Four:

(114) treatment can take up to twelve weeks
(114a) wa-yumkin an tastağriq muddat al- Cynthia ĉašarata usbū ĉin
(114b) min al-mumkin an tatağlalab al-mu ĉalaja ilā ĉina ĉašarata usbū ĉin.

Each of the above constructions includes an agreement and case-marking error. Both students fail to observe the gender agreement between the modifier numeral and its head noun. Students D and G fail also to insert the accusative case marking to "usbū ĉin" (week), as "usbū ĉan" required by Arabic grammar.

In fact, case is a rich but complex syntactic aspect of Arabic which most testees fail at least once to represent appropriately in either text. Consider the translation of student G:

(115) the researchers presenting it can use ....
(115a) inna al-bāhiθūn allaðīna yumaθilūnahu bi-istiθathim istiθ-mal...

Being the noun of the particle "inna", "al-bāhiθūn" (researchers) must be accusative i.e. "al-bāhiθūn". Errors of this kind do not affect the intelligibility
of the TT but rather its grammatical acceptability and they reflect the difficulty involved in mastering the Arabic agreement and case system.

The difficulty of agreement seems to be related in most cases to gender. Consider the translation by Student D (116a) of Sentence 116:

(116) Glass is transparent and made of sand
(116a) al-zujāj mādda شرح wa-masnū ۱۳ min al-raml.

The failure of the student to ascribe the appropriate gender in Sentence 116a is apparently due to his confusion as to whether "zujāj" or "mādda" is the head noun in the original sentence. This kind of confusion features more in cases like Sentence 116 which involves in Arabic a long nominalised sentence. This type of confusion does not occur in verbal clauses such as that in Sentence 116b below, where the relation between modifier and modified is clearer:

(116b) li-؟anna l-zujāj ۴TABAR mādda شرح.

As we mentioned earlier, the difficulty with case-marking is greater owing to the complexity of the case system in Arabic. Consider Sentence 117a which is the translation of Student J:

(117) They have developed a wide field of material science
(117a) qāmū bi-tawīr maydānan fasīḥan fi ۱۳ilm al-mawādd

In Sentence 117a, the student has assigned the accusative case to the noun "maydān" and its adjective "fasīḥ"; they should read, however, be in the genitive case because of the "idāfa (construct phrase). In Arabic, case-marking is morphologically inflected while it is often uninflected in English. The task
is therefore easier in English since it is often the case that exactly the same form of a word assumes all different case-markings.

5.2.4 Modality Errors

The corpus also shows collective errors which can easily pass unnoticed by the translation teacher or evaluator as will be discussed in Chapter Six. The translation of the modal "will" into Arabic is a case in point. It is often viewed as a probability modal and rendered accordingly into the Arabic futuristic as a probability marker "sa-" or "sawfa" (will/shall) as in "sawfa yamši" or "sa-yamši" (he will go). In so doing, the trainees sometimes overlook other pragmatic functions that can be realised by the modal such as certainty and binding (Atari 1994:99).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ts</th>
<th>Trial and error will suffice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>al-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sa-tafī bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>tafī l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>al-tajruba wa-l-xaṭa? sa-takfī bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>li-anna l-mādda l-maṣnūʿ minhā qad awfāt bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>fa-inna l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sawfa tafī bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>fa-inna l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sa-tafīyā bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>fa-inna l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? kānat sa-tafī bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>wa-lākin qabla ḍālika l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? tafī bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>fa-inna l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sa-tafī bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>ḥayθu innahu qabla ḍālika l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? kānat sa-tafī bil-ğarāḍ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Eight: translation of the modal "will")

182
Table Eight above shows that, apart from student B, all testees failed to render the element of "certainty" embedded in the English expression. As Atari points out,

to render (will) in Arabic as an expression of certainty about a future, one has to choose the binding universal infinitive: ["takfī" but not "sawfa yakfī" or "sa-yakfī"] (ibid.).

5.2.5 Negation Errors

The rendering of the English negation into Arabic can also represent some difficulty for Arab trainees. The translations provided by the trainees all seem to capture the essence of the meaning expressed in the ST. Consider for example Table Nine below which represents students' translation of a negated sentence from Text Three:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ts</th>
<th>But scientists, of course, are not satisfied with it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>inna l-Culamā? gayr rāḍīn bi-ḍālik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>lākin al-Culamā? laysū rāḍīn ċanḥā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>gayra anna l-Culamā? lā yattaqiqm ċalā ḍāliḳ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>wa-lākin hāḏā lam yakun yurḏī l-Culamā?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>wa-lākin al-Culamā? lam yakūnū rāḍīn ċanḥā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>wa-lākin al-Culamā? lam yarḍū bi-ḍāliḳ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>lam yakun al-Culamā? rāḍīn bi-ḍāliḳ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>wa-lākin al-Culamā? gayr rāḍīn ċanḥā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>lam yakun al-Culamā? rāḍīn bi-ḍāliḳ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>lam yakun al-Culamā? rāḡibīn bi-ḍāliḳ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Nine: translation of negation)
The logical meaning of the ST, in Table Nine, is successfully represented in its translations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scientists are not satisfied with it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>عملاء لا راضين لـ أن يملأون</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Figure Nine: translating logical relations)

However, other meaning elements which go beyond the logical relations are either absent or misrepresented. The fact that the ST is a negated statement about a present state of affairs is actually represented in the rendering of students A and H in Table Nine. The other translations, on the other hand, include aspectual elements which do not exist in the ST because of the wrong selection of the appropriate negation constituent. Student B used "laysa" which is a negation constituent that marks a progressive tense aspect, while student C used "lā" which marks the negation of a habitual present/future action. The remaining translations, those of students D, E, F, G, J and K, in Table Nine used the Arabic negative device "lam" which normally expresses the negation of a past action. Obviously, these tense aspects do not constitute part of the ST and can even hinder or distort the understanding of the original meaning. The negative system in Arabic is more complex than in English and therefore needs to be highlighted more carefully in Arabic/English translation curricula.
I asked informally some of the trainees if they saw any difference between the translations provided in Table Nine above in terms of the negation markers. Most of them knew very well their morphological case-marking, for example, that "lam" is jussive and "anna" is followed by an accusative, but they did not see any difference in terms of meaning. This suggests that Arab trainees often possess a considerable knowledge of Arabic prescriptive grammar but lack the knowledge of the pragmatic functions of grammatical categories, especially function words. This can be traced to the fact that the Arabic language programmes in Libyan schools are centrally prescriptive and fail to account for the meaning (functional) aspect of grammar which has an essential role in translation. This only emphasises the fact that translation errors in particular and translation teaching in general are not a mere manifestation of the translation class but rather part of the whole educational culture.

On the whole, testees made different types of syntactic errors, although with a low frequency. Compared with their translation of argumentation, they performed better when translating descriptive and instructive texts into their native language. Failure to construct Arabic grammatical structures correctly is more serious and arises more often in certain areas than in others. English structures which do not exist or have no straightforward equivalents in Arabic (e.g. aspect), or structures which are peculiar to Arabic (e.g. case endings), are often a source of confusion for the testees. Nonetheless, the testees did not seem to find any significant interpretation difficulties in recognising the
meaning of the English structures; in fact, most of their (syntactic) errors, did not have any serious impact on the intelligibility of the TL text.

5.3 Semantic Errors

The predominant information in both texts does not apparently represent significant cross-conceptual differences with Arabic. The ideas expressed in the ST are conceptual facts which exist in all time and space regardless of the language in which they are represented (either spoken or written). However, the translation of concept into actual words is not always an easy task. This operation may vary from one speaker to another, let alone between languages.

In the case of an instructive text, usually with a dominant technical jargon, it is expected that testees engaged in a (non-professional) general course of translation will encounter difficulties related to their limited lexical and semantic knowledge in the specific field being translated. Translating from a language as English which is rich in technical registers into Arabic where such registers are relatively new and, even if they exist, are not commonly used, a one-to-one correspondence between a SL word and a TL word is not always possible. This does not mean that the translation of a non-technical text such as Text Three does not involve difficulties involving finding similar concepts in the TL. If it is always the case that there is no absolute similarity between concepts and words (world-word fit) in one language (cf. Eco 1984), the gap between concepts cross-linguistically is expected to be even greater especially
if we take into account the other fact that "the words of a language often reflect not so much the reality of the world, but the interests of the people who speak it" (Palmer 1976:21).

Therefore, we must expect that something is always lost in the process of translation; loss is the norm rather than the exception. Kussmaul (1995:86) argues in this respect that in such cases "the translator has to switch from automatic reflex [literal] to reflection, [dynamic]... and text analysis comes into play". In their translation, the testees did not only look for word-for-word equivalence but also opted on several occasions for an idiomatic correspondence when it was available in the TL. Yet, when no direct correspondence (at the word or idiomatic level) was available, testees seemed to turn to the bilingual dictionary rather than the text as Kussmaul suggests. Bilingual dictionaries tend to give tentative renderings of words which generally still require post-processing by the translator as the meaning of words is often text- or context-bound. The dictionary becomes less useful when there is no word-to-word or collocational equivalence, or when it provides several choices which may sometimes only add to the confusion of the trainee.

5.3.1 Non-Equivalence Type

Semantic non-equivalence results from two main situations. The first reflects a defect at the conceptual level in the TL; the ST element expresses a concept
which is totally unknown in the target culture. For instance, the concept of the word "Speaker" in the English Parliament, as Baker (1992:21) points out, has no equivalent in many other languages, Arabic amongst them. She writes that it is often translated in Russian in the sense "chairman" which does not reflect the independent role of the Speaker to maintain order in Parliament.

However, there are different views among translation theorists (i.e. Newmark 1988a) as to whether texts with specialised registers are an area of difficulty for trainee translators. Some of them view technical texts as an area where languages (source and target) get closer and translation becomes easier. It is even the case sometimes that some varieties of different languages can have more in common between different varieties of the same language (Widdowson 1979:69). Scientific discourse is most known to bear few pragmatic and semantic dissimilarities cross-linguistically and, therefore, presents far fewer problems for the translator (ibid.).

Other theorists, however, view technical translation as a difficult task for translators. This task can present difficulties even when translating from one European language into another, let alone between typologically different languages such as Arabic and English. Lefevere (1992:63) observes that it is very difficult to translate any European law register that is based on the old "Code Napoléon" into English because of the cross-linguistic variation in terms of the historical values that law register bears in each language.
It is true that the task of translating the specialised registers is formidable indeed, but the difficulty does not basically lie in the historical or constructive dependencies of words as this is a characteristic of all varieties of language including dialects (cf. Comrie 1989). In fact, the difficulty in translating technical words in Text Four lies in their low frequency of usage by the average reader compared with people specialised in that field. For example, legal words are in common use among lawyers and barristers, while scientific words are in common use among scientists. The professional translator, let alone the trainee, can only have modest knowledge of an infinite universe of specialised registers. Widdowson's (1979:69) idea that scientist-to-scientist translation can be an easy task is only true if the translator is first a scientist but since most translators are not, the statement may not be valid. In their translation of the medical terms "wart", "verruca", "corn" and "callus" in Sentence 116, testees apparently found it difficult to draw a distinction between these terms, let alone find equivalent words in Arabic

(118) How to treat your wart, verruca, corn or callus
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ts</th>
<th>wart</th>
<th>verruca</th>
<th>corn</th>
<th>callus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>al-Θu?lül</td>
<td>al-jasa?a</td>
<td>ـــــــــــــــــــــ</td>
<td>ــــــــ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>al-Θu?lül</td>
<td>al-nutū? al-ṣaqīr</td>
<td>ـــــــــــــــــــــ</td>
<td>ــــــــ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>θα?ālil al-qadam</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>ــــــــــــــــــــــــ</td>
<td>ــــــــ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>θu?lül al-qadam</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>ــــــــــــــــــــــــ</td>
<td>ــــــــ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>θu?lül al-qadam</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>ــــــــــــــــــــــــ</td>
<td>ــــــــ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>θu?lül al-qadam</td>
<td>al-jasa?a</td>
<td>ــــــــــــــــــــــــ</td>
<td>ــــــــ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>θα?ālil al-qadam</td>
<td>al-jasa?a</td>
<td>ــــــــــــــــــــــــ</td>
<td>ــــــــ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Ten: translation of technical register)

Obviously, the understanding and translation of these terms require familiarity with the medical field. Our testees are undergraduate students with A-level certificates in non-scientific subjects, who are being trained according to a general (rather than specialised or professional) course of translation. It is, therefore, expected that difficulty will arise and the testees’ only refuge in this case will be the bilingual dictionary. I have copied below the translation of the four terms provided by *Al-Mawrid English-Arabic Dictionary* (1991) used widely by Arab trainees:

1. Wart  θu?lül/nutū? ṣaqīr
2. Verruca  θu?lül
3. Corn  mismār al-qadam/taṣallub mawdī‘i fī baṣarat al-qadam

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As will be noticed, the translations provided for (1-4) above are not of great help for an accurate translation. The difference between the dictionary definitions of 1 and 2 above is not clear, nor is that between those of 3 and 4. Both terms in 1 and 2 are rendered as "Θu?lūl" which is actually a "wart". The two terms in 3 and 4 are translated differently as "mismār al-qadam" and "al-jasa?a" respectively but described similarly as "hard part of the skin". This makes the distinction difficult not only between the meaning of "corn" and "callus" but also between the four of them. It becomes difficult to draw a clear-cut distinction between their meaning as all can be described as hard parts of the skin. This lack of tools especially the proper technical dictionaries may affect the quality of the students' performance; students like D, render the four terms by reducing them into one Arabic superordinate "Θa?ālīl al-qadam", using the plural form of "warts".

This strategy may seem a skilful way to avoid the problem without having to endure the task of finding a solution. It does reproduce the desired information in the TT. Naming the four terms separately in the ST has its own communicative function given the minuteness and precision of the information as an important feature of scientific texts. The other testees were confused and produced either incomplete or redundant information. Consider translation 118a produced by student G:

The translation does not reflect the meaning structure existing in the ST and includes redundant information like "al-Θu?lụl wa-Θu?lụl al-qadam" (lit. the wart and the wart of the foot). The other testees' translations, as can be seen from Table Ten, are no much different.

Basically, the main purpose of an instructive text is to transmit clear and precise information. The translator is therefore required to preserve the basic communicative function of this type of text. Testees have failed to do so at several instances.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ts</th>
<th>Pumice stone</th>
<th>Manicure emery board</th>
<th>Applicator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>hajar al-ğafāf</td>
<td>lawḥ taqrīm al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-qāḍīb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>hajar al-ğafāf</td>
<td>lawḥ tadrīm al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-mu?aṣṣir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>hajar al-ğafāf</td>
<td>lawḥ tadrīm al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-qāḍīb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>lawḥ tadrīm aladḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-jīhāz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>hajar al-ğafāf</td>
<td>lawḥ tadrīm al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-qāḍīb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>hajar al-ğafāf</td>
<td>lawḥ tadrīm al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-qāṭṭārā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>nasafa</td>
<td>lawḥ tadrīm al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-qāḍīb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>hajar al-ğafāf</td>
<td>lawḥ tadrīm al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-qāṭṭārā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>hajar al-ğafāf</td>
<td>lawḥ taqlīm al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-mu?aṣṣir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>hajar al-ğafāf</td>
<td>lawḥ sanfarat al-adḥāfīr</td>
<td>al-jīhāz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Eleven: translation of technical register)

Although testees succeed in finding Arabic equivalents for the three expressions presented in Table Eleven, the mode of the ST has been altered. The primary function of an instructive text like Text Four is to transmit as
clearly as possible specific instructions to the average reader. Clarity in this type of text is always desirable for the sake of avoiding misunderstanding or ambiguity of the ST communicative functions. In their translation, however, students used terms like "al-xafāf" (pumice stone) and "tadrīm" (manicure emery board) which are not common in MSA and may therefore impair the understanding of average TL readers.

The translation of specialised registers may not only cause an alteration of the ST mode, but also an alteration of parts of the meanings of words. For instance, most testees translated "applicator" as "qaḍīb" (stick/bar) or "jihāz" (apparatus) which are terms clearly different in meaning from the ST. Only students F and H translated the noun as "qattāra" (dropper). Although the meaning of "applicator" is more general while "qattāra" is more specific, this type of alteration is desirable since precision of information is a primary function of this text-type.

The jargon of technical texts, in general, requires not only a wide semantic knowledge in the field being translated but also an accurate analysis of and interaction with the text. Most testees, however, resort to the bilingual dictionary without hunting its meaning first in the SL dictionary or within its co-textual natural environment.
The testees' translation of Text Three does not indicate jargon difficulties given the nature of the text being translated. The semantic field of the text consists of lexical sets representing general facts about the world. Text Three rather involves difficulties relating to the second type of semantic non-equivalence which reflects a deficiency in the TL at the linguistic level rather than the conceptual level. That is, the ST element expresses a concept which exists in the TL but has no lexicalised form. Consider the translation of the phrasal verb "fashion into" and the lexical "seized" provided by the testees in Table Twelve below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Testees</th>
<th>seized</th>
<th>fashion into</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>kāna yadaC yadah</td>
<td>li-yušakkil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>istahlwaḍa</td>
<td>li-yuhawwil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>istahlwaḍa</td>
<td>šāga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>kāna yastawlī</td>
<td>li-yaṣnaC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>an wadaC yadah</td>
<td>li-yušakkil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>istaḡalla</td>
<td>li-taškil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>kāna yamsuk</td>
<td>li-yušakkil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>istafāda</td>
<td>ṣawwarahā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>kāna yadaC yadah</td>
<td>li-yušakkil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>yadaC yadah</td>
<td>li-yušakkil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Twelve: TL deficiency)

Apart from Student H, all testees succeeded in conveying the general message of the ST's "fashion into". The translation of Student H, "ṣawwarahā" (depicted it), rather distorts the meaning of the phrasal verb in the ST. Consider Sentence 119:
(119) he seized what lay around him to fashion into tools, with which to sew his way through life.

(119a) `wa-istafāda min kull mā ẖawlahu wa-ṣawwarahā fī adawāt bi-wāsītātiḥā ṣaqqa ṣārīqahu fī l-hayāt

bt: he benefited from what lay around him and depicted it into tools with which to sew his way through life.

The translation of Sentence 119a expresses the meaning that "tools" are a reflection of "what lay around man" which is different from that of the ST, viz. "what lay around man" (e.g. stones, trees, etc.) was transformed and used as tools. The other testees (see Table Twelve) translated it either as "ṣakkal" (formed) or "yuljawwil" (to transform), or even as "yašna" (to make), all of which lack the appreciative value existing in the SL word. That is, to fashion something into something else refers in English to the making of a work of art, "usually, with one's hands or with only a few tools" (Longman Dictionary, 1989:369). Only student C provided something conceptually similar to the ST in Sentence 120:

(120) istahwaḍ alā kull mā ẖawlahu wa-saḡahu alā hayḥat adawāt ṣaqqa biḥā ṣārīqahu abra l-hayāt

The Arabic verb "ṣaḡa" has a similar evaluative value as the English "fashion into" although each derives its evaluativeness from etymologically different sources. This suggests that language-specifics do not always imply impossibility of translation and are not always insurmountable.
The translation of "seized" is another case in point. The message behind the lexical verb "seized" was rendered by all testees, yet loss was inevitable. In English, the concept of "seizing", though harsh, can be a legitimate and justified act, as in the text where "seizing" is justified by the needs of man to hack, carve, and sew his way through life. On the contrary, none of the translations provided by the testees (see Table Twelve) reproduced this meaning aspect of the verb "to seize". Apart from the effort of student H, all translations indicate a forceful and illegitimate act. Testee H's translation is simply incorrect as "istafād" (to benefit) conveys a completely different meaning from "seized". I do not intend here, however, to emphasise, as Bell (1991:6) tells us, the traitorous nature ascribed to the translator by the Italian proverb, "traduttore traditore" (to translate is to betray). Losses, I believe, are inevitable but they can be reduced and even compensated for.

The problem with the testees in this regard is that they concentrate merely on the goal. As far as the message is concerned, the testees do not search, or question, the quality of their translation. Testees were asked again informally if they saw any difference between the translations in which "seized" is rendered as "istawlā" (to seize with force), as "istaġalla" (exploited), or as "saxxara" (utilised) and they all maintained that these words were similar as far as this context was concerned. However, only "saxxara" is really suitable as it captures or at least compensates for both meaning aspects of the ST, that of the harshness of the act given that "saxxara" connotes servitude, and that
of righteousness of the act given that it indicates a proper and beneficial use of something.

5.3.2 Synonymy

The choice between words, phrases or sentences can be problematic when translating an instructive or expository text. Although errors related to synonymy are not a particularly characteristic of technical instructive texts as they are of other text types, errors of this sort found in the testees' translation of Text Four are not much different from those found in Text Three. They usually reflect a state where students are trapped by the limited choices provided by a bilingual dictionary out of their context. But, the seriousness of synonymy when translated into L₁ (as in the case of Texts Two, Three and Four) is not as grave as when translating into L₂ (Text One).

In the thème translation, testees could at times differentiate between synonyms which are not interchangeable in certain contexts. On the other hand, in L₁ translation, all used synonyms are interchangeable though the degree of suitability can be different. In respect of texts Three and Four, synonymy errors can be divided into two main types. The first type involves synonyms which differ in their expressive meaning.
For instance, "bottle" in Table Thirteen was translated by most students as either "qarura", "qinnina" or "zujaja". In fact, all three words can be used interchangeably to refer to the same thing; the only difference is that "zujaja" is of a more common usage in MSA, the other two tending to be classical terms with a limited usage. Since the primary function of an instructive text is to transmit as clearly as possible the content of the text rather than attempt to transmit poetic effects to the reader, "zujaja" is therefore most suitable for this purpose. Its common use amongst the average reader makes its meaning more easily recognisable than those of "qarura" and "qinnina".

