

# **Explicitation as Manifested in English into Arabic Translations of Young Adult's Literature**

**Amal Rakan Alkhaldi**

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Leeds  
School of Languages, Cultures and Societies  
Centre for Translation Studies

January, 2020

The candidate confirms that the work submitted is her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

This copy has been supplied on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement.

The right of Amal Rakan Alkhaldi to be identified as Author of this work has been asserted by her in accordance with the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988.

© 2020 The University of Leeds and Amal Rakan Alkhaldi.

**To my rays of sunshine Majed and Maria**

## **Acknowledgements**

I would like to record my thanks and gratitude to the University of Leeds for providing all the necessary facilities which have made completing this thesis possible. I am also indebted to the School of Languages at the University of Leeds, which gave me a precious opportunity to meet and get to know people in the field and friends who share the same interests. This has been a remarkable experience that stretched me both professionally and personally. It is an experience that will live with me for years to come.

My special thanks go to my supervisor, Professor James Dickins, for his kind support and insightful feedback throughout the time of working on this research. Without his continuous support and encouragement, this thesis would not have become a reality.

I am deeply grateful to members of my family, to my first teacher, my father who still teaches me lessons in love, dedication and commitment to living life to the full; without him I am nothing. And also, to my brother, Nader, who is and always will be the ray of sunshine in my life. My deep gratitude goes to my sisters for providing unconditional care and unlimited support right up the completion of this work. Special thanks go to my sister Amany who always helped me out in times of distress. And of course, to my beloved husband, Mansour, for his daily presence in my life despite being thousands of miles away.

## Abstract

The current thesis studies the concept of explicitation within the context of translations of young adult literature. The study expands on Blum-Kulka's (1986) hypothesis of explicitation. Nevertheless, the assumption that underpins this research is that explicitation is not simply an inherent aspect of translation but is rather caused by the search for relevance. Therefore, the study interprets the instances of explicitation from the perspective of Relevance Theory. This assumption was basically corroborated by the results of the study. Various examples of explicitation shifts were determined by analysing a body of classic literature belonging to the young adult genre that had been translated from English to Arabic. Identified shifts were categorised into groups based on Hallidayan Systemic Functional Grammar criteria, namely the ideational and textual metafunctions. Via the process of qualitative analysis based on the Systemic Functional model of grammar, the research determines *where* and *why* explicitation took place in the translated versions of young adult novels. Therefore, two different approaches are utilised within the present study to analyse the occurrences of explicitation within the TT. The first approach focuses on linguistics and is predominantly utilised for the classification of explicitation manifestations based on their functions, while the second one is a communicative approach that forms the basis for comprehending the instances of explicitation that occur within the TT.

The main sources of data are classic novels that have been translated into Arabic for readers from the younger generation, with a particular focus on the following works as a case study: *The Secret Garden*, written in 1911 by the English author Frances Hodgson Burnett, and *Anne of Green Gables*, written in 1908 by Canadian author Lucy Maud Montgomery. The Textual Component of the body of literature utilised as data was analysed through a manual process in order to identify any possible explicitation shifts. Further investigation of the translated versions of the texts facilitated the identification of various different classes in terms of the occurrences of explicitation: functionally at the ideational level through elaboration, enhancement and extension, and textually through substituting and adding. The motivations underlying these manifestations were identified as being linked to the imaginations of younger readers, the avoidance of ambiguity, adherence to the conventions of the target language, the linguistic

and cognitive capacities of younger readers, and lastly, the highlighting of pedagogical values.

Additionally, the current study contends that explicitation should not be regarded as purely an inherent and disadvantageous aspect of translations, but should instead be considered as an approach adopted by the translator motivated by their aspiration to make the text relevant for the target readers. In other words, explicitation is caused by the continual desire to render translations relevant. As revealed by the analysis within this study, this can be accomplished by resorting to childhood memories and previous experiences of reading. It is this ongoing need to be relevant that impacts the decisions the translator makes regarding the most appropriate way of rendering the implied meaning for younger readers.

The current study also contends that there are various other erroneous beliefs surrounding the concept of explicitation, including the negative nature of the phenomenon and the greater likelihood that less practiced translators will incorporate explicitation into their target texts. In reality, more proficient translators could explicitate the target texts to increase the relevance for the intended readers when doing translations aimed at younger readers and they could choose to adopt this strategy consciously.

## Table of Contents

<b>Chapter 1 .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Genre Background .....	4
1.3 The Narratives.....	9
1.4 Research Questions.....	10
1.5 Organization of the Thesis.....	11
1.6 A word of Caution.....	13
<b>Chapter 2 .....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>Explicitation Explained.....</b>	<b>14</b>
2.1 Introduction.....	14
2.2 Brief Introduction to the Notion of Explicitation .....	15
2.3 Explicitation Hypothesis.....	18
2.4 Studies on Explicitation Hypothesis.....	25
2.4.1 Corpus-based Studies.....	25
2.4.1.1 Reporting ‘that’ in Translated Text.....	26
2.4.1.2 Explicitation of Conjunctions in Translated Chinese .....	29
2.4.1.3 An Explicitation Syndrome.....	30
2.4.2 Qualitative Studies .....	35
2.4.2.1 Pragmatics and Explicitation.....	35
2.4.2.2 Explicitness in Discourse Across Languages .....	37
2.4.2.3 Bringing the Translator to the Picture .....	40
2.4.2.4 Explicitation in Translated Finnish Children’s Literature	44
2.4.2.5 Expertise and Explicitation.....	45
2.4.2.6 Asymmetry Hypothesis.....	47
2.4.2.7 Explicitation as a Third-code Feature .....	49
2.5 Other studies on Explicitation Concerning Arabic.....	51
2.5.1 Explicitness and Implicitness of Cohesive Devices in Translated Naguib Mahfouz’s novels .....	52
2.5.2 Explicitation as a Feature of Acceptability Norms .....	54
2.5.3 Explicitation Manifestations in Translated English into-Arabic texts .....	54
2.6 Explicitation Typologies and Schemas .....	55
2.6.1 Klaudy’s Typology of Explicitation .....	55
2.6.2 House’s Schema and Classification of Explicitation .....	58

2.6.3	Steiner's Model for Explication .....	59
2.7	General Observations on Explication as a Translational Phenomenon .....	62
2.7.1	The Subconscious Nature of Explication .....	62
2.7.2	Explication as a Text-based Phenomenon .....	63
2.7.3	Explication as Inherent in the Translation Process.....	64
2.7.4	Explication as a Negative Feature Used by Non-Professional Translators .....	65
2.8	Filling the Gap .....	66
2.9	Co-operative Principle and Relevance Theory as an Approach to Studying Translation.....	68
2.10	Relevance-Theory Approach to Translation Studies .....	71
2.11	Application of Relevance Theory to Translation .....	81
2.12	Hypotheses .....	84
2.13	Summary and Conclusion .....	86
<b>Chapter 3</b>	.....	<b>89</b>
<b>Methodology</b>	.....	<b>89</b>
3.1	Introduction.....	89
3.2	Theoretical Concepts and Problems .....	89
3.3	Data.....	94
3.4	Procedure.....	99
3.5	Identification and Classification of Shifts .....	101
3.6	Classification of the Ideational Shifts .....	108
3.7	Classification of Textual Shifts.....	111
3.8	Why Do We Need to Integrate the Two Accounts For Data Analysis 126	
3.9	Shifts Involving Referring to the Same Entity .....	134
3.10	Shifts Involving the Encoding of Semantic Relations.....	134
3.11	Shifts Eliminated From Analysis .....	136
3.12	Summary and Conclusion .....	136
<b>Chapter 4</b>	.....	<b>139</b>
<b>Data analysis I</b>	.....	<b>139</b>
4.1	Introduction.....	139
4.2	Analysis of Ideational Shifts.....	141
4.2.1	Elaborating The State Of Affairs.....	142
4.2.2	Enhancing the State of Affairs.....	156
4.2.3	Expanding the State of Affairs.....	163

4.2.4	Mixed Ideational Shifts .....	165
4.3	Analysis of Textual shifts .....	173
4.3.1	Addition of referential traits .....	174
4.3.2	Substitution of Referential Traits .....	175
4.3.3	Semantic Relation Shifts .....	185
4.4	Summary and Conclusion .....	190
<b>Chapter 5</b>	.....	<b>192</b>
<b>Data analysis II</b>	.....	<b>192</b>
5.1	Introduction.....	192
5.2	Motivations Behind Explicitation Occurrences.....	192
5.2.1	To Help in Visualizing the Scene.....	195
5.2.2	To Avoid the Risk of Ambiguity and Misunderstanding .....	198
5.2.3	To Comply with the Assumed Cognitive and Communicative Readers Skills and Target Language preferences .....	200
5.2.4	To Emphasize Pedagogical Values.....	202
5.3	Summary and discussion of findings.....	203
5.4	Explicitation Misconceptions Revisited .....	206
5.4.1	Explicitation and Non-professional Translators .....	206
5.4.2	Unfavoured Feature of Translated Texts.....	207
5.5	Summary and Conclusion .....	208
<b>Chapter 6</b>	.....	<b>210</b>
<b>Conclusion</b>	.....	<b>210</b>
6.1	Introduction.....	210
6.2	Summary of the Research Purposes and Approaches.....	210
6.3	Research Questions Revisited .....	212
6.4	Summary of the Main Outcomes .....	214
6.5	Contributions and Implications of the Research .....	216
6.6	Limitations and Constraints on the Research .....	217
6.7	Recommendations for Further Research.....	218
<b>List of References</b>	.....	<b>219</b>
<b>Appendix</b>	.....	<b>231</b>
	<i>The Secret Garden- English</i> .....	236
	<i>Ann in the Green Gables- English.</i> .....	245
	<i>Ann in the Green Gables- Arabic.</i> .....	249
	<i>The Secret Garden – Arabic</i> .....	257

The Second Arabic version of the Secret Garden..... 264

Comparable Examples of the two Arabic versions of The Secret Garden265

## List of Tables

<b>Table 1.</b> Three kinds of structure in the clause (Thompson 2014, p. 34) ...	<b>105</b>
<b>Table 2.</b> Ryding's categorisation of Arabic conjunctive markers (from Ryding, 2005, pp. 409–421; cited in Alasmari and Kruger 2018 p. 22). ...	<b>117</b>
<b>Table 3.</b> Numbers and kinds of ideational shifts. ....	<b>142</b>
<b>Table 4.</b> Numbers and kinds of textual shifts.....	<b>174</b>

## List of Figures

<b>Figure 1.</b> $L_s$ = source language: $L_t$ = target language (House 2004, p.16) ...	<b>59</b>
<b>Figure 2.</b> The place of translation in relevance theory (based on Sperber and Wilson 1986, p. 232) from Gutt (2000, p. 214). .....	<b>79</b>
<b>Figure 3.</b> Preservation and adaptation in translation .....	<b>97</b>

## Abbreviations

SFG Systemic Functional Grammar

ST Source Text

TT Target Text

### 1. Key to the transliteration of the Arabic Alphabet

#### 1.1 Short Vowels

vowels	Transliteration
أ	? a
إ	?i
أ	?u

#### 1.2 Long Vowels

vowels	Transliteration
آ	?a:
ئي	?i:
ؤ	?u:

#### 1.3 The Arabic alphabet

Letter	Transliteration	Arabic pronunciation
أ	?a	?alif
ب	ba	ba
ت	ta	ta
ث	tha	tha
ج	ja	Ji:m
ح	Ha	Ha
خ	xa	xa
د	da	da:l
ذ	dha	dha:l
ر	ra	ra:?
ز	za	zi:n
س	sa	si:n
ش	sha	shi:n
ص	Sa	Sa:d
ض	DHa	DHa:d
ط	Ta	Ta:
ظ	Da	Da:?
ع	Ga	Gayn
غ	GHa	GHayn
ف	fa	fa:
ق	qa	qa:f
ك	ka	ka:f
ل	la	la:m
م	ma	mi:m
ن	na	nu:n
ه	ha	ha:
و	wa	wa:w
ي	ya	ya:

## Chapter 1

### Introduction

#### 1.1 Introduction

Explicitation, which first appeared as one of the initial proposed universals of translation with significant potential at the end of the 1980s, still manifests itself within Translation Studies as a mysterious but virtually ubiquitous notion.

Explicitation seems to assume a position at the intersection of different techniques used in the study of translations: techniques that study both the general and the individual in translations, that focus on translation as both a procedure and a product, and that study both the sociocultural and cultural dimensions of translations, and are connected to notions that have particular significance for Translation Studies, namely laws, possible universals of translations, and the styles used in and of translation (Kamenická 2008, p. 117).

Studies on the subject of explicitation expanded considerably following the publication of Blum-Kulka's (1986) research. After this, researchers concentrated on establishing proof of her hypothesis regarding the universality of explicitation, while simultaneously investigating the criteria of explicitation. Studies in this field include those conducted by Séguinot (1988), and Øverås (1998), followed by Olohan and Baker (2000), Klaudy (2004), and Klaudy and Károly (2005). The majority of these scholars have shared somewhat analogous interpretations and interests, namely the universality as well as the inherent essence of explicitation. Relevant studies appear to have only developed an interpretation of explicitation via the purported mechanisms of universals of translation while neglecting additional factors and motivations. Additionally, the approach generally adopted to explore this phenomenon has concentrated on text based and quantitative techniques.

Nevertheless, if one accepts the assertion of Di (2003) that translation is not merely a process where words are transferred but is a communication act that is actualised through the conveyance of messages, then the manner in which explicitation is perceived as a translational phenomenon should be altered. Indeed, this theory emphasises the reality that translation incorporates two types

of practices: linguistic and communicative. It is generally acknowledged that distinct languages have distinct formal properties which allow them to be differentiated from each other; thus, every language is distinguished by its own specific expression styles, and grammatical frameworks as well as phonetic and lexical characteristics. However, communicative differences between languages are less obvious and continue to be the focus of theoretical discussions regarding the communicative essence of every language and the manner in which languages map the world of experiences for their users.

Hence, the contemporary “received” perception of translation is that it is primarily a procedure of intercultural adaptation instead of a type of cross-linguistic substitution (House 2009, pp. 71-72). This implies that translation procedures not only involve replacing SL words or structures with TL words or structures, or the utilisation of transformations by a translation expert. Rather, translation is a communication act among three key actors, namely the writer of the source text (ST), the translators themselves and those receiving the target text (TT). Therefore, it is of considerable importance that not only is the substance of a specific message be taken into consideration, but also the manner in which the message is communicated, since the lingual expressional means by which the message is expressed can impact on the way the addressees receive and process the message.

Expanding on this perception of translation, explicitation in the context of the present study is observed and interpreted from a new perspective. Consequently, explicitation is not only considered to be a phenomenon based on text, but is rather perceived as an equivalence of relevance, implying that it is being applied to increase the relevance of the TT. In the present study, translation is considered to be an act of communication instead of just an issue of textual equivalence between the source and target text. Consequently, translation initially reflects similar communicative influences to other activities involving interaction. The translator is a substitute for the ST author in the process of transmitting the ST. In order to increase the comprehensibility of the text for readers, it is important that translators assess the cognitive potential of the readers, as well as how acquainted they are with the text, and their worldly knowledge and experience. Translators’ judgement can be significantly affected by their individual perceptions in terms of their specific roles in providing cultural and linguistic

mediation for their readers/audiences as well as the assumptions they make about the cognitive capabilities of the readers. Thus, specifically when doing translations for younger readers, it is important that translators aim to increase the relevance of their translations with regard to the expectations of the target audience; in other words, from a relevance-theory perspective, they should translate the text in such a manner that readers will interpret it in the intended way while using the least amount of processing effort.

In their efforts to find relevance, the translator could choose to write the target text in a more explicit manner, as they could assume that this might have more relevance to young readers, for example. When doing translations for young adults, when making a decision with regard to what the readers perceive to have relevance, they could turn to their own experiences of childhood as well as their own memories of reading at the same age. The concept of making text relevant to the expectations of the target audience functions by firstly selecting a pertinent text for the purposes of translation and concludes with the translation methods utilised during the translation procedure.

In broad terms, the main objectives of this study can be divided into two: first, it will investigate *where* explicitation occurs within adult's literature, and second, it questions *why* translators are inclined to explicitate when doing translations for young adults. Specifically, the objective is to ascertain the factors that motivate such an approach to provide various explanations for this phenomenon as observed in the field of translation, with a particular focus on translations of texts targeted at young adults. As a result, unlike the majority of previous research on the subject of explicitation, which has focused on the quantitative outcomes of instances of explicitation within the target text in comparison to source texts or texts that were originally written in the same language as the TT, the present study places emphasis on determining why translators are inclined to incorporate explicitation within their TT, with a specific focus on classic literature that has been translated for younger Arabic readers as a case study, particularly: *The Secret Garden* by Frances Hodgson Burnett 1911 and *Anne of Green Gables*, which was originally written by Canadian novelist Lucy Maud Montgomery in 1908.

## 1.2 Genre Background

In English, the phrase “children’s literature” refers to texts authored and/or directed towards children and younger readers (Queiroga and Catarina, 2016, p 66). According to Oittinen (2000, p. 5), children’s literature is a genre that children read themselves or others read to them. The author elucidated that it is associated with the demographic with whom she works, namely schoolchildren. She also recognised that, as a result of the vague nature of the concept of childhood, her statements could be additionally expanded to include younger readers.

The definition proposed by John Rowe Townsend was focused on the agents who dominate the market for the specific type of genre “In the short run, it appears that, for better or worse, the publisher decides. If you put a book on the children’s list, the book will then be reviewed and read as such by children (and young people). Now if it is put on the adult list, it will not be - at least not immediately” (Townsend 1980, p.197). Hence, the publisher assumes the primary responsibility. Nevertheless, targeting a book at a specific audience does not automatically ensure that it will be adopted by that audience. Some books that are originally intended to be read by adults ultimately develop into classical examples of children’s literature, such as Daniel Defoe’s *Robinson Crusoe* and Jonathan Swift’s *Gulliver’s Travels*. The opposite can also be true as classic literature in the children’s genre has become popular in the adult literature market, including Lewis Carroll’s *Alice in Wonderland* or other books that have become relevant for both adult and child audiences in the publishing area. One such example is the *Harry Potter* series written by J.K. Rowling (Fernandes, 2004,p.92). According to Carg (2014) “A generation ago young adult literature meant books for readers 12-18 years old but in the last ten years the term has expanded to include readers “as young as 10 and (arguably) as old as 35” (Carg 2014, p.3).

When developing an approach for translating texts for children, it is often necessary to commence by perceiving translation as a process where text is rewritten for distinct audiences in distinct times, locations and cultures (Lefevere 1992, pp. 5 and 29 ). The translator must adopt an attitude centred on the target language, culture and those being addressed that is even intended to be

influential on the perception of the original text that will be translated (Nord 1997). This appears to be particularly applicable with regard to translations targeted at children, as they are generally perceived to be different, compared with adults in terms of their ability to comprehend a text as well as perceive images and unfamiliar terminology.

Firstly, it is important to question if an audience comprised of children is in fact fundamentally different from an adult audience in terms of their ability to read, hear and understand a text (Stolze 2003, p. 209). Nevertheless, the plethora of children's books along with the constant flow of newly translated and reworked versions of classical texts indicates that this task is in fact significantly more challenging than may appear to the untrained mind. Research has indicated that the differences between the first attempt to translate classical work in the children's literature and subsequent translations can be significant (Stolze 2003, p. 209). Furthermore, the translations of children's literature are enlightening for researchers in the field, in the same manner that an ambitious translator should, in theory, be knowledgeable about both classic and contemporary works in the children's literature genre as well as childhood psychology, the children's book market and other factors (Nikolajeva 2016, p.307).

According to Jobe (2004, p. 913) the translation of children's literature represents one of the most difficult and complex duties for a translator. He further claims that producing translations for children and young people is a complicated endeavour, where the translator is confronted with quandaries including whether the translation should be literal or free; in other words, should it be translated directly in a word-for-word manner, which would allow the fluidity of the text to be preserved? The selection of one of these approaches means that the translator will be faced with risks associated with their preference: if the translation is too close to the original text (literal translation), this could result in the text lacking in vitality or reduce its readability; conversely, if the text is adapted, components of the text that are deemed to be inseparable and integral to the author's purpose could be removed. Furthermore, adapting texts could cause the narrative to be oversimplified to the extent that the text could become unreadable.

The characteristics of children's book are that they are basic, easily readable and offer learning that adults would perceive to be sufficient; such learning is often

based on interests and principles, constraining the child's ability to interpret as they are believed to lack the ability to perceive particular nuances in the text. Nevertheless, in the debates surrounding the subject of translation, questions frequently emerge related to the specific requirements of translations for children/young people and adults. For example, are they distinct from each other? Is it easier or more challenging to translate texts for children and young readers? (Queiroga and Catarina, 2016, p 70). Klingberg (1986, p.10) asserts that it is not possible to exactly differentiate between the challenges experienced when translating books for children and adults. The challenges are largely identical, but translation of children's literature can sometimes present more serious obstacles that need increased focus from the translator in terms of methodological and theoretical aspects. O'Sullivan (2013, pp. 453-454) claims that there are five crucial factors in the debate surround the translation of children's literature: domestication/foreignisation; the image of children/childhood (from the viewpoint of both the translator and the target audience), the unbalanced communicative relationship among adult mediators, children and young readers; readability and semiotic factors (text and image); in addition to other specific factors including rhymes, wordplay, nonsense and onomatopoeia, which require the translator to be highly creative. Tabbert (2002, p. 317) notes that when translating children's literature, the translator is often confronted by numerous problems, and he specifically emphasises problems associated with the text-source, such as register, dialectal differences and sociolects, stylistics, the amalgamation of text and images, references to the culture, creative usage of language and target audiences with two distinct subgroups (adults and children).

As stated by Lathey (2009, p.31), the adult/child duality is a core aspect of the debate on children's literature: for example, are texts purposely authored for adults but aimed at a children's audience? Are they works targeted at adults and read by children, or are they in fact read by both audiences? The different efforts to create a definition of children's literature have reinforced the presence of adults in the different processes included in the writing of works in this genre. There is a common factor that links these different texts: they are deemed to be suitable for children by those involved in their production (writers, publishers, etc.), key actors in the literary field (e.g., critics), as well as by educational establishments (schools, libraries). The contrasting relationship that has emerged in children's

literature, whereby the texts intended for children are evaluated by adults is the main factor that distinguishes children's literature from works targeted at adults (O'Sullivan, 2013, p. 451). Essentially, adults are responsible for mediating the stages in the children's literature production process to the point that it is delivered to the target audience. However, the dual reader will continually be present as a result of the omnipresent mediation of adults in the production stages detailed above (Alvstad 2010, p. 24). It is the translator's responsibility to realise that distinct readers are involved in the textual fabric of the piece and the manner in which they are expected to refer to such readers. According to O'Sullivan (2013):

The single most important task for the study of translations of children's literature is its bibliographical and historical documentation; an ideal future would see each language and culture setting translations into their language in context, constructing a systematic and historical survey of the various strategies, tendencies, criteria of selection and methods employed. This is far from realization at present (O'Sullivan 2013, p. 460).

Nowadays, multiple academic experts in the fields of children's literature, linguistics and translation research have focused on this topic, investigating varied subjects including readability, tenses and translation, conventions, ideological aspects and censorship, the connection between the differential status of sub-genres and translating practice, as well as text when translating books that combine visual and verbal narratives (O'Sullivan 2013, p. 456).

With respect to strategies, Desmet (2007, p. 267) comprehensively systematises the distinct strategies adopted by translators when working on translations targeted at children. Strategies that are often used are omission and deletion, which have a strong connection with the ideological objective of transferring suitable values to the children, in addition to the objective of increasing the readability of the text for the target audience. Purification strategies are utilised to align the translated version of the text with the target culture's values by removing aspects deemed to be unsuitable. Another strategy is substitution, extreme examples of which are 'localisation' or 'domestication', which is aimed at providing children texts that can be easily understood. An explication strategy is

where the text is reworded or paratextual explanations are provided as footnotes. Lastly, simplification strategies impact genre affiliation, structure and the arrangement of chapters. It also can be observed in the utilisation of shorter sentences, the substitution of abstract language with concrete language, the reduction of ironic components, among others.

As a result of the unique status of children's literature as well as the complicated nature of creating translations for children and young adults, in addition to the fact that the increased focus on translating children's literature is a comparatively new phenomenon, the volume of studies performed in this field remains quite limited. In comparison to the exhaustive focus on narrative texts, researchers in the field of translation studies have paid minimal attention to texts aimed at children. Hence, it is evident that there is a growing need to investigate the different strategies, methods and techniques adopted when creating translations for children, particularly with respect to the translation of classic English literature works into Arabic language. It appears that the majority of past studies on the translation of literature for children and young adults have concentrated on strategies including localisation, simplification among others. However, minimal attention has been paid to the use of explicitation as a strategy for translating texts aimed at children and young people. Therefore, it is necessary to perform an in-depth analysis of this strategy by explaining the linguistic and non-linguistic factors behind this translational phenomenon with regard to the translation of classical English texts for a target audience of young Arabic readers. This type of preference provides the motivation to expand this comparison to further the investigation into what motivates translators to adopt this strategy.

Furthermore, it is widely believed that performing a study based on the comparison of texts that have been translated by expert translators will generate a rich and beneficial resource for the discipline of translation studies as it reveals the positive and negative aspects that can be beneficially utilised to conduct more extensive and expansive research that will be advantageous for stakeholders active in the field. In particular, it will be beneficial for comprehending the manner in which translators treat the source text or the strategy they should have adopted.

### 1.3 The Narratives

Originally published in 1911 by Frances Hodgson Burnett, *The Secret Garden* is a classic of English children's literature that involves a coming-of-age narrative. The story focuses on a young girl called Mary Lennox who was born in India to rich parents. Her life in India is abruptly ended when her parents become the victims of an outbreak of cholera. Resultantly, she is dispatched to Yorkshire to live in the manor of her uncle, Archibald Craven.

Although *The Secret Garden* can commonly be found on the bookshelves of the children's areas of libraries and bookshops, the novel was originally published in 1911 in episodic format for both children and adults. The narration in *The Secret Garden* is not from the perspective of an individual, meaning that they are not named and do not have a specific viewpoint. However, it does possess powerful feelings regarding the occurrences in the story. This is a very powerful assertion made by a narrator that has no physical form, no name and no specific personality.

*Anne of Green Gables* was authored by Lucy Maud Montgomery (1874-1942) and the first publication was released in 1908. The narrative focuses on an orphan girl who is mistakenly sent to a middle-aged brother and sister, Matthew and Marilla Cuthbert, and presents some of the most unforgettable characters in classical literature, such as Gilbert Blythe and Rachel Lynde. *Anne of Green Gables* is narrated in a 3rd person style following the perspective of Anne (although this sometimes changes to other characters like Marilla, Matthew, and Mrs. Rachel Lynde).

The abovementioned English literary classics have been translated into multiple languages, including Arabic. The translation of the novels into Arabic was aimed at young adult readers and Dar al-Muna decided to market them under the young adult genre. The publishing house Dar al-Muna was founded in 1984 by Mona Zureikat and specialises in literature in the young adult and children's genres. According to the vision posted on its web page, its objective is to engage Arabic children and young adult readers with literary works from other cultures including both England and Europe.

The translations of these two classic novels were both performed by Sakenah Ebraheem, who has been translating literary works since 1997. Her portfolio of

work not only includes the translations of texts for children and young adults, but she has also reviewed and edited different translations.

*The Secret Garden* was firstly translated by Sakenh Ebraheem and published in 2007, and a subsequent Arabic translation was produced by Shareef Aljayar.

The fact that these two narratives were translated by the same translator and published and marketed under young - adults fiction category have formed a good rationale for choosing them as primary source for this study.

## 1.4 Research Questions

Through the adoption of a Systemic Functional approach to the classification of patterns, in addition to Relevance theory to facilitate explanation, the current research specifically aims to answer the following research questions:

1. In regard to the translations of young adult literature, are there any consistent syntactic/semantic differences between the original English versions and their Arabic translations?
2. If so, to what degree can such differences be attributed to explicitation?
3. In which areas of the three metafunctions of language founded on the Systematic Functional Grammar approach can such consistent differences be realised?
4. Is it possible for relevance theory and its associated principles to offer a logical interpretation of the occurrences of explicitation? in other words, can the manifestations of explicitation be interpreted by or associated with the translator's efforts to generate a relevant TT?
5. If so, what motivates translators to endeavour to increase the relevance of the TT when doing translations for young adult readers? If relevance theory falls short to interpret the manifestation of explicitation, what else could motivate translators to increase the explicitness of the TT?
6. Are explicitation shifts within translated versions of literature for young adults perceived to be detrimental or negative if examined against the relevance of the TT to the supposed readers?
7. Is explicitation within translated versions of literature for young adults a translation strategy implemented by unskilled translators?

The first two questions presented above will be answered via meticulous analysis of the target texts in comparison with the original work, with the intention of attempting to discern any distinctions, and then determining whether these distinctions impact the degree to which the target text is explicit. Question 3 is approached through the adoption of Hallidayan Systemic Functional Grammar (henceforth SFG) in order to provide an outline account of the instances of explicitation. This will facilitate a systemic functional classification of the manifestations of explicitation within the target text, specifically in relation to the ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions (Ch.3. Section 6 and 7). It should be noted here that Halliday's SFG approach is utilised for the purpose of classifying explicitation shifts and determining the specific areas in which they are realised, not for interpreting them.

The researcher will address question 4 by conducting qualitative analysis on the instances of explicitation on the basis of the principles of Relevance Theory, as proposed by Gutt (2000). These instances are fundamentally evaluated to ascertain whether explicitation is practiced to render the target text more relevant to the audience of young readers; in other words, the aim is to determine whether explicitation increases the relevance of the text for the target readers (Chapter 4). Question 5 is addressed by reflecting upon the literature of translation study found on this area and obtaining some information from the translator of the texts via email (Chapter 5). Lastly, the final questions are approached by making a comparison with a translation of the same ST prepared by a different translator (Chapter 5).

## **1.5 Organization of the Thesis**

The structure of this thesis will largely follow the order in which the research questions are presented above. Chapter 2 offers a general overview of the concept of explicitation as a phenomenon that occurs in the field of translation, as suggested by various scholars of translation studies. This chapter will also conduct a review of past studies that have focused on explicitation through the adoption of either corpus-based or qualitative approaches, with the primary aim of resolving any problems in the literature. Hence, the main objective of these parts of the chapter is to ensure that the reader is familiar with the primary aspects of the explicitation hypothesis as well as the various perspectives on it, thus

creating a connection with the current study's objectives. The Relevance Theory perspective on translation (Gutt, 2000) is included as a suitable viewpoint to ascertain the factors that motivate occurrences of explicitation, with a focus on its principles and possible areas of application. This chapter will also present the current study's hypothesis, with a reflection on distinct perspectives of explicitation as a phenomenon within translation, specifically that proposed by Blum-Kulka (1980) along with the principles of Relevance theory, as proposed by Gutt (2000).

Chapter 3 endeavours to investigate various theoretical notions and issues that could be associated with research into explicitation as a phenomenon within translation. The aim is to provide an insight into the specific considerations related to the phenomenon as well as the manner in which such considerations could impact the identification and classification of the observed shifts. An explanation of the significant factors associated with the study of explicitation is presented in order to facilitate the comprehension of various subjective decisions made in the process of collecting data, such as the reasons why certain shifts were excluded. In this regard, the main section of this chapter is focused on a discussion pertaining to determining and classifying shifts via the combination of two different approaches, namely SFG and Relevance Theory.

Chapter 4 aims to address the third and fourth research questions via the identification of possible manifestations of explicitation in certain functional domains. The chapter commences with a short analysis of the concept of explicitation in accordance with the principles of Relevance Theory. Subsequently, examples of explicitation that occur in the text will be discussed, which will then be classified according to the SFG metafunctions of language, evaluating the degree to which they can be attributed to, or connected with, explicitation as a translation-specific aspect and how it is possible to interpret them based on the goal of the translator to offer a TT that has relevance.

Chapter 5 is aimed at suggesting various potential factors that trigger the occurrences of explicitation based on the analysis of some information given by the translator as well as the principles of both translation and relevance theory. Subsequently, various misunderstandings regarding explicitation as a translation-specific feature will be revisited based on the findings of the present study.

Lastly, Chapter 6 endeavours to review the overall results that emerge from the present study. It then assesses certain limitations of the thesis and ends with recommendations for further research.

## **1.6 A word of Caution**

It would seem that explicitation is a highly complex phenomena in the field of translation that can differ between texts. This means that it can be challenging for translation analysts to conclusively make judgments and assessments regarding texts they are examining. Hence, the identification and classification of instances of explicitation is conducted on the basis of subjective and intuitive assumptions instead of being an objective process. The approach used is clarified in greater detail for readers in chapter 3.

The current study specifically concentrates on young adult literature, which is a genre that has recently developed in the Arab world, and is considered to fall under the wider genre of children's literature. Hence, while the author aims to specifically utilise the term 'young adult literature' in reference to this genre, external sources may refer to it as 'children's literature'. Indeed, a similar assertion was made by Nike (2010, p.7), who placed emphasis on the fact that the genre of children's literature is comprehended in the widest sense, and should include literary pieces that were originally targeted at both children and young adults.

The utilisation of the Hallidayan SFG for the classification and identification of explicitation instances does not automatically imply that such instances will be analysed linguistically on the basis of this approach. Data extracted from the text are analysed with a view to their communicative purpose

## Chapter 2

### Explicitation Explained

#### 2.1 Introduction

Universals of translation are described by Baker (1993, p.243) as linguistic features that potentially occur in the translated text rather than originals, these features being independent and not motivated by the influence of the linguistic specifics of the two languages involved. Proposed universals have long been a topic of interest in translation studies, most notably simplification, explicitation and normalization. The appearance of the electronic corpus approach to studying translated texts has helped many scholars to examine the nature of these features of translations. Chesterman (2004) characterises translation universals as a feature which is found to distinguish translations from texts which are not translated (original texts). He adds “to qualify as a universal, a feature must remain constant when other parameters vary. In other words, a universal feature is one that is found in translations regardless of language pairs, different text-types, different kinds of translators, different historical periods, and so on” (Chesterman 2004, p. 3).

Out of all proposed universals of translation, it was explicitation which first caught the interest of translation scholars (Murtisari 2016, p.64). In this chapter, therefore, different approaches and previous studies that have dealt with explicitation will be discussed considering various models and typologies suggested by different scholars for studying explicitation. The purpose of this review of literature is to holistically acquaint the reader with various notions, typology and schemes of explicitation and the Explicitation Hypothesis as introduced by Blum-Kulka (1986) laying the groundwork for the hypothesis of the present study which will be put forward towards the end of this chapter. The chapter is divided into several parts. Firstly, section 2 will briefly introduce various notions of explicitation put forward by translation scholars, demonstrating that explicitation has always been an elusive and highly problematic notion in the literature of translation studies. This is followed by section 3 which will present Blum-Kulka’s Explicitation Hypothesis, which has become widely accepted in the literature of translation studies. This section discusses the hypothesis,

introducing its shortcomings together with its potential application in the present study. In sections 4, 5 and 6 some empirical studies which have been conducted to test the Explication Hypothesis will be reviewed discussing their pros and cons in the light of translation studies principles. The studies are presented in different sections depending on their outcomes as qualitative, quantitative and those which are concerned with Arabic. In section 7, some models and schemas for studying explication will be also discussed, considering their potential applications. This includes the model adopted in this study. After that, in section 8, some misconceptions regarding the Explication Hypothesis and its principles will be discussed paving the way for section 9, which is concerned with the gaps this study attempts to fill. Sections 10,11, and 12 briefly introduce Relevance Theory and its potential applications as an approach to understand translation and to interpret the data of the present study. Finally, section13 will introduce the hypothesis of this study followed by section 14 which conclude and summarise the chapter.

## **2.2 Brief Introduction to the Notion of Explication**

The term ‘explication’ is used in different ways by different translation studies scholars. Several scholars have tried to offer a clear and usable description of the concept. However, the different definitions of explication as a translational phenomenon are still debated and the notion itself has even been rejected by some scholars in the field. On a more practical level, different approaches have been adopted to studying explication, among them corpus-based and contrastive analysis approaches.

It seems that the term ‘explication’ was introduced into translation studies by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1977), who defined it in their discussion of the comparative stylistics of English and French as a “stylistic translation technique which consists of making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language because it is apparent from either the context or the situation” (translation by Sager and Hamel 1995, p.342). Being relevant to the comparative linguistic approach, which focuses on structural causes for explication and clearly refers to the translational relation between the source and the target text, their initial perspective on the notion of explication has gained much attention among researchers in the field (Krüger 2014, p.153).

In his book *Toward a Science of Translating*, 1964, Nida introduces the term 'addition' to refer to the incorporation of elements that "may legitimately be incorporated into a translation" (Nida 1964, p. 227), which according to Murtisari (2016, p.86) is similar to Vinay and Darbelnet's notion of explicitation. Nida's additions are not "simple additions" but are restricted to information that is clearly recoverable from the source text or context. These additions may be grammatical, such as filling out elliptical expressions, or use of classifiers and connectives to create "structural alteration" (Murtisari 2016, p.86).

In 1986, Blum-Kulka introduced the so-called 'Explicitation Hypothesis'. She argues that "explicitation is a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation" (Blum-Kulka 1986, pp.300-21).

With reference to Chesterman's (2004, p. 39) distinction of S-universals and T-universals, Krüger (2014, p.156) suggests that explicitation can be recognized either relative to the source text or relative to another text originally written in the target language. The former is referred to as S-explicitation and presents the "traditional" concept of explicitation which is established between source and target texts, whereas the latter is referred to as T-explicitation and described as the "new" notion of explicitation which is manifested between target texts and non-translated texts in the same language. Krüger (2014, p.169) then asserts that S-explicitation and T-explicitation are two independent notions and have to be dealt with as such. The reason for this, as Krüger (2014, p.170) elaborates, is that empirical studies of the two types can reveal inconsistent results.

Kamenická (2007, p.55) suggests that explicitation/implication shifts [can] be seen as 'prototypes' on a scale, with a centre and periphery. The centre will comprise instances that can easily be identified as explicitation/implication, while the periphery will include shifts in which the explicitation of the specific meaning involved is less clear. In 2008, Kamenická proposed another typology of explicitation, which is established on the basis of the Hallidayan metafunctions of languages: experiential, logical, interpersonal and textual. She indicates that this approach helps to identify the pragmatic situations that lead to explicitation shifts and offers an alternative typology preferable to that of Klaudy (2009), which is focused on SL/TL systemic differences (Kamenická 2008, p.118)

Saldanha (2008, p.21) advises that explicitation should be defined on the basis of 'audience design' and not on the basis of its link to implicit meaning, i.e. explicitation should not be treated as a recovery of implicit information. According to Saldanha (2008), explicitation is "a translation strategy whereby translators spell out optional interpersonal, ideational or textual meanings in the target text when this is a conscious strategy, it is likely to be made on the basis of their assumptions regarding the likely cognitive context and environment of their readers" (Saldanha 2008, p.32).

Séguinot (1988, p.108) argues that explicitation can be spotted in translated texts in three forms: "something is expressed in the translation which was not in the original, something which was implied or understood through presupposition in the source text is overtly expressed in the translation, or an element in the source text is given greater importance in the translation through focus, emphasis, or lexical choice." In contrast with Séguinot's specified perception of explicitation (1988), Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997, p.55) define explicitation concisely as "the phenomenon which frequently leads to TT stating ST information in a more explicit form than the original". Bearing in mind the complexity of both the concept of explicitation and the translation process itself, this is a very short and broad definition that does not make plain the kind of "information" that tends to be more explicit. Nevertheless, later they rectify this brief definition by giving examples of how a translator fills out the source text by "including additional explanatory phrases, spelling out implicatures or adding connectives" (Shuttleworth and Cowie 1997, p. 55)

Some scholars have conceived explicitation as a universal translation phenomenon; Baker (1996, p.180) for example, claims that explicitation is a unique feature of translated texts. Similarly, Puurtinen (2004, p.166) views explicitation as a translation universal which can be spotted by reference to the ST, i.e. it involves making implicit information in the ST explicit in the corresponding TT, or it involves a higher degree of explicitness in translated texts than in non-translated texts in the same language.

Other scholars reject the view that explicitation is a translation-distinguishing feature. House (2004), for example, refuses to deal with explicitation as a universal feature of translation. She instead suggests the "competing" hypothesis

which views “differences in linguistic-stylistic conventions between source language and target language texts” as cases for translational explicitation rather than a universal tendency of translators to explicitate (House 2004, p.193).

Another controversial issue concerning explicitation is its relationship to addition and which of the two is the broader concept. Some scholars support the dominance of explicitation (Blum-Kulka 1986; Øverås 1998). Other authors take the opposite position. Nida (1964, p. 227), for example, describes “amplification from implicit to explicit status” as only one of a variety of many types of addition.

### **2.3 Explicitation Hypothesis**

In 1986, Blum-Kulka introduced the so-called ‘Explicitation Hypothesis’. The hypothesis was formulated on the basis of perceiving translation as a process which operates on texts (not words or sentences) and hence needs to be studied – with respect to both its processes and its products – within the framework of communicative and discourse analysis. Blum-Kulka (1986) puts emphasis on both the process and the product of the communicative act and focuses on the cohesion and coherence components of source and target texts. Essentially, The Explicitation Hypothesis, which postulates “an observed cohesive explicitness from SL to TL texts regardless of the increase traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved” (Blum-Kulka 1986, p.19), underlines two different directions where shifts in cohesion in translation might occur in the target text: **a.** shifts in levels of explicitness, which result in the general level of the target text textual explicitness being higher or lower than that of the source text; and **b.** shifts in text meaning(s), which result in alterations in the explicit and implicit meaning throughout translation. On a textual level, Blum-Kulka (1986) underlines that such shifts in levels of explicitness through translation might be indeed linked to differences in stylistic preferences and different norms governing the use of particular types of cohesive markers in the two languages involved. However, they may also be attributed to the process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text, which might result in a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text. Regarding shifts on the text meaning level, Blum-Kulka (1986) explains that particularly in literature, different cohesive markers can serve different functions in the text and consequently any shifts in types of cohesive ties occurring through translation

may change the functions and can indeed affect the texture as well as the style and the meaning. This alteration in cohesive markers may be called the Explicitation Hypothesis (Blum-Kulka 1986, p.19-23). The results of her study demonstrate a rise in the target text's level of explicitness on different textual levels, which leads Blum-Kulka (1986) to claim that "explicitation [is] a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation, as practiced by language learners, non-professional translators and professional translators alike" (Blum-Kulka, p. 21).

Examining cases in which texts may alter or lose their meaning potential through translation, Blum-Kulka (1986) also reviews shifts at the coherence level. These can also be divided into two categories: **a.** reader-focused shifts of coherence, and **b.** text-focused shifts of coherence. Reader-focused shifts of coherence are associated with a change in reader audiences through translation. For a reader, Blum-Kulka (1986) explains that the text is coherent if he or she can apply relevant representations based on – for instance – their world knowledge, subject matter knowledge and familiarity with genre conventions. Blum-Kulka (1986) also indicates that these reader-based shifts are inevitable in translation as a process of bridging between cultures and languages. The most obvious examples of shifts in coherence which might be ascribed to a change in audience rather than a change in language emerge in the area of reference; whether real world or literary, allusions to persons, places or other texts, all play a significant role in building up the coherence of a given story. Thus two versions of an Air Canada advertisement (cf. Blum-Kulka 1986, p.25 for the examples) demonstrate the writer's awareness of these cultural differences and assumptions of the readers they were aiming for. In the version catering to Canadian Anglophones, the focus is on the importance of Mr. Jackson's business in New York, while in the French-Canadian community version, referring to Mr. Gauthier's business alone seems to be adequate. In both versions, the wives only accompany their husbands, but in the English version the woman's happiness comes from not being left behind, while in the French version it comes from breaking away the daily routines and from the romantic notion of travelling with Mr. Gauthier (Blum-Kulka, 1986, pp. 24-28).

By contrast text-focused shifts of coherence are linked to the process of translation itself, and as Blum-Kulka (1986) clarifies, are attributed to the lack of

translator's awareness of the SL text meaning. In other words, these shifts often "occur as a result of particular choices made by particular translator" and that "most of serious shifts occur not due to the [differences between linguistic systems] but because the translator failed to realize the functions of particular linguistic system or a particular form plays in conveying indirect meaning in a given text" (Blum-Kulka 1986, pp.29-30).

In summary, Blum-Kulka (1986), considers Explicitation to clearly manifest itself in translations compared to their corresponding source texts in three different types of shifts. The first are shifts in cohesive markers, which can be seen from an SFG point of view as textual-related shifts and can be in turn called textual explicitation. Reader-focused shifts on the other hand involve Klaudy's (2009) so called pragmatic explicitation<sup>1</sup>. Finally, there are text-focused shifts, which according to Blum-Kulka (1986) are attributed to the translator's choices and the way she chooses to convey the message. These might be affected by their own knowledge and experience and can be functionally recognised as ideational-related shifts or ideational explicitation. Blum-Kulka suggests that to identify explicitation of cohesion and coherence in translation, we should differentiate clearly between 'optional' shifts in cohesiveness and coherence in translation and 'obligatory' ones, i.e. between shifts which are "attributable to stylistic preferences", and those "dictated by the grammatical systems of the two languages". Only 'optional' shifts can be legitimately conceived as evidence of explicitation in the TT (Blum-Kulka 1986, p.33). Blum-Kulka also elaborates that the focus should be on textual or 'text-based' shifts resulting from the translator's 'diagnosis' or interpretation of the ST, and that shifts on the 'reader-based' level, i.e. information added by translator to help to cater for the target reader, should be discounted since they are to some extent unavoidable in translation (Blum-Kulka 1986, p. 34). She also asserts that in order to examine explicitation manifestations in translations, it is necessary to conduct "a large scale contrastive stylistic study in a given register [...] and then to examine translations to and from both languages to investigate shifts [...] that occur in translation" (Blum-Kulka 1986, p.33).

---

<sup>1</sup>. Pragmatic explicitation is concerned with explicitation of an implicit culture-related component of the source text. For elaboration see section 7.1.

However, despite being reasonably well-established in translation studies, and adopted to shape the framework for many studies on Explicitation (e.g. Weissbrod (1992), Øverås (1998), and later by Olohan and Baker (2000), Klaudy (2004), Puurtinen (2004), Pápai (2004), Hansen-Schirra (2007), Neumann & Steiner (2007), and Klaudy and Károly (2005)), Blum-Kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis (1986) has been criticized by other scholars in the field (e.g. Murtsari (2016), Krüger (2014), Kamenická (2007), Becher (2010), Pym (2005) and Séguinot (1988)) for being vague and narrow.

There is no doubt that Blum-Kulka (1986) has presented a very clear classification of different shifts which might occur at cohesion and coherence levels of discourse as a result of the translation process. However, the formulation of the Explicitation Hypothesis is not quite clear. For instance, Blum-Kulka (1986, p.19) perceives shifts in both cohesion and coherence in the TT to be manifest "regardless of the increase traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved". However, a few lines later, she differentiates between *optional* (stylistic preference-based shifts) and *obligatory* (grammatical system-based shifts) choices of cohesive ties, emphasising that only the *optional* choices should be taken into consideration. Thus, it is not clear what Blum-Kulka (1986) means by "regardless of any traceable differences": does this include obligatory shifts – should this kind of shift be counted as a manifestation of explicitation or not?. Becher (2010) criticizes this aspect of Blum-Kulka's Explicitation Hypothesis, which according to him, makes it clear that Blum-Kulka does not recognize the manifestations of obligatory explicitation, which are generally attributed to differences between linguistic systems, and optional explicitation, which manifests itself due to text-based differences (Becher 2010, pp.24-25).

Secondly, what is most important regarding Blum-Kulka's (1986) notion of explicitation is that it is conceived as a strategy in the translation process. This would position her notion of explicitation with Nida's addition (1964), which is also conceived to be a translation strategy. We can take 'strategy' to mean "the translator's overall 'game-plan', consisting of set of strategic decisions taken after an initial reading of the ST, but before starting detailed translation" (Dickins, Hervey and Higgins 2017, p.2). As a strategy explicitation is a translation approach that, like any other translation approach, might be adopted by one

translator but not by another, subject to different variables. As such it cannot be claimed to be inherent in translations since it is influenced by varied factors such as the translator's knowledge, experience and their own assumptions regarding their readers cognitive ability and can fluctuate from one translation to another according to these variables. This leads us to question Blum-Kulka's (1986) claim which postulates that "explicitation is a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation" (Blum-Kulka 1986, p. 21). How can a translation strategy be universal and inherent to translation process? None of the translation strategies presented in the literature are claimed to be inherent in the translation process. Blum-Kulka (1986, p. 33) herself later in her paper indicates the need for a large scale contrastive stylistic study examining cohesive patterns in SL and TL in a given register to establish this assumption. In the same vein, Sèguinot (1988) highlights that Blum-Kulka's (1986) notion of explicitation has failed to differentiate between strategies which are adopted by a translator and those of editing which also seem to be part of the interpretation process of a source text.

Similarly, Blum-Kulka's assumption that explicitation is significantly manifest in the work of non-professional translators and that the less experienced the translator is the more their process of interpretation of the SL might affect their TL text should also be reviewed. The process of interpretation is very complex and is notably affected by many influences, among them the translator's cognitive abilities as well as their linguistic and cultural knowledge of the two languages involved together with their professionalism and experience. There are also other translation-task variables which might impose certain restrictions on the translator's work regardless of their experience. In addition, this assumption implies that explicitation "may be common, but that it is undesirable, that there might have been a way of producing a better translation or that a more competent translator might have produced an equivalent text" (Sèguinot 1988, p.107)

Thirdly, Blum-Kulka's (1986) notion of explicitation is associated with redundancy. She suggests that "the process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text might lead to a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text. This redundancy can be expressed by arise in the level of cohesive explicitness in the TL text" (Blum-Kulka 1986, p.19). In other words, the more cohesive markers used in the text, the more redundant it is. However, this cannot be always the case. The use of cohesive markers is often governed by different

norms and constraints imposed by the grammatical system and the nature of the languages involved, and Blum-Kulka's notion of redundancy as being linked to explicitation seems to fail to consider this dissimilarity. Unlike English, the rhetorical norms of Arabic and Hebrew, for instance, are known to tolerate lexical repetition and thus texts in these languages tend to exhibit a higher degree of lexical repetition than do texts in English. Levenston (1976) and Berman (1978) have compared English with Hebrew in terms of the preference for lexical repetition and pronominalization and have found that writing in Hebrew has a strong tendency for the use of the former while in English writers tend to prefer the latter (see Blum-Kulka's 1986, p. 19). In the same vein, Al-Khafaji (2005) has contrasted the lexical chain in Arabic and English texts. Despite being small in size, the corpus analysis has revealed that Arabic tends to have long lexical chains and that it demonstrates a noticeably higher occurrence of lexical repetition than do English texts. Redundancy is defined by Nida and Taber (1969) as "the expression more than once of the same units of information" (Nida and Taber 1969, p. 205). Although this might involve repetition which is in some cases an explicitation feature, this does not necessarily mean that redundancy is a necessary concomitant of explicitation in the sense that it explicates an implied meaning that supposed to be inferred by context. Sèguinot (1988) also rejects this narrow assumption stressing that explicitation does not necessarily mean redundancy. Languages are different in the amount of information they convey and the way they convey it, i.e. languages are inherently more or less explicit or implicit in their formal and stylistic properties. Sèguinot (1988) adds that most of the examples given by Blum-Kulka (1986) can be interpreted by differences in structure and stylistic and rhetorical preferences of English and French. Whilst English verbs are inherently more precise and expressive, French, like Arabic, marks grammatical gender explicitly, which in turn leads to more explicit anaphoric reference. Sèguinot (1988) then concludes that the notion of explicitation in translation studies should be therefore confined to additions in a translated text which cannot be described as a result of the structural, stylistic or rhetorical differences between the two languages (Sèguinot 1988, pp. 106-108). Fourthly, Blum-Kulka's formulation of the Explicitation Hypothesis seems to fail to address the reverse phenomenon, i.e. implicitation. The hypothesis does not discuss whether the explicitation occurrences of the target text correspond to

implication cases in the source text or not. If this is the case, then the translator's role as a mediator and reader assistant should be addressed and taken into consideration when studying explicitation cases. Newmark (1981, p.128) describes the translator's role as simply that of reader assistant whose duty is to "make or indicate the sense of a passage than to funk the issue by rendering it 'correctly'. He may have to explain or transpose allusions, supply reasons, emphasize contrasts even if the SL text is generalized and abstracted". In fact, Newmark's (1981) description of the role of a translator as reader assistant is to some extent agreed upon in the field of translation. This leads us to question the explicitation notion presented by Blum-Kulka (1968), as to what extent shifts in cohesion could be regarded as shifts in level of explicitness in the TT rather than shifts imposed by translator's desire to assist the TL text reader.

Having reviewed some issues with Blum-Kulka's (1968) Explicitation Hypothesis, it is important to indicate that despite rejecting the 'translation-inherent' notion of the Explicitation Hypothesis, the present study departs from the essential assumption which regards this as a result of a strategy adopted by a translator based on the interpretation performed by them of the source text during the translation process. In addition, this study takes some other non-linguistic variables into consideration in order to specify the conditions under which explicitation can be observed. Thus, the prognostication underlying the study is that explicitation manifestations in the TL text occur as a result of a strategy adopted either consciously or sub-consciously by one translator and potentially rejected by another to render a more easily understandable text for the target audience. The translator's decision is taken probably based on different influences, including their assumptions regarding their audience's cognitive ability, the communicative and expectancy norms and the intended target readers (in this study, young readers).