The translating of "microscope" in Text Three is another similar case. A few testees opted for the loan translation "mikruskūb" while others used the Arabic...
counterpart "mijhar". In terms of semantic meaning, the two translations are identical, i.e. two referents for the same referee. But acceptability of the loan word depends on various factors such as the ideological culture of the TL, the reader/evaluator and the curriculum (objectives). For example, the Arab, and that includes Libyan, educational systems are in the midst of an Arabacisation process (cf. Grandguillaume 1981) and therefore the use of a loanword when an Arabic equivalent is available will be less desirable.

The second type of synonymy error concerns interrelated words which differ partly in their semantic meaning. The translation of "soak" in Text Four is a case in point. As shown in Table Thirteen, testees offered two different translations of this word: "ballil" and "inqaC" which can be said to be hyponyms of the English superordinate "soak". Arabic differentiates between different types of soaking. The word "ballil" refers generally to a non-volitional act as in Sentence 121:

(121) ibtallat al-?ard (bi-l-mā?)
(the land was soaked with water)

or

(122) ballil al-qamīṣ qabla an takwīh
(wet the shirt before ironing).

The word "inqaC", on the other hand, denotes a volitional act. Consider Sentence 123:
Obviously, "ballil" is not the appropriate translation because, unlike the ST, it refers to a natural act that does not necessarily have to be caused by a thematic agent as in Sentence 121. Although volition is part of the meaning of "inqa", the word "uğmur" would be more appropriate in this context. This is because Arabic "inqa" refers to an immersion in water for a long period, usually with the purpose of dissolving while "uğmur" as used in Sentence 124a means merely to put something until it is covered with water.

(124) Every night, soak the affected area(s) in warm water

(124a) uğmur kull layla l-minṭaqa l-muṣāba fi miyāḥ dāfiʔa.

The same sort of confusion also exists in students' translation of Text Three. A case in point is the translation of the verb "provide" in Sentence 125 below:

(125) this metallic glass provides a combination of strength and flexibility nothing else can match.

All testees failed to recognise the different polysemous meanings "provide" can have (see Table Thirteen). They all interpreted the verb as meaning "supply" as can be deduced from their translations: "yuqaddim" (present), "yuzawwid" (supply) and "yamnah" (offer) which can be considered as hyponyms of the superordinate "supply". However, the meaning intended in the ST is that the metallic glass "represents" or "constitutes" a combination of strength and flexibility.
A way of translating Sentence 125 into Arabic is by using the neutral term "Cibāra can" (roughly meaning: "as" or "to be"), as in Sentence 125a:

(125a) wa-hādā l-zujāj al-maCdanī Cibāra Ccan mazīj min al-quwwa wa-l-murūna.

The translation "Cibāra can" lacks the property of evaluativeness existing in the corresponding ST word (provides) which implies novelty and benefit. This can be compensated for by adding expressions such as "wa-l-jadīd" (lit. and the new thing) to substitute the missing elements as in Sentence 125b:

(125b) wa-l-jadīd anna hādā l-zujāj al-maCdanī yušakkil mazījan min al-ṣalāba wa-l-murūna.

The translation of the ST word "warm" in Text Four, as shown in Table Thirteen, is a similar instance, where testees confused hyponyms of the same superordinates. For example, testees B, H, J and K translated "warm" as "sāxin" (hot) which obviously expresses a meaning different from that of the ST. Although written Arabic distinguishes between "sāxin" (hot) and "dāfi?" (warm) in all contexts (see 1.2.1), the two terms can be used interchangeably in Arabic colloquials. For instance, in Libyan Arabic, there is even a tendency to use "sāxin" more frequently than "dāfi?" in the same situation. Consider Sentence 126:

(126) hutt rijlīk f-mmayya sāxna (Libyan Arabic)

(put your feet in hot water)

(put your feet in warm water).
The interference of Libyan Arabic in Sentence 126 is obvious. Thus the idea that the task of translation can be harder for Arab students compared with others, say English students, seems to hold here. This is because Arab students have to translate into a variety of Arabic (MSA) which is quite syntactically and semantically different from their colloquial dialect.

To sum up, the task of the translator in respect of difficulties relating to synonymy is not only limited to making the appropriate choice between a set of defined synonyms but involves interaction with the text and sometimes requires the finding of the proper translation far beyond those synonymous choices. The translator may have to move beyond the actual word correspondence in order to retrieve or compensate for lost aspects of meaning.

5.3.3 Collocations

The meaning of lexical items within collocative expressions is often largely determined by the dimensions of the genre and type of discourse. The chain of words which constitutes a collocative expression can also determine its meaning, though in most cases the chain of words and discourse are interdependent. For example, the Arabic verb "yulqi" collocates with a number of words with which the equivalent English "throw" does not fit. Each of its collocative patterns requires a different translation:
- To make a public speech  
  yulqī xīṭāb
- To give a lecture  
  yulqī muḥāḍhara
- To lay down one's arms (to surrender)  
  yulqī l-sīlāḥ
- To ask a question  
  yulqī suʿāl
- To place responsibility on  
  yulqī l-masʿūlīyya  
  Cālā

(Kharma and Hajjaj 1989:68)

The translator's task is to identify the meaning of the word within its collocative context. For example, most testees translated the expression "strength and flexibility" in Text Three as "quwwa wa-murūna" which has the same literal meaning as the phrase in the ST. However, the arbitrariness of collocations makes some choices more appropriate than others. In Arabic, when evaluating the strength of a metal we say "ṣālīb" (solid) rather than "qawwī" (hard) and the translation "salāba wa-murūna" (solidity and flexibility) will be more appropriate.

The same applies to some testees' translation of "tendency to shatter". Some of them rendered the expression as "nazā'atahu lil-kasr" (its tendency to break). The inappropriateness of this translation is due to the collocation restrictions of the two words "kasr" (break) and "nazā'" (tendency). The word "kasr" in Arabic collocates rather with "qābiliyya". While "qābiliyya" is a neutral term, "nazā'" is evaluative and its selectional restrictions require that it should be accompanied by a word which must be described as [+abstract] and [-socially evaluative] like "nazā'atahu lil-ṣarr" (tendency to do evil things) [+abstract

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[+socially undesirable] and "naz^catahu  lil-xayr" (tendency to do good deeds) [+abstract, +socially/morally desirable].

In the expository text, Text Four, the meaning of the word "directions" when it collocates with the word "use", as in Sentence 127 below, can be easily recognised and distinguished from other meanings which depend in their turn on other collocative patterns as in Sentences 128 and 129:

(127) Directions for use
(128) Directions from the Home Office
(129) One way direction only

It is likely that the collocative patterns in the three examples trigger the activation of the reader's predisposed or pre-existing inter-textual knowledge which in its turn allocates the expression to a specific discourse in order to decode its meaning as a final stage. This is, however, a premature assumption about the processing of collocations in the mind of the translator which needs further research work. Owing to the time and space confinements of this thesis, a diagram depicting the process reported above will suffice.
(Figure Ten: the processing of collocation in the translator's mind)

Let us illustrate with Sentence 127 how the process represented in Figure Ten works. The reading of the collocative word "direction" triggers parallelly an inter-textual world which provides the translators with as many alternative translations as their previous experience with the word in the ST. For example, "direction" can be interpreted as "method" (tarīqa) as in Sentence 127, or as "orders" (ta'limāt) or as any type of binding instructions from a higher authority as in Sentence 128, or as "road direction" (ittijāh) as in Sentence 129. It is only when the reading process encompasses the whole collocation that other discourses like Sentences 128 and 129, are discarded and a specific discourse type is decided. It becomes clear that the term “method”, in this context, concerns a discourse when some notes are provided to help use something so that it is definitely not a road sign or a binding instruction. When the discourse type of the collocation is defined, the meaning becomes clear
and comparison between discourse types rather than rendering single words, or even strings of words separately helps identify collocational translation for expressions such as that in Sentence 127a:

(127a) ٣ارِقَت الْفَيْلَٰ.

Most testees opted, however, for "تَأْلِيم" which is not as acceptable as "تَأْرِقَ" in this discourse-type. The word "تَأْلِيم" belongs rather to discourses which involve a subordinate/superior relationship. It is the common use of an expression within a discourse type that makes it collocative and therefore, to find a collocational equivalent, the translator has to process and translate in terms of discourse-type, not words.

From what precedes, collocations seem to have posed on several occasions some sort of difficulty for the students. The question that naturally follows is how to improve their collocation competence. This cannot be enhanced by the teaching of translation skills per se but also through direct language contact. Translation teachers can also participate in this process by drawing the students' attention to the importance of the collocative pattern in understanding the meaning of words which can be determined depending on their arbitrary linguistic environment.

In general, semantic difficulties encountered by the testees in their translation of texts Three and Four did not evoke any major concern compared to the thème translation. The semantic errors in this context showed most often a
partial and not total deficiency in the meaning of a word or expression. This indicates, again, a lack of critical faculties when dealing with both source and target texts. Students had not established a sound and comprehensive analysis of the ST. They need to discover what it means and what its intentionality is.

5.4 Stylistic Errors

As argued earlier, translating word-by-word or sentence-by-sentence will not, in most cases, produce an acceptable version of the ST in the TL. Translation, to be successful, must also look to

the pattern in which the fabric of the text [as a whole] is woven, and the character with which the sentences and structures are stamped (Buckley 1994:65).

The "fabric" and "character", Buckley tells us about, do not only differ cross-linguistically but also within the same language, depending on the text being translated. The discoursal mechanics of an instructive text are not the same as in an argumentative or expository text. For instance, the verbal clause type tends to predominate in texts whose focus is exposition, whereas the nominal type is a characteristic of texts with an argumentative focus (Hatim, 1989:139).

5.4.1 Cohesion

From what precedes, we may assert that it is essential that translators possess a good knowledge of the mechanics of the language systems they translate into
or from. The students' translations seem to indicate that their insufficient knowledge of the stylistic fabrics of Arabic made their task very hard indeed. Consider, for instance, the first two sentences taken from the first paragraph of Text Three:

(130) Man was ever a materialist. Right from the start, he seized what lay around him.

The relation between the two sentences which can be described in the terms of Beekman and Callow (1974:293-294) as a support relation of the category manner is not expressed here by any grammatical cohesive device. In contrast, this relation in Arabic usually requires a grammatical connective and failing to such results in an unacceptable structure like the translation 130a:

(130a) kāna l-insān dāʾiman maddiyyan munūʿ l-bidāya kāna yadaC yadah C alā kull mā hawlah.

But being aware of the necessity for a cohesive device does not remove all difficulties facing the testee in this regard. For instance, testees D, F, G and J linked the two clauses with the cohesive device "wa-" (and), which alters the meaning relation of support existing between the two sentences in the ST, Sentence 130b:

(130b) kāna l-insān dāʾiman maddiyyan wa-munūʿ l-bidāya kāna yadaC yadah C alā kull mā hawlah.

The two clauses in Sentence 103b are rather developmental (Beekman and Callaw 1974:288), i.e. they are related to each other by the addition relation which does not conform to the meaning structure found in the ST. In the ST, the relation between the two clauses is rather a causal one: the fact that man
was materialistic led him to seize what lay around him. Therefore, the Arabic connective "fa-" (lit. as/and) would be the most appropriate linkage device. Accordingly, the most likely translation would read as Sentence 130c:

(130c) kāna l-insān dāʾīman māddīyyan fa-munūḍu l-bidāya kāna yadaṣ yadah ṣalā kull mā ḥawlah.

Although cohesion is one of the main characteristics making the whole fabric of the text, its role and forms usually differ according to the demands of each text-type. For instance, as far as Text Four is concerned, cohesion does not have a salient role in the development of the text. This is because the text is a set of instructions which follow one another in a chronological order. Each instruction occupies a sentence. As a result, the development of information is clear and comprehensible and the addition of cohesive devices for the same purpose will be unnecessary. The structure of Arabic, on the other hand, usually requires specific cohesive devices, no matter how clear and comprehensible the development in the (English) ST is. For example, Text Four provides a set of numerated instructions which are not cohesively linked to what precedes. Consider Sentence 131:

(131) treatment can take up to 12 weeks for resistant lesions, so you must persevere.
   (i) Every night soak the affected area ...
   (ii) Dry thoroughly
   (iii)...
All testees preserved the same structure of the ST. Their translation was like Sentence 131a:

(131a) qad tastamirr muddat al-\textsuperscript{C}ilāj ilā i\textsuperscript{D}nā C\textsuperscript{a}şar usbū\textsuperscript{C} li-yakūn al-\textsuperscript{C}ilāj nājīhan li-\textsuperscript{D}ā yajibu l-mu\textsuperscript{D}ābara
(i) inqa\textsuperscript{C} kull layla l-mi\textsuperscript{D}qa l-mu\textsuperscript{D}aba
(ii) jaffīf kulīyyan
(iii)... 

The lack of cohesion between the numerated instructions and the preceding statement in the translation affect the clarity of their conceptual relations. The establishment of cohesion between the two makes the text more comprehensible as in Sentence 131b:

(131b) nad\textsuperscript{H}aran li-\textsuperscript{D}abi\textsuperscript{C}at al-mara\textsuperscript{D} fa-inna muddat al-\textsuperscript{C}ilāj qad tastاغ\textsuperscript{R}iq i\textsuperscript{D}nā C\textsuperscript{a}şar usbū\textsuperscript{C} li-\textsuperscript{D}ā yajib istim\textsuperscript{R}a al-mu\textsuperscript{C}ālaja muttabī\textsuperscript{C} an al-xu\textsuperscript{D}uwāt al-tāliya
(i) inqa\textsuperscript{C}

(according to the nature of the disease, the time of treatment may last for twelve months; therefore you should persevere by following the steps below).

The insertion of the phrase "muttabī\textsuperscript{C} an al-xu\textsuperscript{D}uwāt al-tāliya" (following the steps below) bridges the cohesion textual gap between the two parts of the text.

Cross-linguistic variation, in terms of cohesion, can also be a source of confusion for students. The translation of Sentence 132 is one of such cases:

(132) Carefully unscrew the cap of the bottle and, using the applicator attached to the inside of the cap (see illustration), apply a few drops...
The placement of an apposition after a connector, as in Sentence 130, is not a characteristic of Arabic. As a result of this variation between English and Arabic, some testees like B, D, H and J avoided the use of the connective device, leaving a linking gap between the two sentences, as in Sentence 130a:

\[(132a) \text{ inza}^C \text{ bi-haḍar ġītā? al-zujāja, musta}^C \text{ milan al-qaffāra l-muttaṣila bih } da^C \text{ ba}^C d \text{ al-niqāṭ.} \]

The use of a linking device between sentences as in the case of Sentence 130a is often essential in Arabic whereas in English a comma, as in the case of Sentence 132, can fulfil this function. As far as cohesion is concerned, it can be translated as Sentence 132b below:

\[(132b) \text{ inza}^C \text{ ġītā? al-zujjāja bi-haḍar } wa-da^C \text{ ba}^C d \text{ al-niqāṭ bi-wāṣiṭat al-qaffāra l-muttaṣila bih.} \]

5.4.2 Paragraphing

The students' difficulty using connectives was not confined to sentences but also embraced the linking of paragraphs. Paragraphing, in general, is an area of cross-linguistic variation between Arabic and English and it is often thought that Arabic paragraphing presents a problem when translating into English and not vice versa. El-Shiyab (1992:319) argues that paragraphing in Arabic is not generally used as a division of thought or, as an independent unit of meaning. He argues, "Common sense dictates that lack of paragraphing of this type in Arabic editorials is a genuine problem for the English reader" (ibid.).
It is true that paragraphing in English makes a new theme or sub-theme while in Arabic it can be used for merely stylistic reasons which may pose some problems for the translator. For instance, when translating into Arabic, s/he will have to opt either for keeping these thematic units separate in terms of paragraphs as in English and therefore introduce a conceptual framework of text that is alien to Arabic, or restructure the ST according to the Arabic stylistic requirements.

As far as our texts are concerned, the thematic development of paragraphs in the English texts (Two, Three and Four) is not much different from that of the Arabic one (Text One). The most noticeable difference between Arabic and English paragraphing in the four texts is the way they are linked together. Paragraphs in Arabic are strongly tied up to the same theme by way of lexical cohesion. For instance, the main theme of Text One is "the Egyptian-American relations as reflected in the media campaign against Egypt" which is clearly stated in the first paragraph. This very theme is restated at the beginning of each following paragraph:

- innamā yusammā bil-hamlā ḍidda miṣr laysat jādīda [paragraph 2]
  (the campaign against Egypt is not new)
- wa-hunāk Cawāmil Cidda addat ilā l-futūr al-axīr fī l-Clāqāt al-miṣriyya l-amrīkiyya [paragraph 3].
  (several factors led to the recent cooling of relations between America and Egypt).
- wa-l-amr al-Ṣānī allaḏī azCaj al-amrīkiyyīn fī l-kungris...ammā mā yataCallaq bi-taʔazzum al-Calāqāt al-amrīkiyya l-miṣriyya [paragraph 4]
(the second issue which upsets the American Congressmen...as to the deterioration of relations between America and Egypt).

The cohesiveness of the Arabic text through lexical repetition is made even heavier by the connectors which accompany paragraphing as can be seen in the examples above. Reading through some students' translations, in which this format is duplicated in the TT, one can clearly sense its foreign nature for an English reader.

The same also goes for the translation of the English texts into Arabic. For example, each paragraph in Text Three starts with a new theme without using any linking devices at the beginning of the paragraph. When translating Text Three, most students preserved the same kind of textual cohesion existing in the ST. That is, paragraphs, as in the English text, were connected by lexical repetition or grammatical connectors. This attempt to reproduce English replicas in Arabic produced unwanted results. Testees' translations lacked textual cohesion (and as a result textual coherence) because the Arabic reader finds it difficult to understand the theme text-forms and relations without grammatical connectors given the fact that each language has its own structure and each structure represents a different kind of reality. Sapir (1921:69) states in this respect:

> The fact of the matter is that the "real world" is to a large extent built upon the language habits of the group. No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which
difficult societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached to it.

However, even when implementing connective devices, the translations do not read as naturally as the ST. The Arabic readers' conceptual notion of text suggests that they would rather expect, when moving from one paragraph to another, to encounter the same theme reiterated for stylistic purposes. In terms of the Arabic thought-structure, assigning each paragraph a new theme would be somewhat abrupt. The text-typological view of translation can here be complemented by a functional (pragmatic) perspective. That is, the translator will have to weigh his choices in relation to the pragmatic function the text is supposed to fulfil.

5.4.3 Nominalisation

Among the other difficulties testees encountered was the translation of clause-type (nominal or verbal). In the ST the predominance of verbal clause is very clear. In Arabic, however, there is a tendency to use nominal clauses; the reason, Kharma (1983:30) points out, is that the verb plays a chief role in the structure and meaning conveyed by the English sentence whereas the Arabic verb plays a much more modest part. The verb does not even feature in one type of sentence (nominal/equational sentence) in Arabic. This implies that equivalents for some English sentences may fall within the latter category (i.e. sentences without a verb) and should therefore be translated as such, the analysis of the testees' translations shows that some of them opted, indeed, for
a nominalisation process while others preserved the ST structure as Sentences 133a and 133b illustrate respectively:

(133) **You should apply** "Salactol" once every night to your wart...in order to achieve success.

(133a) yajib wadC "salāktul" marra kull layla Cālā l-Θu?lūl li-ajl tahqīq al-šifā?

(133b) yajib an tādaC "salāktul" marra wāḥida kull layla Cālā l-Θu?lūl.

In Sentence 133a, the nominalisation of the verb phrases in the main clause removes the aspect of directness of the instruction towards the addressee. It functions like a passivised English form: "Salactol should be applied," which deviates from the original function in which the author makes clear that the instruction is directed to the reader/patient. The nominalisation of the verb in the subordinate clause has an adverse effect as it does not remove any emphasis from the clauses because there is no direct address to the reader. It rather makes the text more in line with the rhetorical structure of Arabic as it is often held that Arabic nominalised clauses are the equivalent form of the English infinitival clause (cf. Kharma 1983).

It may be the case that infinitival clauses which often assume a subordinate position in English are better translated as nominalised forms in Arabic but certainly this is not the only way for their translation. Consider the infinitival clause in Sentence 134, which Student C translated successfully as Sentence 134a:

(134) Man was ever materialistic. Right from the start he seized what lay around him to fashion it into tools...
(134a) munūh l-bidāya istahwaḍa l-insān ʿalā kull mā ḥawlah wa-ṣāḥabu ʿalā hayṭat adawāt...

bt: right from the start, man seized everything around him and he fashioned it into a form of tools...

Notice that the ST infinitival subordinate clause has been transformed into an inflected additive clause preceded by the co-ordinative "wa-" in the TT. This is a case where the student succeeded in keeping the text in line with the rhetorical requirements of the TL. Indeed, the orality nature of Arabic tends to specify for additive rather than subordinative clauses. Sentence 134a reads more naturally and stylistically effective than Sentence 134b:

(134b) fa-munūh l-bidāya istahwaḍa l-insān ʿalā kull mā ḥawlah li-yaṣūḥahu ʿalā ʿakl adawāt...

Most students opted for a translation like Sentence 134b as far as the infinitival clause under discussion is concerned. Although the infinitive verb has become inflected in Sentence 134b, the clause has kept its subordinative form which is an aspect of the sentential structure of English rather than Arabic.

5.5 Conclusion

The investigation of the problems related to the translation of exposition and instruction shows that in most cases students lacked the frame and schema of the type and genre of the text they were translating as they made all types of errors. Testees seem to give little attention to the textual aspects of text, such as cohesion, coherence and the organisation of information (thematic, forms, argumentation).
Compared with their translation of argumentation, testees performed better in exposition and instruction as in these texts their errors became less frequent and less serious especially with regard to the core meaning of text. Most of their errors affected partially either the meaning of some words/expressions or the naturalness with which the whole text was presented. The students' main incompetence in this regard was the way they processed the text. They seemed to opt for a minimal processing of words and sentences and did not give way for a multiplication process (using Barthes's terms, see Section 1.2.2) within the whole context in order to allow its expressive and communicative aspect to become manifest. In short, students lacked the necessary pragma-textual framework, when dealing with two culturally and linguistically distinct languages such as Arabic and English.

This indicates that the translation teaching methods used by the teachers to train the students in question are not very fruitful. The reason is that the text being translated in the class as a translation practice cannot cover all theoretical aspects which the student may encounter in other texts. It follows that training of translators should involve the refinement of their awareness of the dominant forms and schema for text-types they are likely to encounter.
CHAPTER SIX

The Assessment of Teachers’ Evaluation and Consistency

6.1 Introduction

The assessment of translator's performance is a widespread activity that has attracted the attention of several researchers and publications. There is an abundant amount of literature on how to teach translation and assess trainees' performance (Kussmaul 1995, Lonsdale 1996, Hatim and Mason 1997, Malmkjær 1998). However, little use has been made of the feedback from students' performance and especially from teachers' translation-quality assessments. In other words, although tests and criteria have been set for teachers to conduct their assessment, the scrutiny of their evaluation tools, the interaction of teachers with these tools, and the pedagogical implications of such interaction for the theory and teaching of translation are all areas that have been under-researched. In this chapter, I shall concern myself with issues relating to the evaluation of teachers' assessment tools and criteria and their implications for a successful training programme.

In Chapter Three, I tried to predict different possible criteria teachers might be using during their evaluation, viz. frequency, generality, intelligibility, interpretation, and naturalness. The present chapter will investigate, on the basis of a questionnaire (see Appendix I) administered to teachers, the use they make of these criteria. Beforehand, I shall mention that conclusions from
my analysis are tentative given that the evaluation corpus is limited to a questionnaire distributed among a relatively small number of teachers (ten).

The questionnaire consists of twenty translation errors described in the previous analysis of students' translation of four texts (Chapters Four and Five). The choice of errors was random but representative at the same time. That is to say, there was a selection of all possible categories of errors that can generate different criteria of assessment (four error-samples for each criterion) but the choice between errors of the same type was random. I enclosed copies of the four source texts to the questionnaire, one of which is in Arabic (Text One) and three in English (Texts Two, Three and Four).

The main purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate to what extent teachers make use of the evaluation criteria mentioned earlier and how consistent and reliable their assessment is. The chapter will be divided into two main sections: the first is concerned with teachers' interaction with the aforementioned criteria of assessment and the second with their intra- and inter-consistency.

6.2 Criteria of Evaluation and Teachers' Use

The main purpose of this section is to put into practice what has been theoretically discussed about evaluation criteria. It will also test whether my conclusions about the testees' main areas of difficulty are shared by teachers.
That is to say, while the analysis of the students' translation in Chapters Four and Five has identified and looked into a number of students' errors, this section will investigate how teachers account for them in terms of the evaluation criteria.

6.2.1 Rating of the Frequency Principle

If teachers apply this criterion in their evaluation, it means that samples with a high frequency of errors will receive high scores. As a matter of fact, the questionnaire deliberately involves samples with a considerably high number of different types of error. Some of these samples deviate from the meaning intended in the ST while others, though erroneous, still transmit the meaning existing in the ST. Samples 6 and 11 (see Table Fourteen below), for example, illustrate the types of erroneous construction which do not affect the ST's intended meaning. The two Samples in question involve all types of errors, yet teachers' ratings remain average.
(Table Fourteen: ratings of frequency errors)

As can be seen from Table Fourteen, teachers' ratings of Sample 6 are relatively small. Apart from evaluators II, IV and IX all scores are equal or below 3. Both Samples (6 and 11) involve frequent errors, yet Sample 11 is penalised more heavily than Sample 6. This implies that teachers are either inconsistent or the errors involved in the two Samples are not the same. The first possibility is very unlikely, given that the four lowest scores were rated by teachers who did not identify the errors. This confirms the idea that identification of translation errors is not always an easy task. Consider Samples 6 and 11, presented below as Sentences 135 and 136:

(135)...he seized what lay around him to fashion it into tools with which to hack, carve, pound and sew his way through life.
Most errors in Sample 6 are not as explicit as in Sample 11 because they are semantic errors in partial synonymy with the more appropriate renderings. This makes them less obvious than say syntactic errors as in Sample 11. For instance, as discussed in Chapter Five, both the verbs "istaIad" and "saqqa" can translate the ST verb "seized" in Sample 6, the only difference being that "saqqa" conveys the sense of forceful use of something existing in the corresponding ST word, a meaning aspect that "istaIada" lacks. The same is also true about the translation of the ST phrasal verb "fashion into" as "~awwara". As explained in Chapter Five, "~awwara" lacks parts of the meaning existing in the ST such as the fact that the act is manual which is usually considered an artistic work and therefore initiates a positive response in the reader. These meaning aspects can be represented in this context by the Arabic word "~aga".

Such partial semantic or pragmatic losses usually pass unnoticed as the sentence (text) is grammatically wellformed and the content of the message is also conveyed. However, the same cannot be said about the agreement and case-marking errors of "iΘnä Cašarata" and "usbūClC in Sample 11. These two
errors are a blatant breach of grammatical rules (see 5.2.3) in the sense that they cannot be exchangeable with the correct grammatical forms as is "ṣawwara" with "ṣāğa" and are therefore more marked in terms of their identification. Unlike the errors of Sample 6, those of Sample 11 have been identified by most teachers and therefore are more prone to receive higher scores. In fact, teachers VI and VII marked Sample 6 as 0, which indicates that the Sample is error-free. To find out whether this group of evaluators would have rated the errors highly, had they discovered them, will depend on how they score other samples with frequent errors.

So far, the first score results indicate three different groups of evaluators as illustrated through Table Fifteen. The first group, consisting of evaluators III, V, VI, and VII, failed to recognise the majority of errors, if any at all. As a result, no conclusions can be drawn from their scores concerning the criterion of frequency. The second group consists of evaluators I, II, IV and IX who seemed to penalise constructions with high rate of errors. The remaining evaluators, VIII and X, representing group three did not apparently associate seriousness of error with frequency.
#### Table Fifteen: Division of Teachers' Ratings

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Evaluators</th>
<th>Sample 1</th>
<th>Sample 6</th>
<th>Sample 11</th>
<th>Sample 16</th>
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Now, let us consider how the three groups assessed Sample 11. There was no significant change in the assessment of groups two and three. Both showed consistent but opposite degrees of tolerance towards frequency. As for group one, the scores were altered quite radically. This may confirm our claim that teachers' low scores for Sample 6 do not reflect a leniency towards frequency but rather a failure to identify the errors existing in the Sample.

I have mentioned earlier that despite the frequency of errors in Samples 6 and 11, the erroneous constructions still convey the message of the ST and their meaning is comprehensible. The question that arises here is whether these groups uphold the same judgement when the frequency of errors affects the quality of the text or involves errors which alter its meaning. Samples 1 and 16 are best suited to testing teachers' reactions to this type of frequency. Let us
first consider Sample 16, discussed in 4.5.1, which is repeated here as Sentence 137:


ST: for the Russian space programme, the comeback was supposed to begin last month.

Both the quantity and quality of the errors in Sentence 137 affect the comprehensibility of the message. Parts of the sentence are simply incomprehensible as Sentence 138 illustrates:

(138) kāna min al-mutawwaqa cfā-inna barnāmaj al-faadā? al-rūsī...

In Arabic, the expression "kāna min al-mutawwaqa cf" (it was expected) must be followed by the complementiser "an" (that) rather than "fa-inna" and a VP immediately after it. The VP can take in this case either of the two structures:

(i) pro + V, as in:

(i) kāna min al-mutawwaqa cf an yarjiC a mubakkiran

It was expected that comes early

(II was expected that he would come back early).

or

(ii) V+NP (post verbal subject), as in:

(ii) kāna min al-mutawwaqa cf an yarjiC al-raʔīs

It was expected that comes the-president mubakkiran early

(II was expected that the president would come back early).

In Sample 16, the configuration "fa-inna" and a NP were inserted instead. This is likely to make the message incomprehensible for a target reader who does not have any background in the ST.

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The erroneous construction also includes parts in which the meaning of the ST has been distorted. Consider Sentence 139:

(139) ST: the comeback was supposed to begin last month

(139a) bada? fi l-C awda ilâ l-warâ?

bt: it started to retreat...

As can be seen from the backtranslation above, the meaning of 139a is obviously different from that intended in the ST. Sentence 139b below is a more appropriate translation:


The errors involved in Sample 16, unlike those in Samples 1 and 11, affect the quality and the comprehensibility of the message. The teachers' assessments of Sample 16 were also different from their evaluations of Samples 6 and 11. Sample 16 was given the highest total score of all samples represented in the questionnaire. Teachers' evaluation of Sample 1, repeated here as Sentence 140, is no different:

(140) The Egyptian attitude expressed to the Arabic and Islamic community which will not tolerate any more for the Western silence on the Israeli nuclear weapons.


Sample 1 involves different types of error: (i) grammatical errors such as the unnecessary addition of the preposition "for" and the inappropriate use of "on" instead of "regarding", (ii) deletion of information like "ijmaC Carabî wa islâmî" (Arab-Islamic unanimity) and (iii) distortion of information by the use
of expressions such as "expressed to" instead of "reflects" and "will not" instead of "cannot". Since Sample 1 involves a high frequency of different error types, and represents a poor-quality message, it has been given a relatively high score apart from that of evaluator VI, ranging between 3 and 5.

The results drawn from these four samples indicate that teachers exercised their evaluation differently. For instance, evaluators II, IV and IX associated seriousness with frequency as their scores were high regardless of whether the high frequency of errors involved incomprehensibility or semantic alteration of the message. On the other hand, evaluators VIII and X demonstrated a kind of leniency towards frequency which did not affect the quality of the message but showed less tolerance when the semantic content of the SL message was altered. Most teachers, however, assessed samples with a high distribution of quality errors (e.g. Samples 1 and 16) as very serious. One may wonder whether teachers' reaction was due merely to the quality of the error or to the interaction of the two principles of quality and frequency. This can only be determined by considering erroneous constructions which involve a low frequency with a high threat to the quality of the message which will be dealt with in subsequent subsections.

6.2.2 Rating of the Generality Principle

The generality criterion presupposes that infringement of general rules triggers the teachers' reaction and, therefore, high-rating scores. The questionnaire
involves several samples with errors that violate general rules, some of which can alter the intended message of the ST like Sentence 141:

\[(141)\] the Egyptian attitude expressed to the Arabic and Islamic community...


Despite the presence of other errors in Sentence 141, the selection of the preposition "to" is more distorting to the ST meaning. It is likely that the prepositional represents the trigger behind the negative reaction of the teachers manifested in their high scores. However, there is also the possibility that this reaction was triggered merely by the fact that the error committed is of a syntactic type. To confirm either explanation, we should resort to other samples involving grammatical errors without a significant effect on the content of the ST. We shall consider in this respect teachers' assessment of Samples 4, 8 and 10 in Table Fifteen. Samples 8 and 10 involve an agreement error and a shift in tense respectively while translating into Arabic. Sample 4, on the other hand, has been made when translating into English and involves a prepositional error.
Evaluators  | Sample 4 | Sample 8 | Sample 10 |
---|---|---|---|
I  | 0  | 3  | 2  |
II | 1  | 4  | 3  |
III | 0 | 1  | 1  |
IV | 1  | 2  | 0  |
V  | 1  | 1  | 2  |
VI | 0  | 0  | 1  |
VII | 3 | 2  | 3  |
VIII | 1 | 3  | 2  |
IX | 1  | 1  | 1  |
X  | 0  | 0  | 0  |
**Total Scores** | **8** | **17** | **15** |

(Table Sixteen: ratings of generality errors)

Teachers' comments and responses to scale 1 of evaluation showed that they all, apart from II, VI and X, identified the agreement error in Sample 8 between "al-aqmār al-šināʾiyya" (satellites) which is plural and the attached (possessive) pronoun in "istibdālihimā" (replace both of them) which has a dual form. For teachers VI and X, the Sample was correct and was scored accordingly as 0. Teacher II also did not recognise the error but argued that the addition of the particle "faqāl" (only) in the TT was unnecessary because it did not exist in the ST and, therefore, was to be regarded as a very serious error.

Consider Sentence 142:

(142) ST ...what raised eyebrows was not the loss of the satellites but Russia's inability to replace them.
(142a) wa-mā aḏāra l-dahša laysa faqat fuqdan al-aqmār al-ṣīnā’īyya
bal ḍaḍī ajz rūsyyā’ī alā istibdālihā
bt: what raised astonishment was not only the loss of the satellites
(plural) but also Russia's inability to replace them (plural).

The particle "faqat" in Sentence 142a is part of the Arabic clause coordinator
"faqat...bal..." which is similar to the English "not only...but also...". Such
rhetorical devices are desirable in Arabic as far as they do not affect the
meaning of the ST. In fact, the use of "faqat", tends to enhance the aesthetic
quality of the text considering its argumentative nature which favours such
stylistic devices. Therefore, judging the use of "faqat" as a very serious error is
not a sound assessment nor should it arouse our concern, given its low
proportion of representation (one out of ten). Sample 10 repeated below as
Sentence 143:

(143)...before that trial and error will suffice

was also accorded low scores, all equal or below 3 (see Table Sixteen).

Consider Sentences 143a and 143b:

(143a) wa-qabla dālik fa-inna l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sa-tafi bil-ğarad
(143b) wa-qabla dālik fa-inna l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sawfa tafi bil-ğarad.

Here all teachers, apart from evaluators IV and X, identified the tense error
namely, the use of the probabilistic modal "sa-" (will) in "sa-tafi" (will suffice)
where none is needed 1.

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1 See 5.2.4 for elaborated discussion on modality.
The examination of teachers' use of the generality criterion and, more particularly, their reaction towards grammatical errors shows interesting but natural results. Throughout their evaluation of the questionnaire, teachers usually mark samples involving a violation of the generality principle very leniently. We have also observed that grammatical errors are more readily detected when English is the TL as well as when they affect the content or the communicative goal of the text.

However, regardless of the direction (i.e. from English into Arabic or vice versa) grammatical errors are often scored alike. That is, grammatical errors either in English or Arabic are assessed tolerantly if they do not represent a threat to the accuracy or intelligibility of the message. This is clearly demonstrated by Sample 4 as most teachers detected the grammatical errors it involves, yet the Sample received the lowest score given that the message is still in effect. Such results may indicate that non-native teachers of a language are more alert (here, in the sense of possessing facility in detection) to grammatical errors than their native peers.

On the other hand, native speakers are usually readily able to predict and form retrospectively or prospectively what the word, sentence or text being read (or uttered) is about. Therefore, the interest of the native speaker is often in the message rather than the grammar. The predictive capacity of a non-native speaker, on the other hand, is slower and its process is often carried out
through the joining of words to form sentences and texts, i.e., it is a grammatical process. In other words, native speakers rely heavily on their cultural competencies to process a text while non-natives, given their limited cultural competence, resort to the construction of words and sentences via grammatical rules into a meaningful text.

The claim here is deterministic in nature; native speakers determine the meaning of words from their socio-cultural knowledge. If this claim is correct, it will have far-reaching implications for the translator. However, the confirmation of this claim goes beyond the scope of this research and therefore its implications for translation will not be the focus of this work.

6.2.3 Rating of the Intelligibility Principle

Violation of the intelligibility criterion means that the message conveyed in the TT is either distorted, incomplete or simply incomprehensible.
As can be seen from Table Seventeen, breaching of the intelligibility principle is assessed less tolerantly than the generality one. The average total score of an intelligibility Sample is almost 23, whereas that of generality is only 15 although this is not as high as that of frequency. This can help to refute the preceding claim that teachers assess in terms of the quality of the error and not its frequency given that violation of the intelligibility criterion involves quality errors.

To confirm either claim, let us take a closer look at teachers' assessment of the four intelligibility samples in Table Seventeen above. Sample 3, repeated below as Sentence 144, received the lowest score (15) of the intelligibility samples.
The Sample involves wrong lexical choices owing to partial synonymy which alters the ideological connotations existing in the ST (see 4.4.1). This can provide an explanation for the low scores given to Sample 3 as errors involving partial synonymy losses or (partial) ideological shifts often pass unnoticed owing to their discreteness at the surface level of language. In fact, seven out of ten of the evaluators failed to detect any trace whatsoever of an ideological shift. Their marks were awarded on the basis of other reasons, such as the omission of the phrase "fawqa iskutlandā" (over Scotland) or "ṭā?ira" (plane) which are not essential to the meaning of the text because for the English reader, only words such as "Libyans" and "Pan Am" will suffice to understand what the text is all about in this context.

On the other hand, the erroneousness of Sample 19 cited below as Sentence 145 is more noticeable as several teachers commented that the translation was incomprehensible.

(144) ST: istimrār al-rafd al-lībi taslīm muttahamayh fi ḥādiθ tafṣīr ṭā?irat "ban am" fawqa iskutlandā
(144a) the Libyans still refuse to extradite their two suspects in the Pan Am explosion accident.

(145) they have developed a wide field of material science that seeks to explain what arrangements of matter at a microscopic level give rise to the properties of substances.

(145a) qāmu bi-taṭwīr maydān wāsī fi ḥīlm al-mādda yaṣṣā ilā tafṣīr mā sabbabathu andḥimat al-mādda taḥta al-mijhar min xawāṣṣihī...
The markedness of Sentence 145a accounts for the highest score (34) it received. The same goes for Samples 7 and 15, presented as Sentences 146 and 147 respectively:

(146) How to treat your wart, verruca, corn or callus

(146a) kayfiyyat mu'ālajat ā'ālīl al-qadam wa-ġayrihā

(147) in the wake of the Mars debacle

(147a) fi aqab fasal riḥlat al-fadā ilā al-marrīx.

Sample 15 received a relatively low score because the erroneousness was not marked. In other words, the ST word "debacle" and the Arabic "fašal" (failure) are in partial synonymy and therefore the reader does not usually notice the difference. Paradoxically, Sample 7 involves a clear omission of the information (verruca, corn and callus) which was substituted for by the Arabic noun "wa-ġayrihā" (lit. and others of them). This, as a result, reflects a negative reaction on the part of some teachers as the scores in Table Seventeen clearly indicate.

The rating of Sample 15 is similar to that of Sample 7 as they both involve a wider dispersion of marks than that existing in Samples 3 and 19. That is, while most marks are equal or below 2 in Sample 3 and are equal or over 3 in Sample 19, Samples 7 and 15 involve all types of scores from 0 to 5. As far as the scores of Sample 15 are concerned, we can distinguish between three groups of evaluators. The first group of evaluators (IV, VII, VIII and X) simply did not recognise the errors and therefore assigned a 0 score to the Sample. The second group (V and IX) awarded average scores ranging
between 2 and 3. High scores (4 and 5) were awarded by the third group, consisting of evaluators I, II, III and VI. However, not all high scores in this case reflect the teachers' evaluation of the error resulting from the translation of the word "debacle". Only evaluator III from the third group identified the error; the others saw the erroneousness in other parts of the construction such as the adjectival phrase "al-riḥla l-faḍā?iyya" instead of the construct NP "riḥlat al-faḍa?" or the adverbial "cāla iθr" instead of "fi aCqāb" (in the wake of) or even the offering of an alternative translation using the same word "faṣal".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluators</th>
<th>Sample 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
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<td>X</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Eighteen: division of teachers' ratings of Sample 15)

As with Sample 3, only three evaluators (III, V and IX) identified the error in Sample 15. Although failure to identify this error may hinder generalisations about teachers' assessment, this shows that this type of error is more prone to
pass unnoticed by teachers. To this effect, the error may become a consistent habit of students as far as it is not detected. Errors of partial synonymy, though often they do not affect the general meaning of the text as in Sample 15, can be very serious especially when they involve an ideological shift between two languages with two conflicting and competitive ideologies as in the case of Sentence 144 repeated earlier.

6.2.4 Rating of the Interpretation Principle

In the preceding subsections, I have discussed mainly errors deriving from failure to find appropriate equivalents in the TL and which affect, as a result, the comprehensibility and/or the structural well-formedness of the TT. Not all errors are due to grammatical or semantic incompetence in the TL; they can also follow from a misinterpretation of the ST itself. This is best illustrated by Samples 12 and 14. Sample 12 is repeated here as Sentence 148:

(148) ST: ever since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world Sputnik, Gagarin and the space station Mir appeared to have fallen too...

(148a) fa-munḍu inhiyār al-šuyūḥiyyā tilka l-hayāati qaddamat lil-
cālam al-qamar al-šīnā+i "sbutnik" qad jarra xalfahu inhiyār jajarīn wa-
l-mahāτṭa l-fadā?iyya "mīr"

bt: ...and since the collapse of communism, the agency that gave the world the satellite Sputnik has resulted in the collapse of Gagarin and the space station Mir.