## 2.4 Studies on Explicitation Hypothesis

### 2.4.1 Corpus-based Studies

Before reviewing some corpus-based studies on explicitation in the following section, it is important to briefly shed some light on the corpus-based approach to translation studies – where it comes from and how it has been employed to study translation. In 1993, Baker anticipated that “the availability of large corpora of both original and translated text, together with the development of a corpus-driven methodology will enable translation scholars to uncover the nature of translated texts as a mediated communicative event” (Baker 1993, p. 243). Later, she wrote three articles (Baker 1996, 1998, 1999 cited in Laviosa, 2011) to establish some operational guidelines on the collaboration between corpus-based translation studies (CTS) and descriptive translation studies (DTS). The focus of her work was on how to associate hypotheses and methodology to study some translation phenomena such as the notion of translation universals. In fact, Baker’s proposal to combine corpus linguistics and DTS has contributed to pushing forward the study of universals, since “Both corpus linguistics and DTS adopt a comparative research model in which descriptive hypotheses that make claims about the probabilistic generality of a given phenomenon are put forward, and texts are examined across corpora representing different language varieties” (Laviosa, 2011, p.14). From a practical point of view, the availability of the electronic corpus methodology to translation studies and the associated empirical practices have led to an increased interest within translation studies in so-called translation universals in general and explicitation as a translation-specific feature in particular. Thus, most of the studies on explicitation have employed a computer-based approach to investigate the various manifestations of this feature, by comparing either source texts with their counterpart target texts, using ‘parallel corpora’, or target texts with non-translated texts (i.e. texts originally written in the TT language), using ‘comparable corpora’. It has become possible to implement appropriate quantitative measurements to explore the tendency towards explicitation in translation in a variety of language pairs. The following section reviews some studies on explicitation which employ the corpus-based approach to investigate the phenomenon.

### 2.4.1.1 Reporting 'that' in Translated Text

One of the most frequently referenced studies which set out to examine Explication Hypothesis is Olohan and Baker's (2000) study, which analyses the inclusion and omission of optional *that* with the reporting verbs 'say' and 'tell' in translated English and original English. The rationale underlying their study is that if explicitation is essentially an inherent feature of translation process, then translated text are expected to show a more frequent occurrence of the use of optional or redundant syntactic elements than texts originally written in the same language. Their study provides evidence of what they called "an inherent and subconscious" incidence of optional *that* in translated English.

The data on which their study is based derives from two corpora: TEC (the *Translational English Corpus*) and a subset of the BNC (the *British National Corpus*). In order to examine their postulation, the researchers first survey of occurrences of the reporting verbs *say* and *tell* in the TEC and the BNC. Cases where the verbs *say* and *tell* do not occur with *that* as a complement were excluded and only cases where reporting *that* could be optionally used as in e.g. *she said [that] she is vegetarian* were compared in the two corpora regarding the frequency with which *say* and *tell* occurred with or without optional *that*.

The immediate concordances reveal that the use of *that-connective* as opposed to *zero-connectives* is far more frequent in TEC than in BNC which strengthens the evidence for syntactic explicitation in translated English.

As for the verb *tells*, 213 concordance lines retrieved from the BNC and 217 lines from TEC, *that* follows *tells* in 37.5% of cases in the BNC subcorpus, but 68.75% in TEC. As regard to the verb form *said*, the study examines different patterns and reveals some interesting frequencies. The most striking difference is the use of passive voice in reporting structure *said+ that* which accounts for 8.5% of occurrences in the BNC subcorpus, but 26% in TEC. One observed pattern is where the reporting clause with *that* is not the first clause of the sentence and is linked to the prior clause by a conjunction or a comma such as *Erika put her list away and dutifully said that of course she would be happy to do ...* (BNC) and *José Augutín telephoned you and said that the film stolen in Milan....* (TEC).

Olohan and Baker (2000) may be the first study to examine explicitation on the basis of a comparison of concordance data from two corpora, one involving

translated English and the other original English. However, Olohan and Baker (2000) carried out their research using imbalanced corpora. The researchers themselves point out that the size of the TEC was still changing due to the addition of material to the corpus and that there were differences in the corpus size even throughout the process of compiling concordances for the study. Moreover, TEC consists of full texts of four different types. Of these, fiction is predominant, comprising 82% of the total number of words, while newspapers, for instance, comprise only 1% of the total. Similarly, the original English texts are mainly fiction and are put together as a subset of the BNC for the purposes of Olohan and Baker's study to match TEC in regards their cohesion and the date of publication. Despite the fact that this is not to be regarded as a significant distinction, it still means that "the corpus used by Olohan and Baker could essentially be described as single-genre corpus and not as a representative sample of translated English" (Becher 2011, p. 29). Becher (2011) further criticizes the researchers for not disclosing which source languages were presented in the preliminary TEC version used by them. At the time of Becher's (2011) study the version of the TEC comprises translations from 24 different source languages: Arabic, Brazilian Portuguese, Chinese, Czech, Danish, Dutch, Finnish, French, German, Hebrew, Hopi, Hungarian, Italian, Modern Greek, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Spanish, Swedish, Tamil, Thai and Welsh. According to Becher (2011), Olohan and Baker's results cannot be taken as a representation of "subconscious explicitation" unless we know "how many of these languages allow for the use of a complementizer with reporting verbs and how many require it?" (Becher 2011, p.31), since the greater the number of TEC source languages requiring a complementizer after reporting verbs, the more likely that higher frequencies of reporting *that* are a result of source language interference (Becher 2011, p.31). In addition, the researchers claim that the explicit *that* structure in the translated corpora reflects the inherent and subconscious nature of this phenomenon assuming that "translators clearly do not adopt a conscious strategy of spelling out optional syntactic elements such as *that* in reporting clauses more often than writers producing optional texts in the same language" (Olohan and Baker 2000, p.143). However, this claim regarding the subconscious nature of the phenomenon has not been empirically validated and the researchers have failed to rationalise their assumption (cf.

section 2.7.1 p. 56 for more elaboration on the subconscious nature of explication).

It is worth briefly mentioning that Olohan (2008) also uses a comparable corpus to examine aspects of explicitation in translated English texts compared to texts originally written in English, i.e. the 'fiction and biography' components of the Translational English Corpus (TEC) compared to a comparable corpus made up of selected texts from the 'imaginative writing' section of the BNC. The results of her study seem to support Olohan and Baker (2000).

Like Olohan and Baker's (2000) study, the focus of Olohan (2008) is to identify the subconscious processes of explicitation and their linguistic forms in translated texts. However, Olohan (2008) covers a wider range of optional syntactic features along with the complementizer *that* such as pronouns, omission of relative pronoun *wh-/that*, omission of complementiser *to*, omission of *after/while* in (after) having and (while) \*ing, and omission of *in order*. The rationale for this research is that "if explicitation is genuinely an inherent feature of translation, translated texts might manifest a higher frequency of the use of optional syntactic elements than written works in the same language, i.e. translations may render grammatical relations more explicit more often – and perhaps in linguistic environments where there is no obvious justification for doing so – than authors in English" (Olohan 2008, p.155-156)

The results also reveal that the TEC make significant use of *who* as a relative pronoun rather than as an interrogative. 44% of the BNC occurrences of *who's* or *who is* are interrogative, compared with only 15% of total occurrences in TEC. The use of *who is* as a complete form of relative pronoun is considerably more frequent in TEC than in BNC. Likewise, *who've* and *who'd*, occur significantly more frequently in TEC than the corresponding full forms with *who* (*who have*, *who did*, *who had* and *who would*). The use of the optional complementiser *to* after the verb *help* is also significantly higher in the TEC than the BNC with a total of 137 occurrences compared with only 79 occurrences in the BNC. The results also show that *while /ing* and *after ing/ed* construction is much more frequent in the TEC compared to the BNC.

### 2.4.1.2 Explicitation of Conjunctions in Translated Chinese

In his pilot study, Chen (2008) attempted to employ the Explicitation Hypothesis to investigate the use of conjunctions in Chinese translations from English, using the English-Chinese parallel corpus (ECPC) as his primary source of data. The principle underlying his research is that Chinese uses less connectives than English, which according to Chen (2008) makes Chinese a good candidate to study explicitation through the use of connectives. Chen (2008) quotes Si (1996, p. 60), who suggests that “Chinese is a language of no links, at least it is so on surface. There are of course conjunctions in Chinese, such as ‘because’, ‘and’, ‘or’ among others [...] but they are usually not required as in English. In most cases, the Chinese language looks more like a dish of loose beads, with no threads linking them together” (cited and translated by Chen 2008, p. 298).

The ECPC was built by the researcher and consists of fifteen popular science and information technology titles in English and their translation into two Chinese versions, one published in China and the other one in Taiwan. Chen (2008) argues that this is to enable him to verify whether explicitation is motivated by regional or cultural differences. The results obtained from this parallel corpus are checked against a comparable corpus, Sinica Corpus, which consists of non-translated Chinese texts (Chen 2008 calls it a ‘reference corpus’), which again helps the researcher to detect whether the exhibited explicitations are influenced by the source text or not. In summary, the study is designed to do two things. Firstly, it quantitatively analyses the phenomenon by means of comparable corpora in order to determine whether a higher level of explicitation through the use of connectives in English-Chinese translations might be observed in comparison to non-translated Chinese texts. Secondly, it qualitatively examines the extent to which connective explicitation may be motivated by the source text, through the use of a parallel corpus. The initial results suggest that the translated Chinese texts demonstrate a higher number of conjunctions than both the ST and comparable non-translated Chinese texts, which may be interpreted as an indication of translational explicitation. As for the ECPC, however, the results reveal that TT1 (from Taiwan) has a higher number of explicit conjunctions than TT2 (from China). TT1 also tends to use certain types of connectives when the explicitation strategy is applied, whereas TT2 seems to opt for other conjunctions, which according to Chen (2008, p.207) may be ascribed to the translator’s stylistic

preferences in using this strategy. However, Chen (2008) also comes to the conclusion that the higher statistical frequency of certain conjunctions does not necessarily mean that they are explicitated. In other words, the higher use of connectives in the ECPC compared to Sinica Corpus does not mean that they are the most functionally explicit connectives. For example, conjunctions such as *yinci* (therefore), *youyu* (due to), and *yin* (because of) seem to occur with less frequency in the ECPC than in the Sinica Corpus but are more frequently functionally explicative. However, Chen (2008) seems to fail to explain why or how this is the case, i.e. although Chinese seems to use fewer connectives than English, more frequent occurrence of connectives does not necessarily mean more explicit text. It seems (as the researcher states above) that there is a spectrum of explicitness of connectives in Chinese ranging from the most to the least and vice versa. However, this fluctuation and its influence on the explicitness of the text has not been clarified in the presentation of the study. Rather, explicitation occurrences have been measured merely through the frequency of connectives. Moreover, Chen (2008) justifies using two versions to regionally and culturally verify his results. Yet his conclusion does not include any further clarification regarding these contextual influences, i.e. whether the explicitation occurrences found in the data could be attributed to regional motivations or not.

### 2.4.1.3 An Explicitation Syndrome

Abdelfattah (2016) studies bilingual concordance output for the English hypotactic<sup>2</sup> conjunctions *although* and *though* to quantitatively and qualitatively

---

<sup>2</sup> In SFG, the first way in which the clause complex is structured is called parataxis. This is where clauses are joined in such a way that neither is dependent on the other. Clauses joined in this way said to have a paratactic relation to each other. The second way of linking clauses in a clause complex is hypotaxis, where one clause is dependent on another, such clauses being said to have a hypotactic relation. According to Bloor & Bloor (2013) in the clause complex, paratactic (equal) clauses can be logically expressed by “linking conjunctions or linkers” (Bloor & Bloor 2013, p.179) such as ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘so’, and ‘or’, which are known as “co-ordinating conjunctions” (Bloor & Bloor 2013, p.179) in traditional grammar. The semantic differentiation between ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘or’ and ‘so’ can be simply summarized as follows; ‘and’ is additive, representing addition, chronological or logical sequence, while ‘but’ is adversative expressing a contrast of some type. ‘Or’ on the other hand is disjunctive, indicating alteration, while ‘so’ is consequential, involving a cause-effect kind of relation. They then assert that the semantics of these words can be very confusing and some of them involve different shades of meaning that can only be identified in context. Hypotactic (dependent) clauses, on the other hand, are structured by using “binding

analyse the translation of these two conjunctive markers in a purpose-built English-Arabic corpus. The corpus consists of three English source texts in the domains of history and philosophy and their Arabic translations, with a total word count of 387,557 words.

Adopting an SFG approach, the researcher investigates the concept of explicitation and highlights some structural explicitation tendencies. Structural shifts are found to be manifest in the two dimensions of rank and metafunction. According to the author, within the rank dimension, a word may be extended into a group, a group into a clause or a clause into a clause complex. The re-mapping of structural explicitation identified in this study originates in three types of metafunction shifts:

1. **Shifts from the experiential to the logical metafunction:** These take the form of upgrading the clause into a clause complex by using a structural conjunction and/or conjunctive Adjunct. According to the author, this includes instances of demetaphorization and ‘clausalization’ of circumstantial elements (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).
2. **Shifts within the logical metafunction:** This entails the number, and/or types of conjunctive markers being used together, with the interdependency relation between clauses.
3. **Shifts within cohesive conjunction:** This also involves the presence, number and type of conjunctive markers used.

---

conjunctions or binders” (Bloor & Bloor 2013,p.180,) traditionally known as “subordinating conjunctions” (Bloor & Bloor 2013, p.180), including but not limited to: ‘if’, ‘because’, ‘where’, ‘since’, ‘so that’ and ‘while’. In order to visually represent paratactic and hypotactic relationships, Halliday and Mattheissen (2014) uses double vertical lines (II) to refer to the clause boundary and the triple lines (III) to indicate the clause complex margin. In equal-status relationships (parataxis), Arabic numerals are used to indicate the clauses in the clause complex whereas in hypotactically related clauses, Greek letters are used to indicate the dominant and secondary clauses. To illustrate, the following are examples of paratactic and hypotactic clause complexes from Bloor& Bloor (2013: 175-177):

III We are here 6.000 feet above the sea, II and the equatorial sunshine is immensely hot and bright III

1

2

III the Blue Nile grows steadily wider and warmer II as it advances at a slower pace into the desert III

A

β

The results show that the number of occurrences of *although/though* in the three source texts ST1, ST2 and ST3 is 182, 65 and 138 respectively. In the extracted Arabic concordances for *although/though*, some interesting patterns of translation shifts can be found, and these patterns could be deemed to be instances of explicitation as Abdelfattah (2016, p.201) states. The most common Arabic conjunctive chosen as an equivalent of *although/though* in all three-target texts are the conditional concessive conjunctions *لو/إن/إذا لئن* *law/in/idā/la'in* (if, even if) with a total number of 122 instances. However, TT1 draws more heavily on paratactic concessive conjunctions such as *لكن* *lākin/lākinna* (but) with 41 instances compared to only 4 in TT2 and 6 in TT3. TT2 and TT3 seem to favour hypotactic concessive conjunctions such as *على الرغم من* *'ala ar-raġmi min*, *بالرغم من* *bi-r-raġmi min* and *رغم أن* *raġma 'anna* (in spite of the fact that) by 27 and 55 respectively. What is more important here is the structural explicitation shifts identified by the researcher. Abdelfattah (2016, p. 201) recognizes three main types of potentially explicating shifts: **I.** Shifts in taxis (interdependency), which mostly take the form of using a paratactic nexus or cohesive traits instead of the similarly available hypotactic option; **II.** Shifts in sequence involving the ordering of interdependent clauses and most frequently taking one of the following forms:  $\beta \wedge \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \wedge \beta$ ;  $\alpha \ll \beta \gg \rightarrow \alpha \wedge \beta$  or  $\alpha \ll \beta \gg \rightarrow \beta \wedge \alpha$ ; **III.** Reinforcement shifts, which involve the use in the target text of correlative concessive conjunctions where there is no corresponding correlative conjunction in the ST, and where the conjunction introducing the dominant clause is deemed to be redundant. Abdelfattah also recognises **IV.** Other explicating shifts, which do not fit any of **I-III** above.

Abdelfattah relies on a theory-driven corpus-based approach with a very sound categorization of the explicitation shifts on the basis of both rank and function. He suggests some potentially explicating shifts that are most likely to occur in concomitant clusters which he refers to as “explicitation syndrome” Abdelfattah (2016, p. 212). However, the examples given by the author seem to fail to provide clear evidence of explicitation. For example, in the shift of sequence group, Abdelfattah (2016, p.206) presents the following example as evidence of explicitation shift at sequence level:

EST3: Although his army was composed mainly of Macedonians, and although most European Greeks submitted to him unwillingly, he considered himself, at first, as the apostle of Hellenism.

Arabic TT3: ذلك ان الإسكندر قد اعتبر نفسه بادئ ذي بدء رسولاً يبشر بالروح الهيلينية، على الرغم من أن جيشه كان مؤلفاً من أكثرية مقدونية، وعلى الرغم من أن معظم الأوربيين قد خضعوا له عن غير إرادة منهم.

English back-translation: That is because Alexander considered himself, at first, as an apostle preaching Hellenic spirit, || 'ala-r-raġmi min 'anna (although) his army was composed of Macedonian majority, || wa-'ala-r-raġmi min 'anna (and although) most European Greeks submitted to him unwillingly. ||.

Abdelfattah (2016, p. 206) argues that the sequence is inverted from regressive to progressive, the dominant clause being given thematic status. It is true that the example comprises some in-sequence changes and some re-mapping and re-theming of the clauses. However, these changes do not affect the explicitness of the text, i.e. no implicit meaning in the ST has been rendered in the TT in a more explicit way. The re-composition of the clause complex could be simply interpreted as style difference of preference in use of language in the TL or by the translator but not as evidence of explicitation. Becher (2011) emphasises that it is highly problematic to study explicitation without taking the converse phenomenon, implicitation, into account (Becher 2011,p.20). In some cases, this is particularly true, as we can see from the above example that neglecting implicitation would probably lead to improper results. Abdelfattah (2016) draws on the formal and functional linguistic components of texts to identify explicitation, neglecting the meaning of the text and whether there is an implied meaning or not.

Another example given as an elliptical shift which is according to the author is the commonest type in the other explicating shifts group is as follows:

EST3: Such a reproduction there must necessarily be - <<though not by deliberation and contrivance>> - for the Intellectual could not be the last of things, || but must have a double Act... |||

Arabic TT3: لقد كان يتحتم أن تجيء هذه الطبيعة صورة للأصل – ولو انها صورة لم تجيء:  
عن عمد ومحاولة – ذلك لأن " الكائن العقلي" يستحيل عليه أن يكون آخر الكائنات، بل لابد أن  
 يكون له " فعل" مزدوج...

English back-translation: ||| it was inevitable that this nature (should) come to be a copy of the original – || wa-lau (even if) it is a copy (which) did not come by deliberation and contrivance – || that is because the 'intellectual being' it-is-impossible for him to be the last of creatures, but there must be for him a double Act... ||

Abdelfattah (2016, p. 210) rationalises this example by saying that the *though*-clause in the ST is an elliptical clause, and that the established preceding dominant clause should be presupposed by ellipsis. However, the translator opted for a full non-elliptical version, back-translatable as *though it is a copy which did not come by deliberation and contrivance*, which according to the researcher entails explicitation. This argument seems to be correct. However, the explicitation here is necessitated by the Arabic language system, i.e. it is an obligatory explicitation where there is no other choice but to render it this way. Note how ambiguous the sentence would be, if we rendered it into Arabic with an elliptical construction as suggested by the Abdelfattah:

لقد كان يتحتم أن تجيء هذه الطبيعة صورة للأصل – ولو عن غير عمد ومحاولة – ذلك لأن " الكائن العقلي"  
 يستحيل عليه أن يكون آخر الكائنات، بل لابد أن يكون له " فعل" مزدوج.

It is confusing here whether the clause ولو عن غير عمد ومحاولة refers to *the nature* or to the *copy*. The key change here is in the dominant clause where the translator opted to render *Such a reproduction there must necessarily be* لقد كان يتحتم أن تجيء by adding the words الطبيعة and صورة, which seems to be not reflected upon by Abdelfattah (2016) and which might be inferred from the surrounding text. This key change in the dominant clause has reflected on the translator's decisions regarding how to render the *though*-clause.

To sum up, the examples presented as explicitation cases have led us to question Abdelfattah's (2016) notion of explicitation. What is the term 'explicitation' supposed to refer to, given that no clear definition of explicitation has been given or adopted in the study? In addition, Abdelfattah has also failed to refer to or consider the different types of explicitation presented in the literature, i.e.

obligatory and optional explicitation, when discussing the given examples, which in turn leads to misleading results.

## **2.4.2 Qualitative Studies**

“Using electronic corpora is the most recent approach to thinking about possible translation phenomenon” (Chesterman, 2004, p.7), including explicitation. However, some studies have attempted to observe other aspects of the phenomenon without employing electronic corpora. The following section concerns such studies where explicitation has been investigated in the light of other translational or linguistic concepts such as pragmatics, third code, professional and non-professional translators and so on. In reviewing these studies, the focus is given to their qualitative deductions rather than their statistical outcomes; this is why they are considered in this thesis under qualitative studies of explicitation.

### **2.4.2.1 Pragmatics and Explicitation**

In 1988, Candance Séguinot carried out an empirical multipurpose study to test explicitation in the domain of English-to-French translations. The main purpose was to see whether the institutional attitude to translation and the different perceptions and attitudes guiding the day-to-day translation process would be reflected in the translations themselves in terms of their degree of explicitation, taking into account what is called by the researcher the “editing process” (Séguinot 1988, p. 108).

The notion of explicitation in translation embraced in this study is associated with addition. As mentioned early in section 3, Séguinot (1988, p. 108) believes that explicitation should be understood as additions in a translated text which cannot be justified by structural, stylistic, or rhetorical variations between the two languages involved. Accordingly, explicitation only occurs if there is a possibility for the text to be reproduced in a correct but less explicit or less precise way. As noted in Section 2 according to Séguinot, explicitation in the translated text can be found in three forms: “something is expressed in the translation which was not in the original, something which was implied or understood through presupposition in the source text is overtly expressed in the translation or an element in the source text is given greater importance in the translation through focus, emphasis, or lexical choice” (Séguinot 1988, p. 108).

In order to test this assumption, the researcher relied on two corpora; the first one was over 17,000 words and was produced by one person. The second one was around 3,000 words and was produced by two translators. The researcher worked with a revisor in the Life Underwriter's Association of Canada and the owner of a translation agency to obtain the translations.

In Séguinot's study, explicitation occurrences are found to be more evident through improved cohesion and coherence. However, there is less evidence of explicitation on the level of lexical choice. In fact, English-to-French translations tend to exhibit less precise vocabulary than the source text, which might be partly caused by the dropping of jargon words and the tendency to use more general vocabulary. In the first corpus of this study, explicitness is manifested by "improved topic-comment links and improved focus", and by "a raising of information subordinated in the source text into the co-ordinate or principle structure" in the second corpus (Séguinot 1988, p. 109).

As regards the pragmatics of the translating situation, meaning "the physical and institutional constraints on the actual production of a translation" as defined by Séguinot (1988, p. 110), there seem to be no differences in the degree of explicitation in the two corpuses examined. The only variation according to the researcher seems to be associated with the translator's style and their conception of their own task. For instance, the stylistic devices used by the translator of the first corpus are particularly interesting giving that the translator views French as more concise than English. In fact, the French TT adopted stylistic devices that are more common in English than French; semi-colon to shorten the text, dashes and highlighting technical terms. Séguinot (1988, p. 110) concludes that explicitation of information together with logical and textual links appears to be an inherent byproduct of institutional translations, while lexical explicitation on the other hand is ascribed to the stylistic preferences of both the target language and the institution.

What is more interesting about Séguinot's (1988) study is that unlike most of the studies on explicitation, it puts emphasis on the translators of two corpuses and their views of their own tasks examining how this was reflected in their translations. However, Séguinot (1988) tells us very little about the procedures and methodological approach adopted to carry out the study. The researcher

seems also to fail to sufficiently convey the translator's view of their tasks and how this was reflected in their translations. The following short paragraph quoted from Séguinot (1988, p. 109) covers everything he said regarding the translator's view of their task:

In the case of the first corpus, the revisor explained that both he and the translator tried to achieve a French text close to the length of the English text because the English texts they are given to translate are often badly written and because the French language is conceptually more concise. In the case of the second corpus, the owner of the agency explained that in their area of specialization, accounting and annual reports, the French has to follow the English relatively closely.

On the other hand, some notions regarding explicitation have been addressed in this study in a very different way. Séguinot's (1988, p. 107) criticises the fact that the Explicitation Hypothesis implies that explicitation is a bad way of rendering the text and that there must be a better way to reproduce the text than explicating it. Séguinot's (1988, p. 108) views explicitation as an inherent feature of the language itself, i.e. languages can be inherently explicit or implicit. French, for example, makes grammatical gender explicit, which leads to a more explicit TT.

#### **2.4.2.2 Explicitness in Discourse Across Languages**

Within the "covert translation project"<sup>3</sup> which deals with the language pair English-German and aims to examine if English as a global language influences the textual norms of other languages through the process of language contact in multilingual text production and translation, House (2004) attempts to investigate the phenomenon of Explicitness as manifested in different languages. She

---

<sup>3</sup> In this project House and other researchers (2004) examine whether and how English as a global lingua franca has an impact on textual norms of other languages through language interaction in multilingual text production and translation. The term 'covert translation' refers to texts "which are produced simultaneously in several languages and are comparable in terms of their function, their topic, the genre they belong to, and the conditions of their production, or they are first produced in one language – most frequently in English – and later translated covertly, i.e., in such a way as to account for different communicative norms and preferences in the source and target language. As opposed to an overt translation, which is squarely embedded in a new speech event in the target culture operating in a new discourse world and co-activating the source text alongside the target text's discourse world, a covert translation is one which appears to be, and functions as a second original. The translation is covert because it is not marked pragmatically as a translation but may conceivably have been created in its own right" (House 2004, pp. 1-2).

presents different types of 'explicitness' trying to make this 'fuzzy' concept more feasible for both qualitative and quantitative multilingual corpus analysis. Adopting Halliday's (1994) systemic-functional approach, the phenomenon of Explicitness is characterised as a syntactic-textual practise in which a primary clause is expanded by one of three alternative secondary procedures: elaborating, extending or enhancing. These three alternatives can be composed either practically or hypothetically. In an attempt to describe how these alternatives work, House (2004, p. 3) quotes Halliday's (1994: 225) explanation which compares them to "enriching" a building. *Elaboration* involves elaborating a building's existing structure, *Extension* extends a building by addition or replacement and *Enhancement* enhances a building's environment. For elaboration, Halliday suggests the notation = (equals), for extension + (is added to), and for enhancing x (is multiplied by) (1994: 219). The process of elaboration entails the expanding of one clause by elaborating on it or some portion of it through, for instance, restating it in other words, specifying it in greater detail, commenting or exemplifying by the use of 'i.e.'. The process of extending a clause means expanding one clause by another one, by adding to it some new elements, provision of some exception to it or to offer an alternative to it, using the conjunctions 'and' or 'or'. The process of enhancing, on the other hand, entails expanding a clause by embellishing or qualifying it with circumstantial temporal, local or conditional elements such as 'so', 'yet', 'then' (Halliday 1994: 220).

The underlying hypothesis beyond this project is that "there are indeed differences in linguistic-textual conventions between source language and target language texts (House 1996; 2003), that these differences need to be "filtered out" in covert translation, and that these differences are in danger of being annihilated through continued Anglophone linguistic dominance and hegemony" (House 2004, p.7).

In order to tackle this phenomenon, House (2004, p.7-8) distinguishes between *obligatory* and *optional explicitizing*. Obligatory explicitizing is motivated by the language-specific nature of syntactic and semantic structures and is most likely to be caused by the so-called 'missing categories'. This means that if obligatory explicitness is not attained, the target language structure would be ungrammatical. Optional explicitizing, on the other hand, is related to the process of translation, which is described by House (2004, p. 8) as follows; "as texts travel

through time and place from one linguistic-cultural context of text production to another, covert translation processes generally necessitate an adaptation – or “cultural filtering” – to local genres in the target culture reception situation”. Within this category, explicitness can be found at three different levels: the first is explicitation which is associated with the ideational component of the language in which the propositional content can be either elaborated, extended or enhanced. Within the language pair English-German, House (2004, p. 8-9) presents two extracts from her corpus in which all three Hallidayan-based categories of explicitness, i.e. elaborating, extending and enhancing, are represented. Such explicitness results in more informative, more didacticized and perhaps more comprehensible textual segments, House (2004, p. 8) believes. The second category of optional explicitness is related to the interpersonal functional component of the Hallidayan systemic-functional approach. House (2004, p. 9) emphasises that the so-called ‘pragmatic explicitation’, which in the case of the English-German pair is represented by German modal particles, referred to as “metapragmatic instructions”. Interestingly, the English original texts exhibit ‘zero realization’ of these metapragmatic instructions. House (2004, p. 9) emphasises that “where the German readers are given explicit interpretation clues, the addressees in the English text have to infer the pragmatic meaning from the context”. The third subcategory of optional explicitation concerns Halliday’s textual functional component, which is in particular related to the creation of cohesion and coherence in texts in different languages. House (2004, p. 11) implements, though with some modification, Halliday and Hasan’s (1976)<sup>4</sup> classic taxonomy of cohesion types and reveals that German texts tend to regularly use more explicit cohesive devices. In particular, “there were fewer occurrences of reference linkage (pronominalization), substitution, ellipsis and lexical cohesion and, concomitantly more occurrences of explicitizing conjunctions, especially “zusammengesetzte Verweiswörter” as well as a tendency to substitute linkage with non-finite (V-ing and V-ed) clauses with linkage via separate clauses” (House, 2004, p.12).

---

4. The main cohesive devices proposed by Halliday and Hassan (1976) are of two types; grammatical and lexical.

In summary, House (2004), argues that the tendency to explicitness in the German texts reflects the linguistic-textual norms and the so-called communication preferences of different languages. This is presented as “in stark opposition” to the Explicitation Hypothesis postulated by Blum-Kulka (1986), which considers the greater cohesive explicitness in a translation in relation to its original to be a consequence of the constraints of the translation process itself (House, 2004, p. 193). House (2004) also attempts to set out an explicitness model which covers different languages, adopting Hallidayan SFG approach to qualitatively and quantitatively examine this phenomenon in a more manageable way which seems to be very convenient to distinguish different types of explicitation but less so to fully explain them. It is worth mentioning that House (2004) was a conference paper, so perhaps this is why the explicitness examples given in her paper to test this model have been only concisely explained. The model, however, is designed to thoroughly address the linguistic and non-linguistic sources which might affect the explicitness of the target text as compared to the original. House (2004, p. 15) concludes that her paper adopts an inclusive perspective on explicitness as a translational phenomenon, emphasising that “If one wants to gain a complete picture of the many factors influencing what I have called “explicitness across discourse”, we must, however, also take non-linguistic factors into account, such as at least the following: translator variables, situational variables and translation-task-variables” (for the model design cf. section 8).

### **2.4.2.3 Bringing the Translator to the Picture**

Saldanha (2008) conducted a study aiming firstly to review two essential claims regarding explicitation found in the literature: **a.** occurrences of explicitation in the target text are associated with implicitness in the source text, and that **b.** there is always an increased ‘informativeness’ in the target text due to this implicitness-explicitness relationship. Secondly, the study aimed to test the fundamental assumption underlying her argument that explicitation when perceived as “forming consistent patterns across translations by the same translator can be explained with reference to relevance theory and the concept of audience design” (Saldanha 2008, p. 20-21). In order to examine this assumption, Saldanha looked at translations of Spanish and Portuguese narrative into contemporary English,

by Peter Bush and Margret Jull Costa considering three linguistic features in the chosen corpus: optional connectives, self-referentiality and culture-specific items. With regard to the first assumption, i.e. explicitation in translations in relation to their original implicitness, Saldanha (2008) addresses the case of optional connectives, taking as her starting point Olohan and Baker (2000). She argues that the inclusion of optional *that* in the translations does not necessarily mean that there is implicitness in the source text. She adds that the Translational English corpus (TEC) Olohan and Baker used in their study contains translations from a variety of source languages and some languages are more represented than others. She argues that this has increased potential source-text interference rather than explicitness. In the case of translations from Spanish and Portuguese into English, she exemplifies, the use of *that* does not mean that an implicit meaning in the source text is made explicit in the target text. In Spanish and Portuguese, reported speech is marked by the verbs *decir* and *dizer* 'say' and these require the use of connective *que* in most cases. This means that in most cases, linking the reporting verbs with their objects is obligatorily explicit. Therefore, the use of explicit reporting *that* in English translations does not correspond to implicitness in the source text. Nevertheless, there are some insignificant cases where the use of reporting *that* in English translations from Spanish and Portuguese is not triggered by the explicit use of *que* in the source texts. For instance, in a parallel corpus of 136,534 words translations of English from Spanish and Portuguese by Margaret Jull Costa, there were 23 cases where optional *that* is found to correspond to the use of *que* in the source text out of 34 instances in total.

As for the problem of increased 'informativeness' due to explicitness, Saldanha (2008) differentiates between the redundancy and the addition, clarification or emphasis of information. She then presents what she called a clear instance of explicitation, in which Margaret Jull Costa assists the target readers by providing a gloss for a Portuguese word assuming that this word is not part of the cognitive store of the target reader. The Portuguese word however, is not in any way implicit for source text readers, which again demonstrates that explicitation instances in the target text do not always correspond to the implicitness of the source text. Similarly, and under the same category of increasing informativeness, Saldanha (2008) argues that when dealing with culture-specific

items, the informativeness of the item is often relative to the target reader's cognitive store. Therefore, it is problematic to argue that certain implicit meanings in the source text are made explicit in the target text, which in turn increases the informativeness of the target text. A clear example of this is when Peter Bush has opted to render *chicha* as *chicha beer* in the target text. *Chicha* is a fermented South and Central-American beverage which is traditionally made from maize or rice. Although it is referred to as an alcoholic beverage in the particular context where *chicha* is used, this piece of information, which is implicit in the source text, is made explicit in the target text. According to Saldanha (2008, p.27), the term *chicha* is possibly more informative to a reader sharing the ST culture than *chicha beer* is to the Anglo-Saxon reader. However, a reader of the ST from Spain may not be at all acquainted with *chicha*. This leads us to question the degree of informativeness of a highly culture-specific term even among native speakers of the same language (Saldanha 2008, p.27). On these bases, Saldanha (2008, p.27) argues that we should reject the notion of pragmatic explicitation, which reflects the fact that "members of the target language cultural community may not share aspects of what is considered general knowledge within the source language culture" (Klaudy 2009, P. 106), since this will be misleading and will result in "assuming too much about reader and their cultural context" (Saldanha 2008, p.27).

Saldanha (2008) suggests that explicitation should be perceived as a strategy which does not correspond to the implicitness of the original text. Rather it should be associated with the translator's assumptions regarding their readers and their position as mediators across languages and cultures. She adds that in order to understand the motivation behind a translator's decisions regarding explicitation, we need to draw on relevance theory<sup>5</sup>. A central notion in relevance theory is that "In aiming at relevance, the speaker must make some assumptions about the

---

5. Relevance Theory is "A theory of communication and cognition which claims that human cognition is geared to the maximizing of relevance. New information is relevant if it interacts with old information to produce various contextual effects, and the more contextual effects it produces the more relevant it is. On the other hand, the more processing effort it involves the less relevant it is. The theory claims that all communicative acts carry a guarantee of optimal relevance – a guarantee that they have enough contextual effects and require no unnecessary processing effort – and that they are interpreted in the light of this guarantee" Crystal (2008, P. 412). For further information see sections 10,11 and 12.

hearer's cognitive abilities and contextual resources, which will necessarily be reflected in the way she communicates, and in particular in what she chooses to make explicit and what she chooses to leave implicit" (Sperber and Wilson 1986, p. 218; cited in Saldanha 2008, p.29). Perhaps this would sensibly explain why the results obtained from the two corpora show that Margret Jull Costa was less likely to resort to the strategy of borrowing when rendering culture-specific terms, and when she did she usually added some contextual information for the reader to assist their understanding. The same translator drew on empathic italics as in the following example referred to by Saldanha (2008, p.28) which according to Saldanha (2008, p.28) might indicate to the desire to facilitate her audience readability whereas this strategy was noticeably not used in Peter Bush's translations;

Así entró Alfanhuí de boyero en Moraleja, con doce reales cada día. (ST)

Thus, became Alfanhuí an oxherd in Moraleja, with twelve *reales* a day (literal translation).

And so Alfanhuí became the oxherd in Moraleja, earning twelve *reales* a day. (TT)

This tendency towards explicitation in Margaret Jull Costa's translations was absent in Peter Bush's translations despite the fact that they both translate for the same target language and readers (educated English-speaking). Since these different tendencies in using the explicitation strategy could not be justified by linguistic constraints, it seems plausible to argue that explicitation is a result of the translator's stylistic preferences. Explicitation then should be conceived as a translator's conscious decision that is most likely to be made on the basis of their suppositions concerning their reader's cognitive context and how they see themselves as mediators across languages and cultures (Saldanha 2008, p. 32).

Saldanha's (2008) is perhaps the first study to associate explicitation with the translator's stylistic preferences and their assumptions with regard to their readers' cognitive context. This is fairly consistent with the notion of translator's subjectivity, which is defined by Yan (2012) as "the translator's intention, initiative and creativity" (Yan 2012, p.23). Yan (2012, p.25) notes that when translating, the translator needs not only to be aware of the linguistic features of the text such as the relations between words, sentences and passages and how to convey them into the target language, but also needs to consider other aspects such as

the context of culture and the needs of the target reader. Accordingly, the translator's consciousness of the demands of the target culture and their target readers' needs, their assumptions regarding their target readers' expectations and cognitive abilities, their understanding of the norms of the source and target languages and cultures and how they identify and deal with these elements are all indicators of their subjectivity. This means that different translators will embrace different perceptions of these various elements and consequently different problem-solving strategies, different styles, different word choices and different degree of explicitation and disambiguation.

It is also interesting that unlike some other studies which perceive explicitation as an intrinsic feature of translation and focus on finding evidence or consistent patterns for it, Saldanha (2008) does not take explicitation as an inherent feature in translated texts. It is argued that explicitation is a common feature of translated texts; however, although most studies have argued for the existence of explicitation, we only can establish generalisation if these regularities are manifested within the same text typology, same audience, and same source and target languages.

#### **2.4.2.4 Explicitation in Translated Finnish Children's Literature**

In 1998, as the second stage of a larger corpus project which started in 1995, Puurtinen examined the occurrences of complex non-finite constructions in original Finnish children's books and English-into-Finish translations. This contrastive study aimed at comparing different varieties of the same language in a non-traditional way instead of comparing two different languages in the light of the hypothesized universals of translation. The term 'universals of translation' here refers to translation-specific language, the linguistic features of which can be attested in translated rather than original texts (Laviosa 2009, p. 306).

Such universals are postulated to include simplification, explicitation, and normalization. Other features have also been considered to be relevant to universals of translation such as avoidance of repetition, use of specific lexical items or particular grammatical structure, etc. (Laviosa 2009, pp. 306-309). As for simplification, which simply means that the language of translated texts is more likely to be syntactically and lexically simpler than texts written originally in the same language, Puurtinen (1998, p. 148) demonstrates inconsistent results.

In fact, although the translated children's books include more finite than non-finite constructions, there is a frequent substitution overall of finite construction with complex non-finite ones which is, according to the researcher, definitely not a simplifying translation strategy. Similar results have been attested regarding the Explicitation Hypothesis, which, as already discussed, assumes that translated texts are typically more explicit than originals. Puurtinen (1998, p.149) clarifies that non-finite constructions use fewer conjunctions, which results in an implicit relation between the propositions, and consequently reduces the explicitness of the text. Moreover, the non-finiteness of the translated Finnish children books contradicts with normalisation, which is defined by Baker (1996; in Laviosa 2009, p. 308) as "the tendency to conform to patterns and practices which are typical of the target language, even to the point of exaggerating them". Non-finiteness is, according to Puurtinen (1998), "a deviation from the syntactic norms of original target-language" (Puurtinen 1998, p. 149).

The researcher also describes the differences between finite and non-finite constructions based on their cognitive difficulty and presents a number of factors for the use of non-finite constructions: "first, they can hold a lot of information in a very compact form, and they tend to increase the information density or lexical density of the text and second they seem to contain less grammatical redundancy than the finite constructions" (Puurtinen 1998, p. 142). Puurtinen's (1998) claim that translated texts are less explicit than original texts, in contrast to most other studies, might be due to different interpretations. In fact, unlike other scholars who studied explicitation as a linguistic feature, Puurtinen (1998) conceives explicitation in a cognitive way as relevant to the readability and comprehensibility of the text among children which explains why non-finite constructions with loads of information are considered to be less explicit for the researcher, while for other scholars 'addition' is classically relevant to explicitation and is perceived to be an indication of this phenomenon.

#### **2.4.2.5 Expertise and Explicitation**

Blum-Kulka (1986) considers explicitation to be especially evident in the work of non-professional translators, i.e. the less experienced the translator the more their process of interpretation of SL might affect their TL in a way that would result in a more explicit target text. In an attempt to examine this particular postulation of the Explicitation Hypothesis, Dimitrova (2005) conducted a study to analyse a

number of properties of translation tasks performed by nine translators with different amounts of experience. The study was designed to be based on translation studies principles, more specifically, studies of translation as a process using think-aloud protocols. The emphasis was on analysing three main cognitive aspects of the task performance: planning, text generation and revising. These three main processes were originally identified in the model of monolingual writing suggested by Hayes (1996, p. 3 cited in Dimitrova 2005, pp. 19-20). The rationale behind this model is the assumption that performing a translation task shares some important cognitive practises with monolingual writing. These processes are applied throughout the task, shaping how the task is divided into different phases. However, the exact application within the same particular task differs from one individual to another. The study focuses on the implicit logical links in the ST and their potential explicit form in the TT as a specific TT aspect to be examined in relation to the ST. The main question of this study is “whether the explicitation of implicit logical links occurs in Russian-Swedish translation; and whether it is norm-governed, or whether other explicitations should be sought, such as the cognitive constraints of translation process” (Dimitrova 2005, p.61). The researcher compared translators with many years of experience in professional translations with other translators with less expertise and students. The participants were asked to verbalize their thoughts while performing the task; their verbalizations were audio-taped to be coded and analysed. In fact, Dimitrova (2005) examines different aspects in relation to translator’s expertise, including task definition and the time needed to complete the task. She shows that, on average, students needed twice the time needed by the professionals to complete the task. However, the focus here is on the explicitation aspect of her study. The study reveals that in most cases, the first decision to use explicitation is found to be made in the writing phase. The connective is typically verbalized at the same time as it is written down; in most cases, the process of writing down connectives is found to not be preceded by any verbalisation of it, or of any different or alternatives. In other cases, however, participants are found to first decide how to translate the conjuncts without a connective, then formulate the whole structure including the connectives before the verbalization and the writing down of the explicit structure during the writing process phase. Only on two occasions was the decision to explicitate found to be made after the writing process. According

to the researcher, this is an indication that “this decision is made, as a rule” and that “the decision to add a connective, as well as which one to add, is made as a part of unmarked, automated processing” (Dimitrova 2005, p.177-178). The data analysis has also showed that professional translators made the decision to explicitate implicit relations between sentences early in the process and they did so in a very textually standardized way showing a smaller range of varieties, while language students were found to make this decision later in the process using various types of explicitation. The researcher concludes that explicitation is done this way due to the fact that while the language students resort to explicitation to solve problems in the translation process, the professional translators follow a regular pattern on the textual level. She then suggests that there are two types of explicitation in the process of translation arising for different reasons. The first are norm-governed explicitations, which occur with such frequency and regularity that they could be attributed to the textual norms of the target text. The second are strategic explicitations which takes place as a problem-solving strategy during the translation process. This type of explicitation is the result of the translator’s process of interpretation (Blum-Kulka 1986).

#### **2.4.2.6 Asymmetry Hypothesis**

In 2001, in a paper entitled “Claims, Changes and Challenges in Translation Studies” which was presented at the Third International Congress of the European Society for Translation Studies, Klaudy introduced the so-called Asymmetry Hypothesis which suggests that “Explicitation in the L1→ L2 direction are not always counter-balanced by implicitation in L2 → L1”. This simply means that explicitation in one direction cannot always be matched by implicitation in the other and that explicitation is carried out in the TL text regardless of the explicitness level of the SL text. This assumption came about as a result of the analysis of the relationship between explicitation and implicitation as transfer operations in literary woks translated from Hungarian into English, German, French and Russian and vice versa. This view is corroborated by another study conducted by Klaudy and Károly (2005) to find empirical evidence for asymmetry in translation by studying the behaviour of reporting verbs when translated from English into Hungarian and from Hungarian into English. The researchers use the terms ‘operational symmetry’ and ‘operational asymmetry’ to indicate the symmetrical or asymmetrical relationship between transfer operations from a

specific ST to a specific TT and vice versa (Klaudy and Károly 2005, p.18). A symmetrical relationship can be identified when explicitation occurring in one direction is counterbalanced with implication in the opposite direction, while an asymmetrical relationship occurs when explicitation in one direction is not paralleled by implication in the opposite direction.

Explicitation and implicitation as defined by Klaudy and Károly (2005, pp.16-17) are cover terms including a number of obligatory and optional transfer operations. In general, on the one hand, explicitation occurs, for instance, out when a more general SL unit is rendered by a more specific TL unit, e.g. when the meaning of an SL unit is divided into several units in the TL; when a new meaningful unit is introduced in the TL text; when one sentence in the ST is rendered by two or several sentences in the TT; when SL phrases are expanded and rendered as a clause in the TT. Implicitation, on the other hand, takes place when a specific SL meaning is rendered by more general TL unit; when the meaning of several SL words is combined into one TL word; when a meaningful SL unit is left out in the TT; when two or more sentences in the ST are combined into one sentence in the TT; when clauses in the ST are replaced by phrases in the TT.

In relation to explicitation, transfer operations can be observed on both lexical and grammatical levels as follows; lexical specification, lexical division, lexical addition; grammatical specification, grammatical elevation (raising), grammatical addition. Similarly, implicitation transfer operations include lexical and grammatical operations such as lexical generalisation, lexical contraction, and lexical omission; grammatical lowering (downgrading) and contraction and grammatical omission.

According to Klaudy and Károly (2005) "if [...] we can identify a special group of cases where explicitation occurs in translation from a given source language into a given target language without implicitation occurring in the opposite direction, then we have succeeded in identifying a language-pair-independent universal feature of translator behaviour" (Klaudy and Károly 2005, p. 27). What is important here is that unlike Blum-Kulka's (1968) notion of Explicitation, this assumption takes the reverse phenomenon 'the implicitness level of the source text' into consideration when identifying explicitation as a universal feature of translated texts. In addition, it is opposed to Blum-Kulka's (1968) notion of

explicitation, which suggests that explicitation is carried out “regardless of any traceable differences” between the two languages involved in the translation process. Klaudy and Károly (2005) suggest that if explicitation is dependent on a given language pair, then it should not be regarded as a typical behaviour on the part of translators and might be attributed to language-specific influences. Only if we can identify a language-pair-independent cases of explicitation can we then take it to be a universal feature.

It is noteworthy that Klaudy and Károly (2005, p. 15) regard explicitation and implicitation as being a result of transfer strategies which are taken consciously by translators to render the ST into the TT. According to this, the motivation behind explicitation and implicitation as conscious strategies can be either language-specific or language non-specific. Explicitation can thus be obligatory and therefore is “symmetric”, which means explicitation in one direction corresponds to implicitation in the other direction.

Optional explicitation, on the other hand, is associated with the translator’s choices. As such asymmetry is very frequent in such instances. In this case explicitation is not motivated by linguistic differences but by “difference in language use, discourse structure and background information” (Klaudy and Károly, 2005, pp. 16-17).

#### **2.4.2.7 Explicitation as a Third-code Feature**

Departing from the idea that translations are different from original texts in the same language and based on the view that translation is a sub-language or ‘third code’, Øverås (1998) investigates explicitation as a feature of this third code in a corpus-based study of literary texts translated from English to Norwegian and vice versa. Adopting Blum-Kulka’s (1986) explicitation hypothesis and focusing on a postulated rise in cohesive explicitness in TTs, the study examines the first 50 sentences of 20 Norwegian novels translated into English and the same number of sentences English novels translated into Norwegian, the total number of novels thus being 40. The rationale behind this methodology is that if explicitation is found to occur in the TT whether it is English or Norwegian – excluding any shifts which could be ascribed to the linguistic specific-governed variances of the two languages – then the phenomenon is to be deemed a feature of the so-called ‘third code’. As cited by Øverås (1998), “the translation itself [...]

is essentially a third code which arises out of the bilateral consideration of the matrix and target codes: it is, in a sense, a sub-code of each of the codes involved" (Frawley 1984, p. 168). In searching for the third code, Øverås (1998) considers cohesive grammatical and lexical shifts considering two categories in both: (i) addition, which means adding TT grammatical or lexical items that are not in the ST; and (ii) specification, which denotes alterations involving either expansion or substitution. Under the 'grammatical tie' addition category, the researcher presents the following example in which *She crossed her legs* is rendered into Norwegian by inserting a pro-adverb of time in initial position in the sentence, giving a form which can be literally back-translated as *Then she crossed her leg*. In the same way when translating from English into Norwegian, the translator opts for substitution for the sake of specification so *looked at her* is rendered in the Norwegian TT literally as *looked at the girl*.

The results reveal that explicitation occurred in translation from English into Norwegian than in the opposite direction. The tendency to explicitate is found to be in almost all categories and instances reflect a "general tendency among the translators into Norwegian to explicitate and implicitate more than the translators into English" (Øverås 1998, p.17). According to the researcher, this might be motivated by the translator's desire to consciously or sub-consciously improve the original text, which in turn results in explicitation or implicitation shifts. These shifts are found to occur in all texts. About 33 out of the 40 texts contained explicitation shifts, which according to the researcher confirms that explicitation is a translational feature motivated by the translation process. The researcher indicates that the results of this two-directional approach (English to Norwegian and vice versa) should provide solid evidence that explicitation reaches beyond contrastive differences between the languages involved. The researcher also suggests that the observed rise in cohesive explicitness adds partially to the definition of the third code, which includes a series of features in typical combinations. One of these features as suggested by (Baker 1993) is "a high level of cohesive explicitness combined with a specific type of distribution of exotic features" Øverås (1998, p.18)

Øverås's (1998) study has shed some light on the 'third code' and 'translation norms' in translation studies and how these can be combined with cohesive

explicitness as a feature of translational texts. Øverås (1998) uses the term 'norm-confirmation' to refer to explicitation and 'norm-disconfirmation' to refer to implicitation. The rationale behind choosing these terms as explained by the researcher is the fact that explicitation has been proved to be so highly frequent in translational text as to confirm the notion of norms. However, this does not necessarily justify the use of the term 'norms'; the frequent occurrence of explicitation might be attributed to the stylistic preferences of the language involved or the stylistic preference of the translator themselves and not to language-related norms. The researcher fails to differentiate between linguistic-specific (obligatory) shifts and non-linguistic-specific (optional) shifts. Besides, norms in general, represent sociocultural constraints or models of acceptability of behaviour which are shared by and specific to members of a certain culture. In translation, on the other hand, it is generally agreed that norms comprise the common values and expectations of a specific culture, society and time that outline the acceptability and appropriateness of the process and the product of translation (Toury 2012, p. 51). According to Toury, translation as a practice is governed by norms, and these norms in fact act prior to the translation process itself. In essence, in order to consider explicitation as a result of language-related norms, we need to prove that the languages involved have a tendency to use more explicit or implicit cohesive devices rather than merely comparing bi-directional texts. Øverås (1998), however, does not refer to either of the languages involved having a tendency to use more explicit cohesive devices as a language preference or nor. This makes the use of the term 'norm-confirming' to refer to explicitation inadequate.

## **2.5 Other studies on Explicitation Concerning Arabic**

Most of the studies conducted on explicitation involving Arabic have adopted a parallel approach involving either Arabic-English or English-Arabic translations. Several studies have demonstrated explicitation on various levels. However, excluding Abdelfattah (2016), which adopts a more systemic-functional approach (cf. section 2.1.2), most of these studies have adopted the stylistic preference hypothesis and taxonomically identified examples of explicitation without relying on a clear linguistic framework to interpret their results. The following section will briefly present some of these studies.

### 2.5.1 Explicitness and Implicitness of Cohesive Devices in Translated Naguib Mahfouz's novels

On the basis of the assumption that languages are different regarding their use of explicit and implicit reference, Aziz (1993), examines the use of explicit and implicit references by analysing Naguib Mahfouz's novel *Awlādu Hāratinā* (Beirut, 5<sup>th</sup>ed.1986) and its English translation *Children of Gebelawi* by Philip Stewart (London, 1981), using translation equivalence as a model for his contrastive study.

Aziz (1993, p.130) analyses the results based on a cline of explicitness which "ranges from the most (or fully) explicit expressions to the least explicit (or implicit) expressions". Thus, proper nouns, for example, represent the most explicit referring expressions while pronouns are the least explicit. He differentiates between three types of referring expression: proper nouns, noun phrases and possessives, together with their subtypes.

The overall results show that despite the fact that the Arabic text has a large number of explicit patterns (which might be bound to the fact that Arabic tends to be more tolerant of explicit and redundant formations than English), the English text has more instances of explicitness of reference (Aziz 1993, p.149). The study presents a very full classification of the reference patterns and their mirror-image ones. However, except for one example in which the researcher attributes the result and the translator's choices to a difference in culture, he has failed to elucidate the motivations behind these manifestations and seems to be only interested in presenting them statistically. The figures of the first pattern; proper noun-pronoun reveals that only 92 instance of Arabic text proper nouns parallel with pronouns in their English version, whilst 312 instances of pronouns in the Arabic text are converted into proper nouns in the English version. With noun phrases, the tendency is reversed. The Arabic reveals a greater degree to explicitness with 282 instances compared to 221 in the English version. With possessive phrases, here are 455 instances in the Arabic text compared to 458 mirror-image instances in the English text, which indicates a very slightly more explicit English text in terms of possessive phrases.

However, Abdelhafiz (2004), in his study comparing lexical cohesive devices in another novel by Naguib Mahfouz, *al-liṣṣ wa-l-kilāb* and its translated English

version *The Thief and The Dogs* rejects Aziz's (1993, 1998) results, which to some extent claim a preference of Arabic for explicit reference. Abdelhafiz (2004), attempts to test two hypotheses in his study: the explicitation hypothesis and the stylistic preference hypothesis. His results provide evidence against Aziz's (1998) claim that Arabic prefers explicit reference while English opts for implicit. Abdulhafiz's (2004, p.22) results show that not all proper/common nouns in the ST are rendered as pronouns in the TT. Actually, out of 100 occurrences of lexical devices in the source text, 83% are rendered by recurrence (Halliday and Hasan's (1976) repetition), and 15% by partial recurrence, while 2% are rendered by hyponymy<sup>6</sup>. Identifying the lexical cohesion devices of the source text and examining how the translator has dealt with them, Abdelhafiz (2004) concludes that the lexical cohesion is achieved in the TT in four ways: (i) the item is rendered without any change (recurrence) or with minimum change (partial recurrence). (ii) synonymy; the second-occurrence item is synonymous to the preceding item. (iii) the pronominal forms in the ST are relayed by proper/common nouns in the TT; (iv) the occurrence of the second item is pronominalized. This is the least frequent possibility and has been attested by only 7 instances. According to the researcher this argues against Aziz (1998)'s claim that proper/common nouns in the Arabic ST are relayed by pronouns in the English version. Instead the study has shown that pronominal forms in the ST are rendered by proper/common nouns in the TT, which provides an evidence for explicitation. The contradictory results of two studies conducted on the same language direction – Arabic to English – and the same author underline that explicitation should not be taken simply as a linguistic-specific phenomenon. Other non-linguistic factors such as translation-task variables, translator's variables and audience variables should also be taken into consideration. The contradictory results of the two studies might be simply attributed to other sources such as translator's style preferences, their experience, their conception of their role as linguistic and cultural mediators and their assumptions regarding their readers' cognitive abilities.

---

<sup>6</sup>. Hyponymy is described by Crystal 1991 as "the relationship which obtains between specific and general lexical items, such that the former is included in the latter" (Crystal 1991, p.168).

### **2.5.2 Explicitation as a Feature of Acceptability Norms**

Another study was conducted by Al-Khafaji (2006) to investigate the norms which govern different types of translation shifts in the area of lexical repetition. The underlying assumption of his study is that translation process tends to be directed by two poles: namely SL adequacy norms and TL acceptability norms. Drawing on the 'repetition avoidance hypothesis', Al-Khafaji (2006, pp. 57-61) reports that the analysed translated texts have undergone three major types of shifts: (a) avoiding/minimizing lexical repetition; (b) retaining it, but with some modification/alteration; (c) emphasizing it by extension/expansion. Al-Khafaji (2006, p.63) attributes these shifts to two opposing sets of norms; first, a powerful set, which motivates the translator to avoid and reduce ST instances of lexical repetition when rendering and re-textualizing the TT; and second, a less dominant set of norms, whose aim is to retain and sometimes extend ST lexical repetition. Al-Khafaji (2006, p.61) finds that in about 10% of the analysed TT the translator has, rather unexpectedly, opted for a set of norms where they not only retained ST repetition but have added to it and extended it in the TT. According to the researcher this tendency can be considered as an instance of explicitation. Al-Khafaji (2006, p.63) concludes that it is acceptability norms that have motivated these shifts as solutions to problems in the ST. This means that opting for explicitation through extending repetition is related to the acceptability norms which determine the acceptance of the TT among the target text readers and culture.

### **2.5.3 Explicitation Manifestations in Translated English into-Arabic texts**

In an attempt to investigate manifestations of explicitation among non-professional translators, Al-dabbagh (2008), conducted a study with university-level students. 20 students were asked to translate a short story from English into Arabic. Adopting Blum-Kulka's view of explicitation to analyse the texts, Al-dabbagh (2008, p.104) demonstrates that non-professional translators tend to produce texts with certain explicitness patterns, these patterns appearing in 60% of the students' translations. The most observed patterns were the addition of cohesive devices and the addition of pronouns. Al-dabbagh (2008, p. 104) also interviewed the students to discuss their lexical choices. The discussion indicated that most of the student translator did not add elements in the translated texts

arbitrarily; rather, they were conscious of their decisions. They resorted to explicitation because they believed that explicitation facilitates mediation, it minimizes processing effort on the reader's part and guarantees readability.

Likewise, Mansour et al. (2014), investigated explicitation in a literary text translated from English into Arabic – Gibran's *The Garden of the Prophet*. The results revealed that the translator used different devices to make the translated text more explicit at different levels: grammatical, semantic and translation-inherent. However, despite Mansour et al.'s adoption of Klaudy's typology of explicitation, the classification of the results is vague, and it is not clear whether the researchers dealt with grammatical and semantic instances as cases of optional or obligatory explicitation.

Al-anbagi (2009) conducted a study to investigate the role of explicitation strategies in Arabic translated texts at four levels: lexical, syntactic, pragmatic and textual. Al-anbagi (2009, pp.52-70) used the term 'techniques' to identify instances of explicitation. For instance, lexical explicitation, one of the main techniques, is divided into four sub-techniques: (1) lexicalization, (2) expansion of lexical items, (3) addition lexical items, and (4) specification. Similarly, syntactic explicitation, the second main technique, is divided into three sub-techniques: (1) adding linking ties, (2) spelling out of implicatures, and (3) expanding of phrases. However, even though the researcher provides classification of explicitation techniques, she does not specify her view of explicitation, and no clear definition of explicitation is adopted in the study.

## 2.6 Explicitation Typologies and Schemas

### 2.6.1 Klaudy's Typology of Explicitation

In an attempt to classify explicitation into different types, Klaudy (2009, pp. 106-107) introduces three distinctive types of explicitation; **a.** obligatory explicitation, **b.** Optional explicitation and **c.** pragmatic explicitation.

**Obligatory explicitation** is basically related to language-specific difference. Languages being different, different syntactic and semantic structures of the two languages involved in the translation process will inevitably lead to text alteration. Thus, translated texts are bound to demonstrate deviations and shifts. Obligatory explicitation is one of these attested shifts and it is obligatory because without it

the translated text would be ungrammatical. Klaudy (2009) emphasises that “the most obvious cases of obligatory explicitation are triggered by the so-called ‘missing categories’”. For example, there is no definite article in Russian. Translation from Russian into English, which uses the definite article prolifically, will involve numerous additions” (2009, p. 106). However, the use of term ‘addition’ by Klaudy (2009) is not accurate, since in translation addition does not necessarily mean a more explicit TT. In fact, it might increase redundancy which does not always help processing and explicitation. On the other hand, Klaudy’s (2009) assumption regarding ‘missing categories’ is correct. In the case of translating from Arabic into English and vice versa, the gender specification feature of Arabic cohesive markers increases the textual explicitness of the text. For example, in English, the plural pronouns are neutral *They*, for instance, might refer to both genders, while in Arabic there is a specific pronoun for male and female (masculine and feminine), so the translation of *they went to school* into Arabic could be either ذهبوا للمدرسة or ذهبن للمدرسة. Furthermore, “Arabic rarely uses independent pronouns because Arabic verbs are inflected for person, number and gender. This means that any combination of pronoun plus verb such as *I took*, or *I saw* is rendered by an inflected verb” (Baker, 2011, P.138.), which in turn means more explicit text in terms of gender and number. The different grammatical systems of the two languages make the Arabic version more explicit than the English one, where the reader has to resort more intensively to the surrounding context to process the sentence.

In fact, obligatory explicitation which is ascribed to grammatical system differences has always overlapped with stylistic preferences for the use of certain types of linguistic patterns and cohesive devices. The lack of clear-cut definitions of these two concepts in the literature has resulted in inadequate outcomes in some studies on explicitation. In English-Hebrew translation for instance, Blum-Kulka (1968) refers to the fact that Hebrew prefers lexical repetition rather than pronominalization. This makes Hebrew TTs more explicit than their parallel English ones (1968. p.19). The question then is: should stylistic-preference-related shifts be treated as obligatory ones or should be seen as shifts that are attributed to the translator’s own style and their use of language as whether to adhere to the stylistic preference of the TT language or use less-common patterns. Is it possible to have obligatory stylistic shifts and optional stylistic

shifts? In Arabic for instance, we would normally translate *Heathrow* as مطار هيثرو, which literally means *Heathrow Airport*. This is stylistically typical in Arabic, although using only هيثرو would be acceptable. So, should this be considered an obligatory explicitation or a mere stylistic-preference shift?

**Pragmatic explicitation** is basically related to the cultural-related component of the text and is driven by differences between cultures rather than languages. Klaudy (2009) explains this as follows; “members of the target language cultural community may not share aspects of what is considered general knowledge within the source language culture [...] for example, names of villages and rivers, or of items of food and drinks” (Klaudy 2009, P. 106). The translator, in this case, might add explanations in the TT of information which is known to the source language reader but not to the target language reader. It is worth mentioning that pragmatic explicitation is similar to what Blum-Kulka (1968) has referred to as unavoidable reader-based shifts (cf. section 3), which means that in its essence, pragmatic explicitation is also obligatory, since it is in most cases unavoidable.

**Translation-inherent explicitation** is a mysterious type of explicitation and is described as a consequence of the translation process itself. However, even Klaudy (2009) does not provide enough explanation of this type and what the term ‘translation-inherent’ means in this context. Blum-Kulka (1986) associates this type with textual shifts caused by the translator’s lack of awareness of the subject matter or their wrong interpretation of the ST. However, it is still not clear what this type is supposed to look like. Is it an inclusive type which subsumes other types of explicitation since it is associated with the process of translation? Or is it an independent type with its own characteristics? Becher (2010) argues for the abandonment of the notion of translation-inherent explicitation. His argument is based on four main problems associated with this notion. Firstly, the postulated assumption of a separate translation-inherent type of explicitation is not motivated. This, according to him, is incompatible with the principle of Occam’s Razor (economy of hypothesis), which entails that entities must not be multiplied beyond necessity. This principle, which has become one of the cornerstones of scientific research, calls for hypotheses to be parsimonious in their assumptions and thus not only easier to handle but also more likely to be true (Becher 2010, p. 7). Becher further argues that in line with this principle, simplification could be a better explanation for a regular tendency to explicitate

the TT, assuming that translators desire to simplify the TT results in optional and pragmatic occurrences of explicitation. As such, explicitation could be explained by simplification without the need to introduce a new category of translation-inherent explicitation. Secondly, Becher (2010) argues that it is also not clear whether translation-inherent explicitation is of a subconscious or conscious nature. Thirdly, unlike studies on optional and pragmatic explicitation, studies on translation-inherent explicitation have failed to consider or control other interfering factors such as source language interference. Fourthly, most of the studies on this particular type do not actually provide a definition for it (Becher 2010. p.16).

### **2.6.2 House's Schema and Classification of Explicitation**

In an attempt to present a more practical approach to explicitation, House (2004) suggests a manageable classification of different types of explicitation based on Michael Halliday's (1994) systemic-functional account. According to House (2004), in order to fully understand this phenomenon, we need to distinguish between obligatory and optional explicitness. Obligatory explicitness, on one hand, results from linguistic-specific features of the languages involved, e.g. the dissimilarity of their semantic and syntactic features. Explicitness in this case is imposed; otherwise the target text structure would be ungrammatical.

Optional explicitness on the other hand is ascribed to the translational phenomenon. House (2004, pp.8-11) adds that as texts are transported from one linguistic-cultural context to another, they undergo necessary culture and context-related alteration ('adaptation'), one dimension of this adaptation being optional explicitness. This can be under three subcategories;

(i) explicitation in the ideational functional component of the language (field), in which case the content is either elaborated, extended or enhanced; (ii) explicitness that relates to the Hallidayan interpersonal component of a language which is realised by the dimension of Tenor. With regard to the English-German pair, House (2004) associates this with Klaudy's (2009) pragmatic explicitation (cf. section 7.1); (iii) explicitness that relates to Hallidayan textual components of the language (the way cohesion and coherence is produced in texts across languages), which is functionally realised along the dimension of mode. House (2004, p.15) emphasises that taking only linguistic-related factors into account

when examining explication will not produce a complete picture of the phenomenon, and that we need to also take non-linguistic factors into account for a more inclusive understanding of explicitness across discourse. Some of the non-linguistic factors are identified in this model proposed by House (2004) as follows:

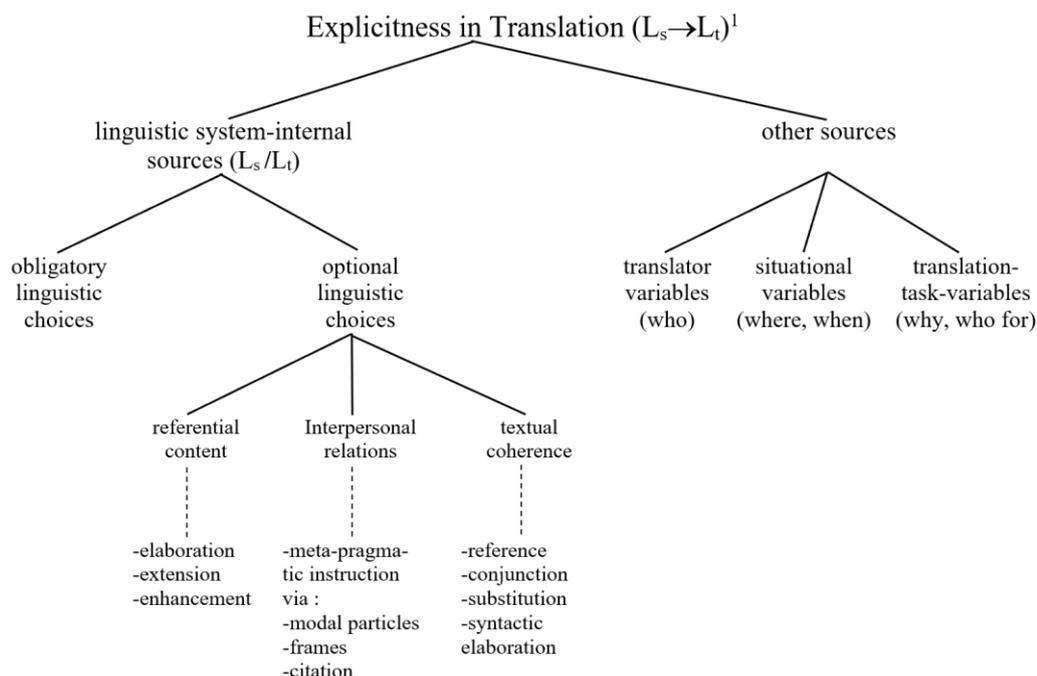


Figure 1.<sup>1</sup>L<sub>s</sub> = source language; L<sub>t</sub> = target language (House 2004, p.16)

### 2.6.3 Steiner's Model for Explication

In 2005, as a part of a project called *Languages in Contrast*, Steiner proposed a complex but perhaps more productive model to study explication. In this model, different notions of 'explicitness' of lexicogrammatical encoding and of 'explication' are suggested together with some operationalisations which are assumed to form a sensible scheme in an empirical corpus-based project to investigate properties of texts translated between English and German. In general, the notions of 'explicitness' and 'explication' have been often postulated as one property of translated texts, Steiner (2005), however, suggests an initial division between the two. Explication he defines as "a process, or a relationship, which assumes that some meaning "is made explicit" in the moving from one text or discourse to some other one". In other words, explication should be seen as

a relationship, a process or product – but not property – resulting from a TT being lexicogrammatically and cohesively more explicit than its ST counterpart. Explicitness, by contrast, is restricted to lexicogrammatical realization in languages and is therefore realized according to the Hallidayan linguistic metafunctions. On the lexicogrammatical-structural level, explicitness is related to ‘density’ and ‘directness’, which according to Steiner (2005) means that “the opposite of ‘explicit’ here is “lexicogrammatically not realized”. On the textual level, however, explicitness is theoretically related to properties such as “lexically impoverished, rationalized, clarified, expanded, ennobled, popularized, standardized, simplified, normalized, levelled-out, sanitized, direct vs. indirect; oriented towards self vs. orientated towards other; oriented towards content vs. persons” (Steiner 2005, p.11). Steiner (2005) further explains that the higher level of ‘explicitness’ in a text or discourse does not simply refer to the sum total of ‘explicitness’ properties in that text. It is rather an ‘emergent property’ which is regarded as being a result of the interaction of clause level characteristics such as ‘explicitness, directness and density’ with other textual features such as, for example, cohesion, markers of genre and register. Steiner’s (2005) modularization of explicitness integrates the properties of ‘explicitness, density and directness’ with the three linguistic metafunctions of Hallidayan (1978) Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG): ideational, interpersonal and textual. For instance, with regards to the ideational (experiential) dimension, explicitness can be measured by the number of explicit functions per discourse unit compared to the number of implicit functions. Directness can be measured by the number of directly represented experiential clause functions relative to the number of indirectly/metaphorically represented clause functions. Density, on the other hand, is detected by the number of grammatical units, clause ranks, and finite vs. non-finite, clause elements, phrase elements and groups. Interestingly, Steiner (2005) excludes adding and specifying of information, which are commonly postulated to be an obvious property of explicitation, from the proposed model. In order to elucidate his model, Steiner (2005, p. 16) provides a short extract in English and German from House 2002, p.205) as follows:

**English:** *Ground breaking* work that began *more than a quarter of a century ago* has led to *ongoing* insights about brain organization and consciousness.

**German:** Jahrzehntelange Studien *an Patienten mit chirurgisch getrennten Großhirnhälften* haben das Verständnis für den *funktionellen* Aufbau des Gehirns und *das Wesen* des Bewußtseins vertieft.

**Word-for word back-translation of the German:** Decade-long studies on patients with surgically-separated brain-halves have the understanding for the functional structure of the brain and the essence of consciousness deepened.

Steiner (2005) then elaborates that to have referents and properties added or missing is a frequent case in TTs relative to their STs. However, “adding of experiential meaning is not explicitation, but simply adding (or in the opposite case dropping) of information - which may be triggered by something in the immediate or wider context” (Steiner 2005, p.17). Furthermore, different degrees of ‘specificity’ and ‘vagueness’ in translations relative to originals as in rendering *more the a quarter of a century ago* by *Jahrzehntelange* (decades ago) in the above example, is not explicitation (Steiner 2005, p.17). According to Steiner (2005) although there is a different degree of explicitness, density and directness in terms of lexicogrammatical and cohesive constructions, this would not be taken as explicitation since it is not triggered by implicitness in the original and consequently not resulting from a translation relation. This forms another principle of Steiner’s (2005) model, which stresses that explicit meanings are to be regarded as such only if they are grammatically or cohesively related as explicit/implicit variants. However, this claim is not always accurate. Let us for example test this statement considering language such as Arabic, Spanish and Portuguese where the verb is inflected for number, gender and person. When translating from these languages into English we would expect to use a pronoun+verb combination to render the number, gender, and person-inflected verbs. In the plural structure for example the pronoun *they* could be used for both female and male persons (less explicit structure), which goes against Steiner’s (2005) claim that an implicit meaning in the source text should be found for us to consider an addition or specification as a manifestation of explicitation. In fact, we should regard languages as inherently explicit or implicit, some languages as mentioned above being characteristically explicit; i.e. they tend to use explicit structures or combinations while other languages do not.

## 2.7 General Observations on Explicitation as a Translational Phenomenon

Reviewing some significant studies in the literature which take the explicitation hypothesis as their point of departure has resulted in some common observations with regard to understanding the hypothesis and the employment of its principles. In the following section some of these principles will be revisited.

### 2.7.1 The Subconscious Nature of Explicitation

Blum-Kulka (1986) suggests that the manifestation of explicitation in a translated text can be a product of the conscious or subconscious nature of the translation process. This means that explicitation can be produced unthinkingly in a routine way in the process of moving from one text into another, or it can be a deliberate decision made by a translator motivated by different factors. However, some studies such as Baker & Olohan (2000), for example, claim that producing explicitation is a subconscious process, assuming that translators would not adopt a conscious strategy to spell out optional syntactic elements in the TT. This claim may not, however, be right: translation – in its essence – is perceptually similar to any monolingual writing process and can be produced at both conscious and subconscious levels. Moreover, translation as a process is seen as a problem-solving, decision-making and rewriting process rather than merely transferring words into the target language. According to Lefevere (1945, p. 96; cited in Baker 2009, p. 241) translation is an effective form of rewriting which involves editing, reviewing and anthologizing. As such, explicitation cannot be regarded as a subconscious process. Particularly with regard to literary translations, Zasiëkin (2016) argues the translation is a neurological process:

information regarding the input text goes first to the translator's perception filter. It directs the input information, according to the principle of "neurological economy" of human mental efforts, to the affective unit located in a "non- controlled working space". This unit is responsible for finding quick associative translation 'solutions'. There the information is compared with the available 'old information' which at some previous point has been obtained and stored as a set of prototypes in the translator's long-term memory. The choice of a certain prototypical structure as a starting point for the future translator's handling of source

fragments is governed by mechanisms of equivalent substitutions and probabilities that entail active prediction of the input information on the basis of translator's experience. These statistical features are integrated with one another by an associative-holistic mechanism. This launches the process of activation that correlates with the effect of the similarity of prototypical categories (Zasiekin (2016, p. 125).

In such cases and with such long processing, the translator's decisions cannot be regarded as a merely subconscious process. In fact, the communicative nature of the translation process involves continual oscillation between conscious and subconscious mental processing. In other words, translation decisions are governed by the translator's ability to relate the semantic and linguistic load of input text with the corresponding prototypical ones stored in her/his long memory. This process might result in relying on ready-made translation patterns, which is a subconscious process involving automatic solutions to translation problems, or it might result in a creative pattern which in this case is a conscious rewriting process. However, in most cases, and as with mental activity, the translation decisions are made both consciously and subconsciously.

### **2.7.2 Explicitation as a Text-based Phenomenon**

It seems that most studies on explicitation – except some, for example, Séguinot (1988), which puts emphasis on the translator's role and translation institution – have focused only on textual aspects and failed to go beyond the text to examine other factors that might influence the occurrence of explicitation in the target text. This can probably be attributed to the equivalence account of translation, which perceives translation on the basis of the degree to which the target text resembles the source text. Translation, like any other communicative activity, cannot be examined independently of other factors – the translator, for example (the most important participant in the translation process), their stylistic preferences, their perception regarding their role as a linguistic mediator, and their assumptions regarding their readers' intellectual abilities, alongside other factors that need to be taken into consideration when investigating translational phenomena. The cultural approach to translation holds that “the translator deserves the status of great importance. Whereas, for a long time, traditional translation theory [did] not adequately justify the translator's status. They were neglected and marginalized” (Yan 2012, p. 22). Other factors such as the TT audience, the translator's profile,

the target text genre and its position in the target text culture also have to be considered as reasons for explicitation. Translating for children, for example, is different from translating for adults. Translating for children “is often viewed as rewriting for different audiences in different times, places, and cultures” (Lefevere 1992; cited in Stolze 2003, p. 208). This probably explains the tolerance towards some degree of manipulation, abridging and alteration in translated children’s literature, as well as explicitation of the TT. In translating for children there is also the issue of pedagogics as another purpose of text production which might require the TT to be linguistically, culturally and instructionally more explicit than the original. So other factors regarding text production are not to be neglected when studying explicitation. House (2004) emphasises that in order for us to holistically understand explicitation, we have to consider other non-linguistic factors such as translator variables, situational variables and translation-task variables.

### **2.7.3 Explicitation as Inherent in the Translation Process**

The explicitation hypothesis postulated by Blum-Kulka (1986), suggests that explicitation is inherent in the process of translation itself. This suggestion has resulted in explicitation being viewed as already established in translated text and it seems that most studies on explicitation were conducted with the sole purpose of identifying and statistically analysing instances of explicitation. The emphasis of most previous studies has been to detect textual dissimilarities (normally addition or specification) in the target texts compared to their originals and assign these to the category of explicitation. The second problem is the inherent association of explicitation with translation itself. ‘Translation as process’ is one of the three varieties of descriptive translation studies suggested by Holmes (1988). It refers to the “examination of the mental process involved in the act of translating” (Shuttleworth and Cowie 1997, p. 131). By contrast, ‘translation as product’ is meant to examine existing translations and draws on a comparative analysis of different translations of the same text into one or more TLs (Shuttleworth and Cowie 1997, p. 132). Therefore, the postulation that explicitation is inherent in the process of translation must be tested by psychological approaches to translation studies such as think-aloud protocols, which to the best of my knowledge has only been employed in examining explicitation in Dimitrova (2005). Most studies examine the notion that

explicitation is inherent in the translation process by simply referring to characteristic features resulting from relating translated texts with their corresponding originals or examining a comparable monolingual corpus. However, no effort has been made to dig deep into the mental processes of translation itself, the translation task variables, and so on. Accordingly, the results of these studies should be viewed as product-oriented not process-oriented since they basically draw on a comparative analysis of the formal and functional textual resources. Consequently, the notion of inherentness in the translation process should be abandoned, until it is tested by large-scale process-oriented research involving different language pairs.

#### **2.7.4 Explicitation as a Negative Feature Used by Non-Professional Translators**

A number of previous studies have dealt with explicitation as an unfavourable characteristic of translated text. This is reflected in the fact that some studies have linked the high occurrence of explicitation in translated texts to their being translated by non-professional translators. The view that explicitation is a negative feature could be understood by going back to the persistence of early claims of what translations should be like, for example the linguistic approaches<sup>7</sup> to translation led by Catford (1965) and Nida (1964). Many of these perspectives on translations were influenced by the word-for-word theory of translation and specified based on assumption that all translations are the same and that there is one ideal translation image that can be applied to all translations. Some of these early perspectives on ideal translations are suggested by Dolet (1540) and Tytler (1797) listed by Chesterman (2004, p. 3) and include protocols like: Translations should have the same style as their originals, translations should not include any unusual words or expressions, and so on. Although the evaluation of translations has altered immensely ever since, it could be said that the influence of these classic early protocols and perceptions of translation has unconsciously led us to considering strategies like explicitation to be negative in translated texts. However, again, this postulation that explicitation is a negative feature for translations has not been empirically verified, i.e. almost none of the studies has

---

7. For further information on different approaches to translation and translation turns see Malmkjær (2005) and Snell-Hornby (2006).

measured the influence of explicitation on the translated text and its readers in terms of, for example, comprehensibility, predictability and readability, or whether explicitation strategies had a negative, positive or neutral impact on the structure of translated texts. Newmark (1991) emphasises that “Translation is concerned with moral and with factual truth. This truth can be effectively rendered only if it is grasped by the reader, and that is the purpose and the end of translation” (Newmark 1991. p. 1) wondering if it “Should [...] be grasped readily, or only after some effort?” (Newmark 1991, p.1). In other words, the essential purpose of a translation is to be effectively rendered such that it is easily grasped by the reader. If this is true, translators are then required to assess their readers to ascertain that they can linguistically, culturally and pragmatically comprehend the TT and not to merely produce a word-for-word TT leaving the rest for the readers to tackle. In fact, most translators measure the success of a translation by the degree to which it does not read like a translation. The translator is expected to render the ST into a TT in such a way that a reader is likely to be unaware he/she is reading a translation unless informed of the fact (Clifford 2001, p.49). As such, explicitation should not be deemed a negative feature if it is made for the benefit of the TT reader. In fact, in some languages which tend to be inherently explicit because of their own linguistic and stylistic system, such as Hebrew and Arabic, explicitation is an advantage not a disadvantage. Accordingly, at least in some cases explicitation should not be definitively deemed a negative feature of translated texts.

## **2.8 Filling the Gap**

Since being presented by Blum-Kulka (1986) as a potential translation feature, explicitation has continued to be accepted by some scholars and rejected by others as being vague and elusive. Explicitation as an established notion appears to stand at a crossroads of different approaches to studying translation: approaches studying the general tendency within specific pairs of languages or individual translations; approaches to studying translation as process and product; approaches to studying the cognitive aspects of translation production; the influence of the translator’s experience; and sociocultural aspects of translation. In a few studies, the notion of explicitation seems to be associated with significant concepts in translation studies such as norms, translator’s style

and universals. However, in studying explicitation, most researchers, for instance, Olohan and Baker (2000), Chen (2008), Dimitrova (2005) have drawn on the linguistic approach focusing on only textual, formal and functional elements, and neglecting the significant influence of some other factor whose impacts cannot be excluded. Sadly, instead of trying to understand the occurrences of explicitation by inclusively observing it together with some other key notions in translation studies, researchers have merely interpreted explicitation through the alleged mechanism of translation universals. In some cases, this has led to inappropriate results that could be justified by the presence of some other factors. Therefore, explicitation as a debatable notion in translation studies needs to be seen in a broader context which comprises both formal and functional linguistic factors, linking it to the principles of descriptive translation studies which incorporate all the participants affecting the translation production process. The present study attempts to understand explicitation as a strategic process by which something in the ST is made more explicit in the TT and as a resulting product where certain segments of the TT appear to be more explicit than their corresponding segments in the ST. This study attempts also to understand explicitation as a broad translational phenomenon which requires reflection on both linguistic and non-linguistic factors. The first feasible model to think of implementing these two objectives is House (2004) (cf. figure1, section 8). The model comprises both linguistic and non-linguistic sources of explicitation. The linguistic sources are applicable to examining the manifestations of explicitation as a product while the non-linguistic ones are appropriate for viewing it as a strategic process. Within this inclusive approach, the basic focus of the study is to understand the motivations behind the translator's choice to explicitate in some cases and not to explicitate in others. In other words, the objective of this study is mostly qualitative: to find out *why* and *when* translators explicitate rather than to quantitatively find out *how often* do they do this. The quantity and types of textual manifestations of explicitation shifts in translated texts have been significantly verified in the literature of translation studies. However, the motivations behind these manifestations and the answer to why they have occurred have not been addressed satisfactorily. As such the focus here will be mostly on investigating the non-linguistic sources that might influence the translator's choice. Simply put, within House's (2004) model of non-linguistic

sources, the emphasis should be on *who* (the translator), and their experience, style and assumptions regarding their readers' cognitive abilities. In order to investigate these non-linguistic impetuses, we need to view translation in the first place as a communicative and cognitive act where a translator works as a cultural and linguistic mediator. The burden here is on the translator to choose the translation strategies which he/she believes to be relevant to target readers. Relevance theory, which can be applied to the communicative approach to translation studies, is therefore, found to appropriate to interpret these non-linguistic sources behind translator's decisions.

With regards to understanding the linguistic sources, however, we need to address this phenomenon by systematic description that covers all levels of linguistic functions of literary discourse. Thus, for the linguistic sources, the study adopts Halliday's SFG approach to linguistically investigate the occurrences of explicitation at the different functional levels of the text: ideational, interpersonal and textual. Accordingly, the study incorporates two approaches, relevance theory and SFG to attempt to inclusively interpret the occurrences of explicitation. This combined-approach method is amply discussed and justified in the following chapter. The following section, however, is devoted to presenting a general review of relevance theory and its potential applications in translation studies.

## **2.9 Co-operative Principle and Relevance Theory as an Approach to Studying Translation**

Relevance theory was first introduced into translation studies by Gutt (1991/2000) with the purpose of helping to understand the fundamental nature of translation. Gutt (1991/2000) construes translation theory as parallel to communication theory. His main emphasis is on how the perception of relevance could help us to comprehend the meaning in the text that is being translated. He poses the question: if relevance theory suggests a more sufficient account of communication than previous approaches, can it then provide a framework for understanding translation? Can it in particular demonstrate how the translator can be successful in communicating to the receptor the series of presumptions the original communicator intended to communicate to his original audience? (Gutt, 2000, p. 99). According to Gutt, a translator must bear in mind the principle of relevance, which is simply defined by him as making the TT sufficiently relevant

to the audience. This means that a translation must attain an adequate contextual effect without unnecessary processing effort Gutt (1991/2000). The principle of being relevant is, in fact, one of the Maxims proposed by Grice (1975). Therefore, it is important to briefly discuss Grice's (1975) maxims in this section. We will come back later to review Gutt's (1991/2000) relevance-theoretic account of translation in detail.

In principle, the maxims suggested by Grice (1975) are established on the presumption that our conversations are usually not made up of a series of disconnected remarks. Rather, they are to some extent cooperative efforts: and each and every participant to some degree identifies a general purpose or a combination of purposes, or at least a jointly acknowledged track in the communication. This purpose could be either fixed from the beginning or it could develop in the course of the conversation; it could be more definite or indefinite to allow freedom to the participants (as in usual conversation). However, at every phase, a number of possible conversational moves could be barred as they are not suitable conversationally. A general principle can be proposed that could be expected to be observed by the participants, which is "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice, 1975: 45). This principle sums the following categories also identified by Grice: Quantity, Quality, Relation and Manner. Quantity relates to the amount of information supplied and covers the following maxims:

1. Your contribution must be as informative as necessary (for the present purpose of the communication)
2. You should not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Under the second maxim, which concerns the Quality of information, fall two maxims:

1. Do not utter whatever you consider to be untrue.
2. Do not utter for which you are short of sufficient proof.

Under the maxim of Relation, there is only one maxim: 'be relevant'.

Finally, the maxim of Manner is different from the previous ones by being associated not with what is said but how it is said. It subsumes the following:

1. Obscurity of expression must be avoided.

2. Vagueness must be avoided.
3. Try to be concise.
4. Be in order (Grice, 1975: 45-46).

These universal features are established under general principles of communication which the people communicating have to have regard for in their performance of communication. Grice calls this Co-operative Principle (CP). Some violations of the CP and the maxims could, according to Grice (1975), lead to what he calls 'implicatures'. By 'implicature' Grice (1975) means what the speaker means or implies rather than what he or she exactly says. So, a participant in a conversation may be unsuccessful in abiding by a maxim in a variety of ways. The following is an example of violation of maxim given by Grice (1975, p. 51):

A: Where does C. live?

B: Somewhere in the South of France.

Grice (1975, p. 51) elucidates that B's answer is insufficiently informative to fulfil A's requirements, which is breach of the maxim of Quantity, and in turn gives rise to an implicature. However, it can be supposed that B is aware that being more informative would result in the violation of another maxim, that of Quality, which says, "Don't say what you lack adequate evidence for". So, B implicates that he doesn't know exactly where C. lives. As this example shows, to analyse a talk exchange implicature, one needs to consider what has to be supposed regarding each maxim in order to decide that the Cooperative Principle is being followed.

An important issue to be considered here is the distinction between implicature and non-literal meaning, as in case of idiomatic expressions, for instance, where the implied meaning is different from the non-literal (i.e. idiomatic) meaning. An idiomatic meaning is conventional, and its interpretation depends on the linguistic system in question rather than on a favourable explanation of a specific speaker's anticipated or inferred meaning in the given context (Baker 2011, p. 235). Thus, 'round the bend' as an idiomatic expression has the meaning 'mad'. This meaning, like its more basic literal meaning, is conventional and part of the linguistic system of English.

Although this principle was originally worked out in relation to verbal communication, it is also appropriate to written texts including translation, which involves written acts. Machali (2012) argues that "The contribution (or no

contribution) of interactants (i.e. translators in our context) affects the exchange: how they understand what the source language text does and how they reproduce it in the translated version would determine the direction and nature of the communication. For example, if the source text contains implied meaning, the translator can choose to retain it as such (or not)” (Machali 2012, p. 81). Thus, when translators are faced by a text such as the following given by Gutt (2000, p. 29), their translations will be affected by their awareness of this principle.

- A. Margaret: Could you have a quick look at my printer - it is not working right.
- B. Mike: I have got an appointment at eleven o'clock.

As Gutt (2000, p. 29) elaborates, both the question and the answer here are entirely clear with regard to their propositional content. Let us assume that there are only five minutes before eleven o'clock and this has been already specified beforehand in the surrounding context or has been implied by the reader/hearer through their contextual assumptions. They can then develop an understanding that Mike is not able to look at the printer at present because checking the printer will require more than five minutes. Both Margaret and Mike present their required contribution for efficient communication to take place. However, this contribution is not made explicit by Mike, who could have said, “I cannot have a look at it right now as I have an appointment at eleven o'clock”. A translator could reasonably follow the contextual assumptions postulated beforehand in the text, which might include something like: there are only five minutes until eleven o'clock, the printer problem is not an obvious one, but will require opening it up, and opening the printer will take more than five minutes. This would then imply that Mike is not able to have a look at the printer now. A translator then can decide (or not) to reproduce the implicit meaning and make his/her contribution as such in the translated version. This is then his/her contribution in the translation. Having considered Grice's maxims, the following section will thoroughly discuss the relevance theory account of translation, which can be considered a development of these, as proposed by Gutt (1991/2000).

## **2.10 Relevance-Theory Approach to Translation Studies**

Relevance theory was first proposed in *Relevance Communication and Cognition* by Sperber and Wilson (1986), in an attempt to expand Grice's maxim of

relevance (1975). Although, like Grice's maxims, this theory was mainly developed around face-to-face talk exchanges, it can be equally applied to written communication and literary texts (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, p. 75 and Pattemore 2011, p. 268). In 1991, one of the students of Sperber and Wilson, Ernst-August Gutt, became the first person to apply relevance theory to translation (Zhao and Jian 2013, p. 944). Gutt emphasizes that translation is a matter of inferential communication whose success is ultimately based on consistency with the principle of relevance. If the relevance theory perception of communication is correct, then no adequate account of translation is possible without reference to relevance. Any successful communication is dependent on the communicator's ability to make his/her wording optimally relevant in a way which ensures that the receiver "can expect to derive adequate contextual effects without spending unnecessary effort" (Gutt 2000, p. 32). Accordingly,

the communicator gives the hearer communicative clues that allow the inference to be made. Translators, for their part, are faced with a similar situation and have several responsibilities: they need to decide whether and how it is possible to communicate the informative intention [...] what the degree of resemblance to the ST should be, and so on. These decisions are based on the translator's evaluation of the cognitive environment of the receiver (Munday 2001, p. 64).

Within this principle, one cannot determine the meaning by the message alone. To interpret the meaning, it is important to use numerous inferences before the sender's meaning can be understood. This has to be done even in the case when all the rules and resources of syntax and semantics are correctly interpreted. The text co-operates with its context to help the audience to reach the intended meaning (Gutt 2000, pp. 199-200).

The notion of 'context' in relevance theory is different from the traditional understanding of 'context'. The context of an utterance within relevance theory is "the set of premises used in interpreting [it]" (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, p. 15). According to Gutt (2000, p. 27) 'context' under this principle is a psychological notion. It therefore

Does not refer to some part of the external environment of the communication partners, be it the text preceding or following an

utterance, situational circumstances, cultural factors, etc. It rather refers to parts of their 'assumptions about the world' or 'cognitive environment' as it is called. The notion of 'cognitive environment' takes into account the various external factors but places emphasis on the information they provide and their mental availability for the interpretation process.

Gutt argues that "The cognitive environment of a person comprises of a potentially huge amount of varied information including information that it can be perceived in the physical environment or information that it can be retrieved from memory" (Gutt 2000, p. 27). By relying on the receiver's cognitive environment/context, the communicator might impel the reader towards particular ideas. Those ideas which are evoked during the communication act are called 'contextual effects' and might be explicatures or implicatures. Pattemore (2011, p. 267) notes that in a relevance-theory context:

Explicatures are assumptions derived from the text itself, including the results of assigning reference to pronouns, general terms, and deictic particles (words such as "here" and "there" or "now" and "then," which handle the "orientational" features of language that are relative to the time and place of utterance), resolving ambiguous terms, and enriching concepts in the text from the listeners' memories. Implicatures, by contrast, can only be derived by processing the text in a particular context. They result from the interaction of text and context.

House (2004, p.5) also discusses the notion of explicitness in comparison with implicitness in accordance with relevance theory. She notes that in some cases the semantic representation of the utterance provides only the most meagre clue to the expliciture which the listener is intended to recover, the process of developing a meaningful representation being heavily based on the context. She gives the following example of increasingly explicit utterances:

- (a) In there!
- (b) It is in that room!
- (c) The meeting is in room 307.

In (a), (b) and (c), the listener's or reader's reliance on context progressively decreases. Both utterances (b) and (c) express the same proposition, though (c)

is more explicit because, in this case, the listener or reader needs less reliance on context. How explicit the writer or the speaker wants to be is dependent upon the individual writer's/ speaker's (translator's in our case) assessment of the addressee's resources in the context.

In accordance with the communicative principle of relevance, communication with human beings involves an expectation of what is referred to in relevance theory as 'optimal relevance' (to be explained further below). Both the addresser and the addressee are supposed to fulfil the criterion of optimal relevance in communication. Any act of communication on the part of the addresser implies that the addressee can expect to understand the utterance sufficiently without putting in a lot of effort. The main claim of relevance theory is that the human communication essentially develops an expectation of optimal relevance, that is an expectation on that person who is hearing/ reading the utterance to understand it with minimal effort. Within relevance theory, there are two closely related concepts: maximum relevance and optimum relevance. Maximum relevance relates to the attainment of the maximum contextual effects with limited processing effort. Optimal relevance on the other hand refers to attainment of enough context textual effects with effective processing efforts. If any one of them (maximum or optimal relevance) is not considered, this will lead to a failure in communication.

In translation, to avoid this failure, the translator must pay attention to the cognitive environment and the assumptions made by the context. The process of translation involves the author, source reader, target reader, and cognitive environment of the target reader as well as the assumptions made on the basis of the text. Zhao and Jian (2013, p. 945) give three reasons for a paucity of contextual assumptions. The first is that due to changes over time people have very little knowledge about a past era. The popular culture and language of that time might cause an obstacle to modern people. The second is cultural differences; different cultures have different histories and values, which are represented in their language. The third is the lack of linguistic or cognitive knowledge; the use of difficult words for example would lead to a lack of contextual assumptions for the text. Because of the different levels of psychological perception and understanding, target audiences may not have knowledge about the background. As a result, clarification of the contextual

assumptions is a necessity. Relevance is then fundamental to communication skills and consequently to translation as well. If the translator is not aware of the readers' cognitive environment, and their ability to make context-based assumptions, there is a chance that their translation will be ambiguous and/or misunderstood.

The notion of relevance has also been discussed by Baker (1992, 2011). She refers to the principle of relevance and how it is particularly important to anyone engaged in cross-cultural communication by means, for example, of a translation, which includes a great amount of rewriting to relate it to the target audience's interests and to carry sufficient information to meet the needs of TT readers. Baker (2011, p. 248) refers to the famous Egyptian journalist, Mohammed Heikal, who wrote a book in 1983 about the killing of the Egyptian President Anwar Sadat. He originally wrote this as *Autumn of Fury* in English and then translated it into Arabic himself as *خريف الغضب*. The Arabic version has more details and is significantly longer than the original. For example, in the English version Sadat's wounds and his condition when he reached the hospital are summed up in one paragraph, whereas in the Arabic version the description extends to four pages. There is a chapter whose title is "organized loot" in the English version. This contains information on the systematic looting of the resources by the relatives of Sadat. This is more detailed in the Arabic version, covering twenty-nine pages compared with seventeen pages in the English version. This illustrates how important relevance is in translation. The translator's assumptions regarding their readers interests, background knowledge and cognitive ability will influence their decision-making and the strategy they use in rendering the target text.

Gutt (2000) contends that relevance theory should be the basis of translation theory and that all other translational principles are derived from it. Thus, translation as a type of communication can be described using relevance theory. Gutt (2000), in fact, goes even further to claim that "there is no need for developing a separate theory of translation, with concepts and theoretical framework of its own" (Gutt 2000, p. 235). Given this postulation, Gutt (2000, p. 47) dedicates two chapters of his book to testing a number of theories and principles of translation, measuring the success rate against what achievements can be made by means of relevance theory. He discusses the principle of conveying the same message as the original as proposed by Nida (1964) and

Nida and Taber (1969) under the notion of dynamic equivalence. In this, the primary emphasis is on “the dynamic relationship... that the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message” (Nida 1964, p. 159; cited in Gutt 2000, p. 69). This approach seeks to convey in the TT the ‘message’ of the original, which is defined as “the total meaning or content of a discourse; the concepts and feelings which the author intends the reader to understand and perceive” (Nida and Taber 1969, p. 205; cited in Gutt 2000, p. 79). According to Gutt (2000, p. 79) this necessitates that the translator should be able to overcome any obstacles to comprehension including those arising from the lack of contextual assumptions and differences in background knowledge between source and target audience, however, this approach did not provide us with any strategies to overcome these obstacles (c.f. Gutt 2000, p. 79 for further details and examples). Moreover, “Contextual assumptions and implications are not a matter of linguistics, but of inferences that have to do with people’s beliefs – cultural religious and so forth” (Gutt 2000, P. 80). Therefore, dynamic equivalence which is only a linguistic conception of translation is not to be seen as a sufficient basis for translation theory, especially given a view which emphasises that the only faithful form of translation is one in which information which is linguistically implicit in the source text is made explicit in the translation.

Gutt (2000) also looks at House's (1981) framework for translation quality assessment, which utilises the notion of ‘covert translation’ considering this the ideal model for translation. A “covert translation” is one which is not marked as such and has the same status as the original in the target culture. These are the only translations which have functional equivalence with their respective originals, and this is where House wants to assess the quality of translations. Gutt (2000, p. 50) however, thinks that it is not easy to decide on what function a specific text or part of text fulfils and that preserving one particular function might make a translation non-equivalent with respect to other functions. This means that functional equivalence between an ST and a TT will inevitably require radical alteration to the TT. Such ‘functional equivalence’ seems to not be appropriate as a basic notion in translation. According to Gutt (2000) this particular problem can be made comprehensible by making a difference between texts which are essentially dependent for their content and even for their existence on a

previously present text in any other language, and texts whose content supplements the source text (Gutt 2000. pp. 58-59). According to relevance theory, this difference is important in distinguishing descriptive and interpretive use.

Descriptive use is basically the use of an utterance or thought to represent events in the actual world. Interpretive use, on the other hand, refers to the use of utterance to represent another utterance which it resembles with regard to their contextual implications. In other words, two thoughts or utterances interpretively resemble each other if they share their contextual implications. To clarify, consider the example below from Alós (2016, p. 204) which is based on the assumption that snakes are deceitful. The utterance in (2) below is similar to that in (1) because both of them imply the same that Jill is deceitful:

(1) Jill is a snake.

(2) Jill is deceitful.

A text which achieves relevance in its own right is an example of descriptive use; on the other hand, a text which is solely dependent on a source text can achieve relevance only due to an interpretive resemblance with the source text. Translation theory is only concerned with cases of interpretive resemblance, since only texts which are supposed to attain relevance by virtue of representing other texts can be regarded as translations.

Gutt (2000) then clarifies how the relevance-theory account of translation as interlingual interpretive use can be used as a framework for a theory of translation. He (2000) starts by elucidating what is meant by saying that an utterance interpretively resembles an original, arguing that “In interpretive use, the principle of relevance comes across as a presumption of optimal relevance: what the reporter intended to convey is (a) presumed to interpretively resemble the original, and (b) the resemblance it shows is to be consistent with the presumption of optimal relevance, that is, is presumed to have adequate contextual effects without gratuitous processing effort” (Gutt 2000 p. 106). This principle as Gutt adds (2000, p. 107) constrains the translation act in respect of what is meant to be conveyed and how it is conveyed. Thus,

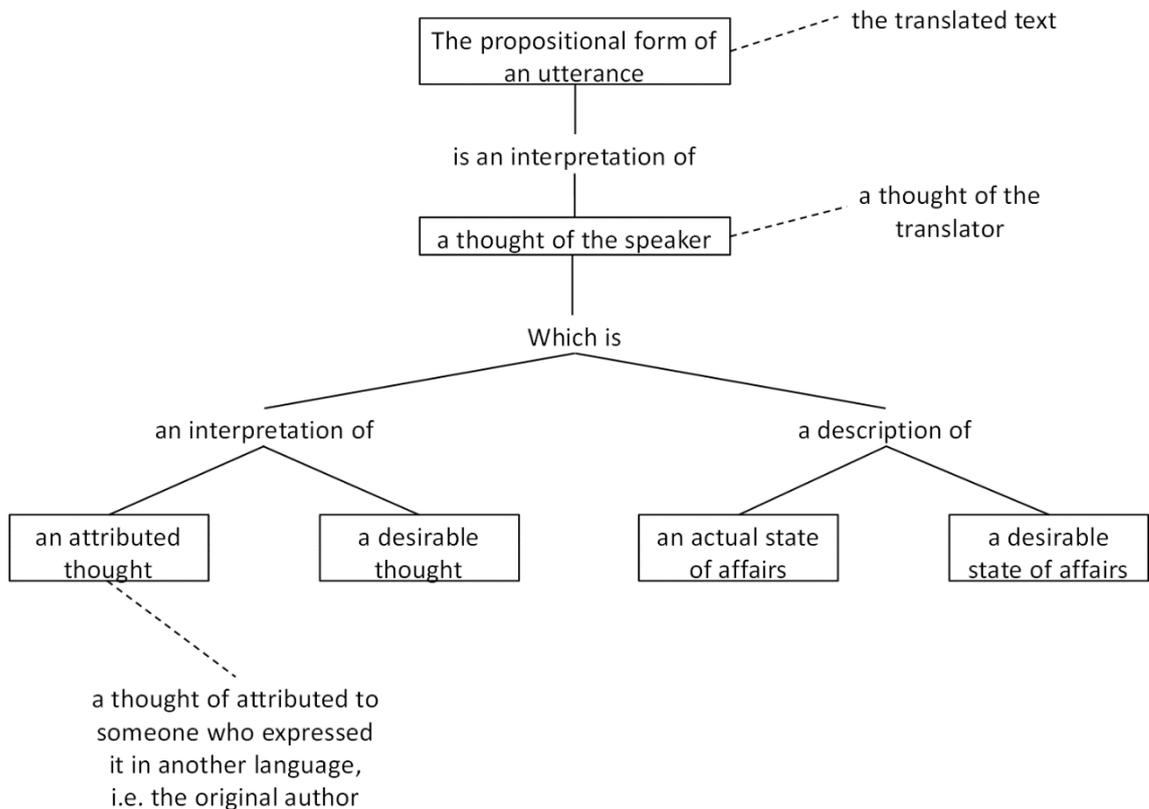
If we ask in what respects the intended interpretation of translation should resemble the original, the answer is: in respects that make it

adequately relevant to the audience – that is, that offer adequate contextual effects; if we ask how the translation should be expressed, the answer is: it should be expressed in such a manner that it yields the intended interpretation without putting the audience to unnecessary processing effort (Gutt 2000, p. 107).

These conditions as Gutt (2000, p. 107), indicates “seem to provide exactly the guidance that translators and translation theorists have been looking for: they determine in what respects the translation should resemble the original – only in those respects that can be expressed to make it adequately relevant to the receptor language audience”.

To summarise, Gutt's (1991/2000) relevance-oriented account of translation is mainly informed by Sperber and Wilson's (1986, pp. 224-231) distinction between descriptive and interpretive uses of language. The fact that language can be categorised into either descriptive or interpretive use is specifically applicable to the study of translations.

In accordance with this point of view, translation is basically an interpretive use of language since the translated utterance matches the corresponding utterance in the source language by having the same contextual implications. As such, we can argue that “translation falls naturally under the interpretive use of language: a translation is intended to restate in one language what someone else said or wrote in another language. In principle it is, therefore, comparable to quoting or speech-reporting in intra-linguistic use. One of the primary differences setting it off from intra-lingual quoting or reporting is that original text and translation belong to different languages” (Gutt, 1998, p. 46). As such a translation is nothing but an interpretation of the translators thought of the original text author's thought. This places the translator in the position of a communicator and is illustrated by Gutt (2000, p. 214) based on Sperber and Wilson (1986, p. 232) as follows:



**Figure 2.** The place of translation in relevance theory (based on Sperber and Wilson 1986, p. 232) from Gutt (2000, p. 214).

In explaining this diagram which demonstrates the translator's status in the relevance-theoretic framework, Gutt (2000, p. 215) adds that:

This recognition of the translator as the actual communicator to the target audience is not a claim born perhaps from a desire to raise the status of translators. Rather it is a plain fact of the realities of communication. It holds true even if the target audience misses it or choose to ignore it: they inevitably listen or read the translator's interpretation of the original- whether they realize it or not (Gutt 2000, p. 215).

This is perhaps why Gutt (2000, p. 215) excludes 'covert translation' from the realm of translation proper. According to him, translation cannot be covert, since translation is all about informing the target audience that the author of the original has said or written such-and-such whereas 'covert translation' is not to be marked as such. He adds that there exists an important distinction between translation proper and covert translation. This distinction has a number of consequences for how a translator does the job. Firstly, if a translator does the task of 'covert

translation' she/he will realize that this is different from translation proper; what is required here is not interpretive resemblance, but descriptive accuracy and adequacy. Secondly, in 'covert translation', the process of translation is not intrinsically necessary. In fact, what is in communicative terms the equivalent of a 'covert translation' could be produced without translation being involved. Thirdly, the exclusion of 'covert translation' will help in eliminating the confusion in translation research resulting from the attempt to accommodate this different mode of communication within translation theory.

To conclude this section, it is perhaps important to refer to Newmark's (1993) notes on Gutt's scheme of Relevance and translation. Although Newmark (1993 pp. 105-106) has described Gutt's work on relevance as "luminously intelligent", he examines a number of Gutt's relevance and translation principles and accounts. He looks first at Gutt's claim that Relevance theory should be taken as a universal translation theory and should make any other translation theory unnecessary, a claim which was built on examining two main theories of translation; the functionalist, for example, the theories of Vermeer and Reiss and the descriptive classificatory theories (Nida's 1964 theory of dynamic equivalence). Yet according to Newmark, Gutt himself again proposed two kinds of translation as direct translation 'descriptive use' and indirect translation 'interpretative use', which Newmark believes resemble those of other writers whom Gutt has criticised.

Newmark next turns to question the nature of Relevance theory, considering whether it is a logical, linguistic or psychological theory or just a maximization of Grice's relevance principle "where the contextual effects are as large as possible and the effort to process them as small as possible" (105-106). Then, Newmark discusses the notion of context in the scheme proposed by Gutt. Relevance emphasises context and the inferential nature of language, based on the assumption that what we say is only a clue to what we intended to convey and has to be interpreted within the intended context. However, although this is might be in terms of general principle correct, it is not necessarily the case in particular instances. Newmark says, an utterance such as 'A man crossed the road' is not an abstract mental picture that needs to be inferentially enhanced by putting it into context. It stands on its own. Lastly, Newmark criticises Gutt's work for never discussing how relevance can distinguish between different types of texts, for

example, lyrics and soap advertisements, and for putting emphasis on metaphor and Bible translation.

## **2.11 Application of Relevance Theory to Translation**

In accordance with this theoretical framework, the relation between a translation and its source text should be measured on the basis of interpretive resemblance, rather than on equivalence (Gutt, 1998, 2000). Nevertheless, in translation, there is always a question of to what degree a translated text should resemble its original or in other words how much contribution on the part of the translator is required. Grice's maxims have indeed raised the issue of how much (or how little) a language user should take into account the Maxims in their mind while generating the utterance. Similarly, as a type of interlingual communication, "the same questions can be asked in translation: how much (or how little) can a translator contribute to such an exchange, making it harder (or easier) for the translated version to be processed by a reader of the translation" (Machali 2012, p. 83).