It is very clear that the ST and the translation are two different texts with different meanings and concepts. The reason is that the ST does not provide
any textual clues to a reader without relevant knowledge enabling her/him to identify Gagarin as the name of a Russian astronaut. In Sentence 148a, the student provided an incorrect translation in which Gagarin is understood to be a space station (i.e. the meaning of the text is apprehended in the realm of the individual's experience). This could obviously be avoided if the student had the relevant pragmatic and cultural knowledge; i.e., had the students been familiar with the name Gagarin, they would certainly not have identified it as a satellite or space station. The misinterpretation of the ST has caused an alteration in meaning when translating into the TL. As a result, Sample 12 received a high score as can be seen in Table Nineteen below. All individual scores of this Sample are equal or over 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valuators</th>
<th>Sample 12</th>
<th>Sample 14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
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<td>IV</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>V</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>VI</td>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Nineteen: ratings of interpretation errors)

Notice that scores granted to Sample 12 are high (most of them are fours and fives). On the other hand, Sample 14 received relatively average scores; apart
from evaluators II and X all scores are limited to twos and threes. Consider Sample 14 repeated below as Sentence 149:

(149)...the researchers presenting it can use that knowledge to build new properties into matter.

(149a)...wa-l-bahiθūn allaθina yumaθilūnahu yastaθiθuna istθmāl əlīka 1-cilm fi  taskīl xawāss jadīda fi 1-mādda.

This indicates that there are factors other than interpretation which determine the scores given to Samples 12 and 14. A closer examination shows indeed that the two Samples differ in terms of the quality and quantity of errors they involve. The error frequency in Sample 12 is higher as it involves infringements of grammatical rules such as the subject-verb agreement "jarrat" instead of "jarra" and the absence of the main clause for the subordinate clause which initiates the sentence in addition to errors due to the misinterpretation of the ST.

The erroneousness of Sample 14 is basically attributable to the wrong choice of the preposition "fi" (in) instead of the verb "dāxil" (inside) and the potential misinterpretation of the ST (see 5.2.2). But in both cases the errors are not as marked as in Sample 12 as "fi" and "dāxil" are eligible in almost every context though their meaning is not identical. As for the potential confusion at the TT level, it is unlikely to be recognised especially when the text is read as a whole. This difference in terms of the frequency and generality principles cannot explain the high score given to Sample 12 because teachers' evaluation
of previous samples showed that frequency and generality were often assessed with leniency.

The major difference between Samples 12 and 14 lies in what effect the erroneousness of each has on the quality of the message in the TL. The translation in Sample 12 is an altered form of the ST. It can be identified by the TL reader who has no feedback from the ST as the error relates to world knowledge (see 4.4.3). On the other hand, no alteration is clearly identifiable in Sample 12 and the misinterpretation of the TT is only potential and cannot be realised without feedback from the ST.

It follows that less discrete errors are likely to be assessed more seriously. In other words, the alteration in Sample 12 is more marked given that it is manifested in the text and easily retrievable without even having recourse to the ST. The discreteness of Sample 14, on the other hand, is the result of the fact that the error is a potentiality but not an actual error that is readily recognisable without the reading of the ST.

6.2.5 Rating of the Naturalness Principle

The content and form of a text can be translated satisfactorily, yet the translation may feel unnatural for the TL reader. Because our samples are small extracts (sentences) from texts, naturalness can be best assessed in this context in terms of some stylistic devices such as collocation and repetition.
Samples 2, 17, 18 and 20 represent in this respect some failures to observe the naturalness principle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluators</th>
<th>Sample 2</th>
<th>Sample 17</th>
<th>Sample 18</th>
<th>Sample 20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
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<td>IV</td>
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<td>IX</td>
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<tr>
<td>X</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Scores</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Twenty: ratings of naturalness errors)

Again, teachers' marking varies from one sample to another. As far as Sample 17 is concerned, almost all marks are equal to or over 3 with a high total score of 34. On the other hand, the other samples' scores are relatively small. So what makes teachers penalise Sample 17 heavily and assess the other samples tolerantly? Obviously, the erroneousness of Sample 17, repeated below as Sentence 150, must be somehow different from that of Samples 2, 18 and 20.

(150) ST: it is only when you make materials from scratch that knowing why things are as they are begins to matter

(150a) innana c'indamā naqūm bi-ṣun c šay? min lā šay? fa-innanā na'nā li-māḏā ṣunī c hāḏā l-šay? ammā qabla ḍālik fa-lā na'nā lam šay? c'an al-mādda l-xām

bt: when we make a thing out of nothing we knew why this thing was made but before that we do not know anything about raw material.
The Arabic translation consists of many inaccuracies: first, it reads, as some teachers pointed out, unnaturally which is basically owing to the inappropriate use of repetition. Repetition is a common feature of Arabic; its use is not random but always has a function or purpose such as cohesion or emphasis. Repetition of "say?" (thing) in the above translation does not function as a cohesive device or serve to highlight an emphasis existing in the ST. This reason alone does not explain the high score given to Sample 17 because other samples involving stylistic awkwardness were assessed tolerantly. Consider again Samples 2, 18 and 20 repeated below as Sentences 151, 152 and 153 respectively:

(151)...tarfuḍu bahθa silāhihā l-kimyā?ī aw mawdū'a l-silāh al-kimyā?ī fī l-šarq al-awsaṭ
(151a)...it refuses the search for its chemical weapons or the subject of chemical weapons in the Middle East
(152) every night, soak the affected area(s) in warm water
(152a) uğmur kull layla l-miņtaqa l-mușāba fī miyāh dāfi?a
(153) this metallic glass provides a combination of strength and flexibility
(153a) wa-yuʕūʔī hādā al-zujāj al-maʕ̄danī mazīj min al-quwwa wa-l-murūna.

The use of "miyāh dāfi?a" in Sentence 152a does not sound as natural as the common collocative expression "mā? dāfi", the word "quwwa" in Sentence 153a similarly does not collocate with "zujāj maʕ̄danī" as naturally as "ṣalāba"

1 See Al-Jubouri 1984:99-117 for further detailed discussion of the function of repetition in Arabic.
and, furthermore, the preservation of the Arabic repetition in the English translation in Sentence 150a does not sound natural.

We can also notice that the total scores of Samples 18 and 20 are lower than that of Sample 2. This is because Sample 2 is a translation into the foreign language (English) and evaluators are expected to be less tolerant when evaluating the trainees' performance in L2 (see, 6.2.2). As for Sample 20 it is quite likely that its low score is due to the discreteness of the errors, so that most teachers did not recognise them.

The Arabic translation also contains an alteration in the mode of address. In the ST, the second person mode is used to refer to a general addressee (anybody making materials from scratch). In the Arabic version, instead, the first person plural form "ناشنا" is more appropriate in this type of discourse. The translation would read unnaturally, had the translator kept the same mode of address as the ST. This only indicates that this alteration cannot be the reason behind a well-founded penalisation of Sample 17.

This high score (34) granted to Sample 17 cannot be explained in terms of the generality or intelligibility principles as the translation is grammatically wellformed and semantically comprehensible. Yet the comparison (of the backtranslation) of translation 148a and ST 148, mentioned earlier, shows that although the translation is grammatical and intelligible, its communicative content is different from that of the ST. We have seen that the distortion of the
ST's message was often regarded as serious by the teachers especially when it was readily identified. In their comments regarding Sample 17, most teachers pointed to this distortion of the ST's meaning which stands as the most likely reason for their reaction to the erroneousness of Sample 17.

To sum up, the discussion of teachers' assessment in terms of the evaluation criteria set in Chapter Three gives us a general account of their approach to the gravity of errors in translation. The seriousness of an error is often associated with two main values: (i) distortion of a ST's meaning or incomprehensibility of the message enacted in the TT and (ii) markedness/unmarkedness of the error. Value (i) represents errors which distort the meaning existing in the ST or simply make it unintelligible regardless of the criterion that has been violated. Value (ii) assesses the degree and explicitness of the meaning loss in translation. Discrete errors like partial synonymy or ideological shifts are often assigned low scores when they are identified. These two values can also trigger a higher penalisation when combined with frequency. In other words, a translation which involves, in addition to the alteration or incomprehensibility of the message, a high frequency of errors is likely to be assigned a higher gravity score.

6.3 Teachers' Inter- and Intra-Consistency

6.3.1 Introduction

From the discussion of teachers' evaluation in the previous Section, it can be claimed that there is a considerable imbalance in their assessment in terms of
the different criteria and tools available for this purpose. Such an imbalance can have undesirable effects on the teaching/learning process. The inconsistency in teachers' evaluation is likely to cause confusion for the trainees and mask the clarity of the course objectives as discussed in the following chapter. This section will be concerned with the analysis of teachers' consistency when scoring the same samples investigated earlier. As mentioned before, consistency will be looked at from two related angles: inter-consistency and intra-consistency.

Before proceeding with the analysis of consistency, it is worth mentioning that the primary aim of this analysis is not only to pinpoint those elements where teachers fail to be consistent but also to highlight areas where they show shared criteria of evaluation. Table Twenty One below is a numerical representation of teachers' assessment of the twenty samples administered as a questionnaire. I rearranged the order of samples in the table according to the criteria which they mostly violate and were intended to test. In other words, one sample may involve the violation of more than one criterion but in most cases it is set to test one of the criteria regardless of the teachers. For instance, we have under the category of frequency, Samples 1, 6, 11 and 16 as the four Samples were administered with the purpose of examining the teachers' use of the frequency criterion. I shall, therefore, examine the teachers' inter-consistency in respect of each criterion separately.
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total scores</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table Twenty One: numerical representation of teachers' assessment)
6.3.2 Consistency of the Frequency Scores

As far as the frequency criterion is concerned, a look at the samples representing this category in Table Twenty One shows that there is a significant dispersion between teachers' scores, i.e. the lack of inter-consistency is high. This is well illustrated in Graph One below. Each curve in the Graph represents the ten evaluators' scores of one sample.

We have basically two different types of curve: one stretching upwards (hyperbolic) and the other downwards (parabolic). Hyperbolic stretches reflect high-scoring rates, whereas parabolic stretches reveal low-scoring rates. It is the consistency and similarity of the fluctuations within each curve that determine the degree of (in)consistency between teachers. To measure the fluctuations of each curve, I have assigned for each space between one score and the other a different colour. That is, the degree of fluctuation will be determined in terms of the colour spaces each curve operates on.

In this respect, the score given to Sample 16 can be said to be the most consistent as the fluctuations of the curve operate mainly within one space (light brown). By contrast, Sample 6's scores are the least consistent as the fluctuations of its curve pervade all five colour-spaces. Almost the same contrast between Samples 6 and 16 exists also between Samples 1 and 11. The red curve's fluctuations of Sample 1 are basically centred within the yellow colour-space, except for evaluators II and VI. Therefore, consistency is
Graph One: Inter-consistency of frequency scores

Score of sample 1

Score of sample 6

Score of sample 11

Score of sample 16
relatively achieved. On the other hand, the fluctuations of Sample 6 are spread over four out of five available colour-spaces which indicates the inconsistency of its scores.

As for the teachers' intra-consistency, it is measured using the same graph system. The scores of each teacher for the four frequency samples are represented by a separate polygon (see Graph Two below). The intra-consistency of each teacher is determined in terms of the fluctuation of each curve within the number of colour-spaces.

The chart clearly shows a high level of fluctuation within each curve, except for that of evaluator IX, where no fluctuation is observed so that it reflects a high level of intra-consistency. The degree of fluctuation of the curves representing evaluators II and IV is also relatively small indicating an acceptable level of intra-consistency. Low degrees of intra-consistency are shown along the curves designed for the remaining evaluators. Recall, however, that these samples involve a high frequency of errors of different types. Therefore, we cannot judge the teachers as inconsistent unless the frequency principle was the only available or utilised criterion of evaluation.

As discussed throughout the previous section, teachers do not seem to have assessed the samples in terms of the frequency of the errors they involved, but rather in terms of their quality. In other words, high fluctuation of the curves
Graph Two: Intra-consistency of frequency scores
does not reflect a variation in the teachers' assessment concerning the frequency principle but rather a variation between the samples being measured.

6.3.3 Consistency of the Generality Scores

As mentioned before, the breach of the generality principle is not often sanctioned severely by teachers. The aim of this sub-section is to examine the consistency of this tolerance regarding the generality errors. Like frequency, consistency in the assessment of generality samples will be carried out at two levels (inter- and intra-consistency) using the same illustrative technique of graphs.

Graph Three below represents all the teachers' scores for Samples 4, 8, 10 and 13. The fluctuations within each curve represent the degree of inconsistency among teachers. Unlike Graph One, all curves in Graph Three point downwards which indicates that the scores given to each sample are relatively small. However, the degree of fluctuation in Graph Three is higher if we consider the number of space-colours where each polygon (curve) operates. With the exception of the polygon of Sample 4, which basically occupies one space colour if evaluator VII is excluded, the remaining polygons operate within three up to five space-colours which indicates a low degree of inter-consistency.
Graph Three: Inter-consistency of generality scores

Score of Sample 4

Score of Sample 8

Score of Sample 10

Score of Sample 13
On the whole, some teachers did not identify the errors being measured while others scored for different elements from those intended to be assessed. This may raise serious questions about the validity of these results concerning teachers' lack of inter-consistency. The issue has been previously discussed and it has been noticed that in instances when teachers identify and score the same generality errors, their marks tend to be similar. The same goes here regarding teachers' intra-consistency on the generality principle.

Graph Three above shows significant variation in the scores of each individual teacher on the generality samples. This indicates that intra-consistency is minimally achieved. However, if we exclude irregularities and extreme scores, the findings will certainly have a different path. Here, irregularities refer to those scores which by no means represent true values of the elements intended to be measured. The 0 value is a case in point as it indicates that the teacher has not identified the error. Extreme scores refer to those values with a very low distribution. For instance, out of the forty scores given to the generality samples, the values 4 and 5 surface only once each. The distribution of generality scores is presented as Histogram One below.
As Histogram One indicates, the recurrence of values is not equally distributed. The scores are mainly centred around 1. Values 4 and 5 have occurred only once and can therefore be considered as extreme scores. 0 is not a representative value either, despite its high frequency. The non-representativeness of the value 0 follows from the fact that it indicates failure to identify the erroneousness the teacher was supposed to assess. Thus, the discussion of teachers' intra-consistency will be confined to the values 1, 2 or 3 while eliminating the non-representative values 0, 4 and 5. Let us now tabulate the scores of the generality samples this time without the values 0, 4 and 5.
As the non-representative scores are replaced by a dash, we can see some consistency in the teachers' evaluation. Each value is often repeated twice or three times within the scores of each teacher. It can be said that the intra-consistency is relatively achieved. However, the frequency of the unrepresented value, especially that of 0 as illustrated by Histogram One, cannot be ignored. The fact that teachers quite frequently fail to identify errors reflected by the high distribution of the value 0 is alarming and constitutes a potential threat for the training and development of qualified translators.

### Table Twenty Two: true values of generality Samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluators</th>
<th>Sample 4</th>
<th>Sample 8</th>
<th>Sample 10</th>
<th>Sample 13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>III</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.4 Consistency of the Intelligibility Scores

The determination of teachers' consistency regarding intelligibility is even more controversial. The intelligibility criterion was represented in the questionnaire by Samples 3, 7, 15 and 19. Sample 7 involves deletion of part of the ST information, Samples 15 and 19 relate to (partial) synonymy and
Sample 3 involves an ideological shift. There are, however, other samples subsumed under other criteria which still affect the intelligibility principles and the same goes for all principles. Teachers' scores for each of these samples are represented in Graph Four below.

Most points joining the polygons, except for those of Sample 3, tend to be centred within high-score levels. The fluctuation levels differ from one polygon to another. Samples 3 and 19 tend to have a limited level of fluctuation. The polygon of Sample 19 operates within one colour-space except for the scores of evaluators II and VI. The same goes for the polygon of Sample 3 if we exclude the scores of evaluators VI and IX. Inter-consistency regarding these two Samples is relatively achieved. On the contrary, the level of inter-consistency in respect of Samples 7 and 15 is low as the fluctuations of their polygons operate almost equally within five space-colours.
Graph Four: Inter-consistency of intelligibility scores

Scores

EI EII EIII EIV EV EVI EVII EVIII EIX EX
Evaluators

Score of Sample 3

Score of Sample 7

Score of Sample 15

Score of Sample 19

Samples

S3  S7  S15  S19
The controversy about such conclusions stems from the distribution of unrepresentative values. In other words, not all scores used to build Chart Four reflect the teachers' assessment of the intelligibility principle. The intelligibility elements have been properly detected by teachers in Sample 7 and 19 but have been passed unnoticed, except by evaluators III, V and IX, when assessing Samples 3 and 15. It will then be inappropriate to infer any conclusions from the values of Samples 3 and 15 regarding teachers' inter-consistency. The issue is less controversial when it comes to Samples 7 and 19 as most of their values are true representations of the elements being measured.

Inter-consistency in respect of Samples 7 and 19 is relatively achieved though higher in Sample 19. If we exclude extreme scores (with very low frequency), we find that the values of Sample 19 are equally distributed between 3 and 4 whereas in Sample 7 they are distributed within three scores - 1, 2 and 3 - although centred around 3.

The determination of teachers' intra-consistency also gives rise to the same controversy and can only be determined after the elimination of unrepresentative values. I shall, therefore, confine myself in this regard to the values of Samples 7 and 19 represented in Histogram Two below.
Histogram Two reflects the scores of each evaluator for the two Samples. The identity of each pair of boxes reflects a high level of intra-consistency. This is indeed the case with evaluators I, VI, VII and IX. The boxes assigned to evaluator III and evaluator X reflect an acceptable level of consistency while those of the remaining evaluators reflect relatively low ones. As we can notice from Histogram Two, with the exception of evaluator II, there is some kind of consistency among evaluators who do not have identical scores for the two Samples. The consistency lies in the fact that for each teacher, the second (green) box is consistently higher than the first (red one). This indicates that teachers identify a difference between the two Samples, i.e. they establish
other sub-levels of intelligibility and so their evaluations may have varied accordingly. Indeed, whereas Sample 7 involves an omission of part of the text's content without affecting its core meaning, Sample 19 is almost incomprehensible. Discussion throughout the previous section shows that teachers tended to assess more harshly errors that hindered the comprehensibility of the message than those which involved a lack of parts of information.

6.3.5 Consistency of the Interpretation Scores

As mentioned earlier, the violation of a principle can be either explicit or implicit. The four samples representing the violation of the interpretation principle can be described in the same way. Samples 5 and 9 represent the implicit type in which the erroneousness is not easy to detect as the ambiguity in the ST allows more than one interpretation. Consider Samples 5 and 9 repeated respectively as Sentences 154 and 155:

(154) Cazzaza infitāh miṣr al-dawr al-qiyādī allatī kānat laCibathu marrātCADidā fī l-tārīx al-Carabī l-muCāshir wa-l-qadīm.

(154a) Egypt's leading role which she played many times in both contemporary and ancient Arab history has consolidated its open door policy.

(155) If the affected area is on the sole of the foot, cover it with an adhesive plaster.

(155a) iḏā kānat al-miṅṭaqā l-mušāba fī asfal al-qadam fa-daC alayhi šarīṭ lāsiq.

In Sample 5 the ambiguity concerns the predicate-structure of the verb "Cazzaza" (consolidated). The English translation involves a substitution of the
Graph Five: Iter-consistency of interpretation scores

- Scores
- Evaluators

Samples:
- S5
- S9
- S12
- 14

Scores of Sample 5:
- Scores
- Evaluators

Scores of Sample 9:
- Scores
- Evaluators

Scores of Sample 12:
- Scores
- Evaluators

Scores of Sample 14:
- Scores
- Evaluators
external argument for the internal one. In Sample 9 the confusion is related to the ambiguity of the anaphoric reference of the expletive "it". The student mistakenly interpreted the pronoun as referring to "foot".

Samples 12 and 14 represent the explicit type where distortion or incomprehensibility of the message is clear. This divide has been reflected in the teachers' evaluation as Samples 5 and 9 received low scores whereas the scores of Samples 12 and 14 are considerably high. Yet if this divide corresponds clearly with two types of scoring (high and low), it does not do so when it comes to teachers' consistency. In fact, the high frequency of score 0 for Samples 5 and 9 makes it hard to infer reliable conclusions concerning teachers' consistency. In other words, the score 0 is not a true value in our case because it stands for "no error" which runs opposite to what the samples were set to assess in the first place. The erroneousness of Samples 12 and 14 is identified by all teachers and their scores do not involve even a single occurrence of the mark 0.

In Graph Five above, however, the scores of all four Samples are represented although discussion of teachers' consistency will be confined to Samples 12 and 14 for the reason mentioned before. The polygons of the two Samples operate basically within two colour-spaces if we exclude the score of evaluator IV for Sample 14. Inter-consistency can be said to be relatively achieved,
although not to a high degree. The same goes for intra-consistency as Histogram Three illustrates.

As can be seen from Histogram Three, the twin boxes are identical on three occasions (scores of evaluators IV, V and VI) and slightly different on five other occasions (evaluators II, VIII, IX and X). Therefore, intra-consistency is achieved among teachers as far as the interpretation criterion is concerned.

Another regularity among teachers which can be observed in Histogram Three is that, except for evaluator X, the left red box is always equal to or higher than the green twinned one. This means that, despite the relative consistency in the assessments of the two Samples, one cannot deny the fact that they
differ in terms of other aspects such as the frequency and scale of markedness of error (see 6.2.4) which is reflected as such in the teachers’ assessment.

The high scores given to the samples that involve a violation of the interpretation criterion confirm our claim made in discussing the intelligibility criterion, namely that alteration or incomprehensibility of the message is severely penalised. In fact, intelligibility and interpretation can be exactly the same if examined as merely final product errors because both refer to the extent to which content is well represented in the translation. But if we consider the whole process of translation, interpretation failure occurs when processing the ST before the stage of rendering into the TL. Intelligibility failure, on the other hand, occurs during the final stage of translation and is mostly due to the trainee’s incompetence in the TL or target culture.

6.3.6 Consistency of the Naturalness Scores

The naturalness principle is examined in terms of four samples, two of which (Samples 18 and 20) relate to collocation and two others (Samples 2 and 17) to repetition (see 6.2.5). Teachers’ scores for these Samples have been transformed into Graph Six below.
Graph Six: Iter-consistency of naturalness scores

Score of Sample 2

Score of Sample 17

Score of Sample 18

Score of Sample 20
The polygons for Sample 2 and, to a less extent, Sample 17 show a high level of fluctuation and, therefore, little inter-consistency. The level of fluctuation is lower for Samples 18 and 20 which makes their inter-consistency higher. Although this is true for Sample 18, it is not the case for Sample 20 because of the high frequency of the score 0. Recall that the score 0 is not a true value and, therefore, no conclusions about teachers' consistency can be inferred on the basis of this score.

Since Samples 2 and 17 are similar in that they both make inappropriate use of repetition, only their scores will be represented in Histogram Four below in order to examine teachers' intra-consistency.

![Histogram Four: Intra-consistency of naturalness scores](image)
The histogram shows very little intra-consistency between teachers. The only regularity here, again, is that all red boxes representing Sample 17, except for evaluator IV, are equal to, or higher than, their green twinned boxes which represent Sample 2. This disparity between the scores of Samples 2 and 17 can be explained by the fact that Sample 2 is a translation into English. Naturalness in this respect is best identified and valued by a native speaker of English whereas, in fact, all our evaluators are native speakers of Arabic.

6.4 Conclusion

Table Twenty One, presented earlier, shows a serious disparity among teachers' scores. However, a detailed analysis of these samples takes into account the different types of error each one involves; their recognition by teachers also indicates that the level of inter- and intra-consistency amongst teachers is relatively satisfactory. Most of them severely penalise errors which affect the core meaning of the ST either by altering it, deleting part of it or making it unintelligible.

The alarming observation which can be inferred from the teachers' evaluation is that their analysis and assessment of the trainees' translations are often performed at the surface level. In other words, teachers, in the process of their assessment, check upon the main content of the ST without paying equal attention to pragmatic and stylistic aspects of translation such as ideological shifts, intertextual meanings, naturalness and collocative patterning of words.
Evaluation is an important element of translation teaching for it is a feedback from which teachers check upon their students' achievements and needs. To be so, it must probe into all meaning aspects that are crucial to a successful translation. In the case of our evaluators, apart from the semantic content, almost all other aspects were overlooked. Teachers' feedback from their evaluation in this context is not of much help as it does not cover all students' needs. It can even be misleading if teachers design their own syllabus, remedial teaching or completion of the course on the basis of the findings from this kind of evaluation.
CHAPTER SEVEN

Conclusion

7. Implications of the Case Study for Translation Pedagogy

Considering the significant number of problems our testees faced in the text translation (see Chapters Four and Five), it goes without saying that the methodological and pedagogical tools used in the teaching situation of Garyounis University are not efficient. It is therefore important at this stage to make some pedagogical suggestions which derive from the analysis and empirical evidence brought forward in the foregoing chapters. These are not, however, prescriptions detailing the only way to train translators; they are recommendations whose authority derives from a survey of translation theory and teaching and from a study of the students' performance in translation.

The study of the students' performance has been mainly based on an EA of their translation work and the teachers' assessment of their errors. To be able to draw pedagogical conclusions from these findings, it is essential to consider them within their broader teaching context. Students' errors can be pedagogically useful only if they are constantly related to other variables that constitute the teaching context such as the course design and the professionalism of the teacher.
7.1 The Course Design

As mentioned earlier, the subject of translation is a four-year course at the University of Garyounis. As far as the first two years of the course design are concerned, their primary objective is to consolidate students' linguistic competence in both languages. This may be an appropriate measure given the results of our analysis of students' performance which show an alarming lack of competence in the two languages. Yet the problem of incompetence in either language keeps surfacing in the final (fourth) year of the course as can be deduced from the analysis carried out in Chapters Four and Five.

The likely logical explanation for the persistence of the problem can be related to the methodology of teaching. Teaching proceeds without reference to the social and cultural context of what the students are being taught. The focus is mainly on the grammar and rhetoric of Arabic, and on grammar and reading in English. Although students made a significant number of grammatical errors per se (i.e. simple breaches of grammatical rules) when translating into English, these were not as frequent and serious as other pragmatic errors which relate to the communicative functions of words and grammatical structures themselves. In several instances, students translated linguistic structures correctly but failed to incorporate their pragmatic functions in the translation.
It seems, therefore, justified to recognise the failure of the teaching model followed in Garyounis University and the need to implement a functional-oriented method. The functionality of the method must not focus on each language separately. It should emphasise, in addition to the use of the language within its natural context, those functional aspects that are most relevant to translation between the two languages. In other words, the method should be based on a functional comparative approach in order to consolidate both the monolingual and bilingual skills of trainees.

In the final two academic years of the course, students are mainly taught translation. The course design does not apparently have a clear objective. Students are introduced to the main translation models without any serious critical involvement in or encouragement to relate the theory to their translation practice. The practical part of the course is divided according to the Hallidayan text-types into three main classes (argumentative, expository and instructive) taught by different teachers. This division of the course is confusing as its purpose is not made clear, at least for students. In each class, students are given a text-type and asked to translate without any theoretical account of the notion of text-typology. In fact, text-linguistics and -typology are the subjects of the last lesson in the translation model-course. The confusion could be prevented if students were shown how each text-type requires a certain rhetorical structure of text. The identification of the typology of text provides a ready-textual frame for the TT and reduces the task of the
translator to a process of information-filling as illustrated in the following figure (from Megrab and Aabi 1999):

(Figure Eleven: text-type transfer)

This lack of clear purpose in the course design, at least for the students, is reflected in their performance as all types of errors were committed. Analysts would normally expect fewer errors in one area than the other, depending on the focus of the teaching model. For instance, if the course were linguistically oriented, the number of linguistic errors in the students' corpus would be minimal and the same goes for a communicative or text-linguistic-oriented model. Nevertheless, the most common errors in the corpora from Garyounis trainees are those related to the nature and type of text despite the fact that the apparent focus of the course seems to be text-typological.

The design in the second stage of the translation course can be said to have two main drawbacks. First, it makes a clear-cut distinction between the theory of translation (translation models) and translation practice. In the class, students compare their translations with that of the teacher as if this were the correct version without any retrospective feedback from translation theory.
This is owing to the absence of a solid discipline of what Holmes (1988) calls Applied Translation Studies which implement findings that can be of value in the pedagogical area of the teaching of translation and the training of translators. This defect may result in two negative pedagogical implications. First, students may think of translation theory as a kind of philosophical debate which has no direct impact on actual translation. They may also assume that for each text there is one and only one correct translation, that of the teacher, which runs contrary to the non-binary nature of translation (see 3.2.1).

The second limitation related to the course design is that teachers take translation theory for a translation teaching method. The inappropriateness of this view for the translation follows from the fact that a translation theory does not always coincide with the specific course objectives, the actual students' competence and the cross-linguistic and cultural framework of the two languages involved in the translation course. Translation theory, as Konigs (in Kiraly 1995:6), points out, predicts problems which usually end up dominating the teaching approach, at the expense of other potentially significant characteristics of the learning and translating situation.

A more satisfactory approach should combine theory of translation with selected instructional situations based on empirical studies such as EA which was the case in the development of this work. Relying on translation theory per se can also be too abstract or too specific in actual translation practice. For
instance, Delisle (1980:57) observes with regard to English-French translation that translation theories do not make the task of teaching translation any easier because of their excessive abstractedness and their broadness in respect of particular genres of text.

The abstractedness and particularity of translation theory for a teaching situation can also be traced back to the fact that it is not empirically driven. That is, it does not stem from the needs and requirements of the relevant teaching situation. An insightful alternative for this situation is that followed in this work, where a pedagogical working hypothesis should consist of the interplay of translation theory and feedback from translation product. A continuous assessment of students' performance is therefore necessary to implement and reshape translation theory into a suitable teaching model that incorporates students' needs and the course objectives.

7.2 The Teacher

The role of the teacher is the most essential in training operation. No matter how comprehensive a course design is, the teacher will still have to interact with it and present it in the best way to achieve the course objectives. It is the teachers' skills and competence which allow a smooth and successful transition from theory to practice. Newmark (1991:130) suggests that the success of any translation course must depend 65% on the personality of the teacher, leaving all other factors that make up part of the teaching process.
with the scanty share of 35%. This is not, however, to imply an orthodox teacher-centred approach to translation with the persistent image of the teacher as, using Kiraly's (1995:99) description, "the guardian or translatory truth-keeper of 'the correct translation". On the contrary, part of the teacher's role is to de-emphasise this view.

As we have mentioned earlier, the teacher has to make students practically aware of the non-binary nature of translation when assessing their performance. Pym (1993:102) argues that, even before then, the teacher should make a distinction between mistakes and errors as the former are not to be corrected. For him (ibid.), the class should discuss errors not mistakes and only if mistakes are significant enough to prevent the text from functioning adequately should they then be corrected quickly. This quick solution does not solve the problem as far as the teaching situation under investigation is concerned. Our testees are final-year students on the verge of becoming practising translators but they still make persistent "mistakes". The persistence of the problem requires a reconsideration and review of the teaching methods and not a quick fix which is only temporary. It may be too late at this stage to rethink the methods or reteach the language skills, but it is not so for future students. Two pedagogical implications can be drawn from this situation, one in terms of assessment and the other in terms of course design.
Assessment is not a one-off operation which should be left until the end of the course. Teachers must constantly be aware of their students' progress and assessment must, therefore, follow suit. I suggest, in this respect, that assessment in translation should be formative in order to provide a continuous feedback for the teacher and the student alike about the development of the training process. Formative assessment should not, however, be conceived, Hatim and Mason (1997:200) warn us, as a series of mini-examinations of a summative kind because of the negative pedagogic implications this may generate. On the contrary, it should be basically inferred from oral discussion of trainees' translations in order to allow students to identify their own errors and/or defend their versions. Translation workshops and assessments between students in class should also be encouraged to make students aware of the plurality of translation as each individual may suggest a different translation.

Assessment should also be coordinated, if possible, with all teachers of the same class. The examination of teachers' assessments of students' errors in Chapter Six demonstrated that, although teachers' intra-consistency is relatively achieved, their inter-consistency is seriously low. This may cause confusion amongst students as to what is the primary objective of the course and what are the translation skills required. It should be noted, however, that teachers' lack of consistency may stem from the fact that the inter-rate consistency is not properly formulated.
The implications are even more detrimental as teachers, in many cases, do not recognize the errors even those pertaining to the format of the text-type being translated, despite the fact that text-typology is supposed to be their teaching model. This may be due to the fact that teachers lack either the necessary training in, or motivation for the model. For Le Féal (1996:39), this type of situation results from the existence of different contemporary theories of translation which rather adds to the confusion of both teachers and students alike and the lack of well-trained professional teachers especially in the field of error analysis.

In fact, every translation course must have a syllabus which clearly defines the teaching method and its theory of translation if applicable. Therefore, the idea of different teaching theories is not an issue here; the lack of well-trained teachers is. Most translation teaching studies (e.g. Newmark 1991, Pym 1993, Kiraly 1995, Campbell 1998) agree that the translation teacher must preferably be a translator as well. This should also be reflected in the training process because as Wilss (1992:395) points out,

...a closer cooperation between translation teaching on the one side and translational practitioners on the other is imperative in an attempt to combine the systematic features of formal translation teaching with the practical advantages of collecting translational experience by on-the-job training, on the basis of translator-trainee-tailored apprenticeships of one sort or another.
This is neither the case in the situation of Gatyounis University nor it is in most institutions elsewhere. But qualified teachers can be well assisted by a comprehensive course design in which the teaching methodology, the course objectives and assessment procedures are clearly set out.

An active interaction of the teacher with the course design is still essential. The persistence of "mistakes", for example, suggests that they should be catered for within the design, contrary to claims stating that teaching languages should not be part of a translation course (e.g. Nord in Pym 1993:107). If the principle of teaching translation is applied to the present situation in Gatyounis University, we will end up chasing an unattainable goal rather than aiming at a tangible objective. Pym (1993:103) offers a more realistic view than Nord's, suggesting that both language and translation should be taught but in separate classes: a translation class which allocates its entire time for the discussion of errors and a language class which works towards the elimination of linguistic mistakes.

It is true that we cannot teach translation unless the bilingual competence of the students is adequate, and since it is not, it cannot be simply left out. But Nord's advice against teaching languages is no less founded. For her, the language class is a consumption of time that should be devoted to translation skills which are the primary objective of the course. Translation students are expected to have control over the languages they translate into and from.
The way out of this controversy in our situation is, as reported before, to divide the course into two teaching stages of four years altogether. In the first, linguistic and bilingual competence is emphasised using a comparative approach in order to predispose the students theoretically for the next stage where translation skills must be emphasised. It is during this first stage that students build awareness, on the basis of a comparative approach of cross-linguistic and cultural variation. The teacher's encouragement of students to use their own initiative to deal with these variations is crucial for both of them (students and teachers). The students get to know that there is not always one straightforward solution for every problem which only the teacher can provide. They become aware that solutions are to be sought from the meaning the student/translator makes of the type of situation and text to be translated and often not from the teacher.

At the same time, by giving place for students' initiative, the teacher can gather informative and comprehensive feedback about the students' needs and how these are or should be catered for within the course design especially in the second stage of the course. Equally important, students must be introduced during this first stage to such translation-aiding materials as the computer and the dictionary. If financial resources do not allow the use of computers as in the case of Garyounis University, students should be taught how to use dictionaries for translation purposes. Through analysis of the students' translation errors, we have identified those that are due to the wrong use of the
dictionary. Sometimes, they simply pick up the first choice offered by the bilingual dictionary even when they are uncertain about its meaning. Students must be taught that the choice of a lexical item has to be in harmony with its context. Students may have recourse to the dictionary when reading the ST as well as when looking for an equivalent in the TL; harmony must be respected in either case. The ST harmony, as Kussmaul (1995:105) points out, is achieved if the definitions found in the SL monolingual dictionary fit into the context. A way of testing this harmony is by substituting the definitions for the words in question. The TT harmony, on the other hand, is achieved if the equivalents found in bilingual dictionaries can be used within their target context to express the meaning desired to be conveyed. This also implies that when students are not certain about the meaning provided in the bilingual dictionary, they must have recourse to the monolingual dictionary.

But there are other cases where a problem arises with the monolingual dictionary itself or when the bilingual dictionary does not provide an equivalent which is in harmony with the TT. Students must be encouraged in this context to perform an analysis of the text to eliminate the confusion and extract the required meaning of the word from its co-text and/or retrieve a relative context equivalent available from their knowledge of the TL. By the end of the first stage, students must have the required linguistic and bilingual competence for a translation, and the teacher should have the necessary feedback from his/her students to teach them translation skills in the next
stage, although a continuous assessment of the teaching tools in the light of the students' progress will always be essential. By the end of the second stage trainees are expected to achieve a high standard of proficiency allowing them to qualify as professional translators or pursue higher education.

7.3 Further Research

It is axiomatic that this thesis cannot provide solutions to all the problems and issues raised in it. Therefore, future research must be conducted to explore the area of assessment of translators' performance in order to provide the pedagogical base necessary to satisfy students' needs and specify the appropriate teaching measures.

On the basis of a broad EA and error assessment, we have identified a number of problems relating to both students' use of language and teachers' assessment of their trainees' performance. We discovered the need for training of teachers in text typology as a teaching model, and in error analysis as a practice for the identification of the students' needs. The insights gained from this study, as far as the relevant teaching situation is concerned, lead to advising a two-stage course design. The first stage is preparatory and serves to strengthen the students' language competence while the second emphasises their translation skills. The basic teaching approach underlying our proposed course design for this stage is text-typological based on our findings which go hand-in-hand
with Güllich and Raible's idea that different text-types place different demands on the translator (in Hatim and Mason 1997:181).

As to the trainees' competence, I concur with Mackenzie (1998:15) in that they need not to be linguistic geniuses to be translators. The real need is for teachers to identify and make their students recognise where their skills are lacking, when support is needed and what measures are to be taken to deal with such issues. Error assessment provides this training framework as it gives teachers the tool to monitor the progress of their students and the appropriateness of their teaching model. Teachers should, therefore, be well enough trained to be able to identify and assess students' errors in line with the course objectives. It is suggested that this is possible by their being able to demystify text-type forms through the application of a broad view of text linguistics that incorporates insights from other models of translation.
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Appendix I

QUESTIONNAIRE

Personal Data:
Evaluator .................................................................
Teaching Experience ................................................. years
Degree(s) or other qualifications ..................................................
Gender .................. Age  ..................
Marital Status .............................................................

This questionnaire follows an elaborate examination of trainees' errors in translation. Its purpose is to incorporate the teacher's view of error evaluation into our own analysis.

The following samples are taken from the translations of four texts by Year Four undergraduate trainees at Garyounis University, Benghazi, Libya. The samples involve different types of errors which you are kindly requested to evaluate. You will find enclosed the four source texts.

Please circle as appropriate using the following scales for your evaluation

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Scale one</th>
<th>Scale two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marginal error</td>
<td>Semantics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly serious error</td>
<td>Stylistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serious error</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very serious error</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disastrous error</td>
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Prepared by:
RAMADAN AHMED MEGRAB
UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS
JULY 1996
A. Extracts of Arabic-English Translation: Text One (Journalistic)

Sample 1, Text One, lines 30-31

The Egyptian attitude expressed to the Arabic and Islamic community which will not tolerate any more for the Western silence on the Israeli nuclear weapon.

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Sample 2, Text One, line 28

...it refuses the search for its chemical weapons or the subject of chemical weapons in the Middle East.

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Libya still refuses to extradite its two suspects in the accident of Pan Am explosion over Scotland.

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The United States adopted a leading role to Egypt since the Egyptian-Israeli peace treaty.

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Sample 5. Text One, lines 15-16

Egypt's leading role which she played many times in both ancient and contemporary Arab history has consolidated its open-door policy.

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B. Extracts of English-Arabic Translation: Text Two (Argumentative), Text Three (Expository), and Text Four (Instructive)

Sample 6, Text Three, lines 1-3

...he seized what lay around him to fashion it into tools with which to hack, carve, pound and sew his way through life.

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302
Sample 7, Text Four, line 1

How to treat your wart, verruca, corn or callus.

كيفية معالجة تآكل القدم وغيرها.

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Sample 8, Text Two, lines 21-22

...what raised eyebrows was not the loss of the satellites but Russia's inability to replace them.

...وما اثار الدهشة ليس فقط فقدان الا قمار الصناعية بل عجز روسيا على استبدالهما.

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303
If the affected area is on the sole of the foot, cover it with an adhesive plaster.

إذا كانت المنطقة المصابة في أسفل القدم فضع عليه شريطًا لاصقًا

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Sample 10, Text Three, line 6

...before that trial and error will suffice.

وقبل ذلك فان المحاولة و الخطأ ستتفق بالغرض.

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Sample 11, Text Four, lines 10-12

Treatment can take up to twelve weeks for resistant lesions.

من الممكن أن تتطلب المعالجة اثنتي عشرة اسبوع للاضرار المقاومة

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Sample 12, Text Two, lines 2-3

Ever since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world Sputnik, Gagarin and the space station Mir appeared to have fallen too,...

فمنذ انهيار الشيوعية ، تلك الهيئة التي قدمت للعالم القمر الصناعي سبوتنيك ، فقد جر خلفه انهيار جاجارين والمحطة الفضائية مير.

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Sample 13, Text Four, line 39
Replace the cap tightly.

Comments:

Sample 14, Text Three, lines 14-15
...the researchers presenting it can use that knowledge to build new properties into matter.

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Sample 15, Text Two, lines 22-23

In the wake of the Mars debacle...

في اعقاب فشل رحلة الفضاء الى المريخ...

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Sample 16, Text Two, lines 1-2

For the Russian space programme, the comeback was supposed to begin last month.

كان من المتوقع فان برنامج الفضاء الروسي بدأ في العودة الى الوراء من الشهر الماضي

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Sample 17, Text Three, lines 4-6

It is only when you make materials from scratch that knowing why things as they are begins to matter,…

اننا عندما نقوم بصنع شيء من لا شيء فاننا نتعلم لماذا صنع هذا الشيء اما قبل ذلك فلا نتعلم شيئا عن المادة الخام

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Sample 18, Text Four, line 8

Every night, soak the affected area(s) in warm water.

ااعمر كل ليلة المنطقة المصابة في مياه دافئة.

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Sample 19, Text Three, lines 8-11

...they have developed a wide field of material science that seeks to explain what arrangements of matter at a microscopic level give rise to the properties of substances.

Comments:

Sample 20, Text Three, line 23

This metallic glass provides a combination of strength and flexibility...