A crucial principle in relevance theory is that successful communication is dependent largely on the text producer (Sperber & Wilson 1986). Alós (2016, p. 211) compared this to the primary partner in a waltz, whose duty is to escort his associate securely from corner to corner of the dance floor to avoid any accident. In the translation act, it is the translator's job to facilitate text understanding and prevent any communication disruption or ambiguities. This involves generating a translation which relays all the information initially inferable by the translator at the time of reading the source text and making it certain that it can be equally inferable for the target reader. To accomplish this, the translator has to put together assumptions about his/her readership regarding the extent to which they will be able to access the contextual assumptions needed to reach the intended interpretation of the text. It is in this area that the translator might decide whether to contribute or not to the translation. However, being both readers and writers of the same text at the same time, translators are to be seen as exceptional. This situation according to Chesterman (2004, p. 11) would:

1. make them especially aware of the difficulties of constructing meaning (because they are trying to make sense of the source text),

2. put them in a position where they can solve those problems in an explicit way by writing down markers for everything they have just construed, More bluntly, translators would want to help readers because they, the translators, are aware of their socio-culture role as mediators of the messages for new readers, translators tend to reduce entropy and write clearly.

As such, one might infer that translators (being aware of their role) provide more communicative indications than non-translators when they write because they assume that their readers might have fewer shared cultural references than do the receivers of the source text, so they try to fill in these gaps. It might be also because of their own assumptions regarding their reader's cognitive capacity and reading ability – being for example less than it should be. Therefore, translators try to help their readers to achieve adequate contextual effects required for relevant interpretation without gratuitous processing effort (e.g. when translating for children and young adults).

Returning now to the issue of how much contribution is required, relevance theory considerations put emphasis on the target readers' cognitive context to decide on how much a translator should make explicit. Gutt (2008, p. 2) suggests that “due to the inferential<sup>8</sup> nature of communication, whereby the interpretation of a stimulus is always context-dependent and relevance-determined, conveying a source text's intended message in translation is less likely the more different the context of the target language audience is from that of the source audience” (as

---

<sup>8</sup> Unlike the code model of understanding human communication, relevance theory perceives human communication to be of an inferential nature. Simply put, a code is a system which combines messages and signals. Encoding a message into a signal which a recipient can then decode is a very simple way to communicate very simple messages. As such, for communication to be achieved simply by coding and decoding, each signal in the code must unambiguously convey exactly the same content on all occasions. However, in the understanding of relevance theory “Humans communicate not only by using language but also by producing a variety of what we call ‘ostensive stimuli’: that is, actions (e.g. gestures or speech) or traces of actions (e.g. writings) that are manifestly intended to attract an addressee's attention and convey some content. Many of these ostensive stimuli do not belong to a code, and hence do not properly speaking encode anything. whether or not it involves the use of a language or some other code, human communication is inferential communication. The communicator provides some evidence of her meaning and the addressee infers this meaning on the basis of this evidence and the context. The evidence may or may not be coded, and if it is coded, it may or may not be linguistic, but in each case, it provides input to an inferential process whose goal is to understand the communicator's meaning” (Sperber and Wilson 2008, p. 3).

cited in Alós 2016, p. 203). Alós then adds that “The translator is therefore responsible for avoiding any misunderstandings; a responsibility that entails making sure his intention is communicable, in the sense that its interpretation is easily derivable in consistency with the principle of relevance. This entails making assumptions about the audience’s cognitive context, which, at best, can only be speculative and therefore easily mistaken” (Alós 2016, p. 203). In accordance with this, Pattenmore (2011, p. 271) has suggested that “translators must decide whether they will assume their audience has access to the original contextual assumptions or whether they will need help. If the latter is the case, how will it be provided: by making contextual assumptions explicit in the translated text; or, by providing insights into the context using contextual notes, maps, glossaries, introductions and other helps?”.

Accordingly, on the basis of this relevance-theoretic view of translation as an interpretive use of language, any text which is shifted from its original context to another different one can have its meaning affected by that particular change. Additionally, there are difficulties caused due to differences of languages or relating to linguistic or lexical barriers across languages. There are cross-linguistic differences due to which translators have to choose what properties of the ST are to be maintained and what discounted. The translator’s task then is to make sure that at least optimal relevance should be maintained. The target text reader is expected to arrive at an adequate interpretation at minimal processing cost. From the perspective of relevance theory, the relation established between a TT and its ST might be analysed on the basis of interpretive resemblance rather than equivalence. Analysing the original author’s presumed intentions and evaluating the cognitive environment shared by the ST addresser and the TT addressee, the translator will then draw on multiple means to convey and re-develop the cognitive effects which the original communicator wanted to convey, and which require minimum effort to process on the part of the TT receptor. As such translation is not a matter of equivalence; it is rather a complicated cognitive process in which a translator is in constant search of relevance.

Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 95-96) highlight the fact that relevance to a given context is only a matter of degree. Something which is relevant in a particular (ST) environment may be more or less relevant in a different (TT) environment. Therefore, assessing the degree of relevance to the intended receivers is one of

the translator's duties. Baker (2011, pp. 259-260) also emphasises the expectation of the audience, pointing out that to convey an intended meaning the respective speaker or the writer has to suppose that the hearer or reader has access to all the necessary resources and background information to arrive at the intended interpretation. The translator's competence necessitates working out any implicature encountered when conveying the source text to the target readers. The less the translator assumes their readers have access to, the more explanation of details they will provide their readers with. Thus, if the writer supposes that the reader does not have full access to background information, he or she makes a conscious effort to give the necessary details. Translators have to assess again and again the available and unavailable resources of the target readers to make sure that implied meaning can be worked out. Apart from filling in gaps in the reader's knowledge (which would cover the availability of relevant items of background knowledge, non-linguistic context, identity of reference, etc.), reader's expectations are also to be taken into consideration. Among the most powerful expectations in relation to any communication event including verbal behaviour are those relating to the organization of language. The main purpose of language elements and their patterning is how to organize the content of a particular message in such a way as to be easily understood by the one who is reading or hearing it.

## **2.12 Hypotheses**

Blum-Kulka (1986) provides the commonly accepted explicitation hypothesis that establishes the foundation of the current research. However, as we observed throughout this chapter, the hypothesis has been watered down, so that in many studies, it has been adopted as a 'guidepost' to quantitative results, rather than a hypothesis proper. In fact, working out *when* and *why* explicational shifts are and are not used is the main objective of my research rather than re-examining the explicitation hypothesis itself. Nevertheless, some assumptions with regard to the explicitation hypothesis are still to be addressed in the data analysis and discussion such as the influence of conscious and subconscious decision-making processes on the translator's decisions, together with assumptions regarding professional and non-professional translators and how this might stimulate the manifestations of explicitation. Thus, rather than focusing on an examination of

the explicitation hypothesis itself, the current study focuses on the following primary predictions:

- a. Explicitation is not an inherent feature of translated text; rather it is a result of the translator's interpretation of the ST and their desire to produce a relevant TT.
- b. In searching for relevance, the translator as a linguistic and cultural mediator for young readers might resort to their own childhood reading experience, their assumptions regarding their readers cognitive ability, and the context and the background of their readers.

Within this study, translation is perceived as a communicative act<sup>9</sup>, a cognitive process<sup>10</sup> rather than a merely matter of equivalence between source and target text. As such, translation initially involves the same communicative influences as any interactive activity. The translator 'replaces' the ST writer in conveying the ST. To make their text comprehensible to readers, translators need to evaluate the readers' cognitive potentials, their acquaintance with the context and their experience and knowledge of the world. Their judgment is influenced immensely by their personal perception of their own role as linguistic and cultural mediators to their audience/readers and their own assumptions about their readers' cognitive abilities. Therefore, particularly when translating for young readers, translators need to make an effort to make their translation relevant to the target

---

<sup>9</sup>. The communicative approach to translation studies emerged in reaction to previously dominant approaches with emphasis on either ST or TT. The translator is seen to be in the middle, a mediator between the original writer and the intended reader owing loyalty to both sides. For further information see Chesterman (1997, pp. 33-36).

<sup>10</sup>. According to Risku (2012) cognitive scientific approaches to translation differ from other approaches which restrict their focus to behaviour like learning, problem solving and translation. Instead they shift the focus to explaining the development and workings of mental processes which involve complex cognitive tasks like translation possible. They refer to existing cognitive scientific models to understand the process of translation which consequently might help to explain the behaviour and choices of translators. Simply put. "Cognitive scientific approaches to translation try to understand and explain the workings of translators' minds: How do translators and the other actors involved in translation create meaning in the situations and texts they handle? How do they arrive at their strategies and choices? How does their cultural and linguistic background influence their thinking and understanding? How do they develop translation competence?" (Risku 2012, p.1). Consequently, cognitive approaches focus mostly on the people and processes involved in translation, applying various empirical and experimental research designs. Thus, they can be seen as part of "translator studies", the recent tendency in translation studies to focus explicitly on the translator, rather than on translations as texts (Chesterman, 2009, p.13).

readers' expectations, i.e. to ensure that their readers will be able to arrive at the intended interpretation of the text with minimum processing effort.

In searching for relevance, a translator might decide to render the target text in a more explicit way, due to their assumption that this would be more relevant to the young reader. When translating for young adults, in order to decide what is relevant for their reader, they might resort to their own childhood memories and their own reading experience at that age. The principle of relevance to target readers' expectations operates by initially deciding on a relevant text to be translated and ends with the translation techniques used in the process of translation. Among these strategies is explicitation vs. non-explicitation, i.e. whether to explicate the inferred meaning when transferring it into the target language or preserve it as it is. Translators decide which one of these choices is relevant depending on their assumptions regarding their readers' cognitive and linguistic abilities. Therefore, it is essential to bring the translator into the picture when examining this phenomenon rather than merely focusing on text-based occurrences of explicitation, which are usually examined on the basis of an equivalence account of translation.

Moreover, recurrent explicitation in translation need not to be explained by a proposed "translation-inherent" universal. This assumption may account for certain types of explicitation shifts in paired English-Arabic texts for instance, such as the frequent appearance of textual explicitations particularly reiteration, as Arabic discourse is more tolerant of reiteration than English. The current research eliminates such expectations incorporating all factors that motivate explicitation rather than merely linguistic-oriented ones. The purpose of this deviation from previously formulated assumptions helps to focus attention on factors that have been neglected in previous studies of explicitation.

### **2.13 Summary and Conclusion**

This chapter began with an introduction to explicitation as a translation phenomenon as proposed by different translation studies scholars. The purpose was to highlight the fact that although being well-established in the field of translation, explicitation is still ill-defined as a notion, and has been described as 'vague' by some scholars. The explicitation hypothesis as suggested by Blum-

Kulka (1986) has been discussed in section 2.3, emphasis being given to some of its assumptions, and shortcomings which are believed to have led to some untenable results. Sections 2.4 and 2.5 have reviewed some previous studies of explicitation adopting either corpus-based or qualitative approaches. Qualitative studies in particular have incorporated other translation-related aspects which are believed to influence explicitation manifestations when examining the hypothesis itself rather than merely considering statistics. Studies on Arabic have been also briefly discussed separately in section 2.5. Section 2.6 has been dedicated to introducing some explicitation typologies and schemas as proposed by Klaudy (2009), House (2004) and Steiner (2005). In section 2.7, some misconceptions and limitations regarding explicitation as a translational phenomenon have also been discussed in order to identify the gaps which this study aims to fill. This has been followed by section 2.8 which focused on filling the gap and detailing the primary objectives of this study. The primary purpose of all these sections of the chapter has been to familiarise the reader with the key features of the explicitation hypothesis and different perspectives on it, forming a bridge to the objectives of the present study.

In Sections, 2.10 and 2.11, the application of relevance theory to translation studies (Gutt 2000) has been introduced as an appropriate perspective to deduce the motivations behind explicitation manifestations. In Section 2.12 the hypothesis of the current study has been formulated reflecting on different perspectives on explicitation as a translational phenomenon, particularly that of Blum-Kulka (1980). As argued in this chapter, therefore:

- Despite being well-established in the field of translation, explicitation is still controversial and is considered vague by some scholars.
- When formulating the explicitation hypothesis, Blum-Kulka (1980) refers to the explicitness of cohesive devices. However, other assumptions associated with the explicitation hypothesis such as the professionalism of the translator, and the inherentness and the subconsciousness of the phenomenon have not been sufficiently evidenced.
- In examining explicitation, most previous studies emphasize finding answers to *how often* rather than *why* explicitation occurred. This might be influenced by the persistence of early perspectives on translation

which view the relationship between the ST and TT as one of equivalence. As such, a TT can be examined only in terms of its correspondence to its original ST. Textual shifts in the TT can then be easily statistically observed, and any deviation from the original including explicitation is then taken as unfavourable shift.

- Different accounts of translation will result in different treatments of translation phenomena. Perceiving translation as a communicative and cognitive act necessitates bringing the translator into the picture as a primary participant in the communication act.
- Relevance theory provides a communicative and cognitive account of translation. In a relevance-theory account of translation, successful communication lies largely with the speaker (translator in this case) ensuring that his/her utterance receptor (translation readers in this case) will arrive at the intended interpretation without unnecessary effort. In order to do this, translator will need to include in their assumptions regarding their readers access to the contextual assumptions required to arrive at the intended interpretation.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Methodology**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, I present a review of the methodology which was used in the current study. To begin, a few theoretical notions and problems that one might come across while carrying out any study on explicitation are outlined in the following section. One of the major problems that was faced is the intricacy of the phenomenon that has been investigated (see section 2.2 for further clarification on the vagueness of the phenomenon). This has resulted in some individual choices that have had to be made in this study to turn translation shifts into measurable quantities. Needless to say, these choices may affect the results of the study significantly. So, keeping this in mind, I have tried to make the choices clear, by presenting numerous illustrative examples, although this has made the chapter quite lengthy.

This chapter is structured as follows. Section 2 provides the theoretical concepts and problems. Section 3 presents the corpus data used in this study, describing the criteria which determine this choice of data. Section 4 concisely presents the analysis procedures. Section 5 discusses the process of identification and classification of the identified shifts based on the Hallidayan systemic classification of language metafunctions. Section 6 is devoted to describing the classification of ideational shifts. Section 7 describes in detail the classification of textual shifts incorporating principles of both SFG and relevance theory, and providing a rationale to explain this integration. Section 8 briefly describes the kind of shifts excluded from the analysis. Section 9 presents the hypothesis of the study, and section 10 summarises the chapter.

#### **3.2 Theoretical Concepts and Problems**

As a starting point, a syntactic-semantic equivalence outline for the identification and categorization of the shifts is the main feature of the analysis. The major aim of the analysis is to make a contrast between the TT and ST, in an attempt to spot any shifts in form which might affect meaning, with particular focus on the implied meaning, examining how this is conveyed to the target readers. It is

important to mention here that the term 'equivalence' here is not used as a theoretical concept or construct but merely as a term which indicates comparability between features of a SL text and its translation. In particular, 'equivalence' is relative here because it is affected by cultural and linguistic factors. The meaning of the term 'equivalence' and how it is perceived as a tool of comparison in this study is explained in the following example:

Mother to son: It's 9 PM dear.

Let us assume that based on the surrounding context, the aforementioned text clearly means that the son has to go to sleep by 9 o'clock. In this case, the text carries an implied (intended) meaning, in relevance-theory terms an implicature, beyond its 'literal' meaning, i.e. what is termed in relevance-theory terms its explicature. The translator therefore might decide to translate this literally as *إنها التاسعة مساءً يا عزيزي*, which reads as 'It's 9 PM dear', leaving the rest for the readers to infer. In this case, we could argue that these two segments are meaning-equivalent, i.e., they are equivalent with respect to their explicature and implicature; both explicit and implicit meanings are conveyed. In other cases, however, the translator might decide to explicitate the utterance, making it more easily comprehensible for the reader by spelling out the inferred meaning. A translation of this type might be: *إنها التاسعة مساءً يا عزيزي، حان وقت النوم*, 'It's 9 PM dear; it's time to sleep' (or even '[...] time for bed', which seems somewhat more idiomatic in English). In this case, meaning-equivalence is only partial, due to the explicitation opted for by the translator; the two segments do not resemble one another in terms of both their explicit and implicit meaning. The target segment is more explicit than its original. This how equivalence in meaning has been employed for identifying explicitation shifts.

In the light of this account, we can look into 'meaning equivalence' and its occurrence in our corpus of translated texts. Various forms and types might appear while interpreting the indirect meaning in these real texts in the process of translation. This is the reason why examining the explication of an implied meaning in a translated text is not simple and should be dealt with assuming all the following factors of influence: linguistic and cultural factors, preferred style of the translator, the reader's awareness and knowledge as assumed by the translator, the source text, and the purpose of the translation. For example, let us

look at relevant features in the Arabic translation of the *Railway Children* by *E. Nesbit*. Published by Dar Al-Muna and translated by *Rash Alatrush*:

**Source text E:** They were not railway children to begin with. I don't suppose they had ever thought about railways except as a means of getting to Maskelyne and Cooke's.

**Target text A:** لم يكونوا أولاد سكة حديد منذ البداية، ولا أظن أنه سبق لهم التفكير في سكة الحديد إلا باعتبارها وسيلة للوصول إلى مسرح "ماسكولاين وكوك" لألعاب السحر.

**Back translation:** They were not railway children from the beginning. I don't suppose they had ever thought about railways except as a means of getting to Maskelyne and Cooke's theatre for magic games.

The words and phrases underlined are translated literally as *theatre* and *magic games*, respectively. Now, the addition of this phrase involves explicitation. On the other hand, it is triggered in by different influences, manifesting explicitation as a complex and subtle concept. Firstly, the translator might assume that a young Arab reader will not be able to understand what Maskelyne and Cooke's are. They are culturally irrelevant for the young reader. Thus, the translator chooses to add the word *مسرح theatre* to them while also elaborating what is meant through adding the concept of magic games, by adding *لألعاب السحر for magic games*. Here, the addition might be said to be motivated by the cultural constraints of the target readers. Moreover, unlike in English, identification of the category involved before the names of places is often used in Arabic. For example, we tend to say *مطار هيثرو Heathrow airport* and not just *هيثرو Heathrow*. Similarly, it is more normal to say *مسرح "ماسكولاين وكوك" Maskelyne and Cooke's theatre* than just *"ماسكولاين وكوك" Maskelyne and Cooke's*. Thus, it can be argued that the addition of the word *مسرح theatre* is not only motivated by cultural differences but also by the translator's target language style preference. In fact, explicitation and long sentences are tolerated in Arabic. Thus, keeping style preference in mind, we could comfortably extend the text and say *مطار هيثرو في لندن Heathrow airport in London*. In the same way, there is no problem in saying *مسرح "ماسكولاين وكوك" لألعاب السحر Maskelyne and Cooke's theatre for magic games*. Here again, the occurrence of explicitation can be interpreted in one way or the other. This is the reason why explicitation manifestations have to be treated cautiously;

a single occurrence might be triggered by a combination of elements, involving both cultural and linguistic factors.

The question which arises now is: Is there any connection between explicitness and informativeness, or are they similar? Let us consider the first example again: "it's 9 PM dear". If we observe this from a communicative perspective, it yields multiple assumptions depending on the context in which it has been said. It might refer to dinner time, playtime, bedtime or something else. This number of possible assumptions can be reduced, and the actual meaning can be picked out if the sentence is explained. This again will eliminate the confusion of potential meanings of the utterance. Under a communicative perspective, this is what makes an utterance informative. Grice (1975, p. 45) suggests that discourse has significant features: e.g. it is linked and has no unrelated sequences in it. It is purposeful, and it is a co-operative effort on the part of both the speaker and the listener. This principle explains the fact that, as a speaker/writer, you "make your conversational contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you engaged" (Grice, 1975, p. 45). This principle is termed the co-operative principle and it involves a number of maxims that are linked to it. The quantity maxim is one of these maxims, its requirement being that the role a speaker/writer plays should be as useful as needed for the purpose of the present exchange. In other words, the speaker/writer needs to make their contribution as informative as is needed for the purpose of the exchange. Similarly, explicitation, which often entails an addition or explanation of the information, might increase the informativeness of an utterance.

Within the translation framework, the term 'information offer' or 'offer of information' was suggested by Reiss and Vermeer (1984, p. 73; cited in Shutteworth & Cowie 1997, p. 77). Here, the responsibility lies with the listener or reader to interpret the hidden meanings in a manner that matches the given context along with the provided intent of communication. On the other hand, under such multivalent potential meanings hidden in the real message, it is apparent that each listener or reader of the message will comprehend a few of the possible meanings it has and also produce further potential meanings that are not even there in the original text (1984, p. 62; cited in Shutteworth & Cowie 1997, p. 77). Hence, again, it is the translation process which involves giving the

audience “information about the ST and therefore one which allows the translator to make responsible, creative decisions” (Reiss and Vermeer 1984: p. 75; cited and translated by Shuttleworth & Cowie 1997, p.78). Also similar to Grice’s (1975) quantity maxim and principles is the notion of ‘communication load’ or (‘information load’), as used by Nida (1946) when presenting his famous model of the translation process. This is based on the idea that the source text basically communicates the *information* conveyed by the message with the help of the receptor’s *channel*, whose capacity varies depending on various influences such as education, cultural background, etc. The more information is communicated by the message the less comprehensible it will be. Therefore, it is always the translator’s responsibility to ensure that the message contains the appropriate amount of redundancy in order to prevent information overload. However, in opposition to this, Baker (2011, p. 239) argues that such views complicate the task of the translator, who may intentionally or unintentionally exclude some possible interpretations of the original text from the target text or may introduce new interpretations which are not deducible from the original text. This again adds to the complexity of the investigated phenomenon, since the translator’s intervention has also to be measured when examining it. In addition, the increased informativeness of the target text has to be also considered as a potential consequence of explicitation. Speaking of the complexity of explicitation, Becher (2011, p. 78) asserts that it is not always possible to study explicitation as a translation process since even linguistics is not advanced enough for this task. For example, “it is not clear at all whether additions of modal markers such as ‘probably’ or ‘could’ should be counted as explicitations or not since the study of modality has never been approached from the perspective of explicitness and implicitness” (Becher 2011, p. 78). Hence, when considering the study of explicitation in the context of modality, the concept becomes quite vague.

Nonetheless, I believe that it is still possible to observe explicitation in translation and that it is necessary to do this. However, one should clearly know that the concept of explicitness is quite difficult to deal with. Accordingly, a study of explicitation is dependent on some subjective or at times even arbitrary decisions. For instance, it should be carefully considered which phenomena have to be eliminated from the analysis and which have to be included. Furthermore, some assumptions have to be made to categorize explicitating shifts. These

assumptions are not objective but intuitive and practical, although, this is not always a drawback, and is, in fact, not considered unusual in applied linguistics (Becher 2011, p. 78). Hence, in the current study too, these assumptions cannot be justified objectively but depend on more practical considerations.

In the current study, many choices had to be made relating to the recognition and categorization of explicating shifts. These were made for practical reasons that were not straightforwardly justifiable. Thus, it is essential that the choices made should be very clear. This is among the goals of the current chapter. I tried to make up for the subjectivity of a few decisions by presenting the results with the greatest possible clarity.

Lastly, I would like to shed light on the fact that the main aim of the current study is not quantitative but qualitative. The goal of the study is to figure out when and why translators explicitate rather than finding out how often they do so. The numbers displayed in the upcoming chapters of this thesis are only given for additional clarification. In accordance, I believe that the detailed qualitative analyses of the corpus examples given in Chapters 4 through 6 are the most significant feature of this thesis. As is indicated by my analyses, the phenomenon of explicitation relies on a number of clearly identifiable lexicogrammatical and communicative influences and is not as confusing as has been assumed by some researchers in the past.

### **3.3 Data**

The study is carried out on a literary work for young adult readers. This corpus provides a case study of two English classic novels which were translated into Arabic by the same translator Sakenah Ebraheem. They are published and labelled as translations for young readers by Dar Al-Muna. These novels are: *The Secret Garden* by Frances Hodgson Burnett, first published in book form in 1911, and *Anne of Green Gables*, which is a 1908 novel by Canadian author Lucy Maud Montgomery.

For a number of reasons, only two translations were considered. Firstly, the methodology applied in the analysis in the current study would otherwise have been too time-consuming: every text was manually read, analysed and annotated without any help from a concordance program. Secondly, the difficulty of

contacting translators placed some limitations on data choices. Apart from the translator of these two novels, other translators did not seem to be willing to respond to many requests sent to them regarding their translations choices – a significant part of the methodology to help in recognizing the influence of the translators themselves and their contribution to explicitation. On the positive side, working on different texts translated by the same translator as well as the same target language and target readers will provide a translational case study and will help in identifying the factors that influence the translator's decisions, such that the reasons for her responding differently on different occasions while translating can be figured out clearly. This is the major goal of the study.

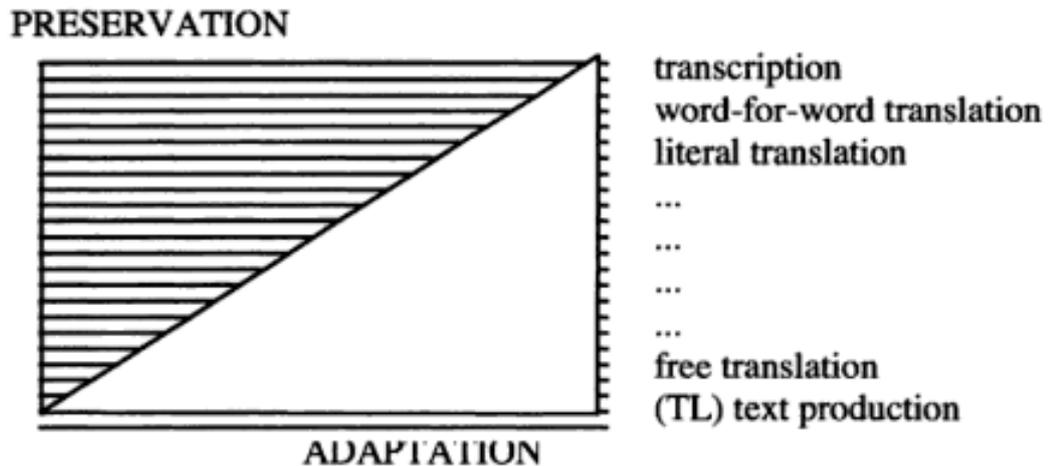
Texts for young adults are used because they have an exceptional status. The literature of adults and young adults differs depending upon the target reader. In young adult's literature, the level of understanding and acceptance of the text is dependent upon the reader's age and cognitive development. Further, differences in detail can be identified through finding out about the cultural specificity, content and language of the reader. Special attention should be given to literature for young adults because it has a vital role to play in their upbringing. In terms of composition, literary works for children and young adults are quite similar; they are both dialogue-oriented and event-oriented (Zhao and Jian 2013, p.945). In terms of their linguistic structure, both are presented as simply, clearly and accurately as possible. Cultural specificity is the most noticeable aspect of young adult's literature. Like children's literature, young adult's literature is an essential tool that is used to create moral values and ethical identity, promoting those that are already developed in schools and families. Within the process of narration, the writer makes up a cultural world for young readers in which they adventure with the characters and have permission to visit their favourite imaginary places. Through this, children experience a sense of achievement and are unintentionally taught to be what the community wants them to become (cf. Zhao and Jian 2013, and Thomson 1998).

On the other hand, texts belonging to young adults' literature are generally translated in a rather literal way as compared to children's literature, whereas children's literature frequently undergoes a process of transformation and adaptation. Newmark (1991) famously distinguishes between two different modes of translation: communicative and semantic. In semantic translation, the

translator makes great efforts to stay as close to the source text as possible. The translator who is translating a text semantically does not maintain a match between the communicative function of the source text in the source language community and that of the target text in the target text community. The semantic mode of translation avoids semantic and syntactic adjustment; length of clauses, position and integrity of sentences, etc. is preserved whenever it is possible to do so. Semantic translation contrasts with communicative translation. Here the translator tries to produce a target text that achieves the equivalent communicative function in the target culture as the source text achieves in the source culture. In order to produce a target text which conforms to the communicative conventions of the target culture, the translator may in some cases apply a “cultural filter”. Through this, a target text which is produced by means of communicative translation differs markedly from its source text. Newmark (1991, pp. 11-13) emphasises that the division between semantic and communicative modes of translation should not be taken as a rigorous one. Rather, semantic and communicative distinction are two different endpoints of a scale extending from rather literal translation at one end to non-literal or free translation on the other. As such, there is no one semantic or one communicative method to translate a text. Rather these two methods overlap extensively with each other. Thus, a translation can be more semantic or more communicative and vice versa at various levels, and even a single section or a sentence can be rendered either more communicatively or more semantically. Newmark (1991) indicates that some translations require semantic translations, for example, religious, scientific, technological, philosophical, and legal texts, whereas non-literary writing like journalism, textbooks, reports, and informative articles should be translated communicatively.

It is worth mentioning here that similar divisions of translations into two methods have been also suggested by other scholars albeit using different terms. Nord (1988, pp. 33-34), for example, refers to the two concepts of ‘functionality’ and ‘loyalty’, which can be determined in translation through observing the focus made by translators on particular aspects of the ST. Translators, for instance, might decide (or might be obliged) to focus on aspects such as syntactic structure and preserve ST components to produce a word-for-word translation. The different percentage of preserved ST elements brings different “grades” of

translation, which can be arranged on a cline ranging from extreme fidelity at one end to extreme liberty at the other end. This is illustrated by the following figure taken from Nord (1988, p. 33).



**Figure 3.** Preservation and adaptation in translation

Within the framework of functionality and loyalty, the scale of translation is represented by two poles: ranging from transcription, in which almost 100 percent of the ST components are preserved to the free text production pole, where almost none of the ST components are preserved. Between these two ends, some other forms of translation can be observed depending on different percentages of adaptation. Other scholars have suggested similar ideas, albeit with different terminology (e.g. House's 1977 covert and overt translation, and Nida's 1964 dynamic and formal equivalent).

Where parts of sentences have been eliminated or where phrases have been deviated from, erased or rearranged the recognition of shifts becomes difficult or even impossible. The target text in this case contrasts with its source text; this happens mostly in communicative translations. Nevertheless, the two Arabic versions of the English novel are good candidates for the analysis of explicitation shifts because they are translated in a way which is roughly in the middle of the two ends of semantic and communicative modes of translations. In a translation which is close to the source text in terms of both linguistic realization and semantic content, only a few or perhaps almost no semantic deviations are found, which makes identifying explicitation comparatively feasible. To adequately demonstrate this, it is helpful to draw on some existing translated text. The

abstracts below are taken from the translations of *The Railway Children* by E. Nesbit into Arabic, and demonstrates two different translation strategies: semantic and communicative. The communicative translation has been made by Albair Mutalg and published by Maktabat Iobanan (2016). The semantic one has been produced by Rasha Altarash and published by Dar-Al Muna (2010).

The text is of the same genre as that investigated in this study; i.e. young adult's literature. The two Arabic versions of the same source text will reveal how difficult it is to detect explicitation when the text is communicatively rendered.

**Source text E:** Bobbie said nothing. She was thinking of the horrible mound, and the trustful train rushing toward it. 'And it was us that saved them,' said Peter. 'How dreadful if they'd all been killed' said Phyllis, with enjoyment; 'wouldn't be it, Bobbie?'

'We never got any cherries, after all,' said Bobbie.

The others thought her rather heartless. (142)

#### **Communicative target text**

كانت بوبي لاتزال تتصور القطار الذي لم يكن على علم بحال الطريق يندفع صوب الصخور والأشجار والأتربة المتساقطة. لكنها قالت، "لم نحصل على الكرز الذي جئنا من أجله". (61)

#### **Back translation**

Bobbie was still thinking of the train which was unaware of the road condition rushing into the rocks and trees and the collapsed mound. But she said "We have not got the cherries we came for".

#### **Semantic target text**

لم تعلق بوبي بأي شيء فكرت في التلة البغيضة، والقطار المندفع بثقة نحوها.  
 "كم كان مروعاً لو أنهم قتلوا! قالت فيليس، " أليس كذلك يا بوبي؟" قال بيتر " ونحن أنقذناهم،"  
 " لم نحضر الكرز في النهاية،" غمغمت بوبي. وفكر الأخران أنها ربما بلا قلب. (89)

#### **Back translation**

Bobbie did not comment on anything. She was thinking of the horrible mound, and the train rushing trustingly toward it. 'How dreadful if they'd all been killed' said Phyllis 'wouldn't be it, Bobbie?' 'And it was us that saved them,' said Peter.

'We never got any cherries, after all,' said Bobbie.

The others thought her rather heartless.

The example of semantic translation shows that the translation of Arabic does not just reflect the English original semantically, but also reflects its syntactic structure to a large extent. Therefore, pronouns are translated as pronouns, for example, 'us' → نحن, adjectives are translated as adjectives, e.g. *horrible* → مروعاً, etc. This clearly shows that the translator has made efforts to stay as close to the source text as she can to produce a semantic translation. To sum up, the examples above show that semantic translation has little or no grammatical deviation from the source text. That means explicitations are easy to identify. When we consider communicative translation, on the other hand, it does not syntactically reflect the original, making it much more difficult to find explicitation shifts.

### 3.4 Procedure

The analysis of the data proceeded as follows. First, I carefully read all the texts (the English source texts and their Arabic versions) and went through all the essential data multiple times. The identification and classification of the explicitation shifts were then made depending on some practical criteria. Shifts were formally restricted based on the operation performed, as primarily: a) additions, b) substitutions. Furthermore, the syntactic category of the explicitated material was determined: e.g. prepositional phrase, process/verb phrase, adjective phrase, common noun, pronoun, proper noun and connective. Finally, shifts were classified according to functional criteria as (a) ideational, (b) textual. The interpersonal shifts were excluded because they are found to be of less importance in comparison to ideational and textual shifts since the texts are fictional for young adults and the tone is mostly descriptive which depicts events and people.

The ideational aspect of language combines with some other sub-categories involving the same functional criteria. This results in the following choices:

1. Ideational function which incorporates syntactic enhancements of the state of affairs on the circumstantial level by adding prepositional or adverbial phrases.

2. Ideational function which incorporates syntactic elaboration of the process/verb-based phrase.
3. Ideational function which incorporates syntactic expansion of state of affairs on the adjective phrase level.

Textually, the analysis criteria resulted in the following choices:

1. Cohesive addition of referential traits.
2. Cohesive replacement of referential traits.
3. Shifts that are associated with a semantic relationship.

The explicitation shifts identified in the corpus were then manually marked by means of specific labels according to their operational functions. For instance, ideational explicitation consisting of enhancement by means of an adverbial phrase was labelled as *adv. phrase ideational enhancement*.

The primary value of the study is the comprehensive qualitative research analysis that is presented in the following chapters. The shifts of different types were analysed linguistically and set side by side within translations to find out when and under which conditions the translator choose to explicate. This analysis brought up some influences which are believed to be triggers the translator respond to when translating.

It is vital to mention here that contrasts between the source and target text were measured using the syntactic-semantic paradigm. With reflection to the Arabic language, I will discuss and analyse the shifts in the following sentence *she stopped suddenly in the middle of the road*. A sentence such as *she stopped suddenly in the middle of the road* can be translated into Arabic as توقفت فجاءة في منتصف الطريق. The English and Arabic segments have the same syntactic as well as semantic values. In some cases, the sentence *she stopped suddenly in the middle of the road* might, however, be translated as توقفت في منتصف الطريق *she stopped in the middle of the road* without explicitly including the suddenness element, on the assumption that this could be inferred by the surrounding context or even by the words “stopped” and “in the middle of the road”. Here the two segments show some kind of shifts, which is an implication shift in this particular example. Alternatively, *she stopped suddenly in the middle of the road* might also be translated as توقفت فجاءة مذعورة في منتصف الطريق *she stopped suddenly in the middle of the road panicking* with the addition of the notion of panicking (مذعورة).

This involves explicitation of a state of affairs which can be regarded as implicit from the surrounding contexts.

Adopting this type of analysis thus helps in making it possible to spot different kinds of shifts. In the abstract, this type of analysis seems fairly easy to apply. However, other complicating factors come into play. Firstly, the meaning of an utterance is not always so clear and understandable that it can be inspected by only finding the similarities between the two segments. Some segments might entail some shifts. However, these shifts might not affect the meaning of the utterance, i.e. no implied meaning has been explicitated. Conversely, in some segments, the implied meaning (if there is any) might have been made explicit in some following sentence or even following paragraph. To deal with these problems, not only the full sentence as a unit of examination, segments, paragraphs are taken into account as a complete framework that affects the meaning of a text.

A second complicating factor is that syntactic upgrades and downgrades were not counted as explicitations. For instance, when a noun was rendered by a noun phrase in the target language without affecting the meaning of the utterance, it was not counted as an explicitation occurrence. English into Arabic translations frequently involve syntactic upgrades (e.g. adverb → prepositional phrase). An example is translating *suddenly* as *بشكل مفاجئ*, which back-translates as *in a sudden manner* rather than just *فجاءة suddenly*. Here the syntactic upgrade does not have any semantic effect on the target text's level of explicitness and is merely a matter of translator's or target language's style preference.

### **3.5 Identification and Classification of Shifts**

At this point, after identifying all shifts, a classificatory framework was needed to be used as a guideline for the process of coding. Since the data used for this study is of a literary nature, the encountered shifts are to be classified based on their communicative purposes. In order to do this, it is necessary to identify an appropriate linguistic framework to be used as a guideline for the classification and coding process. The framework should also be helpful for distinguishing different types of explicitation. Hallidayan Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) was considered to be the most appropriate model to use (Halliday and

Matthiessen 2004). SFG offers a comprehensive operational and multi-dimensional perspective on language. This framework (1994) is appropriate for this, since it has been used for the purpose of identifying different types of explicitation and implicitation shifts in different language pairs such as English and German, and English and Arabic (cf. Becher 2011, Abdelfattah 2010, House 2004).

It is essential here to briefly discuss the importance of SFG analysis before turning to pervasive operational (text analysis) levels. Principally, the emphasis of SFG is on function rather than structure (Thompson 2009, p. 226); its objective is to explain how wordings are employed to express meanings. It perceives language as a resource of linguistic forms that are mainly recognized by their usage. The linguistic forms are therefore of less importance than the function that they perform in the sentence. SFG was developed by Halliday (1994) to “make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written” (Halliday 1994, p.15). Within SFG, the realization of meaning is lexicogrammar. This is used to show how different words are grouped or framed together to make a meaningful connection between the words and sentences (Fontaine, 2013, p. 4). Halliday and Matthiessen state that “in our work, the experiential environment of the grammar is being interpreted not as knowledge but as meaning” (1999, p. 2). This means that, to understand how language is being used to convey meaning, SFG provides a means of explaining lexical and grammatical choices within the wording system (Butt et al., 2000, pp. 6-7). According to Geoff Thompson, “Functional grammar [i.e. SFG] sets out to investigate what the range of relevant choices are, both in the kinds of meanings that we might want to express (or functions that we might want to perform) and in the kinds of wordings that we can use to express these meanings; and to match these two sets of choices” (2004, p. 8).

Halliday (1994) argues that the relationship between words and the meanings they can express is fundamentally based on the principle that utterances make sense only in the context in which they are used, and that language is organized according to a small number of “functional components” (Halliday 1994, p. 95). These components correspond to purposes (metafunctions) which organize all language use. Hence, every specific functional component is related to these broad metafunctions. These metafunctions have a systematic relationship with

the lexicogrammar of the language and essentially concern the meanings we express in language. Halliday (1994) identifies three metafunctions, namely: ideational, interpersonal and textual.

1. *The ideational metafunction.* This refers to the use of the language to organize, understand and express both our perceptions of the world and our own consciousness. This function can be further classified into two more subfunctions; experiential, which revolves around the content or ideas, and logical, which is focused on the relationship between ideas. Thompson (2014) explains the experiential subfunction as follows, “We use language to talk about our experience of the world, including the worlds in our own minds, to describe events and state the entities involved in them” (Thompson 2014, p.28). This function views clauses as representations and emphasises the actions that are undertaken in the discourse. It also includes the description and classification of the participants. According to Halliday (2007), the experiential metafunction is the “content function of language” (Halliday 2007, p.183). The second subfunction of the ideational use of a language is the logical metafunction. This enables us to establish relationships and to combine clauses into clause complexes. In order to do this, we use the logical components of the grammar, which help us to handle the similarities and differences between clause complexes. In contrast with Halliday, Thompson (2014, p. 39) argues that the logical component is in fact a fourth metafunction of language (for the other metafunctions, see below). He states that “whereas the other three metafunctions relate mainly to the meanings that we express in our messages, the logical metafunction relates to the kinds of connections that we make between the messages”. This interpretation implies that the logical metafunction can be realized at levels other than just between clauses and may operate at sentences levels.
2. *The interpersonal metafunction.* This is concerned with the use of language to enable us to communicate with other people, to participate and to express and understand feelings, attitudes and judgments. Thompson (2014) elaborates on this metafunction as follows; “We also use language to interact with other people, to establish and maintain

relations with them, to influence their behaviour, to express our own viewpoint on things in the world, and to elicit or change theirs” (Thompson 2014, p. 28). Thus, the interpersonal metafunction addresses the relationship between the language producer (writer, speaker) and the language recipient (reader, hearer). Halliday (2007) identifies this function as the “Participatory function of language” (Halliday 2007, p.184).

3. *The textual metafunction.* This is concerned with the use of language to organize the text itself and to relate what is written or said to the real world and to other linguistic events. Thompson (2014) clarifies that, “In using language, we organise our messages in ways that indicate how they fit in with the other messages around them and with the wider context in which we are talking or writing” (Thompson 2014, p. 30). Halliday (2007) further elaborates that ideational and interpersonal metafunctions are both “actualized” in the textual function. (Halliday 2007, p.184).

To sum up, using language resources to talk about the world involves the experiential metafunction of language. Using language resources to interact with other people involves the interpersonal metafunction and using language resources to organize one’s message to fit in a certain context involves the textual metafunction. Thus, language resources (grammar) are used to express the content of different metafunctions, i.e. different parts of grammar are used to express different functions of a language. By way of illustration of how the three metafunctions are manifested in one clause by its different parts of grammar, Thompson (2014, pp. 30-34) discusses the example of a child complaining that her calculator has been taken by someone in the class. In this context, it is the teacher who is expected to identify the child who has done this and make him or her give the calculator back. There are many linguistic choices which the teacher has to do this. In the experiential setting, the teacher wants to indicate the action which has happened. In this case the setting involves taking the thing which the action was done to (*the calculator*) the possible doer of the action and probably when the action happened (*the time*). Thus, an experiential structure which helps to express the event including the doer and the done-to will be opted for, something like: *you/ take/her/ calculator/ just now*. Concurrently, in the interpersonal setting, the teacher wants the addressee to say whether he was the

doer or not, and therefore in this case an interrogative structure (a yes/no question) is an appropriate one to opt for, so something like: *Did you (take)?*. In the textual setting, the teacher wants to use a structure that shows that this is a question making his start point of the sentence clear by means of a finite followed by a subject combination. These linguistic choices result in a wording such as: *'Did you take her calculator just now?'*. As such, one clause can be analyzed and labelled according to different functional roles, so 'Did you take her calculator just now?' is analyzed functionally as follows:

**Table 1.** Three kinds of structure in the clause (Thompson 2014, p. 34)

Type of structure	Did	you	take	her calculator	just now?
Experiential		Actor	Process	Goal	Circumstance
Interpersonal	Finite	Subject	Predictor	Complement	Adjunct
Textual	Theme		Rheme		

The labels within these different metafunction structures symbolize different functions of the grammatical parts of the structure. Thus, the label 'Actor' has the function of the 'subject' in traditional grammar, and has the same function in the experiential structure 'Actor + Process + Goal + Circumstance'. However, a detailed discussion of the functions of these labels is beyond the scope of this study, which takes the SFG principles and its three metafunctions of language merely as a guideline to classify explicitation shifts.<sup>11</sup>

As SFG focuses on the meanings which can be realized by the wording system, it is appropriate to use as a framework for discourse analysis in translation, since translation is a matter of meaning in the first place. According to Newmark, the main achievement of Halliday's SFG is that it keeps "semantics at the centre of

---

11. For further information on the labels of different metafunction structures, see Halliday (1994), Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) and Thompson (2014).

linguistics and meaning at the heart of language” (1998, p. 16). In this context, Halliday suggests that functional grammar is a theory of grammar which is orientated towards semantics, i.e. if we are to interpret grammar functionally we need to understand it as a resource for constricting meaning. (Halliday 1994, p 15).

On the basis of Halliday’s (1994) account of SFG, House develops her schema (2004) of various types of optional explicitations which constitute the guiding framework for this study. She identifies the following: 1. explicitations that revolve around the ideational components of the language; 2. explicitations that relate to the interpersonal components of the language, which according to House (2004) might be similar to pragmatic explicitation; and finally 3. explicitations that are associated with the textual components of the language based on Halliday and Hassan’s (1976) classic classification of cohesive types. House’s schema (2004, p. 15) concerns not only the linguistic factors of discourse explicitness but also takes into account other non-linguistic factors like translator variables, situational variables and translation-task-variables. However, since this section is devoted to investigating ideational shifts, the focus here will be only on linguistic factors, and more specifically, shifts associated with the ideational component of the language. The other linguistic and non-linguistic factors will be discussed later.

According to House (2004, p. 3), from an ideational perspective, Halliday views explicitness as a syntactic-textual technique where a primary clause is expanded by a secondary one with three alternative procedures: elaborating, extending or enhancing. In order to elucidate these three ways of expanding, Halliday (1994, pp. 225-219 and 1985, pp.196-203) compares them with three ways of enriching a building: first, elaboration is like elaborating an existing structure of a building; this may be notated as ‘equals’ or ‘=’. Secondly, extension is compared to adding to or replacement of a building; this may be notated as ‘is added to’ or ‘+’. Thirdly, enhancing is compared to enhancing a building; this may be notated as ‘is multiplied by’ or ‘x’. Halliday (1994, p. 220 and 1985, p.197) attempts to clarify these categories as follows. In elaborating, one clause expands another by elaborating on it or some parts of it by means of restating it in other words, specifying it by providing details, commenting or exemplifying. In extending, one clause expands another and extends it either by adding some new elements,

giving an exception to it or providing an alternative, using the conjunctions *and*, or *or*. In enhancing, one clause expands another by embellishing or qualifying it with some circumstantial tools of time, place, cause or condition.

This model may at first sight seem a very explicit and straightforward way to functionally distinguish and analyze explicitations. However, Becher (2011) believes that this classification does not seem to be applicable to empirical research as there are no clear objective criteria for separating these categories. For example, the notions of extending, enhancing and elaborating were presented without any objective criteria for differentiating between them. Although Halliday and Matthiessen do provide some definitions for these categories, but they are vague. For instance, they define elaboration as “restating [a clause] in other words, specifying in greater detail, commenting or exemplifying” and they define extension as “adding some new element, giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative” (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, p. 444; and 2004, p. 377). However, it is extremely unclear how “adding some new elements” is different from “specifying in greater details” (Becher 2011, p. 86). This problem occurs again and again in SFG and is not just a problem for Halliday and Matthiessen’s (2004, 2014) categorization of semantic relations. SFG is also challenging to apply due to the vague classification of lexical items. Becher (2011, p. 86) asserts that it is still difficult to know where they belong: do they belong to the ideational, interpersonal or textual metafunction of language? There is no proper criterion to keep these three categories apart. It is true that Halliday and Matthiessen classified linguistic items that belong to the three metafunctions of language, but the infrastructure of the decisions remains vague, and it becomes impossible to apply this criterion. Lastly, Becher (2011, p. 86) asks why – for example – the authors add adverbs such as *still* and *entirely* to the interpersonal metafunction of language while these items have an ideational function.

Given this fundamental confusion in Halliday’s classification, it was difficult to force the data of the current study into the model. So, although the SFG framework is used here as a parameter for the classification of the shifts, some adjustments had to be made to this framework to fit with the current data, particularly at the ideational metafunction level. In the following section the classification of the ideational shifts will be discussed demonstrating the alterations made.

### 3.6 Classification of the Ideational Shifts

Although the ideational metafunction has two subfunctions (the experiential and the logical) as mentioned earlier, the focus here will be on the experiential dimension of the ideational metafunction. The ideational, particularly experiential, use of language relates to the way we use language to talk about world – both our external world, which comprises things, events, etc. – and our internal world, which incorporates thought, beliefs, feelings, etc. In order to realise how language works to express our external and internal world, we need to look in the first place at the propositional content of a message rather than the purpose of it. However, in a language, there are many alternative ways for the speaker to represent her external and internal world and the choice of which way to choose is reliant on the purpose of the message (Thompson 2014, p. 91). From an experiential perspective “language comprises a set of resources for referring to entities in the world and the ways in which those entities act on or relate to each other” (Thompson 2014, p. 92). So, simply put, language reveals our experience of the world by means of ‘goings-on’ (verbs) comprising ‘things’ (nouns) that may have ‘attributes’ (adjectives) and which might be happening against setting details of place, time, manner, etc. (adverbials). So according to Thompson (2014, p. 92), the following sentence: *they slowly unlocked the front door* “distinguishes not only a recognizable type of going-on (unlocked) but also doers (they) and done-to (the front door), and a manner (slowly)”. Here, we can observe what is going on, and we can express the ‘same going on’ in different ways. For example, *the door was unlocked slowly* represents the same ‘going-on’ but in a different way. Therefore, within the experiential perspective, the clause is about an action, event or state that the participants are involved in, and thus processes (verbs) are the core of the clause. To analyse the experiential function of the clause, SFG uses the transitivity system, which describes the whole clause on the basis of its verbal group. The process type determines the labels and functions of the participants. For instance, in a physical process such as kicking, the ‘doer’ is given a different label from the ‘doer’ of a mental process such as wishing (Thompson, 2014, p. 94). In fact, the transitivity system is very broad with complex details and it is beyond the scope of this study to discuss it (cf. Thompson 2014; and Halliday and Matthiessen 2014). What is more important here is understanding what and how a state of affairs is being expressed and how

shifts made on the verbal group regardless of their type affect the explicitness of the target text. In Arabic, a verbal group can in some respects be more explicit than one in English, and it can influence the explicitness of the utterances in many ways. It can, for instance, specify the gender and number of participants. It can also be used to change perspectives and emphasise certain components of the utterances. Moreover, other experiential components of a language such as circumstances (which can be typically realised by adverbial groups or prepositional phrases) or attributes (adjectives) might be added or altered in a way that might influence the explicitness of the TT.

The following is my own framework, which is loosely based on Halliday's (1994) classification of semantic relations between clauses and clause complexes. This framework is incomplete, its sole aim is to detect and classify the explicating shifts made on verbal groups for the purpose of this study. However, it involves more objective and applicable criteria for classifying experiential-related shifts than are offered in standard SFG models. While Halliday's (1994) terms for semantic relations are borrowed they are employed precisely in labelling ideational-related shifts. Thus, the current model distinguishes in a very understandable way between, 1. restating in other words, 2. specifying in greater detail, and 3. adding new elements.

Essentially, ideational shifts in translation (i.e. those shifts that involve the ideational component of language) are associated with the strategies the translators adopt to describe states of affairs, taking into account the requirements of the target language and target readers (Becher 2011, p. 111). This means that attention here will be paid to any shifts or translator's choices of strategies which might be made to explicitly describe the state of affairs for the readers. So, ideationally, the framework differentiates between the three types of descriptive shifts as follows:

1. **Elaborating.** This concerns restating or specifying the clause or part of it in other words without adding new information; i.e. the translator might opt to rearrange the clause to shift the focus of the reader or to make the state of affairs being described more elaborate and explicit for the reader. So, unlike Halliday's (1994) elaboration, which links two clauses, elaborating here is basically restating, specifying or paraphrasing a

clause or part of it in other words without adding new information. In this sense, if the element(s) – particularly verbal group related element(s) – which is/are found in the translated texts restate(s) or specify(ies) further the state of affairs which is supposed to be inferred by the reader and is not verbalized by the writer, the example is to be viewed as elaboration and evidence of explicitation.

2. **Expanding.** This is basically to extend a clause or part of it, meaning to add new details or new information. So, unlike elaboration, expanding entails addition of new information to explicitate the state of affairs. This means that if the element(s) added to the translated texts express(es) or add(s) new information to help the reader to understand the implied meaning which can be inferred from the surrounding context and is not verbalized by the writer, the example is to be viewed as expanding and consequently evidence of explicitation.
  
3. **Enhancing.** This is basically similar to Halliday's (1994) enhancing. It concerns embellishing or qualifying the clause or part of it by adding circumstantial traits; temporal, local, causal or conditional: i.e. if the element(s) added to the translated texts is/are of a circumstantial nature and express(es) or specify(ies) further states of affairs which are supposed to be inferred by the reader and are not verbalized by the writer, the example is to be viewed as enhancing and an instance of explicitation.

Thus, these types of shifts are relative to different components of the experiential use of language. This classification will help significantly in understanding various shifts adequately, specifying their function in the utterances and how they affect the explicitness of the target text. In elaboration, for example, the shifts of verbal group-related components are found to shift perspective, e.g. the target text is written to be read from the main character's angle. For young adult's readers, this will not only help them to maintain consistency throughout the text, but also allow them to visualise the scene or event being described, as they will be focused on the main character while reading.

### 3.7 Classification of Textual Shifts

It is essential here to review the notions of cohesion and coherence as presented by the SFG approach and their function in organizing the message, referring to Arabic examples in some cases. It is also important to shed some light on cohesive markers within the relevance theory account of communication. The purpose here is to compare these two different accounts to approaching textual markers, demonstrating how these dissimilarities can be usefully applied to analyze the data of the current study. This is the reason why this section is rather lengthy; the actual classification of textual shifts will be presented towards the end of it.

Essentially, as mentioned above, the textual metafunction of the language concerns the organization of the message, i.e. “how speakers construct their messages in a way that makes them fit smoothly into unfolding events [...] speakers constantly organize the way their message is worded in order to signal to them how the present part of their message fits in with other part” (Thompson 2014, p. 145). In principle, SFG identifies three main ways in which language users can organize the message and construct the textual meanings in a text: **repetition**, **conjunction**, and **thematization**. By way of illustration of how these ways of constructing the textual meaning can be found in a text, Thompson (2014) gives the following example: *You probably haven't heard of the SOU before, that's because we fight cruelty undercover*. Here, the second clause incorporates a number of indications that function as a coherent continuation of the first; *That*, for example, comprises all of the information given in the first sentence, while *because* indicates the logical relationship of result and reason between the first and the second sentence. Moreover, insertion of *that* in the initial position of the second sentence has the function (though less obviously) of making it fit more smoothly. So, changing the order of the constituents to make it *The fact that we fight cruelty undercover is the reason for that* makes it awkward (Thompson 2014. p.145). Repetition, as used by Thompson (2014), refers to both lexical repetition, which includes repetition of the same word or a synonym, and grammatical repetition, which entails repeating the meaning without using the same or similar wording, as in using *that* in the previous example to bring into the second clause the whole meaning of the first one. The function of repetition as a textual tool is to show the receiver (reader or hearer) that parts of the text are

related in some way. In the same way, conjunction works as a linkage tool between two or more clauses primarily to signal different varieties of textual relations. Thematization (theme and rheme), on the other hand, differs from repetition and conjunction in that it concerns the structuring of the clause itself rather than the way its components are organized. Simply, the theme is the first constituents of the clause or the “point of departure of the message” (Halliday and Mattiessian, 2014, p. 89; in Thompson, 2014, pp. 146-148), while the rheme is everything which is not the theme. Again, some examples given by Thompson (2014, p. 147) will be briefly touched on below to differentiate between the way the clause is structured (thematization) and the way the clause is expressed (repetition and conjunction).

1. *For centuries*, yellow canaries have been used to ‘test’ the air in mining.
2. *Yellow canaries* have been used to ‘test’ the air in mining for centuries.
3. *Miners* have used yellow canaries to ‘test’ the air for centuries.
4. *In mining*, yellow canaries have been used to ‘test’ the air for centuries.
5. *To ‘test’ the air in mining*, yellow canaries have been used for centuries.
6. *The air* has been ‘tested’ in mining for centuries by using yellow canaries.

While example 1 emphasises the historical perspective of the context by starting with the adjunct ‘for centuries’ both ‘Yellow canaries’ in example 2 and ‘Miners’ in the example 3 operate as an indicator that canaries or miners are main topic of the article. In example 4, by contrast, the initial element ‘In mining’ proposes a more strong and restricted starting point. The other two initial elements, ‘to test’ in example 5 and ‘the air’ in example 6 also suggest some very restricted starting points and are likely to be found in following parts of the article not at the beginning. So, reordering the components of the same sentence underlines the fact that changing the wording, i.e. changing the theme, contributes to making a different meaning although all these sentences refer to the same state of affairs. As noted above, all the other (non-theme) elements of the clause are simply known as the rheme. (Thompson 2014, p.147).

The focus here will be on the other resources **repetition** and **conjunction** that contribute to the formation of “texture” or what is described by Thompson (2014,

p. 215) as “the quality of being recognizably a text rather than a collection of unconnected words or clauses”. These resources are grouped by Halliday and Hasan (1976) under the label of ‘cohesion’ with the function of creation of texture across whole texts or stretches of texts. It is worth mentioning here that Thompson (2014, p. 215) distinguishes between ‘cohesion’ and ‘coherence’ as two textual phenomena. Cohesion concerns the linguistic devices which help the language user to signal the experiential and interpersonal coherence of the text, and thus it is thus a textual phenomenon by which we can identify the features of the texts that carry out cohesive functions. Coherence, on the other hand, is a mental phenomenon, i.e. it is in the mind of the language user – writer or reader – and cannot be recognized or qualified in the same way as cohesion. However, in most cases these two linguistic phenomena are linked in that a text that uses the cohesive devices of its language in an effective way should be perceived as coherent (Thompson 2014, p. 215). In line with this, Becher (2011) also argues that coherence and cohesion are different. Coherence is achieved when the functional/pragmatic relations between the sentences can be readily inferred based on our knowledge (mental phenomenon), as in this example: *Sorry I’m late. I got into a traffic jam.* Here the two clauses are relevant to one another. Cohesion, on the other hand, can only be made by linguistic means such as conjunctions and pronouns (textual phenomenon) as in this example, *Sorry I’m late. It’s because I got into a traffic jam,* in which the coherence relation is made explicit by the textual device *because*. Thus, cohesion is only a way of making coherence relations textually explicit (Becher 2011, pp. 95-96). However, Tanskanen (2006) firmly believes that “successful communication depends on both cohesion and coherence, which are simultaneously independent and intertwined” (Tanskanen 2006, p. 21).

As mentioned earlier, in SFG, two of the main three cohesive devices are repetition and conjunctions. Repetition refers to repetition of meaning and includes lexical as well as grammatical repetition. Lexical repetition as a cohesive device plays a very powerful role in both expressing meaning and making the text hang together. Grammatical repetition, on the other hand, comprises two kinds: reference and ellipsis. Reference, as defined by Thompson (2014, p. 216), is “a set of grammatical resources that allow the speaker to indicate whether something is being repeated from somewhere earlier in the text, or whether it has

not yet appeared in the text". In the following sentence given by Thompson (2014, p. 216), *They came again into their bedroom. A large bed had been left in it.*, 'it' is a reference to something we have already been told about, 'their bedroom', while 'a' in the second part of the sentence indicates that this is something new and not mentioned before. However, some functions of references do not fall under repetition, and therefore do not count as cohesive devices which contribute to the texture of the text. Only those which entail repetition of meaning can be counted as such. Thompson (2014, p. 217), gives the following two examples to elaborate these two types of references. The first is: *Who's he? [speaker pointing at a photograph]*. Here the meaning of 'he' here is associated to something outside language – the photograph of a man, and thus cannot be interpreted as repetition. This kind of reference which links language to the external context is known as exophoric (pointing outwards). The second example is: *She appealed to Philip. He turned the main tap.* Here 'he' here refers to the man mentioned as *Philip* in the previous sentence and it therefore involves understanding of repetition. This kind is referred to as endophoric reference (pointing inwards). Now, it is clear that only the second one contributes to the texture of the text and indicates how the message fits into its context, and thus is counted as cohesion. Endophoric cohesive reference is further divided into two kinds: firstly, anaphoric reference (pointing backwards) where the reference is used to repeat meaning that has been already mentioned in the text earlier as in 'he' referring to *Philip* in the second example above. The second kind is cataphoric (pointing forwards), where the repeated meaning of the reference is to be specified in the following text, as in 'here' in the following example: *But Pat and another kid had a different idea. Here is Pat's paper.* Some other reference markers which contribute to the cohesion of the text include: third person personal pronouns such as *he, she, they. etc.*, demonstratives such as *this, that, these, those* and comparatives such as *another, different, the same, similarly* (Thompson 2014, pp. 217-219).

By contrast with reference, ellipsis is defined as "the set of resources by which full repetition of a clause or clause element can be avoided, and by which it can be signalled to the hearer that they should carry over the wording from a previous clause" (Thompson 2014, p. 216). There are two essential ways of doing this; i. ellipsis proper, where the element is simply missed out as in this example given by Thompson (2014, p. 216), '*How old is he?*' '*Two months*', where the

presupposed phrasing ‘*he is .... old*’ is basically missed out; and ii. substitution in which “a linguistic token is put in the place of the wording to be repeated from elsewhere” (Thompson 2014, p. 216) as in the following example, *It’s large for five months, but not abnormally so*, given by Thompson (2014, p. 216).

Principally, both reference and ellipsis can function within a clause or clause complex. However reference works over long chunks of texts, and the repeated meaning does not need to be in the immediately preceding message, while ellipsis works between adjacent clauses; the hearer or reader is required to rebuild the actual words to fill out the clause. Ellipsis is more likely to be exploited in speech than writing (Thompson 2014, p. 220).

The term ‘conjunction’ is used to refer to the way by which messages can be linked. In SFG, Halliday (1994) uses the term to indicate only the cohesive linking between clause complexing/sentences, so “a clause or clause complex, or some longer stretch of text may be related to what follows it by one or other of specific set of semantic relations” (Halliday 1994, p. 310). However, ‘conjunction’ here is used the way it has been used by Thompson (2014) to broadly refer to “the combining of any two textual elements into a potentially coherent complex semantic unit” (Thompson 2014, p. 225). The difference between conjunction and repetition (references and ellipses) lies in the fact that the former is related to transitions between messages and managing progression while the latter is concerned with repetition within messages and the management of textual continuity (Thompson 2014, p. 225). The linguistic transition devices (conjunctions) classified by Halliday and Hassan (1976, pp. 238-239) based on their cohesive relations in discourse are as follows;

*Additive*; such as and, or, and nor.

*Adversative*; for example, but, yet, though, and however.

*Causal*; for instance, thus, hence, therefore and so.

*Temporal*; such as then, next, after, that and afterwards.

Like those of English, Arabic cohesive devices include reference, ellipsis, lexical cohesion and conjunction. However, given that Arabic and English are different languages, the cohesive devices may not be equivalent to those of English. The

following section briefly presents the cohesive devices in Arabic and how they might form a potential resource for explicitation.

**Reference (الإشارة):** References in Arabic include pronouns used to identify the person, thing or place spoken about. References could be:

*Endophoric reference.* This applies to someone/something within the text which includes.

*Personal reference.* This involves either independent personal pronouns (i.e. pronouns which appear as independent words) (he-هو, she-هي, they-هم, etc.), or suffixed pronouns (i.e. pronominal suffixes attached either to a verbs, such as: تكتب in 'you (m.sg.) wrote' or كتبت 'you (f.sg.) wrote', or to a noun or preposition, as in his-هـ or her-ها, etc.

*General reference.* This is realized by items such as: 'another one' - آخر, 'other ones' - آخرون or 'one of them' - احدهم, احدهن, etc.

*Extended reference.* This is realized by words such as: 'she' هي, 'he' هو, 'this(m.sg.)' هذا, 'this (f.sg.)' هذه to refer to a portion of text which is already mentioned and represents a fact.

*Demonstrative reference.* This is realized by demonstrative pronouns such as: 'this (f.sg.)' هذه, 'that' هنا, 'here', هناك, 'there', هؤلاء, 'these'.

*Comparative reference.* This is realized by items such as: 'better' أحسن, 'worse', أسوأ, 'less' أقل.

As far as conjunction is concerned, many studies have found that the most frequently used connectives devices in Arabic are; و [wa] 'and', فـ [fa] 'and/then', ثم [thumma] 'then', أما [ammā] 'or', أو [aw] 'or', لكن [lākinna] 'but' (for example Albatat 1990, Alasmari& Kurger 2018). Similarly, Dickins (2002, p. 131), explains that "in many genres at least, Arabic sentences are typically longer than English sentences, and sentences and clauses in Arabic are typically connected either by one of the three basic connectives و, فـ, and ثم, or by the use of one of the simple secondary connectives such as إذا, حيث, etc". The following table presents the major textual function of each connective based on Ryding's categorisation of Arabic conjunctive markers (from Ryding, 2005, pp. 409–421; cited in Alasmari and Kruger 2018 p. 22).

**Table 2.** Ryding's categorisation of Arabic conjunctive markers (from Ryding, 2005, pp. 409–421; cited in Alasmari and Kruger 2018 p. 22).

Type of conjunction	Item in Arabic	English equivalent/ function
<i>wa</i>	و	And
<i>fa</i>	ف	and so, and then, yet, and thus
Contrastive conjunctions	لكن	<i>lkin</i> (but, yet, however, nevertheless)
	بل	<i>bal</i> (rather, but actually)
Explanatory conjunctions	إنما	<i>Inna-maa</i> (but, but moreover, rather)
	أي	<i>ay</i> (that is, i.e.)
Resultative conjunctions	إذ	<i>idh</i> (since, inasmuch as)
	إذن	<i>idhan</i> (therefore, so, thus, in that case)
	حتى	<i>hatta</i> (until, as far as, till)
Adverbial conjunctions Place Time	حيث	<i>ḥayth</i> (where)
	بينما	<i>bayna-ma</i> (while, whereas)
	بعدها	<i>ba'-da-ma</i> (after)
	بعد أن	<i>ba'-da'an</i> (after)
	بعدها	<i>ba'-da idhin</i> (after)
	حين/حينما	<i>ḥiin/ḥiina-maa</i> (when, at the time when)
	عندما	<i>°in-da-maa</i> (when, at the time when)
	عندئذ	<i>°in-da-idhin</i> (then, at that time)
	قبل أن	<i>qabla 'an</i> (before)
	ثم	<i>thumma</i> (then, and then, subsequently)
Similarity	كما	<i>ka-maa</i> (just as, similarly, likewise)
	مثلما	<i>mithil-a-maa</i> (like, just as, as)
	قدر ما	<i>qadr-a-maa</i> (as much as, just as, as...as)
	حسبما	<i>ḥasba-a-maa</i> (according to, in accordance with, depending on)
Possibility	ربما	<i>rubba-a-maa</i> (perhaps, maybe, possibly)

Disjunctives	أو	<i>aw(or)</i>
	أم	<i>am(or)</i>
Sentence-starting connectives	أما	<i>amma (as for)</i>
	إلى ذلك	<i>ilaa dhaalik (in addition to that, moreover, furthermore)</i>
Topic shift		
addition		

It is worth noting here that although Arabic and English exhibit a great deal of similarity in their textual functions, some of the conjunctive markers in Arabic have a dual cohesive and structural function. The conjunctions و *wa-* 'and' and ف *fa* 'and so', 'and then', 'yet', and 'thus' for example, can be used in Arabic structurally as a clause-initial marker or textually as a cohesive device to link clauses (Abdel Fattah 2010, p. 180).

So far, we have elaborated with some examples the differences between references and ellipsis as cohesive resources which contribute to the texture of the text and their Arabic counterparts. Now, we need to explain how these devices can contribute to the explicitness of the text and how they can be used to serve the function of making the implied meaning explicit in the translated text. Essentially, cohesive markers in any language can be seen as linguistic devices that language provides its users with to overtly indicate the semantic relations holding between different existing elements of the text. Albatat (1990, p. 252) elucidates that "the cohesive significance of connectives emanates from their role in bringing to the surface the underlying semantic relationships, thus making it easier to the reader to perceive them [...] in the absence of these devices, the reader might still be able to perceive the link between these elements but the task of reading the text would be more difficult". So, it is clear that the existence/absence of cohesive devices in a given text is associated with making the reading task (comprehension process) easier or difficult, or in other words, making the text more explicit or implicit.

In terms of repetition, which can be lexical and/or grammatical, the potential for explicitation in Arabic is determined basically by the repetition strategies used to make the text hang together. For example, the personal reference هي *she* in a

sentence like...هي المرأة القوية هي... *the strong woman she...* is less explicit than using a personal pronoun + relative pronouns as in... هي التي هي المرأة القوية هي... *the strong woman is she who...* This in turn is less explicit than using personal pronoun + noun + relative pronoun, as in ... هي المرأة القوية هي المرأة القوية هي... *the strong woman is the woman [she] who...* which comprises a reference chain that is more explicit than the preceding one. The most obviously explicit reference option is to lexically repeat the meaning being mentioned earlier as in for example: والقراءة تسمو بالعقل، والقراءة تغذي الروح... *reading transcends mind, and reading feeds the soul.* Here, the nominal group is explicitly repeated, although it could also be referred to by an extended reference such as وهي *and it* in this case.

Ellipsis is another potential source of explicitation at the grammatical level, when an elliptical ST element is optionally filled out in translation although this practice does not seem to be imposed by grammatical constraints. In terms of translation between Arabic and English, Abdel Fattah (2010, p. 179) mentions that there is an overall tendency to produce with high frequency full potential elliptic forms in translated texts compared to Arabic non-translated texts, where a more economic variant of elliptic elements is manifested. To elaborate, consider the following example given by Abdel Fattah (2010, p. 178), *What, then is left to him? First, logic and mathematics*, in which the missing component in the response can be straightforwardly inferred from the preceding clause (is left to him) in the WH-sequence. The translator, nonetheless, has opted to produce a full non-elliptical form in the Arabic text to give *فماذا يبقى له إذن؟ يبقى له – أولاً – المنطق والرياضة.* which can be back-translated into English as *What remains for him then? Remains for him – first – logic and mathematics.*

Conjunctive markers, on the other hand, are possibly one of the most common textual features that contribute to the explicitness of texts. Cohesive devices specially conjunctions have been studied by many scholars as potential occurrences of textual explicitation (cf. Abdel Fattah 2010; Blum-Kulka 1986). Conjunctive markers are principally used to help the receiver (reader or hearer) to comprehend the relationship between the clause/or clause complex components. However, in some cases this relationship could be readily inferred by our knowledge or our experience. For more elaboration, compare the following examples: *I don't eat meat, I'm vegetarian* and *I don't eat meat because I'm vegetarian.* In the first example the causal nexus between the two clauses is not

explicitly uttered but can be easily inferred from our experience and knowledge. By contrast, in the second example, the causation is made explicit by means of the casual conjunctive *because*, thereby giving the receiver (reader or hearer) maximum understanding and maximum reduction of processing effort. Similarly, in Arabic, the same sentences can be said without the casual marker and the causation nexus in this case can be readily inferred from the knowledge and experiences of the receiver as in *أنا لا أكل اللحوم، أنا نباتيه*. However, they can also be said in such a way that the causation nexus is made explicit through the use of any of the casual conjunctive markers counterparts of *because* *لأن*، *بسبب*، *وذلك لأن* as in *أنا لا أكل اللحوم لأني نباتيه*.

We have discussed the SFG account of textual markers and their role in increasing text explicitness. It is important to indicate that different approaches to utterance interpretation propose different ways of describing the role of discourse connectives. Thus, some approaches that set out to explain text production and textuality lay great stress on the “linking” function of such devices, such as Halliday and Hassan (1976), who describe discourse connectives as linguistic devices that produce cohesion, i.e. lexical and syntactic permanence in the text. Halliday and Hassan (1976, p. 4) go even further. Relying on their notion of cohesion to determine what is a text. According to them,

cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by resource to it. When this happens, the relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.

Simply put, they suggest that discourse connectives are linguistic devices with a linking function which connect discourse segments creating relations between them by virtue of their meaning; and this linking function produces a text.

Within the Gricean tradition, by contrast, discourse connectives have been analysed as carrying conventional implicatures (Levinson 1983), while relevance theory presents them as encoding information about the type of inferences the hearer has to go thorough to arrive at the intended interpretation of an utterance (Blackemore 1987; Wilson and Sperber 1993; Rouchota 1998). Within relevance

theory, discourse connectives are not dealt with as linking devices, but rather as “displaying’ or ‘making explicit’ such implicit relations between discourse segments” (Rouchota 1998, p. 13). Successful comprehension of an utterance is built on deciding which one of its possible interpretations the speaker intended to communicate. This possible interpretation is determined by its encoded linguistic content on one hand and on the contextual assumptions the hearer needs to make on the other hand. As such discourse connectives such as *but*, *moreover*, *well*, *after all* are seen within the relevance-theoretical literature as linguistic devices which “contribute to the interpretation of an utterance by constraining its implicit import” (Rouchota 1998, p. 33). Simply put, discourse connectives are linguistic devices whose encoded meaning helps in reducing the number of interpretations the hearer has to consider by revealing the type of inferential process a proposition is intended to undergo to reach the optimal interpretation (Sperber and Wilson 1993; Blakemore 1987).

Going back to the “linking” function of discourse connectives, Rouchota (1998, p.13) argues that if discourse connectives are to be seen as linking devices which create cohesion and coherence relations then we need to determine what it is that they link.. In order to elucidate this, she (1998) discusses with examples these two assumptions. Firstly, according to her, the fact that discourse connectives are linking devices whose function is to link two clauses is strongly evident in examples such as the following (Rouchota 1998, p. 15), where the discourse connectives are used to grammatically and semantically connect text segments:

- A.** Anne should get a promotion; after all, she has published two books.
- B.** Peter is never at home in the evening; so, he must have a new girlfriend.
- C.** Susan went to Paris for two weeks. Anne visited her sister in Spain. But Mary spent her holiday at home nursing her old mother.

In the above examples the discourse connectives link the clause they introduce and the preceding one establishing different relations such as providing an explanation for the previous claim as in *after all*. In the second example, the second clause introduces an interpretation for the first clause by virtue of the meaning of *so* and finally, *But* in the last example links the clause it introduces creating the relation of conclusion and contrast. Moreover, the claim that discourse connectives link discourse segments is strongly supported by the

following example given by Rouchota (1998, p. 15), which clearly demonstrates that there are some discourse connectives which cannot introduce a clause precisely without a suitable previous clause or linguistic sequence.

**D. Context:** Mary walks in Peter's room. He points to a new expensive-looking painting on the wall.

Mary: \*Therefore, you've got no money left.

In the example, Mary's utterance is ungrammatical even though Mary draws this conclusion based on information which is contextually (non-linguistically) available: the existence of an 'expensive-looking painting on the wall'. Mary's utterance would become grammatically acceptable if she said something like *You bought this expensive painting; therefore, you've got no money left* with a prior clause revealing the needed information.

Rouchota (1998, pp. 18-19) goes on to highlight that it is not always correct to say that discourse connectives are linking devices whose function is to join a clause and its preceding one. She gives the following examples to demonstrate that the notion of a "linking" function for discourse connective is sometimes less appealing.

**E. Context:** Peter comes in through the front door. Mary, who was sitting in the living room, goes out in the hall.

Mary: But you had to work late shift today.

**F. Context:** Peter is browsing through a PC magazine. Mary comes in the room.

Mary: So, you're thinking of buying a computer.

In the above examples given by Rouchota (1998, p. 18) the information required to interpret Mary's utterances is contextually available. This makes it in this case similar to example D; however, there is a crucial difference between them. Unlike example D, in which Peter points to the expensive-looking painting with the intention of drawing Mary's attention to it, in these examples, the communicative act starts with Mary's utterance, and Peter's preceding behaviour was not by any means addressing Mary. So, in example E, Peter does not enter the house aiming to draw Mary's attention to the fact that he is back from work and in example F, Peter's behaviour in reading the PC magazine involves no intention of making a set of assumptions obvious to Mary. As such, it is not plausible to claim that

discourse connectives such as *But* and *So* in the above examples link a clause and its preceding one. Rather, as indicated by Rouchota (1998, p.19), such discourse connectives in Mary's utterances contribute effectively to the formation of the context in which Mary's utterances have to be interpreted. Therefore, relevance theory views discourse connectives as devices which play an active role in the interpretation process of the utterance in which they occur, instead of merely linking a clause and its preceding one.

Within the relevance theory context, discourse connectives are not constrained by a single semantic pattern. So semantically, some discourse connectives encode concepts and establish a link between propositions, i.e. conceptual connectives introduce a concept which constitutes part of a conceptual representation meant to be communicated by the utterance. For instance, the concept *because* could be seen as a device that links by virtue of its concept two properties *X because Y*. The concepts they encode are conceptual representations and therefore contribute to the truth-evaluable content of the utterance in which they appear. Examples of this kind are: *because, after, before, as a consequence, as a result, by contract*.

Other connectives, on the other hand, do not link two propositions. Rather, they encode procedural information: their linguistic form is loaded with instructions on how to manipulate a representation to arrive at the intended interpretation. Examples are *moreover, but, nevertheless, after all, although*, etc. Those procedural connectives encode information about the inferential process that a given representation is intended to undergo so that an optimally relevant interpretation is arrived at. According to Blakemore (1987, p. 77) the sole function of procedural connectives is to "guide the interpretation process by specifying certain properties of context and contextual effect", in other words, to minimise the processing costs. This function can be demonstrated by the following example given by Rouchota (1998, pp. 41-42):

**G.** Susan's research is mediocre, but she is an excellent teacher.

Assuming that this utterance is said in the course of evaluating staff members, the hearer when processing the proposition of the first utterance is likely to imply that Susan's performance is poor. The speaker then introduces the next utterances with 'but', and this helps the hearer to process the utterance in a way

which leads to a contradiction between one assumption made apparent and other assumption. By initiating the second utterance with 'but', the speaker implies that Susan's overall performance is not poor. This utterance attains optimal relevance by contradicting and eliminating the implication resulting from the first utterance.

The relevance theory notion of procedural connectives could be perceived as follows: a speaker usually has a specific interpretation of their utterance in their mind and expects the hearer to be able to arrive at same interpretation. In order to arrive at this intended interpretation of the utterance, the hearer needs to process this utterance in the right (intended) context. The choice of context is governed by principles of optimal relevance. The speaker may now believe that the hearer will be able to choose the appropriate contextual assumptions to draw an appropriate (intended) conclusion without extra help, or the speaker might opt to direct the hearer towards the intended interpretation by making the appropriate assumptions immediately accessible by using certain linguistic devices. Procedural connectives are one of these devices (Rouchota 1998, p. 41). She (1998) indicates that conceptual connectives may contribute to the content explicitly, whilst procedural connectives may contribute either to the explicit of an utterance or its implicit import.

Coherence on the other hand, which is fundamentally described with reference to a set of relations that exist between sequential text segments forming a unified whole, is perceived differently within the relevance theory account of communication. In accordance with the relevance-based framework, the relevance (coherence) of an utterance depends on the whether or not one can establish a relation between this utterance and the preceding one only in such a way that the interpretation of the latter produces assumptions that could be used in the interpretation of the former (Blakemore 1987, p. 112). Accordingly, Blakemore (1987, p. 112) suggests that within a relevance-based approach, there could be two classifications of coherence: **a.** the coherence that is observed when the information obtained by the interpretation of an utterance is used to form the propositional content of the next segment; and **b.** the coherence that is aroused when the information obtained by the interpretation of an utterance is used to form the contextual effects for the next segment. Blakemore (1987, pp. 112-118) then discusses how these two types of coherence can be built using inferential examples as in **H** and **I** and semantic relations as in **J** as follows:

**H.** I put the butterfly wing on the table. It broke.

**I.** I put the heavy book on the table. It broke.

According to Blakemore (1987, p. 113), in the above example, the correct interpretation could be only recovered depending on the contextual information obtained by the first segment in the sequence. Thus, in each example the relevant interpretation of the reference in the second segment builds on information obtained from the first segment which then creates coherence. So, the first segment in **H** implies the fragility of the butterfly wing, which in turn leads to an interpretation in which the reader/hearer interprets *It* in the second segment as a reference to the butterfly wing and not to the table (a butterfly wing is caused to break). By contrast, in the second case, the first segment with information about the weight of the book yields a different interpretation of *It* in the second segment, which in this case refers to the table that is caused to break by the heavy weight of the book. Moving onto coherence, this builds on semantic relations between the two segments. Blakemore (1987, p. 113) presents the following example;

**J.** The road was icy and she slipped.

The interpretation of the second segment requires building a causal connection between the two events. Thus, although the event expressed does not refer to a causative relation, the optimally relevant interpretation of the event necessitates a casual prediction. Thus, the hearer/ reader as Blakemore (1987, p. 113) states, will interpret **J.** as:

**K.** [the road was icy] and as a result of that she slipped.

At first glance, one would see coherence within the relevance theory account to be somewhat similar to coherence within SFG. This is partially true, because both these accounts perceive coherence as a mental (cognitive) phenomenon which can be built in the hearer/readers mind, albeit differently. Given the principle of relevance in relevance theory, coherence can be established depending on the relevant interpretation of the utterances, the hearer/ reader requires to arrive at the optimal interpretation of initial utterance in order to obtain a relevant interpretation of the propositional content and the contextual effects of the latter. SFG, by contrast, views coherence as an existing relationship between utterance segments which can be realized lexio-grammar and can be explicitly expressed by cohesive devices. In principle, the realization of existing relations in a given

text and arriving at a relevant interpretation of these relations are both cognitive-related abilities, i.e. coherence in both approaches is a phenomenon that can be found in the hearer/reader's mind. However, Blakemore (2002, p. 169) clarifies how perceiving coherence is different in relevance theory from other approaches through an analysis of the following example;

L. A: What did Sue say, then?

B: Our train is leaving in thirty seconds.

As Blakemore (2002, p.169) indicates, B's response has two thinkable interpretations. The first one is a traditional coherent interpretation in which B's utterance is to be perceived as an answer to A's question, so B is reporting what Sue said. Another interpretation perceives B's to be telling A that their train is about to leave, which is in this case incoherent and not an appropriate answer to A's question. Within a traditional coherence approach, according to Blakemore, only the first interpretation should be deemed a coherent interpretation. However, according to relevance theory accounts the hearer/reader has to arrive at the relevant interpretation depending on the context which yields this interpretation, i.e. to interpret the utterance in an optimal context which yields to relevant interpretation. Thus, the second interpretation of B's utterance, in some contexts (for example, when the train will not wait, and that they can discuss what Sue said later) is optimally relevant and consequently coherent.

In this section, a brief review of how coherence and cohesion (as fundamental components for identifying textual shifts) are perceived in accordance with SFG and Relevance theory accounts has been given. It is important now to consider why these two perceptions are needed for the process of the data analysis. This question will be dealt with in the following section.

### **3.8 Why Do We Need to Integrate the Two Accounts For Data Analysis**

Now that the SFG and relevance theory accounts of cohesion and coherence have been discussed, it is crucial here to review how these two approaches view language as a tool of communication and why it is significant to integrate both these perspectives when analysing the current data. Although the two approaches' main emphasis is meaning and how we construe meaning, they treat

meaning and how language is used to achieve meaning differently. SFG, as mentioned above, is concerned with how language is used to construct meaning, i.e. what language resources we have to create meaningful communication, positing three main metafunctions. So, SFG takes as its data what utterances mean, and uses this to build more abstract generalizing descriptions of linguistic structures. Relevance theory is concerned with how the intended meaning can be delivered by the speaker/writer and interpreted by the hearer/ reader. i.e. how do we understand how an utterance means what it means?. In other words, SFG emphasises linguistics meanings and functions, while relevance theory emphasises the language users themselves and how they use it. For clarification, let us consider this example given by Thompson (2014, p.7)

Colds last seven days on average.

Colds last seven days on average, don't they?

Do colds last seven days on average?

Although, the three examples above have almost the same propositional contents, these propositional contents are used differently to express different functions, and to provoke different responses “acknowledging agreeing/ confirming or informing” as Thompson (2014, p. 7) indicates. This means that, in order to attain some information, a person is most likely to ask a question whereas, they would rather make a statement to inform somebody about something. So, SFG sets out to present the range of different language functions and the different propositional contents and relevant choices for each metafunction. According to SFG, there is a link between lexicogrammatical patterns and the various metafunctions of a language. Language users use lexicogrammatical patterns of transitivity, modality and thematic and cohesion to express the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunction respectively. In translation, such close links between lexicogrammatical patterns and language metafunctions will indeed help in analysing both ST and TT patterns making any shifts on the various level of metafunctions noticeable, which in turn makes the SFG approach appropriate for analysing translation shifts and decision-making

process of the translator<sup>12</sup> (Munday, 2002 p. 79). However, the SFG approach does not take other communication elements beyond the propositional contents of a language – the mechanisms used by language users to interpret utterances, for example – into consideration when presenting its perspective on language in use. SFG is thus very significant in understanding how languages work to express different messages. Relevance theory, on the other hand, treats these examples differently considering the different assumptions made by language users to arrive at the relevant interpretation. So, for example, in some contexts the first statement above could be interpreted as being sarcastically said to imply complaining about being sick for more than seven days. In a situation where Mary is so sick because she caught a cold, Peter, for example, says, “You will be ok, colds last seven days on average”. After seven days Mary meets Peter and he notices she is still sick. He says, “You are still sneezing!!” She might then say something like, “Oh yes, colds lasts seven days on average!”, meaning, “You told me colds lasts seven days on average, but this is not true, and I am still sick”.

In such case, within a relevance theory account, to arrive at this implicature and consequently to achieve the most relevant interpretation of such utterance, the hearer/reader needs to go beyond the propositional contents of the statement engaging different assumptions. In summary, while SFG relies upon recognizing the relationship between propositional representations to understand the meaning of an utterance, relevance theory considers the relevant interpretation of propositional representations, this relevant interpretation being arrived at by incorporating both propositional representations and contextual assumptions rather than only propositional representations.

Back to the cohesion and coherence perspectives, Halliday and Hassan (1976, p.5) point out that “Cohesion is part of the system of language. The potential for cohesion lies in the systematic resources of references, Ellipsis and so on that are built into language itself” (Halliday and Hassan, 1976, p. 5). However, according to Blakemore (1987, pp. 106-107) it is not necessary for these meaning relations to be expressed explicitly in order for a discourse to be coherent.

---

<sup>12</sup> SFG principles of linking the lexicogrammatical patterns and metafunctions have influenced the discourse analysis approach in translation studies; see for example the work of Baker (1992) and Hatim and Mason (1990; 1997).

Blakemore (1987, pp. 106-107) argues that some relations can be delivered implicitly. For instance, in the following example, the relation between the meaning in the first utterance and the second utterance can be implied without a discourse device such as 'but':

- a. My neighbour asked me if I would like to go to her son's school play. I told her I couldn't.

Moreover, some relations expressed by cohesive devices are not always a relation between linguistically realized meaning. This is manifested in the examples E and F given by Rouchota (1998, p.15) and discussed above (section 3.7) where discourse devices could be used to link a previous utterance with an ostensive<sup>13</sup> stimulus which could draw the addressee's attention to focus on the communicator's intention rather than linking two linguistically expressed utterances. Thompson (2014, p. 9) clearly indicates that "functional grammar sets out to investigate what the range of relevant choices are, both in the kind of meanings that we might want to express (or functions that we might want to perform) and in the kinds of wordings that we can use to express these meanings; and to match these two choices". As such, SFG does not explain how texts are understood, but rather how they establish meanings.

However, according to Blakemore (1987, p. 107) a theory of linguistic meaning "must be grounded in a psychologically adequate theory of the principles by which discourse is organized and understood". Thus, in contrast to SFG, which explains the discourse connectives emphasizing their "linking" function and their contribution to the textuality of the text, discourse connectives within a relevance theory account are not seen as linking devices. Understanding an utterance involves deciding the interpretation the speaker intended to communicate among other possible interpretations. Any possible interpretations of an utterance are arrived at through both the encoded linguistic content and through the contextual assumptions that are brought to bear. To elaborate, the speaker might have an interpretation in her mind and might expect for some reasons that the hearer will arrive at the same interpretation by making use of the encoded meaning in the

---

<sup>13</sup> Ostension refers to behaviour which provide evidence of one's thoughts.

linguistic devices provided; or she might choose to explicitly direct the hearer towards the intended assumptions by using a set of interpretations immediately accessible devices. Languages offer devices whose encoded meaning serves to reduce the number of interpretations the hearer needs to consider in order to arrive at the most relevant interpretation, Connectives are among the linguistic devices the speaker may use to arrive at that interpretation.

Context is also seen differently within these two approaches. Halliday and Hassan (1976, pp. 21-30) address the contextual factors which influence meaning determination, drawing on the two notions of register and tenor. Register is defined as “the linguistic features which are typically associated with a configuration of situational features – with particular values of the field, mode and tenor” (Halliday and Hassan 1976, p. 22). This means that we use different configurations of linguistic resource for different contexts. In other words, a certain context imposes certain language use, so we choose from the different language resources the one that suits the context in which the utterance occurs. There are three levels of language variations by which register is determined; field, tenor and mode. According to Thompson (2014, p. 40), field refers to “what is being talked about and the role of language in the activity that is going on”; tenor concerns “the relationships between the people involved in the communication both in general and moment-by-moment”; and mode is concerned with “how the language is functioning in the interaction – e.g. whether it is written or spoken” (Thompson 2014, p. 40). Genre, on the other hand, is a broader notion; simply it is “register plus communicative purposes” (Thompson 2014, p. 42). Thus, genre is concerned with the sets of language resources which form a stylistic model that is suitable for certain topics or certain purposes. Thompson (2014, p. 43), compares these two notions to cloth and garment; so, “register as cloth and genre as garment; the garment is made of an appropriate type cloth or clothes, cut and shaped in conventional ways to suit particular purposes”. In order to elaborate on this, let us look at the following example taken from Thompson (2014, p.11), but discussed here in a different way from its treatment there:

Once upon a time, there was a big bad bear.

The field here is clearly a fairy story. Perhaps it is told by an adult to a child, so the interaction is between an adult and a young child. Since it is told by an adult means that the mode is spoken. Within the SFG account, this context imposes certain language use. Being told to a child and for this particular communicative purpose, it is significant to use such an opening expression, which signals: 'I'm going to tell a story'. This expression also refers to the narrative fictional nature of the story; thus there is no specific real time. The second clause probably introduces the main character without indicating any action the bear was involved in. This presumably will be stated in the next clause, which according to Thompson (2014, p. 12), is reasonable given that the addressee is an inexperienced language user. Thus the information is build up in amenable way for the child to process. The narrative genre of this example reflects these particular style sets of language in use. Hence, the SFG approach perceives language variations as existing with extralinguistic contextual factors, which are crucial in communicating the linguistic message (Butt et al 2000, p. 4).

The relevance theory account of context, by contrast, yields a different analysis of the above example. Within this approach, "a speaker who intends her utterance to be taken in a particular way must expect it to be interpreted in a context that yields that interpretation" Blakemore (1987, p. 27). In other words, for a successful communication, the context of an utterance needs to be relevant to the assumptions of both speaker and hearer. Hence, the speaker must restrict her utterance contexts to those are relevant to the hearer's cognitive environment in order for the hearer to arrive at the relevant interpretation. In the example above given by Thompson (2014, p. 11), in accordance with relevance theory principles, the story-teller needs to restrict her choices to the ones relevant to the child's cognitive environment in order to establish a relevant interpretation. Therefore, before telling a story about a bear, she assumes that the child knows what a bear is, what kind of animal a bear is, and what the child's assumptions are regarding bears. Moreover, the story-teller needs also to restrict her propositional representations and information choices to the most optimal ones that help the addressed child to arrive at optimal contextual assumptions which yield the intended interpretation. These include, firstly, to choose a fairy-tale opening which is already known by the child to yield a narrative story which does not have a specific time, for the child to build relevant assumptions about what is

said. Moreover, the choice of the propositional representations, for example, the word *bad* must also be carefully used. If a bear for example is the child's favourite animal, it will not be relevant for her to have the relevant assumption that a bear is bad upon which the whole plot of the story is made. The formulation of the story, the existential phrase *there was* must provide the relevant tense of the story. The child needs to already know that the story took place in the past in order to arrive at the most relevant contextual effects and consequently relevant interpretation. Thus, given the principle of relevance, context is determined by the cognitive environment of the addressee and how this could be used by both addresser and addressee to arrive at the relevant interpretation of utterance. Blackmore (1987, pp. 27-33) refers to this as 'mutual knowledge'. She suggests that "the context for interpretation of an utterance must consist not just of knowledge shared by speaker and hearer, but knowledge known to be shared, and known to be known to be shared" (Blackmore 1987, p. 28).

The question now is why we need to integrate these two approaches when analysing explicitation in translated texts. In fact, as mentioned before, explicitation is a complex translation phenomenon; it incorporates broader elements that might influence the translator's choice to explicitate the target text. Although, at first glance it could be seen as merely a text-based phenomenon, it is in fact not just this, and it could be motivated by extratextual factors. Thus, unlike in the case of other phenomena, when studying explicitation, one needs to take a number of other elements into consideration such as the translator's preferred style, the target language style and preferred use of language, the explicitness of the source text and its genre, the target readers, and so on. Moreover, the notion of explicitation itself has been a subject of debate among translation scholars and there is no agreed definition of it within the translation literature (cf. Ch 2). Translating for young readers, which is the domain of the current study, is another factor which adds to the difficulty of investigating this phenomenon. Despite being a relatively recent domain of literature, young adult's literature is now a rapidly growing field with characteristics that integrate both adults' and children's literature. As such the translator's choice to explicitate might be influenced by these combined characteristics (cf. section 3). Therefore, investigating manifestations of explicitation in translated young adult's literature requires an inclusive framework. The above-mentioned dissimilarities between

the Hallidayan approach and relevance theory in viewing how meaning is established in human communication will benefit the research in making the choices and the analysis of the data as comprehensive as possible. The SFG approach is appropriate in regards to the classification of propositional component-based meaning, since it emphasises the ostensible propositional relationships to establish meaning. Unfortunately, however, Halliday's (1994) approach fails to address the different dimensions of emerging meaning such as ostension for example.

The fact that human communication is complex and meaning involves other elements in addition to the apparent ideational, interpersonal and textual components of a language makes it problematic to only rely on this approach in analysing translated texts. Halliday's approach (1994) does not address how the implied meaning of an utterance can be established, putting emphasis only on the meaning of an utterance which can be explicitly expressed by ostensible ideational, interpersonal and textual components. Relevance theory, with its emphasis on the notion of implicature, as well as explicature, is appropriate to overcome this problem, which is the main focus of the current study. Relevance theory addresses the propositional components of an utterance with regard to their contribution to the explicitness or implicitness of this utterance. In relevance theory, explicature is further developed by adjusting or 'fine-tuning' the explicit components in such a way as to yield the implicature that meets the hearer/reader's anticipations of relevance. Explicatures are built through a combination of propositional decoding and inference – the greater the proportion of propositional encoding to inference, the more explicit the utterance (Wharton, 2009, pp. 50-51). Wharton (2009, p. 51) illustrates the relation between propositional content and explicature, comparing the three ways which Lily might reply to Jack's question 'Do you like the gift?', as follows;

- A. (smiling happily) I think it's wonderful. I like it very much and I feel absolutely delighted.
- B. (smiling happily) I do.
- C. (smiling happily) I've always wanted an electric toothbrush.

Reply A to Jack's question yields a fully propositional form where Jack will easily decode the explicature of the utterance. Reply B requires Jack to do significantly

more inferential work to reach to the intended explicit content of the utterance. Reply C requires Jack to not only do more inferential work to develop the explicitature of the utterance but also to complement this with an implicature to generate an answer to his question (Wharton, 2009, p. 51). Although relevance theory presents no classification of utterances and language functions, its emphasis on propositional contents and their role in developing explicitness makes relevance theory very appropriate to investigate manifestations of explicitation in translated texts. While SFG principles are needed for the classification of utterances meaning based on their ideational, interpersonal and textual components, relevance theory principles of implicature and explicitature are essential in any explicitation-related study.

Now that we have distinguished between different accounts of cohesion and coherence, it is time to employ these accounts in the process of the data analysis. Preliminary investigation demonstrates that coherence has been preserved in the translated texts. However there are number of cohesive-based shifts on the levels of reference (referring to the same entity) and conjunctions (encoding semantic relation between entities). In the following section, we will focus on these two ways of creating cohesion, emphasising how this allowed us to identify cohesive shifts made by the translator to explicitate the target text.

### **3.9 Shifts Involving Referring to the Same Entity**

What characterises these particular shifts is the fact that they incorporate the specific nature of the information being conveyed. What is being made explicit through translation is the “referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to” (Halliday and Hassan 1976, p. 31). The usual use of reference affects the explicitness of the text; addition of referential traits or even substitution of referential traits by nouns in the target text is found to evidently make the target text more explicit than the original.

### **3.10 Shifts Involving the Encoding of Semantic Relations**

“There are two ways in which the term *semantic relation* has been used in the literature. In its first sense, the term means relations such as synonymy or hyponymy, i.e. relations between linguistic items. In its second sense, the term

means relations such as causality or temporality, i.e. relations between real-world entities, which may be linguistically encoded by means of connectives (e.g. because, after)” (Becher, 2011, p. 99). It is the latter sense which is adopted in the current study. A semantic relation made by a conjunction involves “specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before” (Halliday and Hassan 1976, p. 227). Halliday and Hassan (1976, p. 230), differentiate between four main types of conjunctive semantic relations.

They assert that although it is possible to more extensively sub-classify these (which they do later in their book, in chapter 5), a simple framework like this makes it easier to handle a text without any unnecessary complications. Moreover a comprehensive systematization of subclasses would be too rigid for an analysis of cohesion. As noted in section 3.7 above, the four main types of conjunctive relation given by Halliday and Hassan (1976, pp. 238-239) are as follows:

1. *Additive* as in: And in all this time he met no one.
2. *Adversative* as in: Yet he was hardly aware of being tired.
3. *Casual* as in: So by night time the valley was far below him.
4. *Temporal* as in: Then, as dusk fell, he sat down to rest.

This simple classification yields the following observations: there is a diversity of semantic relations and these relations incorporate different types of entities such as events, phenomena, people and time. Moreover, vaguer or more explicit relations can be established by conjunctions.

If a simple classification like this makes it feasible to understand and analyse the conjunctive semantic relations of a text, then we should be able to understand how such semantic relations could be made explicit by mean of conjunctions. It is important to note that the brief account of semantic relations given above is to be taken as a guideline in the process of analysing the texts. There is also the question of what types of semantic relations are capable of being encoded linguistically. In order to understand this, we will draw on the principles of relevance theory regarding its interpretation of conjunctions and linking devices discussed end of section 3.7. If further specification is needed for a specific example, it will be made when discussing the example itself.

### 3.11 Shifts Eliminated From Analysis

For multiple reasons, a few shifts were eliminated from investigation. Reasons for excluding a shift from examination include the following:

- 1- Vague semantic outcome of the shift, i.e. there is no clear semantic effect in terms of explicating an inferred meaning of the shifts. These involve, in particular, alterations which have not resulted in any changes in meaning and might be easily attributed to rearranging or restructuring the sentence when translating.
- 2- Shifts caused by lexical upgrading without affecting the explicitness of the target text compared to original text (cf. section 3.4 for further information)
- 3- Culture-oriented shifts, i.e. alterations motivated by cultural specifications of the target-text readers as in the explanatory addition of المشتمل على خلاصة العقيدة الدينية ('they made us study the book of questions and answers, containing the essence of religious doctrine') when rendering *They made us learn the whole catechism* into Arabic.

### 3.12 Summary and Conclusion

This chapter begun by discussing some theoretical concepts and problems which might pertain to the study of explicitation as a translational phenomenon. The purpose of this was to provide a clear picture of various considerations associated with the phenomenon and how these considerations might affect the process of identifying and classifying the encountered shifts. The description of the important aspects related to the study of explicitation was presented as being more or less sufficient for understanding some subjective decisions made in the data collection process including the reasons behind excluding some shifts. To this effect the main body of this chapter was concerned with discussing the determination and classification of shifts, bringing together two approaches: SFG and relevance theory.

The chapter came to the following conclusions:

- A few major decisions have to be made before analysing explicitation. These include the gathering of research information, determining the

methods for identifying and categorizing explicitation, and deciding on which shifts are to be eliminated from the study. These choices must be made carefully as they will influence the outcome of the research. Therefore, they need to be made as explicitly as possible – and this has been the objective of this chapter.

- Two Arabic translations of two English classics ST have been investigated in the current research, focusing on fiction for young adult readers, a category with distinctive attributes making it stand out from other genres. For instance, the translation of Arabic and English young adults content requires linguistic facilitation in the target text, resulting in an area of research which is rich in explicitation.
- The entire source texts and target texts were examined numerous times. In compliance with syntactic-semantic considerations, explicitations were identified and noticeable differences between the source text and target texts were highlighted. The procedure for analysing information comprised of all the aforementioned steps along with the determination of ideational and textual shifts. In doing the analysis:
  - a. More emphasis was laid on the influence of cohesive devices on the target text content in terms of their being more explicit than the source text.
  - b. The analysis of the situations represented through the target text content was the prime concerns of ideational shifts
- Multiple shifts were eradicated from the research for a number of reasons. These include: vague semantic shifts, shifts caused by lexical upgrading, mandatory and culture-oriented shifts, and shifts driven by stylistic preferences of the target language.
- I did not believe I needed to stick to speculative predictions of a “translation-inherent” procedure of explicitation to elaborate my research; explication manifestations are dependent on other aspects than inherentness. Furthermore, a translation has to be seen as a communicative and cognitive act rather than a matter of equivalence and as such the interpretation of the phenomena which it involves including explication has to be done on this basis. Therefore, the current

analysis will not be based on a pre-established hypothesis about what will be revealed. This would be a diversion from the fundamental issue, which is that in some cases at least explicitation means achieving greater relevance.

## Chapter 4

### Data analysis I

#### 4.1 Introduction

As stated earlier in the hypothesis of the current study, manifestations of explicitation are believed to be attributable to the translator's attempts to produce a relevant target text which can be optimally understood without unnecessary effort. This is to maximize comprehension of the text and minimise the effort needed to do so. In searching for relevance, the translator is believed to refer back to their own childhood reading experiences and their cognitive abilities at that age to identify the context of their young reader. Depending on this identified context, the translator will decide whether to explicitate the implied meaning or leave it for the young readers to deal with. It is worth mentioning that 'context' here is understood in a broad sense: "a context in this sense is not limited to information about the immediate physical environment of the immediately preceding utterance: expectations about the future, scientific hypotheses or religious beliefs, anecdotal memories. General culture assumptions, beliefs about the mental state of the speaker, may all play a role in interpretation" (Sperber & Wilson, 1986: pp. 15-16). It is important to note "that this notion of context also includes the text surrounding an utterance, what has sometimes been called the 'co-text'" (Gutt 1998, p. 43). As such, in the current case, the translator's attempt to understand the cognitive, linguistic predictive and imaginative abilities of the young target readers is an attempt to understand their context in order to choose the most relevant strategy to render the text. When encountering a difficulty triggered by assumed contextual differences, according to the relevance-theoretic approach, "the translator should ask herself whether she could or even should address this problem by amending the translated text or whether other means need to be sought" (Gutt 1998, p. 51). This, in many cases may necessitate using certain procedures to equip the target reader with the relevant contextual information needed to draw the intended interpretation. One of these procedures involves adding to the target text what is inferable for the source text readers and may not be inferable for the target text readers due to cognitive or

cultural differences. Alwazna (2017, p. 46-47) elucidates this process by the following example:

(a) John: 'Is Mike going to spend a long time there?'

(b) Peter: 'He is being interviewed by Frans at the moment'.

Let us assume that the writer of the source text has flouted the maxim of relevance, and that his addressees do not possess the relevant contextual details required to draw an appropriate interpretation. In the process of transferring this into Arabic, the translator may draw on their contextual details to build on their interpretation of Peter's utterance and may add to the target text elements which do not exist in the source text. This text may be rendered to be read as 'if Frans is quick in interviewing people, Mike will come back soon. However, if Frans takes a fairly long time in holding interviews, Mike will not appear soon' إن كان فرانس سريعاً في إجراء المقابلات مع الناس، فسيعود مايك حالاً، أما إن كان يستغرق وقتاً طويلاً في إجراء المقابلات، فلن يعود مايك قريباً. As such, "Explicitation may be the result of interpretation, which is an integral part of the process of understanding, or the result of the translator's conscious or unconscious quest to adapt the target text to its readers and make the understanding of the text easier for them" (Konšalová 2007, p. 20). Discussing the difference between addition and explicitation, Séguinot (1988, p. 108) advises that "to prove that there was explicitation, there must have been the possibility of a correct but less explicit or less precise version. This is the only way to distinguish between choices that can be accounted for in the language system, and choices that come about because of the nature of the translation process".

With this view in mind, and for the current study, explicitation might be tentatively defined as follows:

Explicitation is a form of linguistic (syntactic-semantic) facilitation driven by the translator's interpretation of the source text and their desire to consciously or unconsciously produce a relevant TT for their intended readers. It necessitates addition, specification or alteration of linguistic items in translation. This may result in greater explicit TT version at the ideational, textual and/or interpersonal levels.

As referred to in the previous chapter, the extracts are taken from two novels translated for young Arabic readers. The abbreviation **ST1** is used for extracts

taken from *The secret garden*, while the abbreviation **ST2** refers to the examples taken from *Ann of Green Gables*. It is also important to point out here that although SFG is used to categories the shifts, the analysis of the shifts will not be founded on the principles of this approach and it is mainly used to help in classifying the shifts into ideational and textual types. The absence of the interpersonal shifts here is because they are found to be of less importance when compared to ideational and textual shifts.

## 4.2 Analysis of Ideational Shifts

Ideational shifts are basically shifts associated with the translator's desire to deliver to young readers an experience of the world, to describe events and states including entities involved in them. So, speaking of categories, the shifts might involve elaborating, expanding and/or enhancing the state of affairs. These shifts might appear in the target text in the form of addition, alteration, rewording or rearranging, specification or substitution of the source text elements. Generally speaking, by explicating the TT, the translator spoon-feeds the young readers with the contextual effects and assumptions needed to infer ideas from the text in respect of communication and therefore constraints and obliges the young readers to make a specific interpretation. From a relevance-theoretic perspective, an idea communicated is more relevant if it requires less mental processing effort to understand. However, explicating the TT at the ideational level may be also driven by not merely the desire to explicitate the state of affairs for the young reader and make it more relevant to their assumed cognitive ability, but to also visualize the source text and its verbal expression and consequently assist the young reader in visualizing the image in their minds. In literary translation Snell-Hornby (2006, p. 23) says that the materials undergo a change by the act of reading are of three types: the remodelling of reality, the visualization of the source text's verbal expressions by the translator and the image that appears in the target reader's mind. This means that the "translator must work with the readership in mind and anticipates how his text can be visualized by them" (Snell-Hornby 2006, p. 23; referring to Prunc 2001, pp. 216-7).

The ideational explicitation shifts presented in the following section will be classified as elaboration shifts, enhancing shifts, expanding shifts and finally mixed shifts. However, the analysis of the shifts will not be based on SFG

principles, but will, rather, discuss the explicitation shifts from a relevance-theoretic perspective. It is worth mentioning here that the extracts discussed below are not meant to be an inclusive presentation of the manifestations of explicitation in TTs. Rather they are merely examples – and this is why they are labelled as examples – of the recurrent patterns of explicitation made by the translator. The following table presents numbers of examples in each section.

**Table 3.** Numbers and kinds of ideational shifts.

<b>Elaboration</b>	<b>Enhancing</b>	<b>Expanding</b>	<b>Mixed</b>	<b>Total</b>
26	13	3	12	54

#### **4.2.1 Elaborating The State Of Affairs**

In this section, shifts that entail elaborating will be considered. As stated earlier in Ch.3 section 6, elaborating involves amplification by rewording with details, specifying, restating or paraphrasing, and thereby making TT more explicit for the target reader. These shifts are mostly, but not always, made at the verbal-phrase level, which is functionally considered the core of the clause. According to Konšalová (2007, p. 24), verbal means of expressions are typically more 'explicit' than nominal ones which are more implicit. "It has long been observed that translators into Arabic tend to use more verbs than those originally found in the English SL. This can lead to the conclusion that if the TT is Arabic, it will be more verbal, hence explicit, than the English ST" (Elnasser 2016, p. 323).

In some instances, however, there might not be an observable implied meaning in the source text but shifting the perspective of the ST to be read or seen through the main character's eyes in the TT affects the explicitness of the TT significantly and consequently helps sometimes in visualizing the scene.