Comments:
Read carefully and translate the following passage into English:

1. It is suggested that the American-Egyptian relations are much better than during the Suez Crisis...
2. The United States have a role to play in preventing the spread of American-Syrian relations. The U.S. and the
3. In the past two years, $2 billion of American military aid, in cooperation with the military, has led to the
4. Billions of dollars were approved by America, a major power, and the government.
5. The second point is the United States' political role in the Egyptian-American relations, which has
6. The truth is that the United States has approved billions of dollars to support the Egyptian-American
7. The United States recently approved several billions of dollars to support the Egyptian-American
8. The United States is a country that has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American relations,
9. An example of the United States' role in Egypt, which has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American
10. The United States has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American relations, which has
11. The United States' role in Egypt, which has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American
12. The United States has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American relations, which has
13. The United States' role in Egypt, which has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American
14. The United States has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American relations, which has
15. The United States has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American relations, which has
16. The United States' role in Egypt, which has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American
17. And there are several factors that contribute to the deterioration in the relations between Egypt and the
18. The United States has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American relations, which has
19. The United States has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American relations, which has
20. The United States' role in Egypt, which has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American
21. The United States' role in Egypt, which has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American
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24. The United States' role in Egypt, which has been a constant member of the Egyptian-American
25 موقفها من الحكومة الإسرائيلية. أما ما يتعلق بتآزر العلاقات الأمريكية-المصرية فيتعلق بموضوع
السلاح النووي الإسرائيلي. وكانت مصر قد ابلغت الحكومة الأمريكية أنها ترفض بحث سلاحها
الكيميائي أو موضوع السلاح الكيميائي في الشرق الأوسط من دون ربطه بالتسارع النووي
الإسرائيلية التي لا تتقدم المسؤلون الأمريكيين الذين يجولون الكرة الأرضية بحثا عن إثبات
وجود ابحاث نووية. وعبر الموقف المصري عن احتجاج عربي واسلامي لم يعد يتحمل الصمت
العربي عن السلاح النووي الإسرائيلي.
Text Two: Argumentative
Time Allowed: Two Hours
The use of a dictionary is permitted

Read carefully and translate the following passage into Arabic:

1. For the Russian space programme, the comeback was supposed to begin last month. Ever since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world Sputnik, Gagarin and the space station Mir appeared to have fallen too, with slashed budgets leading to fewer launches and worried whispers in the international community that even those missions were dangerously underfinanced. Lately, however, Russia has been funnelling all its space resources into the launch of its Mars 1996 probe, an unmanned spacecraft designed to orbit the red planet, dispatch a quartet of landers to the surface and, perhaps most important, return the country to the spacefaring pre-eminence it once enjoyed.

11. But last month, the grand promenade to Mars turned into a near earth lob shot, when a booster malfunction sent the spacecraft plummeting back to earth shortly after its launch. For a time it looked as if the craft was going to hit Australia, endangering it not just with debris but also with the 270 grams of plutonium it was carrying as a power source. That disaster was averted when the ship sailed past the continent and plopped ignominiously into the Pacific.

18. A few days later, Russia sustained a less conspicuous public relations blow when officials admitted that two of the country's spy satellites had recently fallen from orbit, leaving the military without any space-based reconnaissance capabilities. What raised eyebrows was not the loss of the satellites but Russia's inability to replace them. In the wake of the Mars debacle, this was enough to cause observers inside Russia and out to wonder aloud just how deep the space programme's troubles run and whether any technological solution can fix what ails it.
Read carefully and translate the following passage into Arabic:

1. Man was ever a materialist. Right from the start he seized what lay around him to fashion it into tools with which to hack, carve, pound and sew his way through life. But as he did so, he had little understanding of why each had particular strengths and weaknesses. Nor did he need it. It is only when you make materials from scratch that knowing why things are as they are begins to matter; before that, trial and error will suffice.

7. The array of materials around today shows that trial and error has done pretty well. But scientists, of course, are not satisfied with it. In the past century they have developed a wide field of material science that seeks to explain what arrangements of matter at a microscopic level give rise to the properties of substances. This knowledge has its practical side. When scientists gathered at the California Institute of Technology (Caltech) last month to hear about its work in material science, it was not just the knowledge that drew them; it was the fact that the researchers presenting it can use that knowledge to build new properties into matter.

16. One of the materials they have been working on is glass. Glass is extremely hard and can be shaped fairly easily, encouraging scientists to look for ways to use its strength while eliminating, or getting round, its tendency to shatter. The usual way to toughen glass, developed in the 1920s, is to draw it into fibres that can reinforce other materials. A different approach was on display at Caltech in the form of a handful of shiny lozenges cooked up in the material-science laboratories. These lozenges were glasses, but were made of metal. This metallic glass provides a combination of strength and flexibility nothing else can match.

25. The fact that these lozenges are called glass demonstrates the differences between the way normal people and scientists think about materials. To most people glass is transparent and made of sand. To scientists glasses are solids with no internal order to the arrangement of their atoms.
Read carefully and translate the following passage into Arabic:

1. How to Treat Your Wart, Verruca, Corn or Callus

2. Directions for Use

3. Before initial use, carefully remove and discard the white ring from the Salactol bottle.

4. One daily application

5. You should apply Salactol once every night to your wart, verruca, corn or callus in order to achieve success. Treatment can take up to twelve weeks for resistant lesions, so you must persevere.

6. Every night, soak the affected area(s) in warm water for 2-3 minutes.

7. Dry thoroughly with your own towel.

8. Gently rub away any loose hard skin from the surface of the wart, verruca, corn or callus with a piece of pumice stone or manicure emery board, used only for this purpose.

9. Carefully unscrew the cap of the bottle and, using the applicator attached to the inside of the cap (see illustration), apply a few drops of the paint to the affected area, allowing each drop to dry before the next one is applied. Take care to avoid spreading onto surrounding normal skin. Any surplus spreading onto surrounding skin should be wiped off with cotton wool.

10. Replace the cap tightly.

11. If the affected area is on the sole of the foot, cover it with an adhesive plaster.

12. This enhances absorption of the active ingredients and, for warts and verrucas, helps prevent the virus from spreading. Elsewhere treated areas need to be covered.

13. Leave for 24 hours and repeat the procedure every night after first removing any plaster.

14. Remember your wart, verruca, corn or callus may take some time to disappear completely - you must persevere with your treatment.

26. Warnings

27. Keep away from the eyes and mucous membranes.

28. Salactol should not be used on the face.
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TEXT IN ORIGINAL IS CLOSE TO THE EDGE OF THE PAGE
Appendix II  
Students' translations  
of Text One

All agree that the American-Egyptian relations were in harmony and cordiality in more than a decade. The U.S. has adopted a peace-keeping for Egypt since the Israeli-Egyptian peace convention. However, Egypt resources yearly about $2.2 billion, as economic and military help, as well as, about $17 billion as adopts the America has wiped off, during the Gulf war, Egypt. Officials expressed their serious concern about what they believed in a concentrated campaign in the America press against Egypt, and its interests. And the Egyptian president denounced that, after the late, the adviser of the president Mubarak, has confirmed that Egypt is not the country expressing his establishment or the campaign's time, the time of the campaign.

What is called a campaign against Egypt itself; unusual thing. However, the Israeli's patrons act to cease their attacks of the Egyptian friendship. Claiming that Egypt is the everlasting friend of America, because its political stability. The Israeli's patrons distributed for the Hosni Mubarak's leadership has fulfilled an open door policy within Arab world countries, which put an end to the conflict; degrees of Camp David. So Israeli's patrons wished to keep continuing its isolation policy toward decrease its political independence and its freedom in the negotiation movements. The open door policy of Egypt, has strong the leading role which it has played several times in the Arab context, and ancient history of Israel... rely on the isolation of Egypt to build an stable policy.
A2

In the case by which Egypt would sell nuclear weapons or the Israeli strategic interests.

However, there are many factors that caused the last goodwill in the American-Egyptian relations. There are reasons why the U.S. expressed its clear concern about the closeness between Libya and Egypt. The Egyptian officials, nevertheless, also wished that Egypt would appear in Libya, for the sake of isolating the Libyan regime from the other Arab countries. The American officials believe that the intimate closeness between Egypt and Libya was unproductive; due to the continued use of Libyan rejection to extradite the two Libyans, who have been charged with the accident of the American explosion, over Scotland.

The other thing (factor) which made disturb the Americans in and outside the Congress was the Egyptian commitment to realize a total solution for the Middle East problem. The Americans keep opposing the Government of Egypt to soft its stance from Israeli Government. The deadlock of American-Egyptian relations depends on the Israeli nuclear weapons and Egypt had knowledge to the American government that it refuses to discuss its chemical weapons or the Middle East's chemical weapons without talking it with Israeli nuclear arsenal, which does not disturb the American officials, who keep touring the world, looking for evidence that proved the existence of nuclear researches.

The Egyptian stance expressed in Arab and Islamic countries that not to endure the Western ignorance of Israeli nuclear weapon.
Every one agrees that the Egyptian-American relations had a special cordiality for more than a decade. Since the Egyptian-Israeli peace agreement the US has adopted a leading role for Egypt. Egypt receives, annually, about 2-2 billion dollars of economical and military aid in addition to 7 billion debt, which US. erased in the Gulf War. Many Egyptian officials are very anxious for what they consider as campaign against Egypt's role in the region in the American press. A matter of fact many of the Americans periodicals such as (us. world and news report, magazine), have published antagonistic articles and comments carries a lot of hostility towards Egypt and its institutions. Egyptian press refuted and denounced Mr. Osama Al-Baz president. Mubarak's consul assured that Egypt is not in any case, inferior to anyone, he also expressed his surprise for the campaign. Timing: These called campaign against Egypt is not new. Israel supporters have always been making doubts about the reliability of Egypt friendship claiming that Israel, because its political stability is America's best friend. The open policy that Hosny Mubarak leadership has taken, which wiped out the remains of Camp David period conflicts, worries Israel supporters. They used to acclaim the continuous, Egypt's relation for its refine its political independence and its negotiable freedom. Egypt is leading role, policy which she played many times, in both ancient and contemporary Arab history has consolidated its open door policy. Israel has relied on Egypt isolation to try. establishing a double policy in Egypt follows Israel's strategic interest.

Many factors led to the recent coldness in the American-Egyptian relations, US has expressed its clear annoyance for the continuous convergence between Egypt and Libya. Egyptian officials have always been justifying their relation with Libya by attracting Libya towards moderation and non-intervention. USA, however, wished for Egyptian pressure upon Libya in order to isolate the Libyan regime out of his. Arabian neighbours. many American officials
believe that the Egyptian-Libyan close cooperation is a fruitless process because Libyans constant refusal to extradite its two suspects in the Pan Am explosion over Scotland.

The other things which annoyed Americans in and out congress is... The Egyptians maintain the total solution for the Middle East problem American have always pushed Egyptians government to moderate its attitude towards the Israeli government. The aggravation of a... American-Egyptian relations is caused by Israeli nuclear weapons issue. Egypt informed the American government that it refuses to discuss neither its chemical weapon nor the chemical weapon issue in the Middle East unless it is connected with Israeli nuclear arsenal which does not bother American officials at all while exploring all over the world searching for evidence of nuclear... researches...

The Egyptian position declares an Arab-Israeli... unanimity. They couldn't stand the Western silence about Israeli nuclear weapon any longer.
All people agreed that relationship between America and Egypt are enjoying for more than ten years ago with a distinguish Familiarity and friendship.

The United States took a leading role for Egypt since the Israeli-Egyptian of Peace convention. Egypt receive about two billion dollars from the economic and military sides and in addition about seven billion dollars from the indebtedness which obliterated during the Gulf War. The officails Egyptian showing their worse abut the American press campaign against Egypt and its role in the zone the fact that alot of American press had Journal magazine world and news reports which carried coming again Egypt and its interest.

The Egyptian press answered and Osama Al-Baz' the advisor of President Mubarak confirm that Egypt doesn't Follow any country.
and he was wondered about the timing of campaigning.

That what is called a campaign against Egypt is not a new matter to the Ismaeli followers. They are starting it to secure the friendship relation between Egypt and America, they maintained that Ismaiel is the only friend for America because its political stability.

Ismaiel followers are worried about the command of Mabarek which to following an opening line in the Arab world, and this obliterated the disputed which its result from (Camp dels Stafe).

Ismaiel followers liked the political isolation for Egypt because it weaken its political independence and its free negotiations movement, and supported the leaders of Egypt which it was played many times in the modern and old Arabic history.
Israel defend anti Egypt isolation
in attempt to establish double
policy in the zone which will binds
Egypt with the Israeli strategic area.

There are several factors caused the
American Egyptian relationship to be
weaken where America showed dislike
to the good "Egypt-Libya relationship."
The Egyptian officials declared that this
relationship will bring Libya to be moderat.
But America wanted of an Egyptian
pressure on Libya to isolate the Libyan
regime from the Arab sphere.
American officials believe that this close
relationship between Libya and Egypt did not
succeed because Libya still requires to sy
hand over the accused persons in Pan Am
explosion overotland.

The second matter which troubled the
American in the Congress and outside is:
the undertaking of Egypt settle the
Problems of the Middle East

The American government perceived the Egyptian government to be lean with Israeli military assistance. What caused the conflict between America and Egypt is the Israeli nuclear weapons. Egypt informed America that Egypt refuse to discuss the chemical weapons if Egypt or the subject of chemical weapons in the Middle East without being connected with Israeli nuclear weapons, which doesn't worry the America officials who travel the earth looking for proofs of nuclear researches.

The Egyptian position represents the Arab Islamic countries, as they opposed with the silence of the West towards the Israeli nuclear weapon.
2. All agreed of that American and Egyptian relationship please with special friendship century ago. The United States has been embrace Egyptian leader role since Egyptian peace convention.

Egypt yearly has received 2.2 million from Amric as economic help aside of military aid. Amric has removed about seventeen million of Egyptian debt through Gulf war.

Egyptian charge represented their worries from which they believed that concentrate campaign of American press against Egyptian role in the world. In fact that many of American printing like [New York Times, and world and news report] they published cassies and communists carrying point to Egyptian side's advantage. Egyptian press is replied by top and American Dick president his position, it cluster confirmed that Egypt never be indicate any one and be represented his surprise as campaign time.
To direct Libya to the moderation and solution of the political depression in which it finds itself, the government of the United States is calling upon the world to recognize the position of the Government of Libya and to cooperate in bringing about a solution of the problems which are involved.

It is the policy of the United States to encourage the development of friendly relations with Libya and to support the efforts of the Libyan people to achieve a better understanding with other nations.

The United States recognizes the importance of Libya in the world and is willing to cooperate with Libya in the solution of the problems that arise from the political depression in which it finds itself.

The United States is committed to supporting the efforts of the Libyan people to achieve a better understanding with other nations and to promote the development of friendly relations with Libya.
But U.S.A were hope Egypt pushed upon Libya
not the goal of that to depositing Libyan
system from the environment of Arab
American charges belief that strong approach
between Egypt and Libya. It didn’t give
a result the evidence of that continuous
Libyan against of suspected hand down
who were suspected in the explosion occurrence
of DAMAL plane over scotland.
and to cause which disturbed American people
in the congress and out of it, that Egyptian
crisis engagement of completely rule of amid east
problem. American people were continuously
pushing upon Egyptian government to suppling
its situation from Saudi government. But
about American and Egyptian relationship crisis
It is about Saudi nuclear weapon subject
Egypt can been referred American government
It’s prefer is unknown state weapon or so,
chemical weapon subject in the midst east
without including Saudi nuclear arsenal
which did not is the demo of America
charges who involving all the world researched
for exact evidence of nuclear research
Egyptian stand It express about Egyptian and Arab’s essentially
East silent it can’t be off about Saudi nuclear
weapon
All agree that the relation between U.S.A and Egypt remained
for more than decade by due continuity
and cordiality.

The U.S.A has adopted a policy leading Egypt
role since Egypt since Egyptian-Egypt
peace treaty.

Egypt receives almost 62.5 billions as economic
and military assistance in addition 6.7 billions
dollars which U.S.A cancelled in Gulf war.

Many Egyptian officials expressed extreme anxiety
who thinking that is a consistent American press
campaign against Egypt and its role in the
region.

As matter of fact, there are number of
American printed (such as U.S world and news report)
published articles and comments which carry
hostility against Egypt and its interest.

The Egyptian press rehabilitated sensitivity
also the consultant of president Mubarak
Osama AlBarq answered that Egypt
not participated showing his discretion
of the theme in press campaign

What is named press campaign against Egypt
The support of Euzil was hoping that the political isolation with Egypt would continue because it decreased its political independence and its own moment negotiation. Egypt opens the achievement in leading role which was played many times in the Arab world and nation. Euzil was dependent to isolation of Egypt in trying to establish double political in the case to make Egypt follow with Euzilian strategy interest. There are many factors leading to total cleanness in Egyptian American relation whereas U.S.A was clean worry for the continual approaching between.
Egypt and Libya. The Egyptian-Algerian conflict—still justifying the reclusion of Libya—has attempted to attract Libya to moderation and tradeability, but U.S.A. was to pressure against Libya in good to isolate Libyan regime away of Arab States.

American officials thinking that closer approaching didn't give its result with evidence continuation relying delivering suspected in explosion Bamakover Scotland.

The second matter, which discussed. American in the Congress about if it is the Egyptian desire for complete solution of middle-East problem.

American was continued visits on Egyptian government to listen to its position about Egyptian government about the criticism of American—Egyptian relationship. It being nuclear arm of Evil Egypt was informed American government that it reacing discuss its chemical arm subject or any chemical arm subject in middle East which attempt connect it with Egyptian nuclear arsenal which
which alerting American officials
who are traveling around the world looking
of evidences about nuclear researches.

Egyptian position expressing unanimously
of Arab and Islamic countries stand:
western silence on unclear arm of

Ezril...
Everyone agrees that the American-Egyptian relations have been especially close and friendly for more than a decade. For the United States, it has adopted a positive role for Egypt since the 1967 Israel-Egyptian peace transaction. Every year, Egypt receives about 2.2 million dollars of economic and military aid, in addition to the restoration of debts worth 7 billion dollars, after the only war. Egyptian officials are showing their deep concern of what they think is a concentrated crusade against Egypt and its role in the region in the American press. The truth is that several elements of American relations - like the U.S. aid and military support - have a political attitude and committment which are not only for Egypt and its interests. Accordingly, the Egyptian press in its own condemnation of this reaction. President Mubarak's advice, Mr. Usama El-Bagy, also confirmed that Egypt doesn't depend on anyone, securing his stance at the time of this crusade.

The so-called crusade against Egypt isn't surprising now, for Israel since 1986 has been swimming the bodies of Egyptian friendship claiming that Israel alone is America's permanent friend because of its political stability; and what worried Israeli's supporters is that Mubarak's leadership has fallen into an open policy toward the Arab world which caused the prejudice of the "Camp David" period, or they preferred that Egyptian political isolation continued because it reduces its political independence and the freedom of its negotiation movement.

Egypt's openness has concluded the role it has played many times in the Arab and modern history, and Israel was depending on Egyptian's isolation in an attempt to establish a double policy in the region opening Egypt with the-existing strategic interests.

There are many factors which led to persuade on the Egyptian-American relations lately - as the United States secured clear assurance to the continuing closeness between Libya and Egypt. Egyptian officials continued admiring the relation under the slogan of attracting Libya towards rationalism and keeping up with the United States wanting Egyptian pressure on Libya in order to escalate the Libyan leadership from the Oil and surroundings.
American officials think that the close relation between
Libya and Egypt hasn't showed any results and the prospects
that is the Libyan objection to surrender the two suspects
of the Pan Am plane explosion over Scotland, and the
second thing that bothered the American Congress is the Egyptian insistence on the complete solution to the problem in the
Middle East for the American government to retain its attitude
towards the Israeli government; and as for what concerns
the re-application of the American-Egyptian relations is related
to the issue of the Israeli nuclear weapons. Egypt has
informed the American government that it objects to search
its chemical weapons and the issue of chemical weapons
in the Middle East without involving it with the Israeli
nuclear arsenal that doesn't bother the American officials
who roam the globe looking for proven of nuclear research.
The Egyptian attitude expresses Arab and Islamic unanimity
that cannot bear the Western science towards the Israeli
nuclear weapons
All agree that the American-Egyptian relations enjoyed more than one decade with a distinguishing similitude and cordiality.

The United States adapted a good role for Egypt since the Egyptian forces treated and Egypt received 72 million in yearly economic and military helpings in addition to seven billions in loan deferrals vehicles.

American sentiments during the Gulf war and Egyptian responsibilities show their very anxiety about what they think is a concentrate campaign in American press against Egypt and its role in the zone.

Indeed, several numbers from American copies (like U.S. News, any expert magazine) politically attacks and comments which is called enemy against Egypt and its interests and the Egyptian press answered refractory.
and the Hosni Mubarak, president's advisor (Osama El-Baz) confirmed that Egypt is not follower to anyone and he showed his surprising fervent campaign time.

What is called a campaign on Egypt is not new. Israel followers are still bumbling about Egyptian's friendship pretending that Israel only is a constantly friend for America for its political stability.

Israel followers are worry about Hosni Mubarak leadership which take an opening line to the Arab world.

So it puts an end to disputes the stage conflicts of (Camp David) Israel followers were liking to continue political relation to Egypt for this decreased from its political independence and its movement negotiatinal freedom.
what supported Egypt in earlier role that it played in several times in
the Arabic history, contemporary and
in the past
Israel had depended on Egyptian isolation
trying to build towards political
in the zone which Egypt is
followed with strategic Israeli interests
there are other factors caused
by the past peaking in the relations
between America and Egypt.
whereas United State showed its
clear disturbance for a constantly close
between Libya and Egypt.

Deputy president Egyptian declared that
relation to attract Libya toward
moderate and terminating but United State
was willing to first Egypt on Libya
to isolate the Libya order about
its dispute surrounding.

Some responsible think that the strong
close between Egypt and Libya didn't
give its point for Libya continued refusing
its accusations for a plane exploding accident.
The second matter which disturbed Americans inside the congress and joint is the Egyptian settle with inclusion solution for the problem of Middle East. Americans were pressing constantly on the Egyptian government to learn its situation from Israel government. But what caused complicating the American Egyptian relations is the Israel nuclear weapon and Egypt had told the American government that it was refusing research its chemical weapon or the chemical weapon subject in Middle East without connect it with the Israel nuclear atomic which didn't rest the American responsibles who travelled around the world to look for peace nuclear researches existence.

The Egyptian situation expresses about Islamic Arab majority, it can't afford the western silence about the Israel nuclear weapon.
All agree that America-Egypt relations are enjoyable for more than a decade of time by distinguished familiarity and cordiality. The United States has adopted a proven role in the region since Israel-Egypt peace treaty. Egypt has received annually about 2.2 $ billion from economic and military contributions. In addition to 4.5 $ billion from the debts which America had granted to the Egypt during the Gulf War. Egyptian officials also think this strange and asks for what they think it is a concentrated press campaign on the American press against Egypt and its role in this area. The true is the number of American printed matter (like the US weekly News and American Report Magazine) had published essays and commentaries carrying serenity to the Egypt and its interests. The Egyptian press welcomed the criticism as the chance to change the President Mubarak.

Mr. Osama Al Hay confided that Egypt was not subordinate to anyone and he demonstrated his astonishing for the time of this campaign.

That's what called the press campaign on Egypt is not new. The leaders of Israel are still doubting the solidity of Egypt friendship; they alleged that Israel along with their being friend to the America because of its political stability. The Israelis backs on[doubt about the impact of Egypt which to the Arabic World which is the House of Mubarak.
... proceed of which removed the precipitate of disagreements in the stage of Camp David. The Israel backers, were appalled the continency of isolationism on Egypt. Because this will definitely from its policy, independence, and from the freedom of its negotiating activity. The Egyptian pentagon consolidated the leading role which it has been played for several time in the Arab history, ancient and the contemporary Israeli was released on Egypt isolation in an attempt to seek double policy in this area to make Egypt to following the Israel strategy interests. There are many factors caused to the last language in Egyptian American relationship. The US show clearly displeased from the Centrist Convergence between Egypt and Libya. The Egyptian official soon justify this relation under slogan attraction of Libya to be moderate and leftist Thurwa. US was willing that the Egyptian pressure on Libya in order to separate Libyan regime from the Arab surroundings and the American argued, urging that the close convergence between Libya and Egypt give no its justice by evidence of Continente refuse Libya to extradite their accusers in exploding accident of bin M airplane over Scotland. This second matter which disturb the American and outset the Congress in the Egyptian adherence of Comprehensive Solution to the Middle East problem.
Americans have continually pressed on Egyptian government to soften its attitude from Israeli government. In respect of aggravation of Egyptian-American relations, one related with the Israeli nuclear aims. Egypt was informed American government that it refused the discussion of its chemical arm as a subject of chemical arms in the Middle East without connected with Israeli nuclear arsenal which caused unrest. American officials shaping whom itinerary in the world seeking to evidence of occurrence to the nuclear researches. The Arab's attitude expressed to the Arab and Adams ownership that will not endure any more for the western silence on the Israeli nuclear arms.
Everyone agrees that the American-Egyptian relations has marked, for more
than a decade, with a distinguished friendship, the United States adopted a leading
role for Egypt since the signing of the Egyptian-Israeli Peace Convention. Every year
Egypt is receiving 2.2 billion dollars as economic and military assistance, in
addition to a debt of seven billion dollars, were obligated by the United States
during the Gulf War. Egyptian officials were seriously concerned at what they think
it is a concentrated American press campaign against Egypt and its role in the
Middle East. In fact, some of the American papers (such as U.S. World and News
Report magazine) wrote articles and comments full of hostility against Egypt and
its interests. The Egyptian press, reply was criticism President Mubarak counselor
Mr. Osama Al-Baz also confirmed that Egypt is not subordinate any other state,
showing his astonishment for the timing of the campaign.

"What’s called a campaign against Egypt is not new. Israel supporters are still
causing doubts about Egypt friendship, liability, predicting that only Israel is the
permanent friend of America for its political stability. They were disturbed for
own policy that Hosni Mubarak leadership pursued in the Arab world which
eliminated the disagreement impressions of Camp-David stage and they were preventing
the continuation of political isolation of Egypt because it is reducing its political
independence and its negociation activity freedom. The open policy of Egypt sustained
its leadership role which Egypt played several years in the old and contemporary Arab
litany, Israel was relieved even isolating Egypt in a key to establish a double policy
role in the Middle East. To attach Egypt to strategic Israeli interests.

There are many reasons that conclude to dented flexibility in the American-Egyptian
relations whereas the United States express its obvious inconvenience about the continual
approachment between Egypt and Libya. The Egyptian officials were still justifying the.
The relaid under the main of Monika, Libya, normalisation, and flexibility, but
the United States, withdrew, a major power to isolate the Libyan regime. Egypt
and Libya, despite efforts to maintain the integrity of Libyan opposition to deliver
The second thing which divided the Americans in and out of Congress is the Egyptian
influence with the absolute solution of the Middle East crisis, because they were unwilling
to try to bring the Egyptian government to deliver its will against the Israeli government.

The tension between the Egyptian government and the Americans was in fact, in a way, the
Egyptian-American relations. This was one of the problems that was not discussed with the subject of the
chemical weapons in Egypt or in the Middle East, without mentioning it with the subject of the
nuclear arsenal, which is not visible, the American officials who were forming the

Cubic nations and the Islamic unity of which could be the solution of that about the Israeli
nuclear weapons.
All agreed that American-Egyptian relations were on good terms for more than a decade. United States adopted pioneer role toward Egypt since the Israeli-Egyptian peace convention. Egypt annually receives about 2.2 billion dollars economically and militarily with an addition about 7 million dollars as debts which America erased during the Gulf War. Egypt officials express their worry about the concentrated campaign in American press and its role in this case. Some American, press such as United States World and News reports published articles and comments which carry enmity against Egyptian press and its interests. On the other hand Egyptian press retaliated that Amr Al-Basha, the consultant of the president Mubarak confirmed that Egypt is not a follower country to anyone, and clearing his amagment for campaign time what named a campaign at Egypt is not new thing. Israeli champions continuously advocate in Egyptian friendship claiming that only Israel is the perpetual friend for America for its political stabilization, that is why Israeli champions get worry that Hosni Mubarak command followed an open policy toward Arab world countries which cleared reciprocal disagreem of Camp David. Israeli champions desired to continue in the isolationism policy toward Egypt because it means its political independence and regional power. The open policy support the pioneer role which played many times in continuous and classical Arabic history. Israeli looks to Egyptian isolation to establish a simple policy in the area in which Egypt follows Israeli strategy interests. There are many elements that cause the last tenacity in the American-Egyptian relations that United States showed a clear difference for the closeness between

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Libya and Egypt. Egyptian officials began to form the relation
under the slogan of changing Libya towards moderation but
United States desired of support of Egypt on Libya matters to
separate the Libya system from Arab World.

American officials believe that the change in between Egypt and
Libya will no results that appears in the the continuous of Libya
neglect to extradite its suspected men in Ban American explosion
accident over Escalade. The second thing, that disturb
the Americans in aim out side the Congress in the Egyptian
obligation of complete solution for the meddles助推 proble
American suppose continuously on the Egyptian government
to flex its attitude toward the israeli government.
التمثيل النقوسي:

المادة الأولى:

التمثيل النقوسي:

المادة الثانية:

المادة الثالثة:

المادة الرابعة:

المادة الخامسة:

المادة السادسة:

المادة السابعة:

المادة الثامنة:

المادة التاسعة:

المادة العاشرة:
بالنظر إلى جميع الجوانب المرتبطة بالقضية، فإن النيابة كانت تريد أن تكون مختصرة.

أن تكون مسرعة وبشكل كافٍ.

مع ذلك يمكنني أن أرى أن هناك عدة أشياء يمكن أن تُذكر.

تحت مسقط الأشراف يبين الدلالات التي مُثارت للنقاش.

صرت القاضي وقائنا رسمياً لاسمح الله بذلك.

استُغلت أيضاً البيانات التفصيلية في هذا الإطار.

وبهذا، أعتبر أن هناك حاجة لعمل ملمع.

هذا يشير إلى ما تحدثنا إليه أثناء إجراء كل شيء.

القضية في إجبار الديمقراطية لاستخدامها في مسارها ما أشرت.

لم يكن ذلك في 1996، بل فإن القضية التي ذكرناها في مقال أول.

بالرغم من ذلك، لا يعني ذلك كله مراقبة من منظور سهلي.

يجب أن نستنير للآثري وما أكثر أهمية في هذه الورقة.

عندما يتعلق الأمر بالقضية التي كتبت فيه داها، بناءً.

قبل ذلك، الركازة أو الحفاظ على الهوية المقاومة.

الآثريون يمثلون نخبة معينة، واعتقلوا في سبيل تحقيقه.

القضية نفسها تتطلب قبولاً جماهيرياً.
لا يوجد نص يمكن قراءته بشكل طبيعي من الصورة المقدمة.
لم يتم قراءة المحتوى من الصورة المقدمة.
جاءت هذه الصفحة من خلال تحليل الصورة، لكنني لا أستطيع قراءة النص العربي. يرجى تقديم النص العربي على شكل نص مكتوب، حتى أتمكن من مساعدتك بشكل أفضل.
الاثر على علوم الحسب، لم يقم بعمل ما ينطوي على المبادرات في هذا المجال.

ولكن لم يبق من التقدم في هذا المجال الذي أطلق عليه اهتمام ذو اهتمام بالغ، فقد فشل في تحقيق أهدافه.

البحث العلمي، الذي تم تطويره وتطويره في هذا الموضوع، لم يكن هناك
سمع بناط.

وقد استنفد هذا البحث، والتي نشرت في عام 1977،، نشرت، ثم نشرت.

وبه، أيضاً، نشر بعض مسائل من الموضوع، والذي كتب:

"البحث العلمي، والذي نشرت في عام 1977،، نشرت، ثم نشرت.

وقد استنفد هذا البحث، والتي نشرت في عام 1977،، نشرت، ثم نشرت."
لا يوجد نص يمكن قراءته بشكل طبيعي من الصورة المقدمة.
كان من الافتراض ان نسعى إلى التمثيل الفي الفنا والدور،
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icultural ندرة في أتراكستان. بقيته متأخرة،

لم تصل المنتجات إلى تطوير المنتجات. حيث أن هذه المنتجات كانت متوفرة في بيئة تطوير منتجات أخرى،

وهي وسيلة في طويلة العقد.

وهي بذلك تجعل الفنون والعلوم تعرف وتتطور،

تَخْطُبْ جزئياً، لِبِدْنَةِ المَسْطُورَةِ لِلْمَسْتَعْدِرِ لِلْكَثِيرِ بِمَا وُصِبِّرَ

فَنَاكَرُونَ مِنْهَا، لِمَا لَمْ يَكُنْ نَكَرَ مِنْهَا.}

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لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي من الصورة.
هكذا تُتعца المَراء، كَمِمِسْتَعْتِه، قَسَمَتِهُ نَفْعًا، وَكَيْمَهُ شَرَعَتِه، فَمَا ضَرَبَتِ نَفْعًا، وَكَبَّرَتِهَ، وَلَسْتَ مُحَاطٌ بِهِ، وَقَدْ أَجَزَتِه، وَكَبَّرَتِهَ، وَلَسْتَ مُحَاطٌ بِهِ.
لقد كتب أحمد في يوم الامتحان:

"لا تحاول التعبير عن نفسك بأسلوب طفولي، إنما اجعل ما تقوله لهجةك واتحاشي في التعبير عن نفسك."
وبعد لوحظت وقائع المرتبطة بنظرية عالمية، فعندما مكملة خطأ ليس حقاقه يصبح المتطلبات لผลกระทب

250 مليون من الفلاحين أوهم الذين كانوا يحملون

各项工作 năngذجت المقاومة حيث اجتاحت

الحركة القارية وسعتها تباعًا في المساحة المئوية

الإيرانية، وسعتها إلى مجيء المفاوضات

العلمية حتى أفضل مسؤولين أن إنشاءه فؤاد

المحسوب عن دموق ولا يصر على هدارها لنا الماء

دون قدرات لاستدامة ثقافية، وليس لل насел

الذين الذين الشره الإيطالية، وعما في حتى تكون

روسيا على تقريرها. ولكن كالمتريدة

النابغة مستمرًا مغردًا تحت الغزاة داخل

أرضًا وحارة ما، لعبناها إهانة من مدى

حسم متداخلة المبادأ للمهمة في وعيها

إمكننا في أية حلول تكنولوجيا لمجلة الإفلاض
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي من الصورة.
طان ض المنظر من نبأ برثيم أبو أليكنا ورسى وراء عاني،

وصدر الصلاة الإبراهيمي ما زارته لاحترام الغاية.

سيبيت يشتاق بincinn وانتظار رضى دهوراً من جلالة

ابن أبي برثيم أبو أليكنا. يد طاف أم جلالة،

وتنور صعيد تغطهم من آذانها أغصان البرليم، فان هيبي مل

المجاهد النساجي. فان بما منعتي المجد، يخرج الحكماء هذه.

وتم ذلك فيما، تتسخفه ومنها مازه. لم يمس من سرور إنما ينك

ف اصل إلى الفاعليات المتعاحة. بوجز مفعلاً، يفيض خبراء.

وعلى الرزق الإلهي ملحة، الطاهروان، هني، ولد الفاروق,

الذين مرحتهم في عصر به، في موطئ له:

الضاحية

وأن ولد حنانيا يدبره الأهل، فلما علما أن كرر الحد

ثبت عليه، فليس به عامه من مبارك، جعلوا ينهزه، هربًا محبلاً، وهب

سترة هزجر من طار قاك

والمحلة لأولى لنبأ كرر، هب عمدًا، هبت صعب

فان ما رواه أستارًا معاصرة. هذه إذا تأملت

ليست محتالًا من مس، و بكل ما كيله من 270 عام

في هذه الأيام، هم من أوائل، لأعلان:

كونها رائقة

و نزده و غيزة، سارة بروسيًا عاصفة في بلاد

العربية. حساناً لمعاني الطيور، له مميزة، إنه

العصر متجد، حسب رضا، ما لم يقل، له

أيتيه البرسي، بدون أحد، ضد رمانته!

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كلاً ما احتاج أن يكون صيغته خليفة فقدانه ما قبلها في كل شيء غيره، وجعلهم فقرينًا هم وهم قد خرجوا من أراد
فعل نجاة بسبب ما فعله في الدار.
وكلما أ.rbir مثلاً فشلاً للعمل كان ذلك كاملاً لجعل
الصمت أو التسليم على مكان أو انتهائه بوحاء المنشود
فتنتشيء في نفسنا أن القصيدة الكلية أو الحديث
خلال ما كان ذلك للنص المفرد المكرومات...
من أي خيال للنص المكرون الملامسة.
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي من الصورة المقدمة. هي قصيدة أو نص درامي يحتوي على الكلمات العربية. لا أستطيع قراءته بشكل طبيعي.

360
وقد كان عليه الشيّع المغالي المولين لاجتهال المباني...

願الاتودترب دـ اـ لم نـ اـ ده ءاـ دـم عـ نـ حـ مـ

سي يخـرـيـر الفهدور ورـسـهـ يـنـ أـ محمدـهـ من اـبـاـ

جـلـلـيـسـتـةـمـ نـ كـ مـ دـ نـ رـ وـ
كانت النساء دائمًا مankindاً حسب النباتية. كان يعدهن ماء حمام معروضًا على
هن من دون قناعات. فرحتها بضحك وضحكاتها. هذه صورتها فرحتها بضحك وضحكاتها.
ومنذماً جذبت هذه النباتات إلى القناعات. فرحتها بضحك وضحكاتها.

وكان ذلك الذي بقيت في تجربة واحدة. نجح طعمها.

وبرن بالعلماء غيروا بين أكثر من القرن الماضي تجربة تجريبية واسعة. تعلم المواد، والذي يسعى لشرح ما جادته. يتطلب المواد، فإن المراد

فت المجهز وهذا العلم لديه جانب الصغر، وذلوك، مما يجعل العلماء في

حفظ كامبوسيا للتنقيحات النحوانية لرؤية عمله في مجال علم المواد.

لم يكن العلماء الذين جاذبهم. بل كانت الحقيقة بأن العلماء الذين

يعتبرون بمستويات المجالات العلمية في تشكيل خواص جديدة داخل

المواد. كناد الزجاج هو واحد المواد التي تؤثر فيها. فضو صلب وبيك تشكيك

بشكله وامتدحه.

وتوجب العلماء على هذا استعراض قواتها بينا نزلنم نزينه للكر

اء. العقليات المعتادة لجعل الزجاج قابلًا. فورت في سن 1925 (اذبي في

المستقبل) من هذا القرن.) وصاندندت. وتعتبر محتويات &#1050;

بأنه يمكنه دعم مواد أخرى

د RANDOM. في التصفية كانت هناك هذه نباتات دير باتشة من البذور

محتويات استعداد معامل علم المواد.

هذه النباتات كانت هناك تعجبًا في الفنون. بضم تركيبها في الصيانة. هذه النباتات كانت مجموعة زجاجًا. توضع القارورة بنظرية

النظام الخاص بهم. وتعاقد باختلاف المواد باللمحة النارية. فإنه الزجاج مادة

نفادية وصغيرة كحاء مثلي ما بالمناسبة لتمام. دارزاج مادة صبهره دونا

برد كفيه، منشأ رأسه.
كان الاستماع هادئاًً دائماً، نحن نحن، الصرخ، استمتعنا

لقد كيّناً هناك لم تكن هناك أي أذونات للقلوب والأرواح والأفكار، ولم نسمع

في مسيره كفاحه غيره نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن، نحن
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي الذي يظهر في الصورة. إذا كنت بحاجة إلى مساعدة في شيء ما، أرجو تقديم النص العربي بشكل واضح للتعامل معه بشكل أفضل.
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي من الصورة. يرجى تقديم النص كنص مكتوب يمكن قراءته بشكل طبيعي.
كان لله تعالى طبحة ماهياً ومذكرةً باعتباره
الحياة المكروهة كالبزول على المحلة ليصبح منصفً
كما يفعله الله تعالى بين من ينصيبون ماله
وعندما علم بذلك كشف القدر عليه من خلال تكبير، سدده
مع ثابثة الأفكار التي فرغت عليها ولم يكن في حاجة إلى أن
سير في فلادته.

انتهى ما نقله، معنى هذا الكتاب من كتاب الله.

ما يظهر من هذه السورة تتعلق بذلك من نطق جيران
الجاهل، الذي اغتنام عذبة أحلامه عنداء، وحذرهم بالمعرفة.

سيأتي ذلك من الله تعالى، لنتيجة الأفعال من الناس بالله.

الهي، بل أظهره الله تعالى تجسيداً يدريعاً على كل شيء.
ما كان وجهة هذا الكتاب، أن يبلغ الناس من جنون الله، فإن من الأسباب، عند الإجابة
عن بلور الكون في مراد والعبير، بما كان يعد خيرية
للمسلم، لا ينفيها صاحب هذا المكتوب من البشرية، بجانب
كثيراً من السادة، بما جاء من إلهام.

كذلك ما أقترحه الكتاب في مسالة الله. إنما كان كفارة
الأعمال المكروهة في الحياة الأخرى، ليس لمثل الأعمال متورط.

بسبب ما تسببته الله تعالى في العال، وناشد الله تعالى
ال дерخ إلى الله تعالى، نحن نأتي به، مع بدء اللهد،
الذي نست لهم، يستفيضه الله تعالى، بعد ما جرى،
للله تعالى، الذي أنفسه.
ление ماكماله للكتابية، إذ انتهت إلى وضعه فيتصف بروعة وبلاغ.

عَدَّتْ دُروز طرطوس حاكياً، وجهت كلامها باللغة العربية.

لم يتخرج بليغ في مسرح الكعبة، فلا تلقاه في معرفته.

خاصة في دُوَّار الدومان، تميز بالذكاء.

عانى من معاينة التمثيل العربي في تمسكه باللغة العربية.

لم يتزوج من أهل الأدبية الدينية.

لم يطةَبَّ الكاتب في تغليبه.

أنطلق أحمد المعادان في سبيله، قام باللغة العربية بأسلوبه الحرف.

 تعرض لغة التمثيل العربي لاستعفائه تفوقات الأدباء، نزلت في

الشعر وال לסجدة، نظمت عليه.

لم تتكرر الكتب نعم ظاهرين.

تعتبر هذه المكتبة لما خاتم على الخلاق، حينما احتفظ الفناء، حسبما

كان يصفه لمازلت لهما كلاً خصائصه، لكنه كان يلمس عدم ألف

اتصال مع العلماء، لم يكن فهمًا، بل كان فقط إيمانه.

كانت غيتان أن تسكنه يوم ما، فنصح ب*>::*

يمكن إظهارها لأنها تتمشى طرفًا بطرف، بعض لبعض.

لم تزوج مقام، مدعها الصيرمة بكلمته الشهيرة:

كُلُحـَا.
تم تحويل العامل للدكتور م.اسماء محمد، ثم جنتار محمد.

الدكتورة م.اسماء محمد هي مديرة لجامعة الزراعة في مصر. اتفرجت على برنامج تدريبي تم إعداده.

تعد هذه الحالة عازلة.

ذكرت حنان إضغط آخر خطط وسمح مساعدة آلها على

صلاة يومยิ่ง متحف المعهد. تم التحقيق مع سيدته د.مضد بكل مديم هو زعفران.

يجب استخدام محل د.مضد.

هناك بحوث كنست يشترطها نظرة رائعة كأنها تضرر مكروه.

معنود، ودعا إلى الزهور الصغيرة، وكان يدركها له سعادة مهةً.

ما هي جزء نهائياً من هذه.

مهنته تمزج هذه العناصر، وتعهد تعبده دينعاً يقرب من علم.

渔民 تذكر بعض الأفكار وسواها.

الليالي، وذكر أنه كان يرتجل في طبقة صغيرة ليلية، حيث لا

ينبغي أن تظلم نزلاء.
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي في الصورة. لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي في الصورة.
من مصطلحات علم النفس يستخدم في تحليل الأمراض النفسية، فهو يشير إلى حالة تسبب في الشعور بالاكتئاب والقلق. يمكن أن يكون هذا التأثير ممتدًا لفترات طويلة من الزمن.