Bosseaux (2004 and 2007) seeks to find out how the translator's choices affect the transfer of narratological structure differently and refers to this as point of view in translation. In her work, Bosseaux (2004 and 2007) discusses the potential problems involved in the translations of indirect speech in Virginia Woolf's *The waves* and *To The Lighthouse* into French, particularly concerned with linguistic features such as modality and transitivity which according to her constitute the

notion of point of view. When writing fiction, a writer constructs a text which presents a fictional world mirrored through the view of a narrator or a character and accessible from a particular angle. Similarly, when translating fiction, The translator is also expected to leave their own imprint through the use of linguistic features which constitute point of view that can be different from the one of the original. In some cases altering point of view of the narrative might resulted in TT which is more explicit than the original. This has been thoroughly addressed in chapter 5, section 2.1.

In the following, recurrent verb phrase-based shifts will be described and discussed according to their contribution to the explicitness of the target text.

### **Example 1**

<b>ST1:</b>	The station was a small one, and nobody but themselves seemed to be getting out of the train.
<b>TT1:</b>	كانت المحطة صغيره، ولم تلاحظ ماري <u>ترجل أحد غيرهما من القطار.</u>
<b>BT1:</b>	The station was small one, and <u>Mary noticed that</u> nobody but themselves seemed to be getting out of the train.

As can be noticed, in this example, the translator opts for shifting the state of affairs or the narrative point of view to be seen through Mary's eyes. Although in this case, there is no obvious linguistic implied meaning, the text is written as to be narrated by Mary, the main character, so adding these verbal phrases to the TT will ensure the experiential explicitness of the target text, which in turn will ensure its relevance for target readers since such verbs play an important role in the clause's explicitness. The young readers will also be able to evoke the contextual effects required for the visualization of the scene.

### **Example 2**

<b>ST1:</b>	A brougham stood on the road before the little outside platform, Mary saw that it was a smart carriage and that it was a smart foot man who helped her in. His long water proof coat and the water proof covering of his hat were shining and dripping with rain....
-------------	--

<b>TT1:</b>	كانت المركبة تقف عند رصيف المحطة الصغير وبدا لماري أنها عربية أنيقة جداً. وأن الخادم الذي ساعدها على الركوب كان لبقاً <u>ولاحظت</u> أن معطفه الطويل الواقى وغطاء رأسه البلاستيكي كانا يقطران بماء المطر.
<b>BT1:</b>	A brougham stood on the road before the little outside platform, Mary saw that it was a smart carriage and that it was a smart foot man who helped her in. And <u>she noticed that</u> his long water proof coat and the water proof covering of his hat were shining and dripping with rain....

Here again, the translator has added a verbal phrase to ensure that the young readers will be able to evoke the contextual effects required to arrive at the intended meaning and to help them visualize the scene. This is despite the fact that the previous sentence has the verb *saw* in *Mary saw that*, which might help the young readers to infer that this state of affairs is seen by Mary. The translator adds another verb later. So, *His long water proof coat* has been rendered starting with a verb *ولاحظت أن معطفه الطويل الواقى* *she noticed that his long water proof coat*. Altering the narrative point of view will assist the young readers to track the flow of the narrative and ease their comprehension process.

### **Example 3**

<b>ST1:</b>	He was not like an Indian bird, and she liked him and wondered if she should ever see him again. Perhaps he lived in the mysterious garden and knew all about it.
<b>TT1:</b>	<u>رأت أنه لا يشبه الطيور الهندية،</u> وشعرت أنها تستلطفه، وتساءلت عما إذا كانت ستراه من جديد، <u>بل وخطر لها أنه..</u> لربما كان يعيش في الحديقة الغامضة، ويعرف كل شيء عنها!
<b>BT1:</b>	She <u>thought</u> he was not like the Indian birds, and she felt that she liked it and she wondered if she should ever see it again <u>and she also thought</u> that he perhaps lived in the mysterious garden

Again, the translator here shifts the perspective of the narrative to be seen through Mary's eyes, *He was not like an Indian bird* being rendered as *رأت أنه لا يشبه الطيور الهندية* *She thought he was not like the Indian and Perhaps he lived in the*

*mysterious garden, as* *بل وخطر لها أنه.. لربما كان يعيش في الحديقة الغامضة،* *she also thought that he perhaps lived in the mysterious garden.* By doing this the translator evokes the contextual effects required for the young readers to visualize the scene and consequently helps them to effortlessly process it.

#### **Example 4**

<b>ST1:</b>	After they had left the station they had driven through a tiny village and she had seen whitewashed cottages and the light of a public house. Then they had passed a church and vicarage and a little shop window or so in a cottage with toys and sweets and odd things set out for sale.
<b>TT1:</b>	كان اول ما تجاوزوه بعد أن غادرت العربية المحطة بلدة صغيرة رأت فيها أكواخاً بيضاء اللون وأضواء فندق، ثم الكنيسة ومنزل القس. <u>كما رأت في أحد الأكواخ ما يشبه واجهة متجر فيها ألعاب وحلويات وأشياء مختلفة معروضة للبيع.</u>
<b>BT1:</b>	The first thing they had driven through after they had left the station was a tiny village and she has seen whitewashed cottages and the light of an inn and a church and vicarage. <u>She had also seen</u> in a cottage something like a shop window with toys and sweets and odd things set out for sale.

As in the previous example, the state of affairs is elaborated here by shifting the perspective to be seen through Mary's eyes and consequently the young reader's eyes. So, *and a little shop window or so in a cottage*, is rendered as *كما رأت في أحد الأكواخ ما يشبه واجهة متجر فيها ألعاب وحلويات وأشياء مختلفة معروضة للبيع.* *She had also seen in a cottage something like*. This will also help the young readers to track the flow of the narrative being described and effortlessly understand the TT.

#### **Example 5**

<b>ST1:</b>	Perhaps it would be better to go and see what the gardens were like.
<b>TT1:</b>	<u>ووجدت</u> أنه قد يكون من الأفضل أن تذهب وترى ماهي عليه تلك الحدائق
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>She found that</u> it would be better to go and see what the gardens were like

Similarly, here, the translator has altered the sentence to be seen through Mary's eyes and presented a point of view different from the original which might help the young readers to have the contextual effect required to arrive to the intended interpretation. *Perhaps* at the beginning of the sentence has been rendered as a verbal phrase *وجدت* *She found that*, which entails a more explicit state of affairs of the TT.

### **Example 6**

<b>ST1:</b>	After that there seemed nothing different for a long time – or at least it seemed a lot time to her.
<b>TT1:</b>	وبعدئذ <u>ترأى لها</u> أنه ما عاد هناك أي شيء مختلف لوقت طويل، أو على الأقل بدا لها وقتاً طويلاً.
<b>BT1:</b>	After that <u>there seemed to her that</u> there was nothing different for a long time – or at least it seemed a lot time to her

This example involves changing point of view of the original to render more explicit the target text for the young reader. Thus *After that there seemed nothing different for a long time* has been rendered as *وبعدئذ ترأى لها أنه ما عاد هناك أي شيء مختلف لوقت طويل* *After that it seemed to her that there was nothing different for a long time*. By shifting the ST sentence, the translator adds to the contextual effects of the TT, thereby reducing the processing effort of the TT as it is now can be seen through the main character's eyes.

### **Example 7**

<b>ST1:</b>	Martha laughed as she had done the first morning.
<b>TT1:</b>	ضحكت مارتا كما فعلت <u>يوم اجتمعا للمرة الأولى</u>
<b>BT1:</b>	Martha laughed as she had done <u>the first time they met</u> .

Similarly to the previous example, the translator has rendered *as she had done the first morning*, with more specification of the state of affairs to become *as يوم اجتمعا للمرة الأولى* *she had done the first time they met*. Although the state of affairs

could be inferred without being explicitly verbalized by the surrounding context which tells about their first morning as their first meeting, the young readers are given the interpretation and the TT is made relevant for them.

### **Example 8**

<b>ST1:</b>	The robin flew down from his tree-top and hopped about or flew after her from one bush to another.
<b>TT1:</b>	ولم تمض هذبية إلا وغادر أبو الحن غصنه العالي، وبدأ يقفز ويحجل قريبا منها، أو يطير خلفها من أجمة إلى أجمة.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>A moment didn't pass</u> , and the robin flew down from his tree-top and hopped about or flew after her from one bush to another.

Similarly, in example 7, which is about the robin, the sentence *The robin flew down from his tree-top and hopped about or flew after her* has been specified using an initial phrase that further elaborates the state of affairs as *ولم تمض هذبية* *A moment didn't pass, and the robin flew down from his tree-top and hopped about or flew after her*. This time specification will add some effect to the context of the TT and will affect the explicitness of the TT. The young readers are equipped with some contextual effects required for them to track the narrative without unnecessary effort.

### **Example 9**

<b>ST1:</b>	... and she found herself <u>in</u> a room with a fire in it and a supper on a table.
<b>TT1:</b>	ووجدت الصغيرة نفسها <u>تدخل</u> غرفة فيها مدفأة وعشاء على منضدة.
<b>BT1:</b>	... and the little one found herself <u>entering</u> a room with a fire in it and a supper on a table.

Similarly, here the elaboration of the implied meaning has been made by means of substitution of a preposition in the source text by a verbal phrase in the target text. This shift, which involves explicitation, and the use of a verbal phrase instead

of a preposition, in the target sentence will add some effects to the context of the utterance and in turn will help the young reader to effortlessly comprehend the text and visualize the scene. So, the preposition *in* in *and she found herself in a room with a fire in it and a supper on a table* has been rendered using a verb تدخل *entering* ('enters') giving *she found herself entering a room with a fire in it and a supper on a table*.

### **Example 10**

<b>ST1:</b>	An' she says: "Now, Martha, you just think how you'd feel yourself, in a big place like that, wanderin' about alone, an' no mother.
<b>TT1:</b>	وقالت لي: حسنا يا مارتا، فكري فقط كيف ستشعرين إذا كنت في مكان كبير كذاك تتجولين فيه وحدك، ولا أم لديك لترعاك.
<b>BT1:</b>	And she said: ok Martha, you just think how you'd feel yourself, in a big place like that, wandering' about alone, and no mother <u>to take care of you</u> .

The young readers here are given additional information in the form of a verbal phrase which entails explicitness of the state of affairs. So a sentence ending *wandering about alone and no mother*, is rendered with the addition of *لترعاك to take care of you*. The young readers are given the intended interpretation of *no mother* and the inferred meaning is made explicit. No unnecessary effort is needed here for the young readers to comprehend the TT.

### **Example 11**

<b>ST1:</b>	But I just went to work and imagined that I had on the most beautiful pale blue silk dress- because when you <i>are</i> imagining you might as well imagine something worthwhile - and a big hat all flowers and nodding plumes.
<b>TT1:</b>	ولكني حلقت مع خيالي ورأيتني أرتدي ثوباً من الحرير الأزرق الفاتح لا يضاهي جماله شيء. هذا لأنك عندما تتخيل شيئاً، يجب أن تتخيل ما يستحق التخيل. <u>كما رأيتني</u> أعتمر قبعة عريضة تكللها الأزهار والريش المتطاير.

<b>BT1:</b>	But I just flew with my imagination and saw myself dressed in the most beautiful pale blue silk dress- because when you <i>are</i> imagining you might as well imagine something worthwhile- and <u>I saw myself wearing</u> a big hat all flowers and nodding plumes
-------------	---

The Arabic version is translated in a more explicit way to probably be more relevant to the young readers' cognitive ability and to help them to catch up with the state of affairs being described. Thus, although it is been explicitly mentioned at the very beginning of the sentence that the speaker *Ann* is imagining things by the phrase *I just went to work and imagined that*, the translator opted to repeat this again in the sentence *كما رأيتني أعتمر قبعة* *I saw myself wearing*, instead of rendering it simply as *وقبعه عريضة تكللها الأزهار*. This might be motivated by the desire to help young reader to visualise the pictures being giving here.

### **Example 12**

<b>ST2:</b>	And yet <u>here</u> was Matthew Cuthbert, a half-past three on the afternoon of a busy day, placidly <u>driving over the hollow</u> and up the hill.
<b>TT2:</b>	مع ذلك <u>ها هي ترى</u> ماثيو كُثبيرت، في الساعة الثالثة والنصف من عصر يوم حافل بالعمل، <u>يقود عربته</u> برباطة جأش مجتازاً الغور نحو التلة.
<b>BT2:</b>	And yet <u>here she was seeing</u> Matthew Cuthbert, a half-past three on the afternoon of a busy day, placidly <u>driving his carriage</u> over the hollow and up the hill.

Again, here the translator shifted the adverb *here* by *ها هي ترى* *here she was seeing*, which will help the intended reader to see the scene in their minds and consequently help them to arrive at the intended interpretation with less effort. This could, however, have been inferred from the surrounding context, which describes how this lady sits by her window watching what is going on in the place. Additionally, *placidly driving over the hollow* has also been rendered with the addition of an object *عربته* *his carriage*. This will probably help the young readers to visualize and comprehend the scene with less effort.

**Example 13**

<b>ST2:</b>	I have never belonged to anybody - not really. But the asylum was the worst.
<b>TT2:</b>	فأنا لم يسبق لي الانتماء الى أحد انتماءً حقيقياً، ولكن الملجأ كان أسوأ مكان ذهبت إليه.
<b>BT2:</b>	I have never belonged to anybody - not really. But the asylum was the worst <u>place I have ever been</u>

Here also, the state of affairs has been elaborated by means of paraphrasing; the translator opts to render *was the worst* when describing the asylum with a complete verbal phrase *كان أسوأ مكان ذهبت إليه was the worst place I have ever been*, although the surrounding context is about the asylum. The young readers therefore are provided with explicit contextual effects which will help them to more easily arrive at the meaning intended and carry on reading without unnecessary processing effort.

**Example 14**

<b>ST2:</b>	May I call it Bonny while I'm here? Oh, do let me? "Goodness, I don't care. But where on earth is the sense of naming a geranium?"
<b>TT2:</b>	أيمكن ان اسميها بوني وانا هنا؟ أرجوك اسمحي لي بذلك. " رباه.. لا يهمني أي اسم تطلقينه عليها، ولكن بحق السماء أين يكمن المنطق في إطلاق اسم على نبتة إبرة المراعي؟ "
<b>BT2:</b>	May I call it Bonny while I'm here? Oh, do let me? "Goodness, I don't care <u>which name you're going to give it</u> . But where on earth is the sense of naming a geranium?"

Similarly, the translator here opts for explicitating what Marilla does not care about for the young TT readers. Thus, a simple phrase, *I don't care* was rendered by presenting the implied state of affairs for the readers as *لا يهمني أي اسم تطلقينه عليها* 'I don't care which name you're going to give it', despite the fact that this intended

information can be inferred by the surrounding context, leaving the young readers with nothing to infer.

### **Example 15**

<b>ST2:</b>	"It's time Ann was in to <u>do</u> her sewing" said Marilla.
<b>TT2:</b>	"حان الوقت الذي يجب أن <u>تعود</u> فيه أن <u>لتتدرب</u> على الخياطة" قالت ماريلا
<b>BT2:</b>	It's time for Ann to <u>get back to practicing</u> sewing.

Like most of the examples in this section, this one contains some paraphrasing with the intention to explicate the TT for the young readers. The surrounding context refers several times to Marilla's desire to teach Ann some basic skills, which helps the translator to arrive at this interpretation of *do* and transfer this specific interpretation to the TT explicitly. Thus, *do her sewing* is rendered as *لتتدرب على الخياطة* to *practicing sewing*. The young target text readers will thus not need to spend time inferring the intended interpretation of the text. The translator also adds the verb *تعود* *get back* to the phrase *حان الوقت* *It's time*, which will probably guarantee that the TT readers will infer this situation with minimum effort.

### **Example 16**

<b>ST2:</b>	"You'd find it easier to be bad than <u>good</u> if you had red hair" said Ann reproachfully.
<b>TT2:</b>	لو كنت مكاني لوجدت أنه من الأسهل لك أن تكوني سيئة على أن تكوني حسنة الخلق، إذا كنت حمراء الشعر. قالت أن معابته.
<b>BT2:</b>	"You'd find it easier to be bad than <u>to be of good manner</u> if you had red hair" said Ann reproachfully.

### **Example 17**

<b>ST2:</b>	"Go to sleep now like a <u>good</u> child, good night"
-------------	--

<b>TT2:</b>	"نامي الآن كما ينبغي على بنت <u>مطبعة</u> أن تفعل، تصيحين على خير"
<b>BT2:</b>	"Go to sleep now like <u>an obedient</u> child, good night"

### **Example 18**

<b>ST2:</b>	You said you would try to be a <u>very good</u> girl.
<b>TT2:</b>	وعدتني سابقاً بانك ستكونين بنتاً <u>مطبعة</u>
<b>BT2:</b>	You promised me before, you would be an <u>obedient</u> girl.

The explicitations here are made by means of specification. This may be done for pedagogical intentions. The translator renders *good* in the ST as *حسنة الخلق* of *good manner* or *مطبعة* *obedient* instead of simply *حيدة* *good*. This perhaps make the TT pedagogically more relevant to the assumed target readers.

### **Example 19**

<b>ST2:</b>	"No", said Marilla slowly, "I'm not trying to excuse her. She's been very naughty, and I'll have to give her a talking to about it". But we must make allowances for her.
<b>TT2:</b>	لا قالت ماريليا ببطء، " أنا لا أحاول خلق الأعدار لها. كانت قليلة الأدب، وسوف تنال نصيبها من <u>التوبيخ</u> ، ولكن علينا أن نبرر لها تصرفها.
<b>BT2:</b>	"No", said Marilla slowly, "I'm not trying to excuse her. She's been very naughty, and <u>she will get her share of telling off</u> ". But we must make allowances for her.

Similarly, a phrase such as *I'll have to give her a talking to about it* in the ST is rendered with pedagogical explicitation, which entails a stronger sense than just talking with her, as *وسوف تنال نصيبها من التوبيخ* and *she will get her share of telling off*. This might be more relevant to the young target readers' assumed context and also more appropriate for the young readers to comprehend that Ann has done something unacceptable

**Example 20**

<b>ST2:</b>	Well, well, we can't get through this world without our share of trouble. I've had a pretty easy life of it so far, <u>but my time</u> has come at last.
<b>TT2:</b>	عجياً، عجياً، ها نحن لا نستطيع مغادرة هذا العالم قبل أن ننال نصيبنا من المتاعب فيه. لقد حظيت بحياة ناعمة حتى الآن، لكن لحظة امتحاني حانت أخيراً.
<b>BT2:</b>	Well, well, we can't get through this world without our share of trouble. I've had a pretty easy life of it so far, but <u>my time of testing</u> has come at last.

The translator here also opts for specifying the state of affair to make it more explicit and relevant for the TT intended readers. The phrase *but my time*, is rendered explicitly as *لكن لحظة امتحاني* 'but my time of testing' in the TT, which makes it more easily comprehensible to the young reader instead of just *حان وقتي* 'my time has come' or *لحظتي قد حانت* 'my moment has arrived' which might not be explicit enough for the young readers to arrive at the intended interpretation.

**Example 21**

<b>ST2:</b>	We had a plum pudding for dinner on Tuesday and <u>there was</u> half the pudding.
<b>TT2:</b>	ففي عشية الثلاثاء كان لدينا فطيرة تفاح، لم نأكل إلا نصفها
<b>BT2:</b>	We had a plum pudding for dinner on Tuesday and <u>we ate only</u> half of it.

Again, here the translator explicitates the implied meaning of *there was half the pudding* in the ST by producing a verbal phrase *لم نأكل إلا نصفها* *we ate only half of it*, which makes the state of affairs more explicit and consequently more relevant to the TT readers' assumed cognitive ability. The young TT readers will spend less time to process this compared to if it was rendered as, for example, *تبقى/ يوجد نصف فطيره التفاح* 'there remained/was half of the apple pudding', which might need

them to employ the surrounding contextual effects to arrive at the intended interpretation.

### Example 22

<b>ST2:</b>	It's such a relief to talk when one wants to and not to be told that children should be seen and not heard
<b>TT2:</b>	إنه من المريح ان يتكلم المرء عندما يرغب، وأن لا يقال له إن الأطفال يجب ان يراهم <u>الناس</u> بدون ان يسمعوهم.
<b>BT2:</b>	It's such a relief to talk when one wants to and not to be told that <u>people</u> should see children and not hear them

Similarly, here, the translator opts for explicating the Arabic text by adding information which might be helpful for the young readers to arrive at the appropriate interpretation. When speaking about children and their relationship with adults, the author writes *children should be seen and not heard*, the translator adds subject to it (as well as shifting the TT from passive to active), making it *'people should see children and not hear them'*. Since the TT entails some explicitation of the state of affairs, the young Arabic readers will not need to spend time processing the sentence.

### Example 23

<b>ST2:</b>	And she said there were trees all around it. I was gladder than ever. I just love trees.
<b>TT2:</b>	أخبرتني انها محاطة بالأشجار، وكم شعرت بالسعادة <u>عندما علمت بذلك</u> فانا أعبد الأشجار.
<b>BT2:</b>	She informed me that there were trees all around it. I was gladder than ever <u>when I knew that</u> . I just love trees.

Ann here is so excited when she learns that there are trees in the Green Gables. The Arabic version starts with *أخبرتني* 'She informed me that'. However, the translator also adds to the sentence *عندما علمت بذلك* *when I knew that*. Thus, the young readers will more easily arrive at the interpretation of why Ann was glad.

This might be motivated by the fact the translator believes that this would more relevant to the assumed cognitive ability of the young target text readers.

### Example 24

<b>ST2:</b>	<u>Why</u> , it was only last week I read in the paper how a man and his wife up west of the Island took a boy out of an orphan asylum and he set fire to the house at night – set it <i>on purpose</i>
<b>TT2:</b>	ولم كل هذا العناء؟ في الأسبوع الماضي فقط قرأت في الجريدة كيف ان صبيّاً تبناه رجل وزوجه في غرب الجزيرة من ملجأ للأيتام، قام بإشعال النار في المنزل ليلاً.. أشعلها عامداً.
<b>BT2:</b>	<u>Why all this trouble</u> , for it was only last week I read in the paper how a man and his wife up west of the Island took a boy out of an orphan asylum and he set fire to the house at night – set it <i>on purpose</i> .

Mrs. Rachel Lynde is surprised by Marellia's decision to bring a child from the asylum. She is trying to explain to Marella why she thinks this is not a wise idea by telling stories about adopted children and how they ended up experiencing horrible incidents. She started her exclamation with 'why' in the ST. In the TT, the translator adds *كل هذا العناء* all this trouble for to the expression of surprise *Why* to make it easily inferable and to assist the young readers to predict what follows. The TT text is therefore made relevant and the processing cost is kept to a minimum.

### Example 25

<b>ST2:</b>	I have grown two inches this summer, Marilla. Mr. Gillis measured me at Ruby's party.
<b>TT2:</b>	لقد ازداد طولي في هذه الصيف بمعدل إنشيين يا ماريلا. <u>عرفت هذا لأن</u> السيد غيليز قاس طولي في حفلة روبي.
<b>BT2:</b>	I have grown two inches this summer, Marilla. <u>I knew this because</u> Mr. Gillis measured me at Ruby's party.

Here the translator elaborates the TT state of affairs by equipping the target readers with all the contextual effects needed to arrive at the appropriate interpretation. The addition of the verb phrase *عرفت هذا* I knew this will help the

young readers to immediately grasp the interpretation of how Ann has grown two inches; she knows because Mr. Gillis measured her عرفت هذا لأن السيد غيليز قاس طولها 'I knew this because Mr. Gillis measured me'.

### **Example 26**

<b>ST2:</b>	and Ann found out that it is not pleasant to be ignored. It was in vain that she told herself with a toss of her head that she did not care. Deep down in her wayward, feminine little heart she knew that she did care.
<b>TT2:</b>	واكتشفت أن <u>أن تجاهل الآخرين لها</u> لم يكن شيئاً مستساغاً، وعبثاً أقنعت نفسها وهي تهز رأسها أن هذا لم يكن شيئاً مهما لها، لكنها في أعماق قلبها الأنثوي الصغير المشاكس كانت تعرف انها تهتم.
<b>BT2:</b>	and Ann found out <u>that to be ignored by others</u> is not pleasant. It was in vain that she convinced herself with a toss of her head that she did not care. But deep down in her wayward, feminine little heart she knew that she did care.

Here again the translator elaborates the state of affairs for the young readers by making the subject of the verbal phrase explicit. So, *Ann found out that it is not pleasant to be ignored* has been rendered as *واكتشفت أن تجاهل الآخرين لها* and *Ann found out that to be ignored by others is not pleasant*. Accordingly the TT is made relevant, and the young readers are already equipped with the contextual effects required for them arrive at the intended meaning with minimum effort.

#### **4.2.2 Enhancing the State of Affairs**

The examples to be discussed in this section involve embellishing or qualifying the state of affairs by addition of circumstantial traits. In Arabic the ideational function of the language can be enhanced by means of circumstantial traits, which in turn are realized by adverbials. In other words, those categorized by prepositional/adverbial phrase-based shifts. Although circumstance plays a peripheral role in the clause, adverbial-based shifts significantly affect our comprehension of the state of affairs being narrated. Adverbials “contribute to the experiential meaning of the clause – they tell us things like when, or how, or where or why the event happened” (Thompson 2014, p. 65). So, in what follows examples of adverbials being added in the TT will be listed and discussed. In

these examples, the translator has opted to enhance the ideational function of the target text by adding circumstantial traits, basically to express a state of affairs that might be simply inferred even if it was not verbalized in the target text. As such, the TT is made experientially more explicit by adding some effects to its context which allow the young reader to more easily understand the state of affairs being expressed by the clause through the addition of these circumstantial traits in the Arabic version.

### **Example 1**

<b>ST1:</b>	At that very moment, such a loud sound of wailing broke out from the servants' quarters that she clutched the young man's arm.
<b>TT1:</b>	في تلك اللحظة عينها تعالى صوت عويل ثاكب من مسكن الخدم، فتشبثت السيدة لينوكس بذراع الشاب <u>من هول المفاجأة</u>
<b>BT1:</b>	At that very moment, such a loud sound of wailing broke out from the servants' quarters that she clutched the young man's arm <u>of the sudden surprise</u>

The added prepositional phrases in the above sentence is one of causation, telling the reader explicitly *why she clutched the young man's arm* من هول المفاجأة *of the sudden surprise*. The translator's decision to explicitate the implied state of affairs is likely to be driven by her own interpretation of the state of affairs and assumptions regarding her audience's cognitive ability and the desire to guarantee the comprehensibility of the translated text by making it more explicit and more relevant for the young target reader. By doing this the translator constrains the young reader towards a specific interpretation of the state of affairs and helps them interpret it with minimum processing effort.

### **Example 2**

<b>ST1:</b>	The rain storm had ended, and the gray mist and clouds had been swept away in the night by the wind. The wind itself had ceased and a brilliant, deep blue sky arched high over the moorland.
-------------	---

<b>TT1:</b>	كانت العاصفة الماطرة قد انتهت، والرياح نفسها قد توقفت بعد أن جرفت في الليل جحافل الضباب الرمادي والغيوم القاتمة فأسفرت الدنيا <u>في اليوم التالي</u> عن سماء عالية مشرقة وزرقاء طوقت أرض المستنقع كلها ...
<b>BT1:</b>	The rain storm had ended, and the wind itself had ceased after sweeping away in the night the grey mist and dark clouds and <u>on the next day</u> , the world had yielded to a brilliant, deep blue sky arched high over the whole moorland.

The added prepositional phrases here is of location (time). Despite the fact that the state of affairs can be inferred from the surrounding context, the translator here seemed to be keen to ease the reading and understanding practice of young readers and the TT is made more relevant by a further detailing reference to time.

### **Example 3**

<b>ST:</b>	"Eh! "he said "I was up long before him"
<b>TT1:</b>	إيه.. لقد نهضت <u>قبل طلوع الشمس</u> بوقت طويل.
<b>BT1:</b>	Eh! I was up a long time <u>before the sun rose</u> .

Again here, the translator rendered the target text specifying the intended meaning for the young readers. As such they will be constrained towards the intended interpretation without unnecessary processing effort. Speaking about the robin, the boy said *I was up before him*, which basically means waking up very early. This is rendered into Arabic explicitly as *'قبل طلوع الشمس* 'before the sun rose'. This might be driven by the assumed cognitive ability of the young TT readers, who might not be able to predict this implied meaning, so the translator spells it out to make the TT more relevant to their cognitive ability.

### **Example 4**

<b>ST:</b>	When people had the cholera, it seemed that they remembered nothing but themselves. But if everyone had got well again, surely someone would remember and come to look for her.
------------	---

<b>TT1:</b>	وبدا لها أن الناس عندما يصابون بالكوليرا لا يفكرون <u>في تلك الأثناء</u> إلا بأنفسهم، ولذلك رأت أنه إذا شفي الجميع فمن المؤكد أن أحدهم سوف يتذكرها. وسيأتي للبحث عنها.
<b>BT1:</b>	It seemed to her that when people had the cholera, they remembered nothing <u>in those times</u> but themselves. So, she thought that if everyone had got well again, surely someone would remember and come to look for her.

Similarly, here, although there is *عندما when* in the surrounding TT, the translator opts for repeating this idea again by adding *في تلك الأثناء* 'in those times' to ensure that the young readers will effortlessly arrive at the intended interpretation with no time cost. The state of affairs is made relevant for the intended readers.

### **Example 5**

<b>ST:</b>	Now she was followed by nobody and was learning to dress herself
<b>TT1:</b>	<u>أما في هذا البيت</u> فهي لم تعد فقط غير متبوعة من أحده، بل وتعلمت أيضاً كيف ترتدي ثيابها بنفسها.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>While in this house</u> , not only was she followed by nobody, but she also learned how to dress herself.

Here again, the translator explicates the state of affairs for the young readers. Speaking about Mary's life after moving from India to England, the translator altered the time adverb *now* to a locative prepositional phrase *أما في هذا البيت* *While in this house*, which reveals more about the state of affairs' contextual effects and helps the young readers to also visualise the scene being described.

### **Example 6**

<b>ST2:</b>	She was sitting <u>there</u> one afternoon in early June. The sun was coming in at the window warm and bright.
<b>TT2:</b>	جلست السيدة ريتشيل في عصر يوم من أوائل أيام حزيران <u>أمام نافذتها</u> ، وقد انسابت أشعة الشمس عبر النافذة دافئة وساطعة.

<b>BT2:</b>	Mrs. Rachel sat <u>at her window</u> on afternoon in early June. The sun was coming in at the window warm and bright.
-------------	---

Again here, although the surrounding context tells us about Mrs. Rachel and how she sits at her window curiously watching people, the translator opts to render *there* explicitly as *أمام نافذتها* *at her window*. This alteration will help the young readers to effortlessly infer the meaning and also to visualise the scene being narrated.

### Example 7

<b>ST:</b>	She wore a very purple dress, a black silk mantle with jet fringes on it.
<b>TT1:</b>	وكانت في ذلك اليوم ترتدي ثوباً أرجوانياً فاقعاً وشالاً أسود مطرزا بالكهرمان.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>On that day</u> , she wore a very purple dress, a black silk mantle with jet fringes on it.

### Example 8

<b>ST:</b>	Mary had worn her contrary scowl for an hour after that, but it made her think several entirely new things.
<b>TT1:</b>	في ذلك اليوم، وضعت ماري وجه " المشاكسة المتناقضة"، وظلت متهجمة الأسارير ساعة كاملة. لكن هذه الحادثة جعلت تفكيرها يخوض أموراً عديدة جديدة عليها كل الجدة.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>On that day</u> , Mary had worn her contrary face and she was like this for an hour but this incident made her think several entirely new things.

Similarly, here there is an addition of a prepositional time phrase *في ذلك اليوم* *On that day* at the beginning of the sentence, which describes a particular state of affairs. Although this is not obligatory, it adds some effects to the context and will help the readers to visualise the scene and thus effortlessly arrive at the intended meaning.

**Example 9**

<b>ST:</b>	Two days after this, when Mary opened her eyes she sat upright in bed immediately and called to Martha, "Look at the moor! Look at the moor!"
<b>TT1:</b>	بعد يومين من هذه الحادثة، لم تكذ ماري تفتح عينيها <u>في الصباح</u> حتى سارعت إلى الجلوس في سريرها، وصاحت تنادي مارتا: " انظري الى المستنقع! انظري الى المستنقع!"
<b>BT1:</b>	Two days after this incident, once Mary opened her eyes <u>in the morning</u> , she sat upright in bed and called to Martha, "Look at the moor! Look at the moor!"

Here again the translator adds a propositional phrase to produce a more explicit TT for the intended readers. Although the time can be inferred by the surrounding context by words such as *opened her eyes* and *sat upright in bed*, the translator still add *في الصباح* *in the morning*, probably assuming that the young readers will not be able to infer the time or to equip them with the contextual effects required to effortlessly arrive at the intended interpretation.

**Example 10**

<b>ST2:</b>	They had a very good time and nothing untoward happened until after tea.
<b>TT2:</b>	قضت الفتيات <u>في تلك الحفلة</u> وقتاً ممتعاً. ولم يحدث شيء إلا بعد فراغهن من تناول الشاي
<b>BT2:</b>	The girls had a very good time <u>at that party</u> and nothing untoward happened until after they had finished having their tea.

The surrounding context here is about the party the girls had. However, the translator adds the propositional phrase *في تلك الحفلة* *at that party* to the TT to direct the young readers to the intended interpretation without any unnecessary effort. The TT is then made more relevant to the assumed reader's cognitive ability.

**Example 11**

<b>ST:</b>	Mary felt as if she were in the forest with them. Out of a deep window she could see a great climbing stretch of land which seemed to have no trees on it.
<b>TT1:</b>	ولبرهة، شعرت وكأنها هي أيضا في هذه الغابة وفي أحد الجدران كانت هناك نافذة غائرة استطاعت أن تلمح منها امتداداً شاسعاً لأرض مرتفعة بدت خالية من الأشجار.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>For a while</u> , she felt as if she were in the forest with them, and <u>on one of the walls</u> , there was a deep window where she could see a great climbing stretch of land which seemed to have no trees on it.

The addition of temporal and locative prepositional phrases (time and place) here adds to the explicitness of the ideational content of TT making it more relevant to the assumed cognitive ability of the TT readers. The addition of *ولبرهة* *For a while* at the beginning of the sentence will help the young reader to understand the following state of affairs, and the addition of *وفي أحد الجدران* *on one of the walls* will help the young readers to effortlessly understand the state of affairs and probably to visualise it as well.

**Example 12**

<b>ST:</b>	... and looked up in the sky, and it was so blue and pink and pearly and white and flooded with springtime light that she felt as if she must flute and sing aloud herself.
<b>TT1:</b>	وأجالت نظرها في السماء التي فاضت بنور الربيع وبدأت في وقت واحد زرقاء ووردية ولؤلؤية وبيضاء، وشعرت كما لو أن شيئاً أقوى منها يحثها على الدندنة والغناء بصوت عالٍ.
<b>BT1:</b>	and she looked up in the sky and it seemed <u>at the same time</u> so blue and pink and pearly and white. And she felt as if there is something powerful encouraging her to flute and sing with a loud voice

Similarly, here, the translator, perhaps assuming that the young readers will not be able to arrive at the intended description of the state of affairs, adds *في وقت واحد*

at the same time to make explicit when the sky was the colours which it was. Thus, the translator evokes the contextual effects required for the young readers to arrive at the intended interpretation and probably assist in visualizing the picture being narrated.

### **Example 13**

<b>ST:</b>	She put her hands over her ears and felt sick and shivering.
<b>TT1:</b>	سدت أذنيها بيدها وتملكها الغثيان وارتعشت <u>من رأسها إلى أخمص قدميها</u> .
<b>BT1:</b>	She put her hands over her ears and felt sick and shivering <u>from head to toe</u> .

Again, here the translator adds a prepositional phrase to enhance the state of affairs and make it relevant to the young TT readers. The addition of *من رأسها إلى أخمص قدميها* *from head to toe* to explicitly describe how Mary shivered will help the young readers to arrive at the intended meaning and evoke the contextual effects required for them to visualise the scene. It also will help to comply with the norms of the TT language, although it is not an obligatory addition imposed by grammatical rules, it will make the TT more natural-sounding and hence more relevant to the context of target language readers.

#### **4.2.3 Expanding the State of Affairs**

Expanding, as stated earlier, entails the adding of new propositional elements to ensure the explicitness of the state of affairs being described. Unlike elaboration, the addition does not involve alteration of the sentence or shifting the perspective; rather, it appears as a mere addition of elements which contributes to the explicitness of the TT. In the following examples, expanding involves the adding of adjectives, which necessarily helps to explicitate the described state of affairs for the target readers.

### **Example 1**

<b>ST:</b>	A wind was rising and making a singular, wild, low, rushing sound.
------------	--

<b>TT1:</b>	وكانت هناك ریح <u>غاضبة</u> تتصاعد وتنفث صفيراً حاداً مسعوراً
<b>BT1:</b>	There was an <u>angry</u> wind rising and making a singular, wild, low, rushing sound.

In this example, the translator expands the state of affairs by adding some specific information, explicating the target text to the reader to straightforwardly realise the inferred meaning. So, the translator has opted to render *A wind was rising and making a singular, wild, low, rushing sound* as with the addition of *غاضبة* *There was an angry wind rising and making a singular, wild, low, rushing sound* with the addition of the word 'angry' to assist the young reader to easily expect and understand what is coming next

### **Example 2**

<b>ST:</b>	After they had left the station they had driven through a tiny village and she had seen whitewashed cottages and the light of a public house. Then they had passed a church and vicarage and a little shop window or so in a cottage with toys and sweets and odd things set out for sale.
<b>TT1:</b>	كان <u>اول</u> ما تجاوزوه بعد أن غادرت العربة المحطة بلدة صغيرة رأت فيها أكواخاً بيضاء اللون وأضواء فندق، ثم الكنيسة ومنزل القس. كما رأت في أحد الأكواخ ما يشبه واجهة متجر فيها ألعاب وحلويات وأشياء مختلفة معروضة للبيع.
<b>BT1:</b>	The <u>first thing</u> they had driven through after they had left the station was a tiny village and she had seen whitewashed cottages and the light of an inn and a church and a vicarage. She had also seen in a cottage something like a shop window with toys and sweets and odd things set out for sale.

Example 2 also incorporates the addition of an adjective. However, the purpose this time is not only to provide the young readers with a more explicit text that can be effortlessly followed and understood but to help them to visualize the scene

and consequently help them to follow the story. So, the translator has rendered *After they had left the station they had driven through a tiny village* with the addition of *اول* *the first thing*, making it *The first thing they had driven through after they had left the station was a tiny village.*

### **Example 3**

<b>ST:</b>	Mrs. Rachel Lynde lived just where the Avonlea main road dipped down into the little hollow.
<b>TT1:</b>	كانت السيدة ريتشيل ليند تسكن حيث ينحدر طريق قرية أفونليا الرئيسي نحو الغور الصغير.
<b>BT1:</b>	Mrs. Rachel Lynde lived just where the Avonlea <u>village</u> main road dipped down into the little hollow.

The translator here opts to add new information for the young readers to effortlessly arrive at the intended interpretation. The young Arabic readers might not be able to contextually interpret Avonlea as a village name. Thus, the translator adds this information for them to help them to easily comprehend the meaning without unnecessary effort. Another reason might be to comply with the stylistic preference of the TT language which tends to use classifiers and identifications. For further discussion see Ch.3 section 2.

#### **4.2.4 Mixed Ideational Shifts**

The following examples are characterized by their use of shifts for elaborating, enhancing or expanding of the state of the state of affairs by means of explicitation. To avoid repeating the same example in two different categories, they have been given a specific section as mixed shifts.

### **Example 1**

<b>ST:</b>	"oh, Ann, do come quick, "implored Diana nervously, "Minnie May is awful sick- she's got croup. Young Mary Joe says"
<b>TT1:</b>	أن أسعفيني، وتعالى معي حالاً. "توسلت ديانا بحرقة، "أختي مينى ماي مريضة جداً. وتقول الشابة ماري إنها مصابة بالحناق.

<b>BT1:</b>	oh, Ann, do come <u>and help me</u> quick, “implored Diana nervously, “my <u>sister</u> Minnie May is awful sick- she’s got croup. Young Mary Joe says”
-------------	---

Here, the translator specifies the state of affairs in order to reduce the number of assumptions the young readers need to reach to the intended interpretation. Thus, by elaborating *do come quick* as explicitly *أسعفيني come and help me*, the young Arabic readers will effortlessly conclude the meaning of the state of affairs. The translator also expands the state of affairs by using *أختي ميني ماي my sister Minnie May* instead of just *Minnie May*, reminding the young readers who Minnie May is, although it is already mentioned somewhere in the text. As such the reading experience will probably be more enjoyable for them and the contextual effects are already given for them to effortlessly arrive at the intended interpretation with minimum processing cost.

### **Example 2**

<b>ST1:</b>	She could sit upon the low rough wall and look on and hear stories of the day.
<b>TT1:</b>	فتقصد الحديقة وتجلس على الجدار الواطئ وتملي عينها بما حولها، وتستمع إلى حكايات النهار من ديكون .
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>She makes for the garden</u> and sits upon the low rough wall and looks around her and hears the stories of the days <u>from (told by) Dickon</u> .

In describing Dickon’s mother and how she spends her afternoon in their small garden with Dickon, the ST has *She could sit upon the low rough wall and look on and hear stories of the day*. Here, the translator has again added more details to the sentence to ease visualization and comprehension of the scene by the young reader. The sentence appears in the TT as *فتقصد الحديقة وتجلس على الجدار الواطئ وتملي عينها بما حولها، وتستمع إلى حكايات النهار من ديكون*. *She makes for the garden, and sits upon the low rough wall and looks around her and hears the stories of the day told by Dickon* to elaborate the state of affairs. The translator also enhances the state of affairs by adding *من ديكون from Dickon*, although the meaning of this prepositional phrase can be inferred from the surrounding context. However, the translator opts to add these to the TT to help in evoking

the contextual effect required to arrive at the intended meaning and as such make it more relevant and effortlessly processed.

### Example 3

<b>ST:</b>	There was so much to talk about. It seemed as if Colin could never hear enough of Dickon....
<b>TT1:</b>	كان لدى ماري الكثير مما ترغب في قصه على كولن. وبدا أن كولن لم يمل السماع عن ديكون.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>Mary had so much she wanted to tell Colin about.</u> It seemed as if Colin could never hear enough of Dickon...

Here again, the translator adds to the explicitness of the TT by elaborating the state of affairs and shifting the point of view of the narrative. Thus the simple sentence *There was so much to talk about* has been rendered as *كان لدى ماري الكثير مما ترغب في قصه* *Mary had so much she wanted to tell Colin about*. The translator relies on her interpretation of the ST, and renders *There was* *كان لدى ماري* *Mary had so much she wants to tell Colin (to tell Colin about)* *الكثير مما ترغب في قصه*. Thus, the inferred meaning is made explicit and the processing cost is kept to a minimum. Here also the translator enhances the state of affairs by adding *على كولن*, *to tell Colin about*. The meaning of this prepositional phrase can be inferred from the surrounding context. However, the translator opts to add it to the TT to help evoke the contextual effect required to arrive at the intended meaning and as such make it more relevant and effortlessly processed.

### Example 4

<b>ST:</b>	when he shut the door, mounted the box with the coachman and <u>they drove off.</u>
<b>TT1:</b>	أغلق الخادم الباب وحمل صندوق الحاجيات مع الحوذي وانطلقت العربّة في طريقها.
<b>BT1:</b>	when he shut the door, mounted the box with the coachman and the carriage <u>drove off on its way.</u>

Here, the translator has altered *they drove off* making it more explicit in the TT, as *وانطلقت العرببة* and *the carriage drove off* to elaborate the state of affairs, and has also added *في طريقها* *on its way* to enhance the state of affairs. This way, the TT appears to be more explicit to the target readers and hence probably more relevant to the young readers' visualization and cognitive ability. These shifts entail visualization of the scene being described. This the explicitation does not only occur at the propositional level but also at the visualization level.

### **Example 5**

<b>ST1:</b>	The robin spread his wings – Mary could scarcely believe her eyes. He flew right up to the handle of Ben Weatherstaff's spade and alighted on top of it.
<b>TT1:</b>	ما حدث في اللحظة التالية كان أغرب من أن تصدقه ماري. إذ فرد أبو الحن جناحيه، ثم طار مباشرة نحو مقبض مجرفة بن ويذرستاف وحط رحاله عليه.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>What happened at the next moment was too peculiar</u> for Mary to believe. The robin spread his wings and flew right up to the handle of Ben Weatherstaff's spade and alighted on top of it.

Again, here the translator has assisted the young readers to effortlessly arrive at the intended meaning. So, *The robin spread his wings – Mary could scarcely believe her eyes* has been explicitly interpreted for the TT reader as *ما حدث في اللحظة التالية كان أغرب من أن تصدقه ماري. إذ فرد أبو الحن جناحيه* *What happened in the next moment was too peculiar for Mary to believe. The robin spread his wings.* By starting the sentence with *ما حدث كان أغرب* *What happened was too peculiar*, the translator ensures that the state of affairs is elaborated for the young readers and is effortlessly interpreted. The state of affairs has also been enhanced by adding *في اللحظة التالية* *at the next moment* to help the young readers follow the narrated events.

**Example 6**

<b>ST1:</b>	She always stopped to look at <u>the children</u> , and wonder what their names were, and where they had gone and why they wore such odd clothes There was a stiff, plain little girl rather like herself.
<b>TT1:</b>	وكانت كلما طالعتها لوحات الأطفال تقف وتمعن النظر فيهم وهي تتساءل عما يمكن أن تكون أسمائهم، وأين رحلوا، وما الذي جعلهم يرتدون تلك الثياب العجيبة. ثم وقع نظرها على صورة بنت متجهمة وغير جميلة مثلها تقريباً
<b>BT1:</b>	She always stopped every time she came across <u>the children's pictures</u> gazing at them wondering what their names were, and where they had gone and why they wore such odd clothes. Then <u>her eyes falls upon a picture of</u> a stiff, plain girl just like herself.

Here again, the state of affairs is expanded by the addition of *لوحات pictures* to render *look at the children* as *طالعتها لوحات الأطفال*. The state of affairs is also elaborated and shifted to be seen through Mary's eyes, so *There was a stiff, plain little girl rather like herself* has been shifted in the TT with the addition of *ثم وقع نظرها* *Then her eyes falls upon a picture of*. This alteration entails an ideational explication of the state of affairs. This will help the young reader not to only easily comprehend the TT but also to visualize it and feel it the way the main character of the novel does. The state of affairs has been also enhanced by adding a prepositional phrase *على صورة into a picture*. The TT has been rendered with some contextual effects which make it more explicit and consequently more relevant.

**Example 7**

<b>ST1:</b>	It was Basil who thought of <u>it</u> first, Basil was a little boy with impudent blue eyes and turned-up nose and Mary hated him.
<b>TT1:</b>	كان باسل ذو العينين الزرقاوين الوقحتين والأنف الأفتس أول من أطلق اللقب عليها وقد كرهته لأجل ذلك.

<b>BT1:</b>	It was Basil who thought of this <u>nickname</u> first, Basil was a little boy with impudent blue eyes and turned-up nose and Mary hated him <u>for this</u> .
-------------	--

The translator here elaborates the state of affairs by specifying and explaining what *it* in the ST refers to in the TT, so *who thought of it first* is rendered as *أول من أطلق اللقب عليها* *who thought of this nickname first*. Another addition here is of causation *لأجل ذلك* *for this*. The translator again enhances the state of affair and explicitly tells the young readers why Mary hated Basil. The young readers will thus effortlessly arrive at the intended interpretation which makes the target text more relevant to their assumed cognitive ability.

### **Example 8**

<b>ST1:</b>	'A more marred-looking young one I never saw in my life' Mrs Medlock thought. (Marred is a Yorkshire word and means spoiled and pettish) She had never seen a child who sat still without doing anything.
<b>TT1:</b>	إنها أشد سخطاً ونكدأ من أي طفل شاهدته في حياتي، " قالت السيدة ميدلوك لنفسها وهي <u>تمعن النظر إليها</u> ، لأنها لم يسبق قط أن رأت طفلاً يجلس في مكانه من غير أن يفعل شيئاً.
<b>BT1:</b>	She is the most spoiled and pettish child I had ever seen in my life, Mrs Medlock said to herself while <u>looking at her</u> , because she had never seen a child who sat still without doing anything.

This example has also a verbal and prepositional phrases addition with the function of easing the visualization of the scene for the young reader and making it effortlessly understood. Thus, the sentence '*a more marred-looking young one I never saw in my life*' Mrs Medlock thought. (Marred is a Yorkshire word and means spoiled and pettish) She had never seen a child who sat still without doing anything has been rendered with the addition of *تمعن النظر إليها* and *وهي* as follows *She is the most spoiled and pettish child I had ever seen in my life, Mrs Medlock said to herself while looking at her because she had never seen a child who sat still without doing anything*. This addition which entails both elaboration and

enhancement will add to the contextual effects of the TT, and thus will make it more explicit for young readers.

### Example 9

<b>ST1:</b>	It sounds like something <u>in</u> a book and it did not make Mary feel cheerful.
<b>TT1:</b>	وكان ذلك <u>شيء تقرأه في كتاب</u> ، شيء لم يجعلها تتشرح <u>على الإطلاق</u> .
<b>BT1:</b>	It sounds like <u>something she read</u> in a book and it did not make Mary feel cheerful <u>at all</u> .

Example 9 also involves the substitution of a preposition *in* by a full verbal phrase *something she reads* when rendering the sentence into Arabic, and the addition of prepositional phrase *على الإطلاق* *at all*. The purpose is probably to elaborate on the state of affairs by providing the young reader with more specific details which might help them to effortlessly arrive at the intended meaning and to enhance the text with such prepositional phrase which helps in evoking contextual effects to help in the reading process . Thus, *It sounds like something in a book* is rendered as *It sounds like something she reads in a book and it did not make Mary feel cheerful at all* in the target text.

### Example 10

<b>ST2:</b>	"Well, she didn't. She brought her. <u>I asked the station-master. ...</u> "
<b>TT2:</b>	" يبدو أنها لم تفعل، <u>وبدلاً من ذلك</u> أحضرت هذه الفتاة <u>كما فهمت من مسؤول المحطة</u> ."
<b>BT2:</b>	Well she didn't, and <u>instead of that</u> , she brought this girl as <u>I understood from the station master</u> .

This example has been rendered into Arabic with some degree of elaboration and enhancement to help the young readers to arrive at the intended meaning with minimum processing effort. Thus, to make the utterance relevant, the translator has opted to elaborate the state of affairs, such that *Well, she didn't* is rendered with the addition of the prepositional phrase *وبدلاً من ذلك* *instead of that* , which will

indeed help in explicating the state of affairs for the young reader. Similarly, *I asked the station-master* is rendered with some paraphrasing as *كما فهمت من مسؤول المحطة* as *I understood from the station master* to explicit the state of affairs for the young readers by directing them to the intended interpretation. By providing them with such communicative clues, the translator ensures that they will arrive at the intended meaning effortlessly.

### Example 11

<b>ST2:</b>	She is a very nice little girl, and perhaps she will be a playmate for you when she come home. She is visiting her aunt over at Carmody just now. You'll have to be careful how you behave yourself.
<b>TT2:</b>	هي فتاة لطيفة جداً، ومن المحتمل أن تصبح رفيقتك عندما تعود إلى بيتها، لأنها الآن تزور عمتها في بلدة كارمودي، و <u>إذا حدثت وتعرفت عليها</u> ، يجب أن تتصرفي بلياقه.
<b>BT2:</b>	She is a very nice little girl, and perhaps she will be a playmate for you when she come home. because she is visiting her aunt over at Carmody just now. <u>And in case you meet her</u> , you'll have to act appropriately.

Similarly, here, the translator again adds to explicate the implied meaning. The young reader might not be able to infer that *يجب أن تتصرفي بلياقه* *you'll have to act appropriately* refers to how Ann should behave if they get to know each other, the translator opts for making this explicit enough for them by elaborating and enhancing the state of affairs, so *وتعرفت عليها* *and إذا حدثت* *And in case you meet her* are added to explicate what Marilla means when she says that to Ann. The addition of these phrases has added to the contextual effects of the TT and made it more relevant. The young reader will spend less time processing this implied meaning as it has been explicated for them.

### Example 12

<b>ST1:</b>	The robin was tremendously busy. He was very much pleased to see gardening begun on his own estate. He had often wondered at Ben Weatherstaff.
-------------	--

<b>TT1:</b>	كان أبو الحن مشغولاً جداً <u>في تلك الأثناء</u> . إذ سر كثيراً لأن العمل في مقاطعته قد بدأ. وغالباً ما <u>تعجب من إهمال بن وينرستاف لها</u> .
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>In the meanwhile</u> , the robin was tremendously busy. He was very much pleased to see gardening begun on his own estate. He had often wondered <u>Ben Weatherstaff had been ignoring it</u> .

Again, the translator here explicates the source text for the young readers, including her interpretation of the source text by both elaborating and enhancing. Describing how happy the robin was to see the gardener working again in the garden, the translator explicates the reason why the robin had often wondered at Ben Weatherstaff, because he had been ignoring the garden: *من إهمال بن وينرستاف لها* *Ben Weatherstaff had been ignoring it*. Spelling out the implied state of affairs for young readers will make the target text more relevant to their assumed cognitive ability and more easily processed. Similarly, the added prepositional phrase of time *في تلك الأثناء* *meanwhile* will affect the explicitness of the TT and consequently the effort needed to process it. The addition of this proportional phrase of time will also assist the young readers to understand the flow of the events easily.

### 4.3 Analysis of Textual shifts

Textual shifts are categorised as **a.** shifts associated with referential traits either by addition or substitution, or **b.** shifts associated with the explicitation of semantic relations. Although linguistically these shifts might be seen as linking the preceding premise with what follows, from a relevance- theoretic perspective they equip the receiver with clues needed to arrive at the intended interpretation. They do this by restricting the number of assumptions the receiver needs to consider to optimally interpret the utterance. They are a clue that the reader will notice, and upon which they will make their assumptions (Gutt, 2000; Blakemore, 1987; and Rouchota, 1998). Sperber & Wilson (1986) argue that:

to modify and improve a context is to have some effect on that context – but not just any modification will do.[...] the addition of new information which merely duplicates old information does not count as improvement; nor does the addition of new information which is entirely unrelated to

old information.[...] new information may provide further evidence for, and therefore strengthen, old assumptions; or it may provide evidence against, and perhaps lead to the abandonment of, old assumptions (Sperber & Wilson 1986,p. 109).