لكن في بعض الأحيان، يمكن أن يكون تأثيره قصير الأمد، في هذه الحالة، يمكن أن يؤدي إلى الشعور بالارتباك وتغيير في المزاج. علاوة على ذلك، يمكن أن يؤدي إلى الشعور بالاكتئاب والقلق.

من المهم أن نلاحظ أن التأثيرات النفسية يمكن أن تؤثر على الصحة العامة والعاطفة، مما يؤدي إلى مشاكل صحية عديدة.

هناك الكثير من الأدوات المتاحة التي يمكن استخدامها لتحليل التأثيرات النفسية، فإنها تشمل الأساليب المختلفة التي يمكن استخدامها في تحليل البيانات وتحديد تأثير التأثيرات النفسية.

هناك أيضاً الكثير من الأدوات المتاحة التي يمكن استخدامها لتحليل التأثيرات النفسية، فإنها تشمل الأساليب المختلفة التي يمكن استخدامها في تحليل البيانات وتحديد تأثير التأثيرات النفسية.
كامل المسلمون ل[Inteligent] \كاثر

الله تعالى أدعى مالائكته من طرية يقطعون سطوراً
ربما طريفة طريقة ل الي高层次 مسيرة مع ذلك عرف المقل بن كيف لام
أنا كلها معلومة فتنة صغيرة مع إبن خاكني في عالمه
أنتم تعلمون مما تقصيه مهين أمست تعلم نائماً أو ما حدث من الكلام
أتناقل لكم المعلقةẏ مرات كأنى كنتي في الوفير، ونسى لنا الليل
يراهلنا النار التسطرها إليكم، تعلم المثلية، والأقول آدر
باد كل ضجة ماتفسير أي كن الطائر، وأحسن ما أن تعود إعلان
أنا القمر المختص، نتخرج بعد، جو لعلماً أو أن نريد
أن أخرج مذبحة تزوجت الله، لا تؤمنوا بالمكر كأننا عالمين
علي، أتى أعجم العالم فيزد كالغربي في أن عرفها
المرح المثلية، متهماً العالم، لا يمكنه البصر،
الذي يعلمه الله، استغلال، بل من مجهول، ثم التمثيل الذي يسر
الاستمال ذلك العالم لبناء مرايا المثلية،

كامل الزجاج، لكم الملء اللال عامل، شاهد كأنه كفي صحبة
يرمي ذلك كله كتكيلة بحيرة ماعقة، تلمدح الباب لينة
الملاحي، لأستغلهم كأنه بنى بئيرهم، مزيج للأنواع
المقدمة للاستغلال كأنها يبريراً، يعيه الكبيرة
لمة الأرضية، مزائدة لزوج ينيرها، ثم يذيلها للتكبير
من هنا الزجاج، كأنه ياصب إلى الالبارة مصالح
سيارة شريف كأنه تلوث، مساحة لطيفة متعالجة
باوء هي معنفة من المسارات المحررت لها، بادها من مثقال
لا يوجد نص يمكن قراءته بشكل طبيعي من الصورة المقدمة.
لا توجد نص viable يمكن قراءته بشكل طبيعي من الصورة المقدمة.
لزيج بالتحميلي للبعض، يقبل أن تكون

بصورة علنية.

ومع ذلك، للعلماء، فإن التحقق من الطرق للإركاذة عن

القرن في عيون التقدم حتى ما تبجيل تجربة عروي يٍلابلاء.

والطرق المتعددة لتحرير الزوج المطهر في الصحف.

وعلي سبيل المثال، أن نسبة التهور على بناء قرى غير ذات

آداب، عصفورية، فريدة، معدلة، هي محتوى من روح

الاستبدال في عمود خليل من الديارات المارة المتقطعة.

في مجال العلمي، الوراثة، وتحقيق هذه الديارات ثيابية.

وكان ذلك بصورة فطيرة، وفقاً رجعه هذا الطريق،

الزوج المطهر، سيرته، سيرة عمو، سيرة، أختر، جعل

على أمر.

بالتضمنة أن الديارات المتقطعة بالزوج المطهر،

التي أثرت في السلسلة تفكير الناس العاديين، وتعلق

بالطرق نهائية خليل، بالضبط في بعضهم ليست عن الزوج.

مساءً، وعذوج عن الرؤية، مليء للعائد، للزوج

عذاه صعب، ليس لها نظام داخل معين لترسيب

فرانك.
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي من الصورة المقدمة.
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي من الصورة.
علم الأعماق فلك الأسماك كان رحاذاً الألغاز

ملاحظة: هذا النص غير قابل للقراءة بشكل طبيعي.

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Students' translations
of Text Four

A

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ملاحظات:

1. عباية الأمل، وراءها الصفراء في سلسلة
2. استمرار العمل على مدار السنة
3. استمرار الظروف المعيشية

منذ إصدار الإعلان، لم يتغير شيء في الأوضاع.

نعلم ونعرف، أن الوضع الحالي لا يسمح بتحسين الأوضاع.

ومن الواضح أن الوضع الحالي لا يسمح بتحسين الأوضاع.

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5. أي رأي المصلّة سببيّة القامية سبيّة

6. إذا كان المصلّة المصالحة في مصلّة مصالحة مصلّة

7. علّق 42 سنة على إمامة اسماء كل له بعد أن لغ

8. شكرت له الراحل مسالى السماح في الصلاة الوضيع ومضامينه

9. كذب استمر في صلاة الصوم ومساء الصلاة واستمر في الصلاة

10. لا سبيل "هلال" في مصلّة المصلّة.
كيف نفصل النزول في عقيدة المفسرين?

بعض النزولات في الكتاب المقدّس لا تُفسّر بطرق تقليدية.

(بعض النزول)

لا تستغل مقالاتي!

يعتبرون اشتراك (المالك) مصدراً ضعيفاً لمعرفة العملية.

سورة واعظة هيئة العلم يشدد على أهمية المعرفة الدينية.

لذا نجد ان العديد من العلماء الحاضرين على استعمال هذه النزول باًباع

لما يمكن فهم النزول بناءً على المفسرين.

هذا ما أعتقد ان نقل العلماء من المفسرين.

من نزلاء العلماء.

내 

أنا في المحقق الرئيسي، اسألك عن مظاهر العقائد.

مما يدل على أن نزلاء العلماء لم يكونوا راسخين في المفاهيم.

وقد أجبرنا على البحث عن مبادئ العقائد باًباع.

وقد أخذنا في المثال السابق، ما يدل على أن نزلاء العلماء لم يكونوا راسخين في المفاهيم.

وقد أجبرنا على البحث عن مبادئ العقائد باًباع.
كينية معالجة تأليل الرحم وترحيب

تعليمات الاستعمال: قبل استخدام الدواء لأول مرة اتزعم

حذر الزيت البضاء من راحة السلاكترون واطرح:

استعمال الدواء مرة واحدة:

1. يجب أن تغش السلاكترون على الزولوة لترغيبا

2. في كل ليلة فهو خفيف معالج سناج، يمكن أن يستغرق

3. مدى المعالجة

4. إذا مرت اسبوع في حالة تزوله

ثابتة ولذلك ينبغي عليك ان تدأب على النفاية

1. افتح كل ليلة المنطقة المستهدفة من ساحة دافئة لمدة

2. اغطية

3. ستؤدي مسح خاصة

4. تحتوي بعضاً من اللحية انقراض ودرع ولكن تزيل ان

5. قد ماء ودرع

6. عند الزجاجة

7. بشكل متماثل للاطراف داخل

8. الباطن أضع قطرات قليلة من أقية ولا بد من ان

9. تنظير انت ثم تشن كل قطرة قبل أضع قطرة ثانية. احذر

الإشراف على البلد الصاحب المجاور وربما ان

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eyJqZCI6MjJ9

1. تَسْمَعُ إِلَى مَرَيْدٍ مِن الصَّبْغَةِ وَإِلَى الْبَلَدِ الْمُتَحَاَوِرَ بِفَضْنٍ طَيْبٍ.

2. أمَّا الْفَظَاءِ (تَحْيَٰضُهُ) فَمَن حَالَةٌ أَن تَكُنُّ المَنْطَقَةُ الْمُسْبِحَةُ مِنْ بِضَعِّ الْقُدُورِ الْعَدَّةُ شَيْأً زَالِرَةً، فَذَلِكَ إِنَّ اسْتَمْشَامَ الْمُكَرُونَاتِ الْعَلَاجِيةَ وَبِسَادَةَ نَسْطُعُ الْمُنْتَظَّارِ إِلَى فِيروْسَ، أَمَّا الْمَنْطَقَةُ الْأَخْرَى فَإِنْ لَمْ تَعْلَمُ مَعْلَمَتَهَا.

3. اْتَّرَكِ الْتَّزْوِيُّ إِلَى غَيرِهَا لَمْ دَعَتْهَا مَكْرَ عَلَاة،

4. الْمَلَعَةُ فِي كُلِّ لَبْلِةٍ بِمَرْأَةٍ أَنْزَلَتْ الْبَيْنَيَةَ الْأَزْقُرَ.

5. وَتَذَكِّرْنَا اِخْتِنَامَ الْتَزْوِيُّ التَّأَرِمُ قد بَذَّ وَقُتُّ طَوِيلً.

6. فَيَجِبُ أَنْ تَسْتَغْفِرَ فِي مَعَالَبِهَا.

7. تَحْدِيراتٍ:

8. اْحْفَظُ الصَّبْغَةُ بَعْدَ تَمْهِيدِ الْعينِ وَالْوُقْفِ

9. الْمَعَاذِيَةِ.

لا تَتَضَمِّلْ سَلَكَتْكَ عَلَى الْرُجُلٍ.

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كيف نعلم نواب اللزق؟

تطلّب الاستنكار
قبل البيد، بأسماء الميزان،يظهر ماني، اقتطع النبأ,

أغطاء ملخص البراء.

تقبُّب، لائحة زمنية، أو مسبحل، الدعوة، رمزًا:

عندما يسلط قرعة يدوية، على، سلك، معا، هناك، تؤثر توزيع تأثير،

تمشى على أنفسها، على، الألفات، الم١، الم٢، الم٣، الم٤، والخ.

 đậm الملاحة، كما، إنها.

أين كل ليلة، عليك أم ينعم المانف، مباهجة، فيه، ما هو،

من دقيقته (٤) في كل بكرة، دقة، ١،

٥٥٤، تثبت جمهور تلك الألفية، بمستندات، رسائل، بم، عليه، إزالة،

الآلاف، الهزيمة، والعقل، مع، جملة، نوافذ، تثير، تموج،

بحسب، قلقل، حزام، بكر، بسبب، تائه، ببساطة، خيال (ف. ر. مقاير).

لبن تجربة، الزوايا، فنجين، تجاع، سكنه، هذا، الحروف.

ويعود، على، أربع، خطى، الزوايا، مع، ملاحة، الألفيات، التناسي.

الجبر الخاس، في، الرئة، الإفاحة، للفض، صُدَّت، لوح، صلب، سرقت،

وبرفع، من، النافذة، للسلاسل، متحمل، أبتزاز، كل، نجاح، لأبي،

وتصدر، الأشياء، من، ما، من، السرقة، يلهم، ماهية، في، إذا ما

اصدر، ملاحة، وغيرها، ويدلى، بالثواب، النكبة، تَنْسِعه،

بصفة مع، رغبة، وعند.

وبدلاً، زكية، تتغزّب، النافذة، بإحكام.

ذُكِّرت، أنشطة، المهبل، في، السُّفاح، مع، طالب، أمر، يُكارث،

لملة، تخلت، في، عن، نسب، يدُر، بعد، اختفاء، البقاء، تُكَارث

ذُكِّرت، ملاحة، مرة، بعيد، استنكار، CORS.

وبعد، كانت، أنشطة، المهبل، في، السُّفاح، مع، طالب، أمر، يُكارث.
دعونا نتذكر أن قررنا لا ندخل الركاب في الليل.
بعد إزالة الركاب، الامتدح كل ليلة.
8. نذكر بأنه لن نزل على إجابة للاجتناب لشيئين تساهم في
أخرى.
الإجابة على الإجابة عن الإجابة.
كن على ماياه الزوايا يجب أن تكون مرتبة، وفقاً للنظام،
ولأجل الاستخدام سالكين فضحة زوجة.
كما تناولت القسم أره الشىء.
تربينت للسłamاء.
ارفتح و التي بكلفه الميقات عر رواية الجلوكسل سل.
بعد الرسالة.
السłamاء مزة راهبة من الميقات.
كما يليك استعمال الملذكسل حر راهبة كل ليلة.
سراحيماً ثم جركل القدم أو البتة دوار للوصول إلى
نقطة بالغة، ثم يمر الصلح مدة اسماجيمم وذلك
للمؤامرة بالقنا، ثم المتعز مقتبس عليه بالرشق.
ا، للنقطة المصاحبة مزء داني لحالة رحيف (النترد) داشا كل ليلة.
.9. جلب النقطة، نكملاً بالمنتهى دائم hát.
.1. عمل التقليد.
۳. هادها بلطف ازلالة البلد السليم الزارفة السليمي ودل، ما يدل على
أي الشام، دوار ذلك نقطة بسر صغر النمذ، أو بالدعا، تحلقاً.
ذو تربية وصغرة الأظزازب بيل، ومستدامة، نمل هذه العلائم.
۴. إرض خطر غنادا الزجاجة ستظهر الجدارة المنصفة، فالبنداد،
(الأنفلات الشعرية النصية).
صنع بعضه الماظرات منه الصغير هدف المنتجه للسماحة، وذلك
بأي. فلنا كريماء هناف النظرة الزهر بك، وصغ الأمل،
كما جرب مع ذلك لتقبي انتشاراً النكال على الكبار الطبيعة، ثم
الاظراف، زاد وهده سفلد سلاج، انضلى ونافذ (نافذ، نضج، نشيط،
صينية).
6. إذا كانت الحالة للمصاب من بالمرض الفيبارم تم تعليله وبراثن
لدبيس مساعيراً مع اتخاذ الإجراءات الفعالة. 
دبيس أجهزة للفحص والعلاج الدافع والفداء.
ربما تعليمه واحداً من الداعين المصاب به.
7. أترك كم母亲 42 ساعة ثم عاد واعداد الفعلين كل ليل بعد كل مرة
تريح الدماغ للمرض.
8. تذكر بأي التوقف يأخذ بعض الوقت لغفوة كاملة.
9. يجب على المداومة على العلاج.
10. بسبب إكمال المواضيع على العلاج.

البعده مع العمية روعة القصد الخاصل.
ل يوجد بدعام الساكنة خاص.
كتيب تعاليم التشريع، مهزول تقدم وتخريج
تعليمات الاستخدام
خلال استعمال الدواء. خذ مرة عنصر
العدد السابق من قنينة السلفان لارسال
استعماله مرة واحدة. مع البدء
يجب أن تجمع سلفان على الدهون أو تؤخذ
الدهون أو في حالة مرضية. كل ناقة ميزة. العلاج
رااحا. مع السهم أو تخلط تعادله مع نفس
عشرة السنين للإنترز المتاوي. حال نم أد تستجيب والعلاج
نقطع السائل صبى طلا دخى نطة دماغي
يجب عليه دخال.

ب. فعلا لحمنشان عامة
(3) نزل بإلهة. ي جلد نبض من سفحمنزورناء
نقدلا الدم والهشة بمساعدة نصفا أو نوع تدريج
ذناعر المستخدم هذا الغريج. خذ
(2) انطلق بإستعما عضاء. التقينية وعاء استعمال مستقيم
مسيم من الأجزاء داخل من المغلف (الغريج يرسم مباني)

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نعم بعض الخطرات اندماج للمنطقة نسما به واسمح لنا في عصر اSEL نوع النكهة الثانية ولكن
لا يوجد عام يعيش أي درد نال ولن ننتقل إلى الخذ الحذ.
النورن بالغمض.
ايد نطا ببشرية.
إن كانت المنطقة المهاتبة سن باص البند خلطنا
بليوم عيد يمل استخدام السنغام الكاذبة و
نسبة في التأثير مساعد على منع انتشار
النورن وليس من النورن أما نقض المناضق
الآخرين ان ميا دواء.
ارتبها لمدة أربعة وعشرين ساعة تم أعيد
عملي كأول نيلة بعد نزع اللدائن أول
ودكر أن رواب موثول لر بساتك قد يأخذ
وضع جزء ولا بد أن تتمير على العلاج.
صبر.
لا تنزل الدواء أو ينتشر في البيطر
والانتهاء الخاصية وربما ستمار سلاسل دائرة.
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كيف تمثل المخاطر بعد تغير البرمجة؟

تعميمات بالاستناد:
قبل استعمال، انظروا وحِزّروا إختام الآيتو.
سنجربة السلكات إلـ.

استعمال مرتة واحدة (لم يكن يوم)

بئـل مـيلد أن تـستخدم سـرة واحـدة كل ليلة

النـتج، الـثـرول، الشـمسفيـر النـتوء مـثير أو مـلـجـنـة.

ايجابي يطول، مـبنـدو، ـثـمـة، ـفـتـر، ـفاـتوـري،
وذلك يسبب إختلافات.

كل ليلة، انظروا ل_photos من أداء المخاطر في حالة أخذ

يدتهمين، ثم كـل مـرة دفـاع.

_ مستحيل حذـر أ(Double بالمنظفة).

_ ليست، كـل مـرة فـحص بالمنظف.

_ كـل ما، أولـي ابتدأ، المـروة، ـلـنـيو، ـمـلـجـنـة.

_ مؤـدي، سـلسلة الـبلد، أـبدـي الـمـلـجـنـة من سبع

_ النـرجو، والنـدود، من مـجر، التـضاغت، ونـجـل، المـنـشأة,

_ في تد ¬ع وصـم ضرر، وثـمة، ـمستحيل، مـثل جـد، الحـرـض

_ اختر حذـر، ـطـا، الزـراعة، مـستحيل، ـقطاع، المـكـلـة.

_ محاذر، أن تـنـقل إلى المـرـكز، التـوضـيـحة. كـل مـرة

_ التـرات، ـنـصـص، ابـتـضاع، المـتوـضح، من المـحـلـات،

_ ابـتـضاع، مـن جـبـع، ـكن مـحـرر، ـنـل كـل لـيـلة، كـن

_ الـثـيـرة، الثـيـرة، كـون، (حـلـي)، مـن الإـنـشـاء، إلـ. الـبـدـيـع،

_ مـبـحـط، النـبـي، مـبداً، ـتـصـمـم،

_ بـحـل، الفـضـلة، المـنـشأ، عـلى الحـل، المـحـيط.

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الإجابة لا تعلق

5- في عام الأغسطس، والرضاية صئمونا.

6- إذا تكون الإجهلات المتأثرة في ظروف القرم،

ستكون بالمصورة. هذا يرفع جذب الهرعات المخصبة النقلاء

و المنتجات الفضيلة والمستودع، يساعده يضع في سبيل انتشار

صحته المرضي. أما فيما يتعلق الأشخاص لا يجب

أن تعنيها.

7- أشركوا ليئة أربعة وعشرون ساعة، و

اعتبروا عملتم كله ليلة سبعة نظراً على الخشب.

8- تكدروا أن الطلب البضائع، على أي حال، قد تأكد

وقتنا في احتضان أطفال في تلك خلقت، تدأمون الهجر

في معا الجامع.

التصديرات

تتولى رفع مراد مزروع، وتحديداً في المدينة والبادية.

عدم استعمال سلالات ولحومها، نوجه...
كيفية تعلاج علاج الالتهابات المبطنة في البراز والزوائد والوزن الدقيق

تعاني الناس كثيرًا من هذه الظاهرة، لكن كيف يمكننا التعامل مع هذه المشكلة؟

1. تجنب الأطعمة الغنية بالكميات الكبيرة من الألياف، مثل الخضروات والفواكه المعدة للتنقل.
2. تجنب الوجبات السريعة، وتناول الطعام الصحي والمغذي.
3. تناول العلاج المناسب الذي قد يحتوي على مضادات التهاب مثل الستيروئيدات أو الأدوية الأخرى.
4. تجنب الوجبات التي تحتوي على الكحول أو غيره من المواد الكيميائية المبتدة.
5. تناول كميات كافية من الماء يوميًا، لتعزيز عملية التخلص من السموم والحموضة.
6. إذا كنت تعاني من التهابات المبطنة، فينصح بتناول مواد مبطنة مثل البنيوتين أو الأرفاس.

نحتاج إلى التأكد من أن نتناول الأطعمة الصحيحة ونشردها بشكل صحيح للحفاظ على صحتنا الجيدة.
السماح بسماح بعد نشر المقطع الرابع
- كم إجمالاً المدة بعد نشر المقطع الرابع؟
- السماح بسماح بعد نشر المقطع الرابع.
- السماح بسماح بعد نشر المقطع الرابع.

كما دُعيت الدولار من قبل لحفل الحفل.
- المستعمل للحفل لحفل كندة

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ليفة مفيدة للبلد.

1. بلغ المتغيرون صمتنا همهم عنيفة.
2. هل أنت على حق في هذا؟ يمكن استخدامه للرياح.
3. انتظرنا بالغارة لمدة 2 أسابيع.
4. سيكون الإخبار معتمراً.

كنا نسمع صوتاً من الأدونيس.
5. بعد ذلك، قررنا استدعى الأدوات للتو (ل不合适).
6. يوجد ساحة إفطار الأحبة عالية.
7. قد ناظر في مغزية بعضها.

إذا، لن نفتح بوابةً عرضاً للهواء.
8. نحن نتمنى أن يكون الطريق مفتوحاً.
9. لن نشاهد روحاً فيه.
10. كنا نشعر بالأدوات تدريجياً.

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