Thus, if we look at the ST and TT from a relevance-theoretic perspective, we will find that they provide two distinct cues and two different contextual effects, and consequently require different processing effort. The more information provided the less processing effort needed. The cases presented are not comprehensive and are only intended as examples of the recurrent patterns in the TTs. To provide a more global account the following table gives some statistics for the examples discussed below.

**Table 4.** Numbers and kinds of textual shifts

	Referential traits	Semantic relation shifts	
Addition	1	9	
Substitution	19	1	
Total	20	10	30

#### 4.3.1 Addition of referential traits

##### Example1

<b>ST1:</b>	She pretended that she was making a flower-bed, and she stuck big scarlet hibiscus blossoms into little heaps of earth, all that time growing more and more angry and muttering to herself the things she would say and the names she would call Saidi when she returned.
<b>TT1:</b>	وهناك، تخيلت أنها تُعد حوضاً من الأزهار، وبدأت تغرس براعم أزهار الجلجل القرمزية في أكوام صغيرة من التربة. <u>لكن</u> سخطها كان يزداد حدة مع مرور الوقت. فأنبرت تُنفس عن غضبها بشتى أنواع الشتائم والصفات المستكبرة التي ستنتع بها مربيتها عندما تعود.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>And there</u> , she imagined that she was making a flower-bed, and she stuck big scarlet hibiscus blossoms into little heaps of earth, <u>but</u> her anger was growing more and more over time and she tried to relieve

herself muttering to herself the things she would say and the names she would call Saidi when she returned.
---

As it can be noticed, this example includes the addition of a demonstrative reference and an adversative conjunction. The author of the ST uses a simple structure to start the sentence. The translator however, opts to provide the TT with different contextual effects by adding *وهناك* *And there*, which might help the young Arabic reader to be prepared for an coming imaginative utterance. This is why it is dealt with as an example of explicitation and not just an addition, because such a change will affects the context of TT and provides the readers with the relevant visualisation of the text which in turn will ease the processing effort. So, *She pretended that she was making a flower-bed, and she stuck big scarlet hibiscus blossoms into little heaps of earth, all that time growing more and more angry* has been translated as *وهناك، تخيلت أنها تُعد حوضاً من الأزهار، وبدأت تغرس براعم أزهار* *And there, she imagined that she was making a flower-bed, and she stuck big scarlet hibiscus blossoms into little heaps of earth, but her anger was growing more and more over time.*

#### 4.3.2 Substitution of Referential Traits

##### Example 1

<b>ST:</b>	“Eh! You should see'em all,” she said. There’s twelve of us an’ my father only gets sixteen shilling a week.”
<b>TT1:</b>	" إيه! يجب أن ترى <u>أخوتي</u> كلهم،" قالت مارتا، هناك اثنا عشر واحداً منا، ولا يكسب أبي إلا ستة عشر شلناً في الأسبوع.
<b>BT1:</b>	“Eh! You should see all of <u>my brothers</u> ” said Martha “There’s twelve of us an’ my father only gets sixteen shilling a week.”

As it can be noticed, in this example, the referential pronoun *them* have been replaced by noun *أخوتي* *my brothers*. Replacing a pronoun with full noun in translated texts is a common evidence of explicitation. Such alteration will indeed contribute to the explicitness of the utterance being translated. Although the

meaning can be implied by the surrounding context, such alteration helps in equipping the readers with the contextual effect required to guide them to the intended interpretation and consequently to reducing the processing effort

### Example 2

<b>ST:</b>	It is here now! It has come, the Spring! Dickon says so! 'Has it? Cried Colin, and though he really knew nothing about <u>it</u> , he felt his heart beat.
<b>TT1:</b>	إنه هنا الآن! لقد جاء الربيع يا كولن! هذا ما قاله ديكون! أحقاً؟ صاح كولن الذي وإن كان لا يعرف شيئاً عن الربيع شعر بقلبه يطرق بعنف.
<b>BT1:</b>	It is here now! The spring has come! Dickon said! 'Has it? Cried Colin, who though he really knew nothing about <u>the spring</u> , he felt his heart beating strongly.

As it can be noticed, in examples 1 and 2, the referential pronouns *it* and *they* have been replaced by nouns. Replacing a pronoun with a full noun in translated texts is a common feature of explicitation. This alteration contributes to the explicitness of the utterance being translated. Although the meaning can be inferred from the surrounding context, this alteration helps in equipping the readers with the contextual effect required to guide them to the intended interpretation and consequently to reducing the processing effort. Thus, *It is here now! It has come, the Spring! Dickon says so! 'Has it? Cried Colin, and though he really knew nothing about it, he felt his heart beat* in example 2 has been transferred into Arabic as *إنه هنا الآن! لقد جاء الربيع يا كولن! هذا ما قاله ديكون! أحقاً؟ صاح كولن الذي وإن كان لا يعرف شيئاً عن الربيع شعر بقلبه يطرق بعنف* *It is here now! The spring has come! Dickon said! 'Has it? Cried Colin, who though he really knew nothing about the spring, felt his heart beating strongly.*

### Example 3

<b>ST:</b>	At last the horses began to go more slowly, as if <u>they</u> were climbing up a hill.
------------	--

<b>TT1:</b>	أخيراً.. شعرت أن الخيول قد بدأت تخب ببطء، كما لو أن <u>العربة</u> تتسلق تلاً.
<b>BT1:</b>	At last the horses began to go more slowly, as if the <u>carriage</u> was climbing up a hill.

And as if they were climbing up a hill in this example has been rendered as كما لو و العربية تتسلق تلاً as if the carriage was climbing up a hill. Altering they to العربية و produces a more explicit TT than if it was rendered as, for example, تسلقوا they climbed. The young reader here is equipped with the contextual effect required to arrive at the intended meaning with minimal processing effort. This also might assist the readers to visualise the scene.

#### **Example 4**

<b>ST2:</b>	<u>They had driven</u> over the crest of a hill.
<b>TT2:</b>	<u>وصلت العربة إلى قمة تلة</u>
<b>BT2:</b>	The wagon arrived at the crest of a hill

The example above involves explicitation of the state of affairs by altering the sentence when rendering it to the TT. *They had driven* in the ST has been altered to *وصلت العربة* *The wagon arrived* in the TT. This involves not only the alteration of the pronoun *They* into noun *العربة* *The wagon* but also changing the point of view of the narrative to probably help the young readers to visualize the scene. Also, the alteration of the verb into *وصلت* *arrived* adds to the explicitness of the state of affairs. Although the explicitation here might not be straightforward it probably makes the visualization of the scene easier and improves its communicative properties. As such, the young readers will process this with minimum effort.

#### **Example 5**

<b>ST1:</b>	Mary had worn her contrary scowl for an hour after that, but <u>it</u> made her think several entirely new things.
-------------	--

<b>TT1:</b>	في ذلك اليوم، وضعت ماري وجه "المشاكسة المتناقضة"، وظلت متهجمة الأسارير ساعة كاملة. لكن هذه <u>الحادثة</u> جعلت تفكيرها يخوض أمورا عديدة جديدة عليها كل الجدة.
<b>BT1:</b>	In that day, Mary had worn her contrary face and she was like this for an hour but <u>this incident</u> made her think several entirely new things.

### **Example 6**

<b>ST:</b>	Two days after <u>this</u> , when Mary opened her eyes she sat upright in bed immediately and called to Martha. "look at the moor! Look at the moor!"
<b>TT1:</b>	بعد يومين من <u>هذه الحادثة</u> ، لم تكد ماري تفتح عينيها في الصباح حتى سارعت إلى الجلوس في سريرها، وصاحت تنادي مارتا: " انظري الى المستنقع! انظري الى المستنقع!"
<b>BT1:</b>	Two days after <u>this incident</u> , once Mary opened her eyes in the morning, she sat upright in bed and called to Martha. "look at the moor! Look at the moor!"

Examples 4 and 5 combine substitutions of references with an explicit demonstrative + noun sequence when rendering the source text into Arabic. So, *but it made her think several entirely new things* has been transferred with more clarification of the state of affairs as *لكن هذه الحادثة جعلت تفكيرها يخوض أمورا عديدة جديدة عليها كل الجدة* *but this incident made her think several entirely new things*. In example 5 *Two days after this* has been rendered as *بعد يومين من هذه الحادثة* *Two days after this incident* into Arabic. This modification will add to the TT context some effects which contribute to the explicitness of the TT and consequently reduce the processing effort needed to arrive at the intended interpretation.

### **Example 7**

<b>ST2:</b>	Yet with all this Mrs. Rachel found abundant time to sit for hours at her kitchen window, knitting "cotton wrap" quilts- she had knitted sixteen of <u>them</u> .
-------------	---

<b>TT1:</b>	مع ذلك، كثيراً ما وجدت السيدة ريتشيل متسعاً من الوقت لتجلس لساعات أمام نافذة مطبخها تحيك أغطية اللحف القطنية، التي حاكت منها ستة عشر <u>غطاءاً</u> .
<b>BT1:</b>	Yet with all this Mrs. Rachel found abundant time to sit for hours at her kitchen window, knitting “cotton wrap” quilts- of which she had knitted sixteen <u>quilts</u> .

The translator frequently replaces pronouns with nouns. Although the meaning can be inferred from the surrounding context, the translator here renders *them*, which refers to the “cotton wrap” quilts, as *أغطية* quilts, leaving the young readers with nothing to infer. As such, the TT is rendered more relevant to the assumed target readers’ cognitive ability.

### **Example 8**

<b>ST2:</b>	With <u>this</u> Mrs. Rachel stepped out of the lane into the backyard of Green Gables.
<b>TT2:</b>	بهذه <u>الأفكار</u> تجاوزت السيدة ريتشيل الدرب المحدد الى فناء دارة المرتفعات الخضراء الخلفي
<b>BT2:</b>	With <u>these thoughts</u> Mrs. Rachel stepped out of the lane into the backyard of Green Gables.

Here the translator substitutes the demonstrative reference *this* with an explanation of what it refers to *الأفكار* thoughts. Although the surrounding context implies that this refers to the thoughts, the young readers might not be able to infer this and producing a more explicit TT in this case will reduce the processing effort needed to comprehend the text.

### **Example 9**

<b>ST2:</b>	Since Avonlea occupied a little triangular peninsula jutting out into the Gulf of Lawrence with water on two sides of <u>it</u> .
<b>TT2:</b>	وبما أن أفونليا كانت تقع في شبة جزيرة صغيرة مثلثة تشرف على خليج سانت لورانس ويحيط الماء جانبيين من <u>جوانبها</u> .

<b>BT2:</b>	Since Avonlea occupied a little triangular peninsula jutting out into the Gulf of ST. Lawrence with water on two sides of <u>its sides</u> .
-------------	--

Similarly, here the translator opted to render *it*, which refers to the village, with a full explanation of the state of affairs, as *of its sides* من جوانبها. The reason probably is to produce a relevant target text for the intended readers with less processing effort. It might be also attributed to the compliance with the stylistic preferences of the TT language where this repetition is favourable.

### Example 10

<b>ST2:</b>	<u>She</u> was sitting there one afternoon in early June. The sun was coming in at the window warm and bright.
<b>TT2:</b>	جلست السيدة ريتشيل في عصر يوم من أوائل أيام حزيران أمام نافذتها، وقد انسابت أشعة الشمس عبر النافذة دافئة وساطعة.
<b>BT2:</b>	<u>Mrs. Rachel</u> sat at her window on afternoon in early June. The sun was coming in at the window warm and bright.

Again here, although the surrounding context tells us about Mrs. Rachel and how she sits at her window curiously watching people, the translator opts to render the full name instead of *جلست she sat* only. This might be to comply with the assumed norm of the target language and target readers' cognitive ability, i.e. to make it optimally relevant to the TT readers. This, however, does not mean that the alteration is obligatory in terms of the target language grammar or if not done the sentence will be ungrammatical. It, rather, involves norms of preferences of the target language.

### Example 11

<b>ST2:</b>	<u>He</u> was the shyest man alive and hated to have to go among strangers or to any place where he might have to talk.
<b>TT2:</b>	فقد كان ماثيو من أكثر الرجال الأحياء خجلاً، وكان ينفّر من الاضطرار إلى الذهاب حيث يوجد الغرباء، بل وحتى إلى أي مكان يضطر فيه إلى الكلام.

<b>BT2:</b>	<u>Matthew</u> was one of the shyest men alive and hated to have to go among strangers or to any place where he might have to talk.
-------------	---

Here, the surrounding context talks about Mathew and his shyness. The translator, however, opts to rendering *He* with the full name instead of *كان* *He was*, which would be enough in this context. This might be to comply with the assumed norms of the target language and provide the target readers with the most possible relevant TT which needs minimum processing effort.

### Example 12

<b>ST2:</b>	There'll be a risk, no matter <u>who</u> we get.
<b>TT1:</b>	ستكون هناك مجازفة مهما يكن <u>الصبي</u> الذي ننوي جلبه.
<b>BT1:</b>	There'll be a risk, no matter which <u>boy</u> we intend to bring.

The translator here attempts to explicit the implied meaning of *who* when translating the ST into Arabic. The surrounding context is about adopting a child, this being a risk no matter who you choose. The translator provides the young reader with this meaning by rendering a more relevant TT which does not need unnecessary effort. Thus, *no matter who* appears in TT as *مهما يكن الصبي* *no matter which boy*.

### Example 13

<b>ST:</b>	Until <u>they</u> came to a rustic bridge.
<b>TT1:</b>	وصلت <u>الصغيرتان</u> بعد ذلك الى الجسر البدائي
<b>BT1:</b>	The <u>young girls</u> have come to a rustic bridge.

As can be noticed, the translator here opts to render the pronoun *they* with more specification of the state of affairs. Thus, *they* in the ST is rendered as *الصغيرتان*

*the young girls*. This explicitation will help in making the TT more relevant to the young TT readers, they will effortlessly arrive at the intended meaning.

#### **Example 14**

<b>ST1:</b>	... and <u>she</u> found herself in a room with a fire in it and a supper on a table.
<b>TT1:</b>	ووجدت <u>الصغيرة</u> نفسها تدخل غرفة فيها مدفأة وعشاء على منضدة.
<b>BT1:</b>	... and <u>the little one</u> found herself entering a room with a fire in it and a supper on a table.

Again, the translator here opts for more specification, the pronoun *she* being rendered as the *little one* *الصغيرة*. This alteration entails explicitation and helps the young readers to be associated with the main character, consequently making the TT more relevant and easier to comprehend.

#### **Example 15**

<b>ST2:</b>	"Well, she didn't. She brought <u>her</u> . I asked the station-master. ..."
<b>TT2:</b>	" يبدو أنها لم تفعل، وبدلاً من ذلك أحضرت <u>هذه الفتاة</u> كما فهمت من مسؤول المحطة".
<b>BT2:</b>	Well she didn't, and instead of that, she brought <u>this girl</u> as I understood from the station master.

Again, the translator here opts to render the pronoun *her* with more specification of the state of affairs. Thus, *her* in the ST is rendered as *هذه الفتاة* *this girl*. This explicitation will help in making the TT more relevant to the young TT readers, they will effortlessly arrive at the intended meaning.

#### **Example 16**

<b>ST1:</b>	There's been <u>twelve</u> in our cottage as had th' stomach an' nothing to put in it.
<b>TT1:</b>	فأولئك <u>الصغار</u> الذين في كوئنا لديهم شهية كبيرة، ولكنهم لا يجدون ما يقتاتون به

<b>BT1:</b>	Those <u>young children</u> in our cottage have an appetite but nothing to eat,
-------------	---

In example 15, which tells about Martha's family, the translator has again opted to explicitate the state of affairs for the young readers by means of specification. So *There's been twelve in our cottage*, which refers to Martha's siblings, has been rendered explicitly to become *الصغار* *Those young children in our cottage*, where the young reader is expected to effortlessly understand the meaning.

### Example 17

<b>ST2:</b>	I do hope you won't be offended because I can't eat. <u>Everything</u> is extremely nice, but still I cannot eat.
<b>TT2:</b>	أرجو أن لا تنزعجي من عدم رغبتني في الأكل، ورغم أن <u>هذا الطعام شهى جداً</u> ، أنا عاجزة عن تناول أي شيء منه.
<b>BT2:</b>	I do hope you won't be offended because I can't eat. <u>This food</u> is extremely delicious, but still I cannot eat

Similarly to the previous example, the translator here specifies the state of affairs for the young readers, by rendering a general phrase *Everything is extremely nice* with a more specific phrase *هذا الطعام شهى جداً*. So, the pronoun *everything* is rendered as *هذا الطعام* *this food*, and *nice* as *شهى* *delicious*. By doing this, the translator produces a more relevant TT which might be more compatible with the assumed target readers' comprehension abilities and might be interpreted effortlessly by them.

### Example 18

<b>ST2:</b>	<u>Its</u> beauty seemed to strike the child dumb.
<b>TT2:</b>	أصاب <u>جمال هذا المشهد</u> الطفلة بالخرس.
<b>BT2:</b>	<u>The beauty of this view</u> seemed to strike the child dumb.

Similarly, here, the translator has explicitated the TT text for the young readers, apparently assuming that they might not be able to infer the meaning from the surrounding context. Thus, *Its* has been rendered with more explicit contextual effects as *جمال هذا المشهد* *The beauty of this view*. The young readers are given the intended meaning and there is no need for unnecessary processing effort.

### **Example 19**

<b>ST2:</b>	I wasn't a bit sick coming over in the boat. Neither was Mrs. Spencer although she generally is. She said she hadn't time to get sick, watching to see that I didn't fall overboard. She said she never saw the beat of me for prowling about. But if <u>it</u> kept her from being seasick it's a mercy.
<b>TT2:</b>	وعندما استقلينا المركب لم أصب بالدوار، وكذلك السيدة سبنسر رغم أنها عادة تصاب بدوار البحر. وقالت لي أنها لم تجد متسعاً من الوقت لتصاب بالدوار وهي تراقبني خشية أن أقع في الماء. وقالت أيضاً إنها لم تر أحداً يضاهيني في كثرة الحركة. لكن <u>إن كان تنقلي في أرجاء المركب</u> قد منعها من أن تصاب بالدوار أفلم يكن ذلك لصالحها؟.
<b>BT2:</b>	I wasn't a bit sick coming over in the boat. Neither was Mrs. Spencer although she generally is. She said she hadn't time to get sick, watching to see that I didn't fall overboard. She said she never saw the beat of me for prowling about. But if <u>me moving around the boat</u> kept her from being seasick, wasn't good for her.?

Again, here the translator opts for specifying *It*, which refers to how Ann was very active on the boat moving around everywhere. *it* is explicitly rendered as *تنقلي في أرجاء المركب* *me moving around the boat* instead of for example *إن كان ذلك* *if that was*. This will help the young readers to not spend time and effort arriving at the intended interpretation, as the TT is made explicit and relevant for their assumed cognitive ability.

### 4.3.3 Semantic Relation Shifts

#### Example1

<b>ST1:</b>	'a more marred-looking young one I never saw in my life' Mrs Medlock thought. (Marred is a Yorkshire word and means spoiled and pettish) She had never seen a child who sat still without doing anything.
<b>TT1:</b>	إنها أشد سخطاً ونكداً من أي طفل شاهدته في حياتي، " قالت السيدة ميدلوك لنفسها وهي تمعن النظر إليها، <u>لأنها</u> لم يسبق قط أن رأيت طفلاً يجلس في مكانه من غير أن يفعل شيئاً.
<b>BT1:</b>	She is the most spoiled and pettish child I had ever seen in my life, Mrs Medlock said to herself while looking at her <u>because</u> she had never seen a child who sat still without doing anything.

The given example above involves textual shifts at the semantic connection level. The semantic shifts are most likely to be made to explicitly express the state of affairs. The TT translator has straightforwardly expressed the inferred casual connections by adding causal connectives. So, the sentence in example 1 tells us about Mrs Medlock being surprised by the quietness of Mary as compared to other children. Here, *Mrs Medlock thought. [...] She had never seen a child who sat still without doing anything* has been rendered explicitly to explain the reason why Mrs Medlock is surprised, by using the connective *لأنها because*. This gives *قالت السيدة ميدلوك لنفسها وهي تمعن النظر إليها، لأنها لم يسبق قط أن رأيت طفلاً يجلس في مكانه من غير أن يفعل شيئاً.* *Mrs Medlock said to herself while looking at her because she had never seen a child who sat still without doing anything.*

#### Example2

<b>ST1:</b>	'She came into the room last night. She stayed with me a long time. She sang a Hindustani song to me and it made me go to sleep' said Colin. 'I was better when I wakened up.
<b>TT1:</b>	إذ ذاك سارع كولن إلى القول: " لقد جاءت الى غرفتي ليلة أمس وبقيت معي مدة طويلة، وغنت لي أغنية هندية جعلتني أنام، <u>ولذلك</u> أنا أشعر بالتحسن عندما نهضت في الصباح.

<b>BT1:</b>	Then Colin was quick to say ‘She came into the room last night. She stayed with me a long time. She sang a Hindustani song to me and it made me go to sleep <u>that is why (so)</u> I was better when I wakened up.
-------------	---

Similarly, in example 2, the translator of TT has again opted to explicitly verbalise the casual relation by adding *ولذلك that is why (so)*. So, the ST sentence *She sang a Hindustani song to me and it made me go to sleep’ said Colin. ‘I was better when I wakened up,* becomes in the Arabic TT *و غنت لي أغنية هندية جعلتني أنام، ولذلك أنا* *أشعر بالتحسن عندما نهضت في الصباح. She sang a Hindustani song to me and it made me go to sleep that is why (so) I was better when I wakened up.* This improvement in the context, giving some guiding clues, will probably make the TT more relevant and effortlessly comprehensible to the TT young readers.

### **Example 3**

<b>ST1:</b>	She knew that she was not going to stay at the English clergyman’s house where she was taken at first. She did not want to stay.
<b>TT1:</b>	عرفت أنها لم تذهب للبقاء في بيت القس الإنجليزي حيث أخذت في البداية. بل ولم ترغب في ذلك
<b>BT1:</b>	She knew that she was not going to stay at the English clergyman’s house where she was taken at first. <u>but</u> , she did not want to stay.

In example 3, the two clauses *She knew that she was not going to stay at the English clergyman’s house where she was taken at first. She did not want to stay* have been rendered into Arabic with the addition of *بل but* as *عرفت أنها لم تذهب للبقاء في بيت القس الإنجليزي حيث أخذت في البداية. بل ولم ترغب في ذلك* *She knew that she was not going to stay at the English clergyman’s house where she was taken at first. but, she did not want to stay.* The TT has accordingly been provided with some contextual effects which strengthen the assumptions aroused in the TT readers mind and consequently minimise the processing effort.

**Example 4**

<b>ST2:</b>	Now, I wouldn't have felt that way. I'd have thought that it was real noble of him to confess it.
<b>TT2:</b>	أما أنا فما كنت لأشعر بنفس الشعور أبداً، بل ولا اعتبرت اعترافه تصرفاً نبيلاً
<b>BT2:</b>	Now, I wouldn't have felt that way ever. <u>But</u> , I'd have thought that it was real noble of him to confess it.

The translator here adds to the textual effects of the TT by adding *بل but* to start the second clause. By doing this she equips the young readers with contrast construction and consequently some contextual effects which might help them to reduce the number of assumptions required to arrive at the interpretation of the utterance and consequently the TT will be effortlessly processed.

**Example 5**

<b>ST1:</b>	Mary had seen carved ivory in India and she knew all about the elephants
<b>TT1:</b>	وبما أنه سبق لماري أن رأت الكثير من العاج المنحوت في الهند، إضافة الى أنها تعرف كل شيء عن الفيلة.
<b>BT1:</b>	<u>Since Mary had already</u> seen so much carved ivory in India and also knew all about the elephants

Here, the translator explicitates the implied meaning of the ST and makes it effortlessly comprehensible for the young Arabic readers. So, in the Arabic version, the semantic relationship has been explicitated by starting the sentence within *وبما أنه* *Since*. Thus the assumptions the young readers need to make in order to understand the relationship are restricted and the young readers are directed to the intended meaning.

**Example 6**

<b>ST2:</b>	In this instance the rest of the class felt grateful to her; none of them would have dared to ask it of Miss Stacy.
<b>TT2:</b>	وفي تلك اللحظة شعر الجميع بالامتنان لها، <u>لأن</u> أحداً منهم لم يجرؤ على طرح هذا السؤال على الأنسة ستيسي.
<b>BT2:</b>	In this instance the rest of the class felt grateful to her <u>because</u> none of them would have dared to ask it of Miss Stacy.

**Example 7**

<b>ST2:</b>	She is a very nice little girl, and perhaps she will be a playmate for you when she comes home. She is visiting her aunt over at Carmody just now. You'll have to be careful how you behave yourself.
<b>TT2:</b>	هي فتاة لطيفة جداً، ومن المحتمل أن تصبح رفيقتك عندما تعود إلى بيتها، <u>لأنها</u> الآن تزور عمته في بلدة كارمودي، و إذا حدث وتعرفت عليها، يجب أن تتصرفي بلياقه.
<b>BT2:</b>	She is a very nice little girl, and perhaps she will be a playmate for you when she comes home. <u>Because</u> she is visiting her aunt over at Carmody just now. And in case you meet her, you'll have to be careful how you behave yourself.

The translator in example 7 also opts to make the causative relationship explicit for the young readers by adding *because* to explain why the rest of the class felt grateful to Ann. Similarly in example 8 *because* is added to explicate the causal relationship implied in the ST *when she come home because she is visiting her aunt*. Within a relevance-theory analysis, 'because' is a conceptual connective which introduces a concept and contributes to the explicitness of the utterance. Thus, *because* not only serves as a linking device but also provides the young readers with contextual assumptions required to arrive at the intended interpretation.

**Example 8**

<b>ST2:</b>	Oh, I feel that my heart is broken. This is such an unromantic affliction.
<b>TT2:</b>	أشعر الساعة أنى محطة الفؤاد، <u>لأن</u> هذه المصيبة ليست مصيبة شاعرية أبداً.
<b>BT2:</b>	Oh, I feel now that my heart is broken. <u>Because</u> this affliction is not a romantic affliction at all.

The translator here also adds لأن *Because* to connect these two sentences providing the young readers with the required contextual assumptions to effortlessly understand the causative relationship. Thus, the TT is made to be more relevant to them. Moreover the translator opts to repeat the noun *مصيبة affliction* when rendering the second sentence so instead of *هذه المصيبة ليست شاعرية أبداً* *this affliction is not romantic at all*, this sentence is rendered as *هذه المصيبة ليست مصيبة شاعرية أبداً* *this affliction is not a romantic affliction at all*. Such lexical repetition is common in Arabic (cf. Dickins, Hervey and Higgins, 2018, pp. 140-142), amongst other things enhancing the explicitness of the TT and making it readily comprehensible.

**Example 9**

<b>ST2:</b>	and Ann found out that it is not pleasant to be ignored. It was in vain that she told herself with a toss of her head that she did not care. Deep down in her wayward, feminine little heart she knew that she did care.
<b>TT2:</b>	واكتشفت أن تجاهل الآخرين لها لم يكن شيئاً مستساغاً، وعبثاً أفتعت نفسها وهي تهز رأسها أن هذا لم يكن شيئاً مهماً لها، <u>لكنها</u> في أعماق قلبها الأنثوي الصغير المشاكس كانت تعرف انها تهتم.
<b>BT2:</b>	and Ann found out that to be ignored by others is not pleasant. It was in vain that she convinced herself with a toss of her head that she did not care. <u>But</u> deep down in her wayward, feminine little heart she knew that she did care

The translator here has explicitated the TT for the young readers, the implied *but* in the ST being added explicitly to the TT, thereby minimising the processing effort. From a relevance-theoretic point of view such a connective encodes information about the inferential process the hearer/reader is intended to undertake to optimally arrive to the intended interpretation. Its sole function is to restrict the interpretation process by specifying certain properties of context and contextual effect (Blakemore 1987, p. 77). So, the procedural connective *but* here helps the readers to process the utterance in a way which leads to arriving at the intended contradiction.

### **Example 10**

<b>ST2:</b>	He was talking to God <u>and</u> he didn't seem to be very much interested in it, either. I think he thought God was too far off though.
<b>TT2:</b>	كان يوجه حديثه الى الله، رغم أنه لم يظهر اكثر اثراً واضحاً بما كان يقوله. بل بدا لي انه يظن أن الله بعيداً جداً لدرجة أنه لم يكلف نفسه عناء بذل جهد لجعل صلاته مشوقة.
<b>BT2:</b>	He was directing his speech to God <u>although</u> he didn't seem to be very much interested in what he was saying. I think he thought God was very far off though to the point that he didn't make an effort to make his prayers interesting.

The translator here opted to substitute *and* with a concessive conjunction *although*. This substitution will equip the TT with more clues to the intended meaning of the phrase coming next. The young readers will need no effort to process the implied semantic relations between the two phrases involved and as such the TT is made relevant to their assumed cognitive and linguistic abilities.

## **4.4 Summary and Conclusion**

This chapter has presented some examples of explicitation shifts as manifested in the data chosen for this study. On the basis of the SFG classification of language metafunctions, the shifts were found to be functionally of two types: ideational and textual. The data has not revealed any shifts of an interpersonal kind, which might be attributed to the nature of the text as a narrative story. The

ideational shifts were further divided into subcategories based on their linguistic features: elaboration, enhancement, expansion, and composite shifts (involving various combinations of elaboration, enhancement and expansion). The textual shifts were classified as referential-based shifts and semantic-relation shifts. Formally, these shifts were found to be in the form of addition, substitution, alteration or specification. The discussion of the examples was not meant to provide a profound linguistic analysis of the shifts. Rather they were discussed on the basis of a relevance-theoretic perspective.

## Chapter 5

### Data analysis II

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims at exploring and analysing the motivations behind the explicitation occurrences. The possible motivations were arrived at drawing on translation studies principles and analysing the translator's answers regarding her strategies and perspectives on translating for children. Careful examination of the translator's comments helps us to identify four main possible triggers for resorting to explicitation when translating for children.

The second part of this chapter will focus on revisiting some conceptions regarding explicitation as a translational phenomenon with the purpose of re-examining them in the light of the gathered data.

#### 5.2 Motivations Behind Explicitation Occurrences

Examination of studies on explicitation reveals different reasons behind explicitation. These can be summarized as: **a.** linguistic-specific motivations, **b.** cultural-specific motivations, and **c.** motivations related to the translator and their role as facilitator.

The first possible trigger for explicitation, linguistic-specific motivations, is given by Blum-Kulka (1986), who attributes this tendency to differences in stylistic preferences and different norms governing the two languages involved. Séguinot (1988) also describes explicitation as an inherent feature of the language itself, i.e. "languages are inherently explicit or implicit in the kinds of information they convey and the way they convey it, first through their formal properties and secondly through their stylistic and rhetorical preferences" (1988, p. 108). Similarly, according to House (2004), the tendency to explicitate reflects differences in linguistic-textual norms between languages and is attributed to so-called communication preferences across languages. Klaudy's (2009) obligatory and optional explicitations are also attributed to the syntactic and semantic differences between languages and to their text-building strategies.

The second factor, cultural-specific motivations, which is related to cultural differences has also been referred to as a possible reason for explicitation by Blum-Kulka (1986), who calls it 'reader-based' and suggests that it might be triggered by the reader's needs. Similar to this is Klaudy's (2009) pragmatic explicitation, which is motivated by differences of cultural-related components of the text and is driven by differences between cultures.

The third motivation, having to do with the translator and their role as facilitator, is related to the translator as mediator. Saldanha (2008) suggests that explicitation should be perceived as an "audience design" strategy, which certainly does not correspond to the implicitness of the original text. Rather it should be associated with the translator's assumptions regarding their readers and their position as mediators across languages and cultures. Pym (2005) refers to the fact that translators tend to be risk-averse, due to their role as linguistic and cultural mediators. Chesterman (2004, p. 11) refers to the translators' conceptions of their role and how these might affect their tendency to explicate. He says, "they tend to want to write clearly [...] because they can easily see their role metaphorically as shedding light on an original text that is obscure". Elaborating on Chesterman's view, Pym (2005, p. 38) writes:

translators are exceptional because they are both readers and writers at the same time (or hearers and speakers, in the case of interpreting). This situation would 1) make them especially aware of the difficulties of constructing meaning (because they are trying to make sense of the source text), 2) put them in a position where they can solve those problems in an explicit way by writing down markers for everything they have just construed, and 3) do this at a time when the construction process is very fresh in their mind. More bluntly, translators would want to help readers because they, the translators, are also readers (Pym 2005, explaining Chesterman 2004).

Within the context of young adults' literature, explicitation might be seen to be driven by the aims of translating for children and young adults, particularly the pedagogical goals as identified by Klingberg (1986, p. 10):

One of the aims of translating children's books must simply be to make literature available to children (hopefully works of literary merit). This aim will justify close adherence to the original text. Another aim of translating children's books is to further the international outlook and understanding of young readers. This aim will lead to the same adherence to the original. Removal of peculiarities of the foreign culture or change of cultural elements for such elements which belong to the culture of the target language will not further the reader's knowledge of and interest in the foreign culture. On the other hand, there are two pedagogical goals which can cause a revision of the original. One is the aim of giving the readers a text that they can **understand**. Since there might be reason to suppose that young readers to a greater extent than adults readers lack such knowledge of the foreign culture that is prerequisite for understanding, the translator is tempted or forced to change or delete in the text of a children's book more than in the text of a book for adults. Another pedagogical goal of children's books may be thought to be to contribute to the development of the readers' set of values. (Klingberg, 1986, p. 10)

Although Klingberg (1986, p. 10) refers to the significance of understanding the target text, giving example of changing and deleting in the target text of elements present in the original, this can, however, be seen from the reverse perspective, i.e. explicating in the target text what is implied in the original. Both these strategies are triggered by the translator's desire to produce an understandable target text.

Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 4) refer to the fact that translated texts are naturally subject to two potential sets of motivations, those of text producers and those of translators. Thus, translation can be seen as the result of what they called 'motivated choice'. Thus, the text producers have their own communicative aims which determine their lexical choices and grammatical arrangement. However, the translators might have different communicative aims, which might impose certain translation strategies which serve those aims. A similar notion has been proposed by Newmark (1981, p. 8), who refers to the fact that "the translator and the text-writer have different theories of meaning and different values. The

translator's theory colours his interpretation of the text. He may set greater value than the text-writer on connotation and correspondingly less on denotation".

This takes us back to Gutt's (2000) view of translation as an interpretation of the original by translators; i.e. TT readers whether they recognize it or not read the translator's interpretation of the original which is formulated to meet the translator's communication aims. Thus, when aiming for relevance, "the speaker must make some assumptions about the hearer's cognitive abilities and contextual resources, which will necessarily be reflected in the way she communicates, and in particular in what she chooses to make explicit and what she chooses to leave implicit" (Sperber & Wilson 1986, p. 218).

In addition to the list of the suggested motivations for explicitation in the literature of translation studies, the results of the present study reveal some specific motivations with regard to opting for explicating the target text in an attempt to make it more relevant to the young target readers. These motivations are suggested based on the translator's responses to the interview questions concerning her translations for young adults' readers. These include: a. to help in visualizing the scene, b. to avoid the risk of misunderstanding and ambiguity, c. to comply with the assumed norms of the TT readers and language, and finally d. to emphasise pedagogical values. These will be discussed in turn in the following sections.

### **5.2.1 To Help in Visualizing the Scene**

One of the impetuses for the presented explicitation occurrences is believed to be helping the young readers to picture the scene. This is particularly true of explicitation at the ideational level, which is primarily concerned with the content of the utterances. Particularly from the standpoint of facilitating the reading experience for the young readers, the translator tries to assist them not only to comprehend the target text but also to picture the scene in their mind leaving relatively little to their imagination. Evoking imagination is a fundamental objective of children's literature; children are usually encouraged to use their imagination for full comprehension of the text. The author typically accomplishes this by means of telling in more detail when describing a place or an event. The same is also true in young adults' literature; the young reader is also encouraged to use their imagination to access the main character's world and to unconsciously

associate themselves with the main character's adventures. More precisely, the young readers usually put themselves in the position of the main character. Therefore, shifting the point of view of dialogue or the scene to be said or seen by the main character will help the young readers immensely to not only comprehend but visualise what is happening. Visualizing the scene for the young reader is another type of explicitation, which might be called 'pictorial explicitation'. In his paper on translation through visualization, Kussmsaul (2005) said that "In creative translation visualizations lead to shifts, transpositions, modulations etc., in other words, the translation involves changes when compared with the source text, thereby bringing in something that is novel" (Kussmsaul 2005, p.379).

As mentioned earlier, children and young adults' literature relies largely on imagination, which is why when examining explicitation as manifested in young adults' literature we should consider pictorial explicitation. In literature, which is largely constrained by imagination, explicating the scene is as important as explicating the text, and it has an impact on fully comprehending the text. In the text under study, the translator, having the same authority as the original author, often tries to shift the text to make it read through the eyes of the main character who the young reader identifies with. Di (2003, p. 95) believes that this a legitimate and necessary re-creation. When speaking about reproducing the imaginary in the source text, he refers to the fact that "all the lexical, structural and even semantic adjustments are made for the purpose of reproducing that imaginary". Similarly, creation of a new point of view where the event can be seen through the main character's eyes, will help in creating that imaginary "without which the integrity of the text would simply dissolve into the air" (Di, 2003, p. 95).

Another purpose of this could be to create a consistent context for the young reader to be able to use the contextual information required in order to understand the text correctly. Within a relevance theory approach, context "is assumed to be organised, and this organization affects the accessibility of a particular piece of contextual information on a particular occasion" (Gutt 1998, p. 43). Similarly, in translating for children and young adults "as a rule (although not always) children's literature is produced with a special regard to the (supposed) interests, needs, reactions, knowledge and, reading ability and so on of the intended readers" (Klingberg, 1986, p. 11).

Similarly, Stolze (2003, p. 213) refers to the imaginary as the cognitive representation which is induced by the relationship between the text and the reader; and although translated texts may essentially be thought of as transferring information between cultures, this information is only “revived” in the relationship between the reader and the text, which accordingly produces a cognitive representation which allows us to go beyond the text structure. Simply put, knowing the context of young readers, their imaginations, interests and cognitive abilities in particular, the translator will be encouraged or forced to promote their visualization of the scene through some textual adjustments.

Thus, elaborating the state of affairs by shifting the focus to the main character or explicitly describing the scene will help the young readers to picture the scene through the eyes of the main character, which in turn will stimulate their imagination and help them to comprehend the text.

This can be seen in the following examples in which the translator rendered the scene by shifting it to be seen through Mary’s eyes. The young readers here are expected to engage with the main character and see the scene through Mary’s eyes. As such the TT is made more explicit/ relevant to them.

<b>ST:</b>	The place was bare and ugly enough, Mary thought as she stood and stared about her. It might be nicer in summer, when things were green, but there was nothing pretty about it now. Presently an old man with a spade over his shoulder walked through the door leading from the second garden.
<b>TT:</b>	بدا المكان لماري قائماً وقبيحاً وخطر لها وهي واقفه تحديق حولها أنه لربما هو أبهى منظراً في الصيف عندما تخضر الأشياء، وقد يختلف حينذاك عما هو عليه الآن من بشاعة. وبينما هي غارقة في هذه الأفكار دخل رجل عجوز يحمل معولاً على كتفه من الباب المؤدي إلى الحديقة الثانية.
<b>BT:</b>	The place <u>looked</u> bare and ugly <u>to Mary</u> . She thought as she stood and stared about her that it might look nicer in summer when things were green, and then <u>it might be not as ugly as now. While she was engrossed in these thoughts</u> , an old man with a spade over his shoulder walked through the door leading from the second garden.

<b>ST:</b>	And yet <u>here</u> was Matthew Cuthbert, a half-past three on the afternoon of a busy day, placidly driving over the hollow and up the hill.
<b>TT:</b>	مع ذلك <u>ها هي ترى</u> ماثيو كُثبِرت، في الساعة الثالثة والنصف من عصر يوم حافل بالعمل، يقود <u>عربته</u> برباطة جأش مجتازاً الغور نحو التلة.
<b>BT:</b>	And yet <u>she is seeing</u> Matthew Cuthbert, a half-past three on the afternoon of a busy day, placidly driving <u>his carriage</u> over the hollow and up the hill.

### 5.2.2 To Avoid the Risk of Ambiguity and Misunderstanding

Avoiding the risk of ambiguity and misunderstanding can be seen as a partial reason for many explicitation shifts. However, most of the textual explicitations and some of the ideational shifts are believed to be made specifically to avoid risk of misunderstanding. This purpose goes in line with the instructional objectives of translating for children and young adults which are to give the reader text that they can understand. This accordingly necessitates the text to be relevant to its readers. It is also believed to be obliged by the supposed cognitive ability of the young readers and the desire to produce an enjoyable TT. Stolze (2003) states that “Obviously we as adults seem to imagine our children gifted with only a limited capacity to understand texts [...] since those are widely seen to be different from adults in their capacity of understanding a text, perceiving pictures and strange words” (Stolze 2003, p. 209). Thomson (1998) refers to this as translator’s “super addressee” elaborating that for each translator there is a certain child image in their mind which comes with certain qualities, and this image will in turn influence the way the translator addresses their readers. Translators for children as former children tend to combine their own child image and their memories from their own childhood reading experience (Thomson 1998, p. 47).

Perhaps, this explains why translators are often tempted to explicitate the encountered implied meanings. By explicitating the text for the young readers, they attempt to encourage them to read, since ambiguity and misunderstanding will indeed affect their reading interests. In principle, this goes in accordance with relevance theory which presumes that when translating, the translator will persistently try to choose the most relevant contextual effect to help their readers

to arrive at the optimal interpretation. So, in the example below, the translator opted for the addition of 'because', probably assuming that the lack of knowledge among young readers will make this causal relationship ambiguous and they will need some help to effortlessly arrive at the intended meaning;

<b>ST:</b>	She is a very nice little girl, and perhaps she will be a playmate for you when she comes home. She is visiting her aunt over at Carmody just now.
<b>TT:</b>	هي فتاة لطيفة جداً، ومن المحتمل أن تصبح رفيقتك عندما تعود إلى بيتها، لأنها الآن تزور عمته في بلدة كارمودي،
<b>BT:</b>	She is a very nice little girl, and perhaps she will be a playmate for you when she come home, <u>because</u> she is visiting her aunt over at Carmody just now..

As can be noticed, again, in the examples below, assuming that the young readers may not be able to arrive at the intended interpretation of the phrases *the first morning* and *I was up long before him*, the translator has specified the meaning of these utterances for the young readers and provided them with the contextual effects required to immediately arrive at the intended meaning with minimum processing effort, even though this meaning might be understood, with greater processing effort, simply from the context of the novel.

<b>ST:</b>	Martha laughed as she had done the first morning.
<b>TT:</b>	ضحكت مارتا كما فعلت <u>يوم اجتمعا للمرة الأولى</u> .
<b>BT:</b>	Martha laughed as she had done <u>the first time they met</u> .
<b>ST:</b>	"Eh! "he said "I was up long before him"
<b>TT:</b>	إيه.. لقد نهضت <u>قبل طلوع الشمس</u> بوقت طويل.
<b>BT:</b>	Eh! I was up <u>before the sun rose</u> long time.

The following example might also be evidence of avoiding ambiguity where The phrase *but my time*, is rendered explicitly as *لكن لحظة امتحاني* 'but my time of testing' in the TT. Rendering it as *حان وقتي* 'my time has come' or *لحظتي قد حانت* 'my moment has arrived' might contribute to its ambiguity and make it not explicit enough for the young readers to arrive at the intended interpretation.

<b>ST2:</b>	Well, well, we can't get through this world without our share of trouble. I've had a pretty easy life of it so far, <u>but my time</u> has come at last.
<b>TT2:</b>	عجباً، عجباً، ها نحن لا نستطيع مغادرة هذا العالم قبل أن ننال نصيبنا من المتاعب فيه. لقد حظيت بحياة ناعمة حتى الآن، لكن <u>لحظة امتحاني</u> حانت أخيراً.
<b>BT2:</b>	Well, well, we can't get through this world without our share of trouble. I've had a pretty easy life of it so far, but <u>my time of testing</u> has come at last.

### 5.2.3 To Comply with the Assumed Cognitive and Communicative Readers Skills and Target Language preferences

This is another anticipated motivation for explaining the text within the ideational or textual metafunction of the language. Explicitation is often made in order to comply with the cognitive and communicative norms assumed for the target young reader. Nikolajeva (2016, p. 370) indicates that "A translator of children's literature encounters many dilemmas that a children's writer struggles with: taking into consideration historical and cultural context, particular views on childhood and education, and not least the cognitive skills of the implied audience". Similarly, Puurtinen (1994) states that "Special characteristics of the child readers, their comprehension and reading abilities, experience of life and knowledge of the world must be borne in mind so as not to present them with overly difficult, uninteresting books that may alienate them from reading"( Puurtinen 1994, p. 83). These considerations shape the translator's assumptions regarding their readers' skills.

In fact, this motivation might have common characteristics with the previous one which concerns avoiding the risk of ambiguity. However, this one is related more to the translator's assumptions with regard to their readers' comprehension skills and also to the assumed stylistic preferences of the target language. Avoiding the risk of ambiguity, on the other hand, is associated with the ambiguities of the text

itself. In other words, explicitating to comply with the assumed cognitive abilities of the target readers and target language preferences is a subjective substance and is more associated with the stylistic preferences of the translator and their own assumptions with regard to their readers, whereas explicitating to avoid the risk of ambiguity can be more straightforward and predictable to be made by most translators.

Furthermore, although some of the shifts might be motivated by the assumed target language preferences, this does not mean that they are obligatory in term of grammatical rules or that the TT will be ungrammatical if they are not used. Rather, they are added to improve the TT and add to its context some effects to strengthen the assumptions needed to effortlessly arrive at the interpretation. An example of this is the addition of the phrases *من رأسها الى أخمص* 'from head to toe' and *لترعاك* 'to take care of you' respectively in the following extracts, although the surrounding context implies these meanings. The addition of these phrases improves the TT structurally and semantically, by adding some contextual effects needed to interpret the text. As such, the translator ensures that the text will be relevant to the young readers assumed comprehension abilities and also will fulfil the assumed target language preferences.

<b>ST:</b>	She put her hands over her ears and felt sick and shivering.
<b>TT:</b>	سدت أذنيها بيدها وتملكها الغثيان وارتعشت <u>من رأسها الى أخمص قدميها</u> .
<b>BT:</b>	She put her hands over her ears and felt sick and shivering <u>from head to toe</u> .
<b>ST:</b>	An' she says: "Now, Martha, you just think how you'd feel yourself, in a big place like that, wanderin' about alone, an' no mother.
<b>TT:</b>	وقالت لي: حسنا يا مارتا، فكري فقط كيف ستشعرين إذا كنت في مكان كبير كذاك تتجولين فيه وحدك، ولا <u>أم لديك لترعاك</u> .
<b>BT:</b>	And she said: ok Martha, you just think how you'd feel yourself, in a big place like that, wandering' about alone, and no mother <u>to take care of you</u> .

Similarly, here the translator here opts to add *قرية* *village* before Avonlea. to comply with the stylistic preference of the TT language which tends to use classifiers and identifiers.

<b>ST:</b>	Mrs. Rachel Lynde lived just where the Avonlea main road dipped down into the little hollow.
<b>TT1:</b>	كانت السيدة ريتشيل ليند تسكن حيث ينحدر طريق قرية أفونليا الرئيسي نحو الغور الصغير.
<b>BT1:</b>	Mrs. Rachel Lynde lived just where the Avonlea <u>village</u> main road dipped down into the little hollow.

#### 5.2.4 To Emphasize Pedagogical Values

Another motivation for opting for explicitation might be the pedagogical goals of children literature. As mentioned earlier, Klingberg (1986, p.10) believes that there are some special goals for translating children literature. These include the pedagogical goals of producing a TT which is understandable to target readers and which adds to their developing set of values. The first aim, that of “giving the readers a text that they can understand” (Klingberg 1986, p.10) can be seen in the motivations discussed earlier. It is the second one, adding to readers developing set of values, which is touched upon here. The translated texts reveal that the translator seems to be aware of this aim and sometimes opts for explicitation to put emphasis on a pedagogical value by producing a TT with pedagogical-related references which are assumed to be relevant to the TT readers’ context. In the following examples, the translator explicitates the target text by means of specification, which in turn stresses a pedagogical value; so in the examples below, ST ‘good’ becomes either TT *حسنة الخلق* ‘of good manner’ and *مطبعة* ‘obedient’ instead of just merely *جيدة* ‘good’. This might be perceived as evidence for emphasising pedagogical values whenever possible in the target text. The following example also entails specification, emphasizing another pedagogical value, that a child should be told off or punished when he or she does something unacceptable. Thus, the phrase ‘I’ll have to give her a talking to about it’ is rendered as *وسوف تنال نصيبها من التوبيخ* ‘she will be told off about it’ and not just the more literal *سوف أتحدث معها بهذا الشأن*.

ST:	"You'd find it easier to be bad than <u>good</u> if you had read hair" said Ann reproachfully.
TT:	لو كنت مكاني لوجدت أنه من الأسهل لك أن تكوني سيئة على أن تكوني <u>حسنة الخلق</u> ، إذا كنت حمراء الشعر. قالت آن معابته.
BT:	"You'd find it easier to be bad than <u>to be of good manner</u> if you had read hair" said Ann reproachfully.
ST:	"Go to sleep now like a <u>good</u> child, good night"
TT:	"نامي الآن كما ينبغي على بنت <u>مطبعة</u> أن تفعل، تصيحين على خير"
BT:	"Go to sleep now like an <u>obedient</u> child, good night"
ST:	"No", said Marilla slowly, "I'm not trying to excuse her. She's been very naughty, and I'll have to give her a taking to about it". But we must make allowances for her.
TT:	لا قالت ماريلا ببطء، "أنا لا أحاول خلق الأعذار لها. كانت قليلة الأدب، وسوف تنال نصيبها من التوبيخ، ولكن علينا أن نبرر لها تصرفها.
BT:	"No", said Marilla slowly, "I'm not trying to excuse her. She's been very naughty, and <u>she will be told off about it</u> ". But we must make allowances for her.

### 5.3 Summary and discussion of findings

The corpus analysis conducted in Chapter 4 uncovered certain patterns of increasing shifts towards explicitness in the translated texts. Indeed, when the translated texts are compared with their originals, it becomes evident that the Arabic texts are much more explicit. This suggests a stronger tendency to be explicit when translating for young adults and is not attributable to the system or grammar of the target language.

To describe such shifts, a SFG-based approach was employed with some modifications and was found to be both accessible and useful. The shifts were labelled as either ideational, with subcategories of elaboration, enhancing, and expanding, or textual, with subcategories of referential trait shifts and semantic relation shifts.

When comparing the translated texts with their originals, certain patterns were found to be consistently more common. In particular, the translator tended to explicate the state of affairs by shifting the point of view of the narrative. These shifts occurred as an ideational function and were labelled as an elaboration of the state of affairs. Other shifts concern the addition of prepositional phrases and were labelled under enhancement as they were made to explicitly describe to young readers when, where, and how a state of affairs was conducted. They occurred much more frequently than in the original texts. By contrast, shifts under the label of expanding which involved the addition of an adjective were found to occur with slightly less frequency.

At a textual level, the addition of referential traits occurred more frequently in the translated texts than it did in the original. There were also several examples where referential traits were substituted with more explicit ones in the target text. Semantic relations were also made explicit in some examples. This suggests a stronger tendency to make the target text more explicit than its original.

However, evidence based on a random selection of instances of the target text does not constitute an exhaustive analysis of the texts. Indeed, the comparable analysis of the target texts against their originals in Chapter 4 confirmed a more frequent use of the explicitness strategy when translating for young adults. This does not, however, explain why this is the case! . A possible explanation for this seemingly consistent tendency is to make the target texts more relevant for the target readers. The translator could therefore have chosen an explicit rendering of the source text to fulfil the relevance maxim. This maxim holds that human cognition is geared towards the maximisation of relevance, in that the smaller the effort required to process the utterance, the more relevant it becomes. Moreover, the context and 'dual knowledge' of the communicators – translator and target reader in this case – play a significant role in achieving relevance.

Explicitness might therefore be associated with relevance. Relevance, on the other hand, is associated with context. The seemingly optional shifts in explicitness appear to be made to facilitate the processing of utterances. Such facilitation was classified into four categories depending on how this shift affected and functioned in the target text. Thus, when the shift affected imagination and visualisation of the state of affairs, it was attributed to visualisation of the scene. Literature aimed at children and young adults is characterised by evoking the imagination, a motif that is regarded as advantageous in such a genre. The translator seemed to understand this, which might explain the tendency to produce a target text with such specific properties. This will indeed make the target text more relevant and probably more popular among young readers. Such patterns were found to be associated with elaboration and the shifting of point of view of the narrative. In her comments, the translator refers to visualisation as a key factor when translating for children, she declared that “Whenever there is a need to visualise the scene, I definitely try to do it. The motivation for this is to foster the young reader’s imaginative ability by elaboration” (my translation). She also added “young readers often like expressions which touch their feelings, meaning expressions which describe a situation they have experienced or might experience in the future, or expressions which might evoke their imagination, or which describe situations they would like to experience” (my translation).

Other patterns occurred to possibly avoid the risk of ambiguity and comply with the language preferences of the target text as well as readers’ skills and comprehension abilities. This was noted in relation to both ideational and textual levels. Moreover, explicitness is employed to facilitate the reading process, eliminate the effort required, and produce a relevant target text. Such properties are also regarded as advantageous in this genre, as reading with joy is considerably more enjoyable than reading something that is difficult to understand. Moreover, it is commonly believed that children and probably young adults are less capable of understanding and comprehending a text, let alone an implied meaning that has to be inferred from the surrounding context. With regard to this, the translator supposed that “the linguistic and cognitive abilities of the Arab young readers in relation to the Arabic language have deteriorated so much” (my translation). In addition, she believed that “the problem lies in the fact that the spoken Arabic language – colloquial Arabic – is different from the standard

Arabic language. This is not the case in the developed world where the written language is the same as the spoken” (my translation). Such quandaries and suppositions might led her to facilitate the target text by means of explicitation. Speaking about ambiguities she stated that “I try to explicitate the implied meaning, but briefly. This will without doubt positively affect the young readers. There is no point in introducing an ambiguous chunk or phrase and leaving it for the young readers to deal with. They would not enjoy the story and might not finish it” (my translation). She also added that “the aim of translation is not to merely facilitate cultural cross-fertilisation, but also to enrich the linguistic resource of the native language for the young readers” (my translation). Such understanding of what translation is could probably have encouraged her to comply with the target language preferences and to enrich the young readers with various linguistic configurations and preferences.

Emphasising pedagogical values is key in literature aimed at children and young adults. Similarly, when translating for young adults and in certain other consistent patterns, the translator probably made the text explicit because she was motivated to emphasise values and manners. These impetuses, which possibly affect the translator’s choices of translation strategy, comply with the views and objectives of the publishing house, Dar Al-Muna which was established with a focus on introducing Arab children and young adults to international literature and educating them about certain values.

## **5.4 Explicitation Misconceptions Revisited**

This section aims at comparing common perceptions, and particularly misconceptions, with regard to explicitation as a translational phenomenon against the results of the present study. Some of these misconceptions are concerned with the connexion between explicitation and non-professional translators and explicitation being an unfavoured feature of translated texts.

### **5.4.1 Explicitation and Non-professional Translators**

Some of the studies investigating explicitation have found that explicitation occurred more in translations done by non-professional or less-experienced translators or translators (cf. Blum Kulka, 1986; and Dimitrova, 2005). However,

the present study shows different results; the translator who translated the texts used as primary data for the current study has been working in literary translation since 1997, in addition to doing her own translations, she has also edited and reconstructed some bad translations done by other people. When one of the source texts used in this study, *The secret garden*, was translated by another translator Shareef Aljayar with less experience, there were almost zero occurrences of explicitation (see appendixes for comparable examples). This suggests that unlike what is usually perceived explicitation can actually be performed by experienced translators. In fact, some other studies have been conducted to investigate translations made by professional translators and have also showed some evidences of explicitation (cf. Sèguinot 1988 and Saldanha 2008).

#### 5.4.2 Unfavoured Feature of Translated Texts

When investigating explicitation, most previous studies address the phenomenon as a negative feature of translated texts. However, to the best of my knowledge, none of these studies have actually tested the explicated text against, for example, readability, i.e. if a more explicit text is more readable or not. In the case of the text in the current study, although no readability test has been carried out, it seems that the explicated text is read more easily and naturally than a non-explicated text would be. This might be ascribed to the nature of the target language (Arabic), which tolerates addition and explicitation, although none of the explicitation occurrences discussed are of an obligatory nature. The following authentic examples involve the same text translated twice into Arabic. It can be argued that the text rendered with some explicitations is more readable and can be effortlessly processed by young readers. To clarify this, consider the following examples. Note that **TTE** indicates the **TT** rendered with explicitation, while **TT** is the target text rendered as closely as possible to the ST, without explicitation, (see appendixes for comparable examples).

**ST:**

The robin was tremendously busy. He was very much pleased to see gardening begun on his own estate. He had often wondered at Ben Weatherstaff.

<b>TTE:</b>	كان أبو الحن مشغولاً جداً في تلك الأثناء. إذ سر كثيراً لأن العمل في مقاطعته قد بدأ. وغالباً ما تعجب من إهمال بن وذرستاف لها
<b>BTE:</b>	The robin was tremendously busy. He was very much pleased to see gardening begun on his own estate he had often wondered <u>why Ben Weatherstaff had been ignoring it.</u>
<b>TT:</b>	كان أبو الحناء مشغولاً بشكل ملحوظ. كان مسروراً لرؤية دولته بدأت تشملها هذه الرعاية. كان دائماً يعجب من بن وذرستاف.
<b>BT:</b>	The robin was tremendously busy. He was very much pleased to see his own state was included in gardening. He had often wondered at Ben Weatherstaff.
<b>ST:</b>	"Eh! You should see'em all," she said. There's twelve of us an' my father only gets sixteen shilling a week."
<b>TTE:</b>	" إيه! يجب أن ترى <u>أخوتي</u> كلهم،" قالت مارتا، هناك اثنا عشر واحداً منا، ولا يكسب أبي إلا ستة عشر شلناً في الأسبوع.
<b>BTE:</b>	"Eh! You should see all of <u>my siblings</u> " said Martha "There's twelve of us an' my father only gets sixteen shilling a week."
<b>TT:</b>	قالت مارتا: " إيه.. ينبغي عليك أن تشاهدهم جميعاً نحن اثنا عشر، وأبي يتحصل على ستة عشر شلناً في الأسبوع.
<b>BT:</b>	Martha said: "Eh! You should see them all, there's twelve of us an' my father gets sixteen shilling a week."

## 5.5 Summary and Conclusion

This chapter presented some potential triggers behind the explicitation occurrences as manifested in the texts chosen for the current study. Examining the translator's perspectives and assumptions regarding the TT readers' cognitive abilities together with previous literature concerning explicitation

revealed some shared and some possibly new motivations. These motivations include:

- a. To help in visualizing the scene
- b. To avoid the risk of misunderstanding and ambiguity
- c. To comply with the assumed norms of the TT readers and language
- d. To emphasis pedagogical values

The chapter has also presented a brief review of some conceptions regarding explicitation. The purpose is to re-examine these in the light of the current study data. The outcomes have revealed some inconsistencies with regard to these conceptions. So, unlike some previous studies, this study revealed that explicitation can be employed by professional translators, while not necessarily employed by non-professional ones. Explicitation is also found to be produced both consciously and unconsciously, contradicting some previous studies which emphasize the unconsciousness nature of the phenomenon. Explicitation is also found to be a rather favoured strategy particularly when translating for children and young adults.

## **Chapter 6**

### **Conclusion**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This final chapter gives a brief summary of the present study and a concluding assessment of its value for Translation Studies. The chapter briefly explains the reasons behind this study and the approaches which have been adopted, and how the research questions have been answered. It also summarises the main motivations and objectives of the study, and outlines its main findings and contributions and implications, together with its limitations and suggestions for further research.

#### **6.2 Summary of the Research Purposes and Approaches**

The aim behind this piece of research has been mainly to study explicitation as manifested in translated young adult's literature to establish an understanding of why rather than how often translators tend to explicitate the target text. Clearly, the aim has been to determine the motivations behind this strategy and to establish some explanation for explicitation as a translational phenomenon particularly when occurring in translated young adults' literature. As such, unlike most previous studies on explicitation, which emphasise quantitative results of explicitation occurrences in the target text compared to source texts or texts originally written in the TT language. The present study introduced a more in-depth explanation of this phenomenon in the young adults' literature context.

The thesis started with establishing a review of Explicitation Theory and how it has been understood and dealt with in the literature of translation studies. Hence, a large section of the literature review chapter was devoted to analysing Explicitation Theory and its principles as introduced by Blum-Kulka (1986) (cf. Ch. 2, section 3). Some pioneering previous works on explicitation (both computer-based and non-computer-based studies) were closely examined and critically analysed. The purpose was to amply review how this translational phenomenon has been perceived and studied in the translation studies literature, and to pave the way towards the approach adopted in the current study.

The study established that explicitation has been mostly perceived as an inherent feature of translated texts and thus has been investigated using a linguistic/comparative approach focusing on the addition or specifying of some linguistic elements in the TT. Furthermore, Explication Theory has, in most cases, been used as a guidepost to detect manifestations of explicitation without putting emphasis on other factors and impetuses behind these manifestations. Accordingly, manifestations of explicitation have been frequently interpreted by the supposed mechanism of translation universals.

A careful examination of different approaches adopted by different scholars when studying explicitation showed that most of the studies are mainly based on a merely taxonomic approach rather than being built on an established linguistic system (only a few studies adopted SFG such as Abdelfattah 2016). Hence, in order to produce a linguistic classification of explicitation occurrences, it was decided to follow Halliday's SFG approach to linguistically categorise the occurrences of explicitation on the basis of the ideational, textual and interpersonal metafunctions of language in conjunction with the principles of Relevance Theory for interpretation of the results. Hence, the current study has employed two approaches to analyse the manifestations of explicitation in the TT. The first one is of a linguistic nature and mainly used to classify the occurrences of explicitation depending on their functions and the second is a communicative cognitive approach which established the foundations for understanding the occurrences of explicitations as found in the TT.

As established by Sperber & Wilson (1986), the principle of relevance views any act of communication as a search for optimal relevance. Within this theory, the communication process takes place between two parties; the speaker/writer on one hand and listener/reader on the other, i.e. a speaker/writer communicates what they believe to be optimally relevant to their addressee. The speaker/ writer assists the addressee to arrive at the intended meaning by providing communicative clues while the latter makes every effort to attain this intended meaning. Optimal relevance can be said to have been achieved, when the minimum time necessary is spent in communication and mental processing effort. In respect of translation, this process is applied twice, the second application involving a translator as the first party and the target text reader as the second party. Thus, translation is an interpretation of a thought of the translator, which is

an interpretation of the original author's thought. It was Gutt (2000) who first developed this approach to understanding translation, arguing that viewing translation this way will provide a more comprehensive understanding of any act of translation. Nevertheless, less work than had been expected was found in the literature of translation studies on the application of Relevance Theory. Hence, in the present study an attempt has been made to bring to the fore this approach as an explanatory theory to understand why translators tend to explicitate the target text for young adult readers. The assumption, which is supported by the results of the analysis, is that explicitation is not always an unfavoured feature for translated texts; it could rather be considered a successful strategy to render a relevant target text to the target reader.

### **6.3 Research Questions Revisited**

It is important to revisit the research questions raised in the introduction in order to determine how and where each of these questions has been answered.

- 1. In regard to the translations of young adult literature, are there any consistent syntactic-semantic differences between the original English versions and their Arabic translations?**
- 2. If so, to what degree can such differences be attributed to explicitation?**

These two questions were answered by manual examination of the two classic literary translated texts directed at young adult Arab readers with their English original, namely *The Secret Garden* by Frances Hodgson Burnett and *Anne of Green Gables* by Lucy Maud Montgomery. The approach is a contrastive-linguistic one, comparing the ST and TT in terms of linguistic elements. The dissimilarities between the source and target text were measured using syntactic-semantic paradigm, which focuses on the dissimilarities at the form and/or meaning levels. This approach has proved its practicability in identifying the common features of translated text such as shifts. In searching for evidence for explicitation, several textual and linguistic features were taken into consideration to accurately identify the shifts as explicitation shifts. Certain features, such as syntactic upgrades and downgrades were not deemed explicitation occurrences; for more details see Ch.3, section 4.

**3. In which areas of the three metafunctions of language founded on the Systematic Functional Grammar approach can such repeated differences be realised?**

Identifying the explicitation shifts occurring in the TT provoked the need to classify these shifts in such a way as to make them easier to interpret and understand. So, a classificatory framework was needed to be used as a guideline for the process of coding. SFG was the most appropriate model to use (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004), because it offers a comprehensive operational and multi-dimensional perspective on language and has been used for the purpose of identifying different types of explicitation and implicitation shifts in different language pairs such as English and German and English and Arabic (cf. Becher 2011, Abdelfattah 2010, House 2004). Building on other works on the applicability of SFG for Arabic, the shifts were found to fit with two metafunctions: the ideational and textual. Other subcategories were added such as elaborating, enhancing or extending of ideational shifts, adopting Halliday's terminology with some adjustments and modifications, to make them fit with the current study's objectives. The metafunction classification has been found to be appropriate for describing the shifts in term of their functional features. See Ch.3, sections 5 and 6 for details.

**4. Is it possible for relevance theory and its associated principles to offer a logical interpretation of the occurrences of explicitation? in other words, can the manifestations of explicitation be interpreted by or associated with the translator's efforts to generate a relevant TT?**

In order to answer this question, the investigated phenomenon of explicitation has been determined and treated differently from previous studies. The explicitation shifts have been analysed beyond their linguistic functions, and their communicative load has also been considered. Based on Gutt's proposed application of relevance theory to translation studies, the analysis of the shifts has been carried out to investigate the influence of explicitation shifts on the TT as directed at young readers with probably different cognitive and comprehension abilities to those of adults. The answer to this question is 'yes'; relevance theory is found to provide a reasonable interpretation of the explicitation shifts in the light of their communicative purposes as found in young adult's literature. See Ch.4 for details.

- 5. If so, what motivates translators to endeavour to increase the relevance of the TT when doing translations for young adult readers? If relevance theory falls short to interpret the manifestation of explicitation, what else could motivate translators to increase the explicitness of the TT?**

This question has been answered drawing on some information obtained from the translator comments. Relying on translation studies principles, particularly with regard to translating for children, the researcher has determined some possible interpretations of the translator's tendency to explicate the TT in some cases. Although, some of these interpretations might be common when investigating explicitation, others are found to be probably unique and linked to the TT readers, i.e. the young adult readers of Arabic in this case. The TT has been made relevant to its readers throughout explicitation at different levels.

- 6. Are explicitation shifts within translated versions of literature for young adults perceived to be detrimental or negative if examined against the relevance of the TT to the supposed readers?**
- 7. Is explicitation within translated versions of literature for young adults a translation strategy implemented by unskilled translators?**

Like the previous one, these questions were also answered through reflecting on some common conceptions regarding explicitation as a translational phenomenon. Careful examination of one TT and another version of it which is translated by another translator with less experience but with no explicitation revealed that explicitation cannot be always deemed as an unfavoured feature for translated texts, particularly in the case of young adult's texts, where it has probably increased their comprehension of the target text. It is important here to note that this has not been proven, and that experimental research is needed to confirm this claim. For other misconceptions regarding explicitation, see Ch.5.

## **6.4 Summary of the Main Outcomes**

The corpus of the study was chosen based on the finding of texts which are identifiable as young adult's literature in both English and Arabic. These texts are translated semantically as closely as possible to the source text, i.e. no abridging or adaptation has taken place. The translations are both done by the same

translator and are published by Dar Alumna under the category of young adults' literature.

The process of analysing the data was conducted in the following manner. I meticulously read each of the corpus texts numerous times in order to identify all explicating shifts based on syntactic-semantic criteria. The classification of these shifts was as follows: (a) additions, (b) substitutions, according to the kind of operation applied by the translator. Furthermore, the explicitated material was divided into syntactic categories as prepositional phrases, process/verb phrases, adjective phrases, common nouns, pronouns, proper nouns and connective words, where syntactic classification included both functional and formal criteria. Lastly, the classification of shifts was made based on functional criteria as (a) ideational, (b) textual (see Sections 3.5 to 3.7 for the criteria applied). Linguistic analysis was performed on the different types of shifts and then a comparison was made within the translation for the purpose of determining instances of explicitation within the text and why it was used. As a result of the analysis, various factors emerged that can be presumed to be explicitation triggers in translation (the factors are summarised in Chapter 5).

In the analysis of explicitation, it is necessary to make various subjective decisions that can be significantly influential on the outcomes of the research. These decisions are related to the choice of analysed data, the process utilised in the identification and classification of examples of explicitation, as well as the phenomena that are not included in the analysis, among others. It is preferable that the transparency of these decisions is ensured where possible (see Chapter 3 section 3.9 to 3.11).

The current research has examined the English-Arabic translations of fictional works targeted at young adults (a genre that mostly has distinctive characteristics that differentiate it from different genres). For instance, when translating young adult novels, translators do not significantly deviate from the original text, which renders them particularly conducive to research into explicitation. Nevertheless, the translation of texts in this genre could involve different factors that should be taken into account including pedagogical purposes and dual readers.

Furthermore, the present study has argued that explicitation should not be considered merely an inherent and unfavoured feature of translated texts. Rather it is a strategy opted for by translators on the basis of their desire to render a relevant text for their readership. Explicitation is thus a result of an ongoing search for the principle of relevance. This can be attained, as has been argued in our analysis, by returning to childhood memories and reading experience. It is their endless search for relevance which determines the translator's choices of the most appropriate ways to render the implied meaning for young readers.

The present study has also argued that some other preconceptions about explicitation such as the tendency of less experienced translators to explicate target texts are not always correct. In fact, experienced translators might explicitate the target text to make it more relevant to their assumed readers specially when translating for young readers and they might opt for this consciously.

## **6.5 Contributions and Implications of the Research**

The present study was based on some theoretical perceptions with regard to explicitation as a translation universal as argued in a number of studies done by translator scholars. The originality of the present study lies in the fact that it attempts to reconsider these views in order to achieve better understanding of explicitation as manifested in young adult's literature, and particularly to understand *where* in the text and *why* translators might choose to explicitate when translating for Arab young readers. Up to the time of completion of this study, no similar study was available. What this study has revealed is that, in most cases, explication has been studied quantitatively, without profound analysis of the phenomenon, especially in the context of young adults' literature. This fact, as this study reveals, is not identified in the current translation studies literature.

The study of explicitation within the context of young adult's literature is hoped to contribute to a better understanding of what is relevant to young adult's cognitive and comprehension abilities. These implications should be of interest to translators and publishers in the recently growing field of young adult's literature in the Arab world.

## 6.6 Limitations and Constraints on the Research

The present study represents an initial attempt to understand the reasons behind explicating the TT when translating for young adults, on the basis of the principles of relevance theory. The results of the study complement previous research results regarding where in the text the manifestations of explicitation might occur (House 2004, Becher 2011 and Saldanha 2008). The study, however, extends these previous studies by answering the question why translators tend to explicitate through the inclusion of relevance theory to provide possible explanations for this tendency. The integration of the two approaches of SFG and Relevance Theory to understand how meaning is constructed and understood offers some significant results. However, given the design of the study and its main objective, which focuses on finding the reasons for the manifestations of explicitation particularly in translated classic young adults' literature, there exist some limitations.

First, when considering classic young adults' literature translated into Arabic, we talk about a very recent domain in the literature. Up to the date of completion of this thesis, only one publisher Dar-AL-Muna has focused on publishing translations for Arabic young adult readers, classifying its translations under specific age-groups for children and young adults. Furthermore, most English young adults' classics are translated for children using strategies such as abridging and shortening which make it difficult to find complete texts. This difficulty of data collection has added to the limitations of the results of the research, making it necessary to rely on only one case, one translator and two Arabic versions of two English classics. This makes it necessary to be cautious in generalising or extending the results of this research.

Another limitation of the present study is methodological. As previously stated in chapter 3, explicitation is a very controversial and complicated translational phenomenon. As such, recognizing occurrences of explicitation has involved subjective evaluation. The results of the analyses have enabled me to determine some significant facts regarding explicitation. However, again, these results are restricted to the case study of this research. Furthermore, when we consider the study of explicitation, the other side of the coin, implicitation, should be also borne

in mind. However, due to time and data limitations, the current study did not put emphasis on implicitation.

Another methodological limitation is concerned with the fact that detecting the occurrences of explicitations was a time-consuming task, as much of the comparison was done manually. Although the main objective of the current study is qualitative, this further explains why the current study did not present any significant statistical results.

## **6.7 Recommendations for Further Research**

Further research is certainly necessary to establish more general results and perhaps a more accurate understanding of the motivations behind the tendency to use explicitation. In the light of the present study, it is also promising to think of other areas where further investigations are possible and might contribute to the field of translation. What springs to mind here is more focused attention on the impact of explication on readability, i.e. whether more explicit text means more readable text in the case of young readers. It is, in addition, possible to examine whether explicitating the literature for young readers would make reading more enjoyable or not. It is hoped that the findings reached in the present study will contribute towards a better understanding of the nature of explication when manifested in young adults' literature and prompt other possible areas of investigation.

## List of References

- Abdel-Hafiz, Ahmed-Sokarno. 2004. *Lexical Cohesion in the Translated Novels of Naguib Mahfouz: The Evidence from The Thief and the Dogs* [online]. [accessed 1 June] available from: [https://www.academia.edu/5969810/Lexical\\_Cohesion\\_in\\_the\\_Translated\\_Novels\\_of\\_Naguib\\_Mahfouz](https://www.academia.edu/5969810/Lexical_Cohesion_in_the_Translated_Novels_of_Naguib_Mahfouz)
- AbdelFattah, A., 2016. An Explication "Syndrome": A Corpus-based Investigation of Explicating Shifts in the Translation of the Concessive Conjunction "Although/Though." *Arab World English Journal*. [online]. (5), pp.195–215. [accessed 1 June 2018] available from: [https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\\_id=2795880](https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2795880)
- Al-Batal, M. 1990. Connectives as Cohesive Elements in a Modern Expository Arabic Text. In: Eid, M. & McCarthy, J. eds. *Perspectives on Arabic Linguistics: Papers from the Annual Symposium on Arabic Linguistics. Volume II: Salt Lake City, Utah 1988*. [online]. John Benjamins Publishing. pp.2 34-268 [accessed 25 February 2018]. Available from: [https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=uU1AAAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover&source=gbs\\_ge\\_summary\\_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false](https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=uU1AAAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false)
- Al-Dabbagh, U. 2008. The "Explication Hypothesis" and Non-professional Translators: A Case Study. *International Journal of Arabic-English Studies*. **9**, pp.85–106.
- Al-Ebadi, A. 2016. Systemic Functional Analysis of English and Arabic: A Contrastive Study. *Alustath Journal*. [online] pp. 193-214. [accessed 12 March 2017]. Available at: <http://www.alustathiq.com/LionImages/News/C1-E-17.pdf>.
- Al-Khafaji, R. 2005. Variation and Recurrence in the Lexical Chains of Arabic and English. *Poznan Studies in Contemporary Linguistics (PSiCL)*, **40**, pp. 5–25
- Al-Khafaji, R., 2006. In search of translational norms: The case of shifts in lexical repetition in Arabic. *Babel*, **52**(1), pp.39–65.
- Alasmri, I & Kruger, H. 2018: Conjunctive markers in translation from English to Arabic: a corpus-based study, *Perspectives*. [online] **0** (0) .P. 1-22 DOI: 10.1080/0907676X.2018.1425463 [ accessed 27 February 2018] available from: <https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2018.1425463>
- Alasmri, I. & Kruger, H., 2018. Conjunctive markers in translation from English to Arabic: a corpus-based study. *Perspectives*, **26**(5), pp.1–22.
- Alkohlani, F.A., 2015. The Arabic Sentence: Towards a clear view. *E-Journal of Arabic and Islamic Civilization*, **2**, pp.28–37.
- Alós, J., 2016. Discourse relation recognition in translation: a relevance-theory perspective. *Perspectives: Studies in Translatology*. **24**(2), pp.201–217.

- Alvstad, C. 2010. Children's literature and translation. In: GAMBIER, Y. & Doorslaer, L. ed(s) *Handbook of translation studies*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins. pp7-22
- Alwazna, R. Y. 2017 Pragmatic Aspect of Translation: The Interpretation-Based Inference and Its Implications for Translation. *Arab World English Journal for Translation & Literary Studies*, 1(4), pp. 39–51.
- Aziz, Yowell Y., 1993. Explicit and implicit reference in Arabic-English translation. *Babel*, 39(3), pp.129-150.
- Baker, M. & Saldanha, G. (eds) 2009. *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Baker, M. 1993. Corpus Linguistics and Translation Studies: Implications and Applications. In: Baker, M., Francis, G. & Tognini-Bonelli, E. eds. *Text and Technology: In Honour of John Sinclair*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp. 233–250.
- Baker, M. 1996. Corpus-based Translation Studies: The Challenges That Lie Ahead. In: H. Somers. ed. *Terminology, LSP and Translation*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp.175-86.
- Baker, M. 1999. The Role of Corpora in Investigating the linguistic Behaviour of Professional Translators. *International Journal of corpus linguistics*. 4(2):281-98.
- Baker, M. 2011. *In Other Words: A Coursebook on Translation*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London and New York: Routledge.
- Baker, M., & Olohan, M., 2000. Reporting that in translated English: Evidence for subconscious processes of explicitation. *Across Languages and Cultures*.1(2), pp. 141-158.
- Bardi, M.A., 2008. *A Systemic Functional Description Of The Grammar Of Arabic*. Ph.D. thesis. Macquarie University.
- Baumgarten, N., Meyer, B. & Özçetin, D. 2008. Explicitness in Translation and Interpreting. A Review and Some Empirical Evidence (of an Elusive Concept). *Across Languages and Cul- tures*. 9(2), pp. 177–203.
- Becher, V., 2010. Towards a More Rigorous Treatment of the Explicitation Hypothesis in Translation Studies. *Trans-Kom 3*, 3(1), pp.1–25.
- Becher, V., 2011. *Explicitation and implicitation in translation. A corpus-based study of English-German and German-English translations of business texts*. Ph.D. thesis. University of Hamburg.
- Becher, V. 2010. Abandoning the notion of “translation-inherent” explicitation: Against a dogma of translation studies. *Across Languages and Cultures*. [online].

11(1), pp.1–28. [Accessed October 31, 2016]. Available from: <http://www.akademai.com/doi/abs/10.1556/Acr.11.2010.1.1>.

Berman, R. 1978. Postponing Lexical Repetition and the Like – A Study in Contrastive stylistics. *Balshanut Shimushit*. 1(2), pp 3-26.

Blakemore, D. 1987. *Semantic Constrains on Relevance*. Oxford: Blakwell.

Blakemore, D. 2002. *Relevance and Linguistic meaning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bloor, T. & Bloor, M., 2013. *The Functional Analysis of English A Hallidayan Approach* 3rd ed. Oxson: Routledge.

Blum-Kulka, S. 1986. Shifts of Cohesion and Coherence in Translation. In: House, J. & Blum- Kulka, S. eds. *Interlingual and Intercultural Communication*. Tübingen: Narr, pp.17–35

Blum-Kulka, S. 1986. Shifts of cohesion and coherence in translation. In: L. Venuti 2000 ed. *The translation studies reader*. London & New York: Routledge. pp. 298-313

Bosseaux, C. 2004. Translating point of view: A corpus-based study. *Language Matters*. 35(1), pp. 259-274.

Bosseaux, C. 2007. *How does it feel? Point of view in translation: the case of Virginia Woolf's into French*. Amsterdam. Rodopi.

Butt, D., R. Fahey, S. Feez, S. Spinks and C. Yallop. 2000. *Using Functional Grammar: An Exploration's Guide*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research: Macquarie University

Carg, H. 2014. Introduction . in Carg, H. *The critical merits of young adults literature*. New York. Routledge. Pp. 1-25.

Chen, W. 2008 Investigating explicitation of conjunctions in translated Chinese: A corpus-based study. *Language Matters* [online]. 35(1), pp. 295-312 [ accessed 10 June 2018] available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10228190408566218>

Chesterman, A. 2009. The name and nature of Translator Studies. *Hermes*, 42, pp.13– 22.

Chesterman, A. 1997. *Memes of Translation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Chesterman, A. 2004, Hypotheses about Translation Universals. In: Hnsen, G., Malmkjær, K. & Gile, D. eds. *Claims, Changes and Challenges in Translation Studies*. Amesterdam: John Benjamins, pp.1-13.

Chesterman, A. 2004. Beyond the particular. In: Anna Mauranen and Pekka Kujamäki, eds. *Translation Universals. Do they exist?*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp. 33-49.

- Clifford, E. Landers. 2001. *Literary Translation: a practice guide*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Crystal, D. 1991. *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Crystal, D., 2008. *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics* 6<sup>th</sup> ed. Oxford: Blackwell
- Davidson, D.1986. A Nice Derangement of Epitaphs. In: Ernest, L(ed). *Truth and interpretation: perspectives on Philosophy of Donald Davidson*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell, pp. 46-433.
- Desmet, M.K.T 2007 *Babysitting the Reader: Translating English Narrative Fiction for Girls into Dutch (1946–1995)*. Bern: Peter Lang.
- Di J. 2003. *Literary Translation*. Manchester: St. Jerome.
- Dickins J. et al. 2017. *Thinking Arabic translation. A course in translation method: Arabic to Englis*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Oxon: Routledge.
- El-Nasser, M., 2016. Explication Techniques in English-Arabic Translation: A Linguistic Corpus-based Study. *Arab World English Journal*. 7(3). pp.317–335.
- Englund Dimitrova, B., 2005. *Expertise and explicitation in the translation process*. [online]. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins. [Accessed 31 October 2016] Available from: [https://books.google.co.uk/books?hl=en&lr=&id=Zbc5AAAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PR1&dq=explication+in+translation&ots=dKsroEbMFJ&sig=dqng45wgYaeUAopOygwCOUaevZc#v=onepage&q=explication in translation&f=false](https://books.google.co.uk/books?hl=en&lr=&id=Zbc5AAAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PR1&dq=explication+in+translation&ots=dKsroEbMFJ&sig=dqng45wgYaeUAopOygwCOUaevZc#v=onepage&q=explication%20in%20translation&f=false)
- Fernandes, L. P.2004. *Brazilian practices of translating names in children's fantasy literature: A Corpus-based study*. Ph.D. thesis, PGI/UFSC.
- Fillmore, C. J., 1977. Scenes-and-frames-semantics. In: Zampolli, A., ed. *Linguistic Structures Processing*. Amsterdam: New Holland, pp. 55-81.
- Fontaine, L. 2013. *Analysing English Grammar: A Systemic Functional Introduction*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Grices, P. 1975 Logic and conversation. In P. Cole and J.L. Morgan (eds), *Syntax and Semantics*, 3: Speech Acts. New York: academic Press, pp. 41-58.
- Gutt, E. 1998. Pragmatic aspects of translation: Some relevance-theory observations. In L. Hickey, ed. *The pragmatics of translation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd. pp. 41-53
- Gutt, Ernst-August. 1991. *Translation and Relevance. Cognition and Context*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Gutt, Ernst-August. 2000. *Translation and Relevance. Cognition and Context* . Manchester: St.Jerome.

Halliday, M. A.K. & Matthiessen, M. 2014. *Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar* 4<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Routledge.

Halliday, M.A.K. & Christian M.I.M. Matthiessen, 1999 *Construing experience through meaning : a language-based approach to cognition*, London, New York : Cassell. Reviewed by John F. Sowa in *Computational Linguistics* 27(1) pp. 140-42.

Halliday, M.A.K. & Hassan R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Halliday, M.A.K. 1994. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. Sydney: Edward Arnold Ltd.

Halliday, M.A.K. 2007. *Language and Education*. Jonathan, J. Webster. Ed. London: Continuum.

Hansen-Schirra, S., Neumann, S. & Steiner, E., 2007. Cohesive explicitness and explicitation in an English-German translation corpus. *Languages in Contrast*. [online]. 7(2), pp.241–265. Available from: <http://content.ebscohost.com.ezproxy.tlu.ee/ContentServer.asp?T=P&P=AN&K=27755606&S=R&D=ufh&EbscoContent=dGJyMNHr7ESeqLM40dVuOLCmr0me p7BSr664TK6WxWXS&ContentCustomer=dGJyMPGrr0y1q69QuePfgeyx44Dn6 QAA\http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=u>

Hatim, B. and Mason, I. 1997. *The translator as communicator*. Oxon: Routledge.

Hatim, Basil, Mason, I, 1990. *Discourse and the Translator*. London/New York: Longman.

Hobbs, J. 1978. *Why is discourse coherent?*. Technical note 176, SRI Project 5844, 7510 and 7910/.

Holes, C. 1995. *Modern Arabic: Structures, functions and varieties*. London: Longman.

House, J. 2004. Explicitness in Discourse across Languages. In: J. House, W. Koller, K. Schubert eds. *Neue Perspektiven der Übersetzungs- und Dolmetschwissenschaft. Festschrift für Heidrun Gerzymisch-Arbogast zum 60. Geburtstag*. Bochum: AKSVerlag. pp.185-207.

Jakobson, R. 1959/2012. On linguistic aspects of translation. In: Venuti, L. Ed., *The Translation Studies Reader*. 3rd ed. London/New York: Routledge, pp. 126—131

- Jobe, R. 2004. Translating for children-practice In: Hunt, P. ed. *International companion encyclopedia of children's literature*, Vol 1. 2<sup>nd</sup>. New York: Routledge. pp. 912-927
- Kamenická, R., 2007. Defining explicitation in translation. *Sborník prací Filozofické fakulty Brněnské univerzity, Řada anglistická: Brno Studies in English*. [online] **33**, pp.45–57. [ accessed 12 December 2016]. Available at: <http://www.muni.cz/research/publications/763642>.
- Kamenická, R., 2008. Explication Profile and Translator Style. *Translation research projects*, **1**, pp.117–130.
- Kaniklidou, T. & House, J., 2017. Discourse and ideology in translated children's literature: a comparative study. *Perspectives, Studies in Translatology*. [online] **26**(2). PP.232-245. [ accessed 12 March 2018]. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2017.1359324>
- Klaudy, K. & Karoly, K., 2005. Implication in Translation: Empirical evidence for operational asymmetry in translation. *Across Languages and Cultures*. [online] **6**(1), pp.13–28. [accessed 20 January 2017]. Available at: [http://leeds.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwtV3Nb9MwFLfKuHBBfLMBkk\\_jMGXEdpwmCA4FDYHWU-mQOFIO7EiVkrRqugP76\\_f8ESddOYwDOUSWZVtJ3s\\_P7728D4QYPY-jOzyhpKTgRVyC-qCmlDEpC13IKinSSgLCbRD8PFI-SRa\\_-Gly6QMh77\\_SnjoA9KbQNp\\_IH5YFDqgDRCAO4AA7veCwQ\\_rMe4Tc](http://leeds.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwtV3Nb9MwFLfKuHBBfLMBkk_jMGXEdpwmCA4FDYHWU-mQOFIO7EiVkrRqugP76_f8ESddOYwDOUSWZVtJ3s_P7728D4QYPY-jOzyhpKTgRVyC-qCmlDEpC13IKinSSgLCbRD8PFI-SRa_-Gly6QMh77_SnjoA9KbQNp_IH5YFDqgDRCAO4AA7veCwQ_rMe4Tc).
- Klaudy, K. 2001. The Asymmetry Hypothesis. Testing the Asymmetric Relationship between Ex- plicitations and Implications. Paper presented at the Third International Congress of the European Society for Translation Studies, "Claims, Changes and Challenges in Translation Studies", 30 August–1 September 2001, Copenhagen.
- Klaudy, K. 2003. *Languages in Translation. Lectures on the Theory, Teaching and Practice of Translation. With Illustrations in English, French, German, Russian and Hungarian*. Budapest: Scholastica.
- Klaudy, K. 2009. Explication, Baker, M. and Saldanha, G. eds. *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*. 4<sup>th</sup> . London and New York: Routledge, pp. 104-108.
- Klingberge, G. 1986. *Children's Fiction in the Hands of the Translation*. Sweden: CWK Gleerup.
- Kohlani, F.A. Al, 2010. *The function of discourse markers in Arabic newspaper opinion articles*. Ph.D. thesis. Georgetown University. [accessed 15 April 2017]. Available from: <https://repository.library.georgetown.edu/bitstream/handle/10822/552822/alfatima.pdf?sequence=1>.

Konšalová, P. 2007. Explicitation as a Universal in Syntactic De/Condensation. *Across Languages and Cultures*. **8**(1). pp. 17-32.

Krüger, R., 2014. From S-explicitation to T-explicitation? Tracing the development of the explicitation concept. *Across Languages and Cultures*. [online] **15**(2), pp.153–175. [ accessed 24 March 2017]. Available at: <http://www.akademai.com/doi/abs/10.1556/Acr.15.2014.2.1>

Kussmaul, P. 2005. Translation through Visualization. *Meta*, **50** (2).pp. 378–391.

Lathey, G. 2009. Children's literature. In: Baker, M. & Saldanha, G. ed(s). *Routledge encyclopedia of Translation Studies*. London: Routledge. pp. 3-31

Larson, M.L. 1998. *Meaning-based Translation* 2<sup>nd</sup>. Oxford: University Press of America.

Laviosa, S. 2009. Universals. In: Baker, M. and Saldanha, G. eds. *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Translation Studies*. 4<sup>th</sup>. London and New York: Routledge, pp. 306-310.

Laviosa, S., 2002. *Corpus-based Translation Studies: Theory, findings, applications*, Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Laviosa, S. 2011. Corpus-based translation Studies: Where does it come from? Where is it going?. In: Kruger, A., Wallmach, K. and Munday, J. eds. *Corpus-based translation studies, Research and applications*. London: Bloomsbury. pp.13-32.

Lefevere, A. 1992. *Translation, Rewriting, and the Manipulation of Literary Fame*. London: Routledge.

Levenston, E. 1976. Towards a Comparative Stylistic in English and Hebrew. *English Teacher's Journal ( Israel)* **15**, pp. 16-22.

Levinson, S. C. 1983. *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Li, F., 2015. Influence of Translator's Subjectivity in Two Chinese Translated Versions of The Secret Garden. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*. [online] **5**(7), pp.1508–1512. [ accessed 24 March 2018]. Available from: <http://www.academypublication.com/ojs/index.php/tpls/article/viewFile/tpls050715081512/317>

Machali, R. 2012. Gricean Maxims As an Analytical Tool in Translation Studies: Questions of Adequacy. *TEFLIN Journal* **23** (1). Pp. 77-90

Malmkjear, K. 1993. Underpinning translation theory. *Target*. **5**(2), PP 133-148

Malmkjear, K. 2005. *Linguistics and The Language of Translation*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

- Mansour, A., Al-Sowaidi, B. & Mohammed, T.A.S., 2014. Investigating Explicitation in Literary Translation from English into Arabic. *International Journal of Linguistics and Communication*. [online] 2(3), pp.97–125. [ accessed 20 March 2017]. Available at: <http://ijlcnet.com/vol-2-no-3-september-2014-abstract-5-ijlc>.
- Matthiessen, M.I.M, Caffarel, A. & Martin, J.R., 2004. *Language typology, afunctional perspective*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Munday, J. 2001. *Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and Applications*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Munday, J. 2002. Systems in Translation: A Systemic Model for Descriptive Translation Studies. In: T. Hermans, ed. *Crosscultural Transgressions: Research Models in Translation Studies II: Historical and Ideological Issues*. Manchester and Northampton: St. Jerome Publishing, pp. 76-92.
- Murtisari, E.T., 2016. Explicitation in translation studies: The journey of an elusive concept. *Translation and Interpreting*, 8(2), pp.64–81.
- Newmark, P. 1981. *Approaches to Translation*. Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd.
- Newmark, P. 1991. *About Translation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Newmark, P. 1993. *Paragraphs on Translation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Nida, E. & Taber, C. 1969. *The theory and practice of translation*. Leiden: E. J. Brill.
- Nida, E. 1964. *Toward a science of translating: With special reference to principles and procedures involved in Bible translating*. Leiden: E.J. Brill.
- Nikolajeva, M. 2016. Translating children's literature. *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*. 10(3), pp. 369–372.
- Nord, C. 1997. *Translating as A purposeful Activity*. London: Routledge.
- Nord, C. 1988. *Text Analysis in Translation. Theory, Methodology, and Didactic Applications of a Model for Translation-Oriented Text Analysis*. Amsterdam: Rodopi,
- Oittinen, R. 2000. *Translating for Children*. New York: Garland Publishing.
- Olohan, M. 2008. Leave it out! Using a comparable corpus to investigate aspects of explicitation in translation. *Cadernos de Tradução*. [online] pp.153–169. [ accessed 24 May 2017]. Available from: <http://150.162.1.115/index.php/traducao/article/download/5984/5688>.
- Olohan, M., 2001. Spelling out the optionals in translation: a corpus study. *UCREL Technical Papers*, 13. pp. 423–432.

- O'sullivan, E. 2013. Children's literature and Translation studies. In: Millan.C.& Bartrina.F.ed(s). *The Routledge handbook of Translation Studies*. Routledge. Oxon: Routledge, pp.451-463.
- Øverås, L., 1998. In Search of the Third Code: An Investigation of Norms in Literary Translation. *Meta*, **43**(4), pp. 557–570.
- Pápai, V. 2004. Explicitation: A universal of translation text. In A. Mauranen & P. Kujamäki (Eds), *Translation universals: Do they exist?*. pp.143-64. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Pattemore, B.S., 2011. On the Relevance of Translation Theory. *Review and Expositor*. **108**(2) pp. 263–278.
- Puurtinen, T. 1989. Syntax, Readability and Ideology in children's literature . *Meta: Translators' Journal*, **43**(4), pp. 524–533.
- Puurtinen, T. 1994 Dynamic Style as a Parameter of Acceptability in Translated Children's Books. In: Snell-Hornby M. *Translation Studies. An Interdiscipline*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 83-90
- Puurtinen, T. 1998. Nonfinite constructions in Finnish children's literature: Features of translationese contradicting translation universals? In: Granger, S. Lerot, J. and Petch-Tyson, S. eds. *Corpus-based approaches to contrastive Linguistics and Translation Studies*. Amsterdam. Rodopi: pp. 141-154.
- Puurtinen, T. 2004. Explicitation of clausal relations: A corpus-based analysis of clause. Connectives in translated and non-translated Finnish children's literature. In: A. Mauranen & P. Kujamäki (Eds), *Translation universals: Do they exist?*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp.165-76
- Puurtinen, T.1997. Syntactic Norms in Finnish Children's Literature. *Target*. **9** (2), pp. 321-334.
- Pym, A. 2005. [forthcoming]. Explaining Explicitation. *New Trends in Translation Studies: In Honour of Kinga Klaudy*. [online]. pp. 29–43. [accessed 17 December 2016] Available from: [http://usuaris.tinet.cat/apym/online/translation/explicitation\\_web.pdf](http://usuaris.tinet.cat/apym/online/translation/explicitation_web.pdf).
- Pym, A. 2014. *Exploring translation theories*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Oxon: Routledge.
- Queiroga, M. G. De, Federal, U. and Catarina, D. S. 2016 *TRANSLATION OF CHILDREN ' S LITERATURE* .Universidade Federal de Campina Grande, *SciELO Analytics*, **36**(1), pp. 62–78.
- Quine, W. 1960. *Words and Object*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

Risku, H. (2012). Cognitive Approaches to Translation. In: *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*, C. A. Chapelle (Ed.). doi:[10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0145](https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0145)

Rouchota, V. 1998. Connectives, Coherence and Relevance. In: Rouchota, V. & Jucker, A.H. eds. *Current Issues in Relevance Theory*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 11-57.

Ryding, K. 2005. *A Reference Grammar of Modern Standard Arabic*. Cambridge: Cambridge university press.

Saldanha, G. & O'Brien S. 2014. *Research Methodologies in Translation studies*. London: Routledge.

Saldanha, G., 2008. Explicitation Revisited : Bringing the Reader into the Picture. *English*. [online]. 1(1), pp.20–35. [accessed 8 December 2016]. Available from: [http://www.trans-kom.eu/bd01nr01/trans-kom\\_01\\_01\\_03\\_Saldanha\\_Explicitation.20080707.pdf](http://www.trans-kom.eu/bd01nr01/trans-kom_01_01_03_Saldanha_Explicitation.20080707.pdf)

Séguinot, C., 1988. Pragmatics and the Explicitation Hypothesis. *TTR: traduction, terminologie, rédaction* [online]. 1(2), pp.106–113. [accessed 29 May 2018] Available from: <https://www.erudit.org/fr/revues/ttr/1988-v1-n2-ttr1469/037024ar/>

Shuttleworth, M. and Moira C. 1997. *Dictionary of Translation Studies*. Manchester: St. Jerome.

Snell-Hornby, M. 2006. *The Turns of Translation studies*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins

Sperber, D. and Wilson, D. 1986. *Relevance, Communication and cognition*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Sperber, D. and Wilson, D. 1993. Linguistic form and relevance. *Lingua* 90, pp.1-25.

Sperber, D. and Wilson, D. 2008. A Deflationary Account of Metaphors. In R. Gibbs (ed.) 2008. *The Cambridge Handbook of Metaphor and Thought*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 84-105.

Steiner, E. 2005. 'Explicitation, its lexicogrammatical realization, and its determining (independent) variables – towards an empirical and corpus-based methodology'. SPRIKreports (Reports of the project Languages in Contrast). Available from: [https://www.hf.uio.no/ilos/forskning/prosjekter/sprik/pdf/Report\\_36\\_ESteiner.pdf](https://www.hf.uio.no/ilos/forskning/prosjekter/sprik/pdf/Report_36_ESteiner.pdf)

Stine, P. C. 2004. Dynamic Equivalence Reconsidered. *The Translator*, 10(1) pp. 129-135.

Stolze, R., 2003. Translating for Children – World View or Pedagogics? *Meta: Journal des traducteurs*, [online]. 48(1–2), p.208. [accessed 6 March 2018].

Available from: <https://www.erudit.org/fr/revues/meta/2003-v48-n1-2-meta550/006968ar/>

Tabbert, R. 2002. Approaches to the translation of children's literature: A review of critical studies since 1960. *Target*. 14(2), pp. 303-351

Tanskanen, S., 2006. *Collaborating Towards coherence*. Amsterdam. John Benjamins.

Thompson, G. 2004. *Introducing Functional Grammar*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Arnold.

Thompson, G. 2009. Systemic Functional Grammar. In: Chapman, S. and Routledge, C. eds. *Key Ideas in Linguistics and the Philosophy of Language*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press. pp. 225-231.

Thompson, G. 2014. *Introducing Functional Grammar*, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Oxon: Routledge.

Thomson-Wohlgemuth, G.1998. *Children's Literature and its Translation. An Overview*. MA dissertation, University of Surrey

Toury, G., 2012. *Descriptive Translation Studies and beyond: Revised edition*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.

Toury, G., 2012. The nature and role of norms in translation. In Venuti, L., ed. *The translation reader*. Oxon: Routledge, pp.169-181.

Townsend, J.R. 1980. Standards of Criticism for Children's Literature. In: Chambers, N. ed. *The Signal Approach to Children's Books*. London: Kestrel Books. pp. 193-197

Vinay, J., & Darbelnet, Jean. 1995. *Comparative stylistics of French and English: A methodology for translation*. (J.C. Sager & M.-J. Hamel, Trans). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins. (Original work published in 1958).

Weissbrod, R. 1992. Explicitation in translations of prose-fictions from English to Hebrew as a function of norms. *Multilingua*, 11(2). pp.153-71.

Wharton, T. 2009. *Pragmatics and Non-Verbal Communication*. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

Wilss, W. 1982. *The science of Translation, Problems and methods*. Tübingen: Narr.

Yan, L.I., 2012. On the Translator's Subjectivity – From the Perspective of Gadamer's Philosophical Hermeneutics. *Higher Education of Social Science*, [online]. 3(2), pp.21–26. [accessed 6 March 2018] Available from:

<http://www.cscanada.net/index.php/hess/article/view/j.hess.1927024020120302.1921>

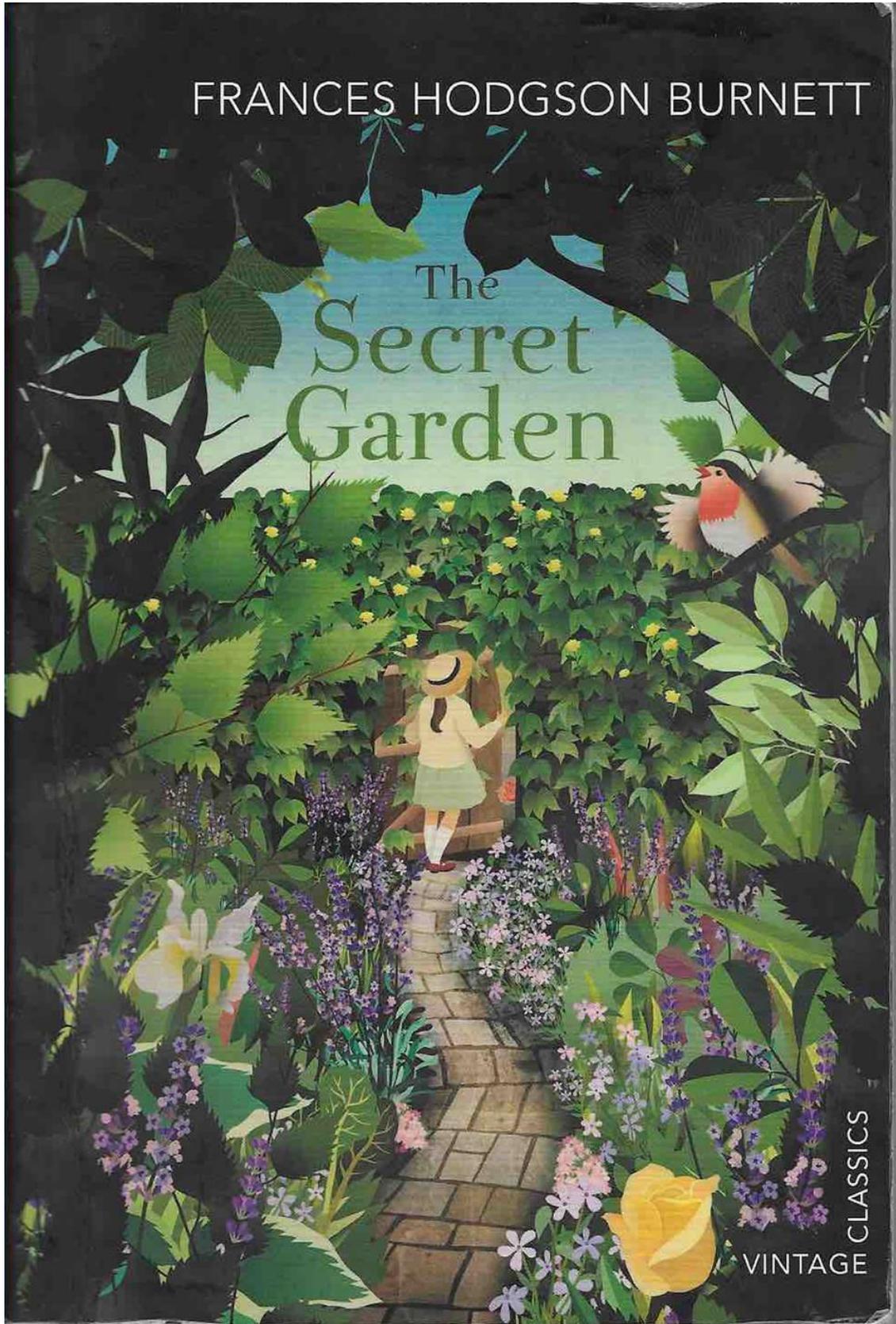
Yus, F. 2012. Relevance, humour and translation. In: Walaszewska, E., Piskorska, A. Eds. *Relevance Theory: More Than Understanding*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, pp. 117--145

Zasiekin, S. 2016. Understanding translation universals. *Babel*. **62**(1), pp.122–134.

Zhao, Y. & Jiang, Y., 2013. C-E Translation of Children's Literature from the Perspective of Relevance Theory. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, **3**(6), pp. 944–949. Available at: <http://www.academypublication.com/issues/past/tpls/vol03/06/11.pdf>.

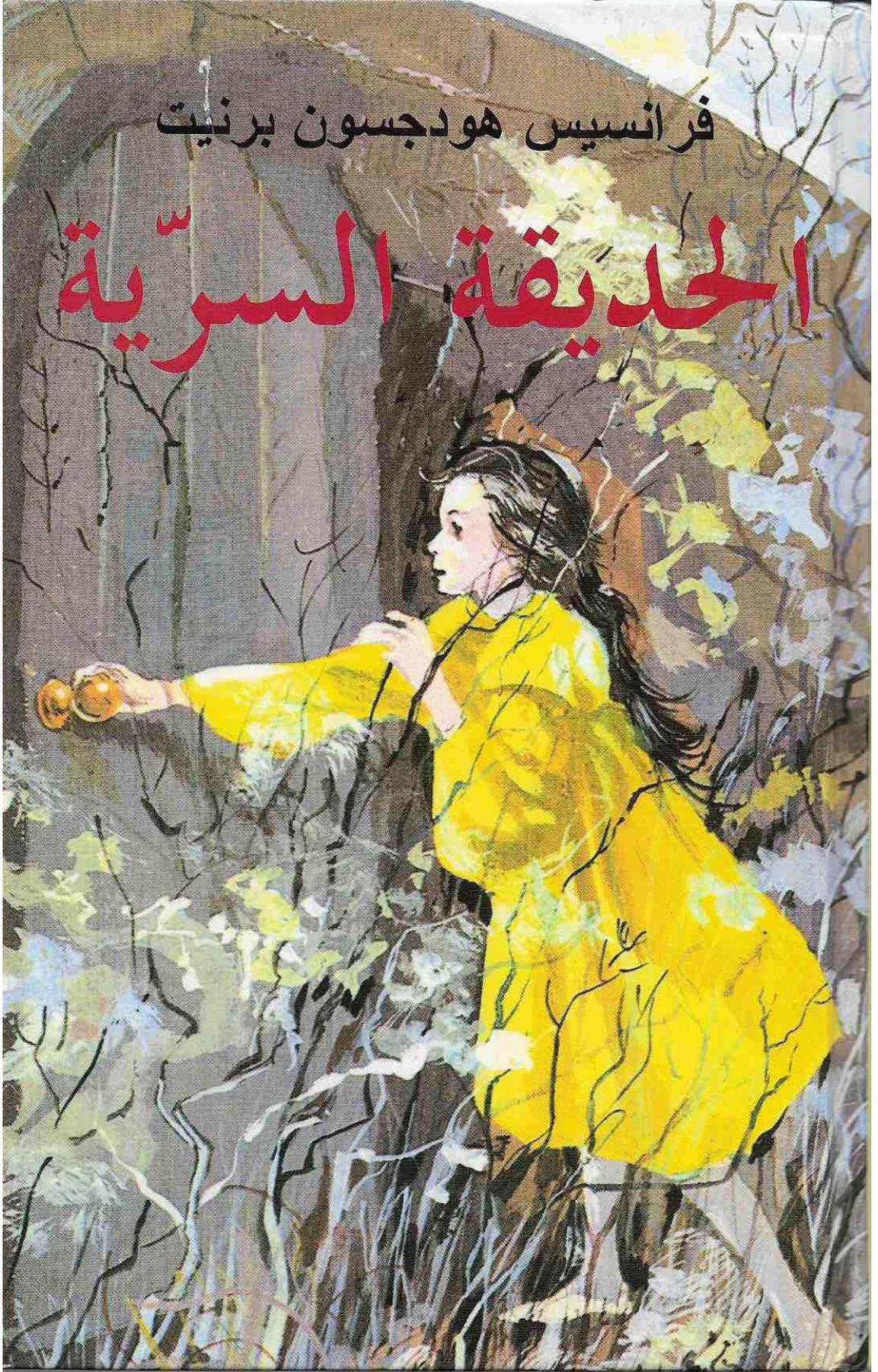
Appendix

Source of data (Novels)



فرانسيس هودجسون برنيت

# الحديقة السرية



فرانسيس هودجسون برنت

# الحديقة السرية

ترجمة

شريف الجيار

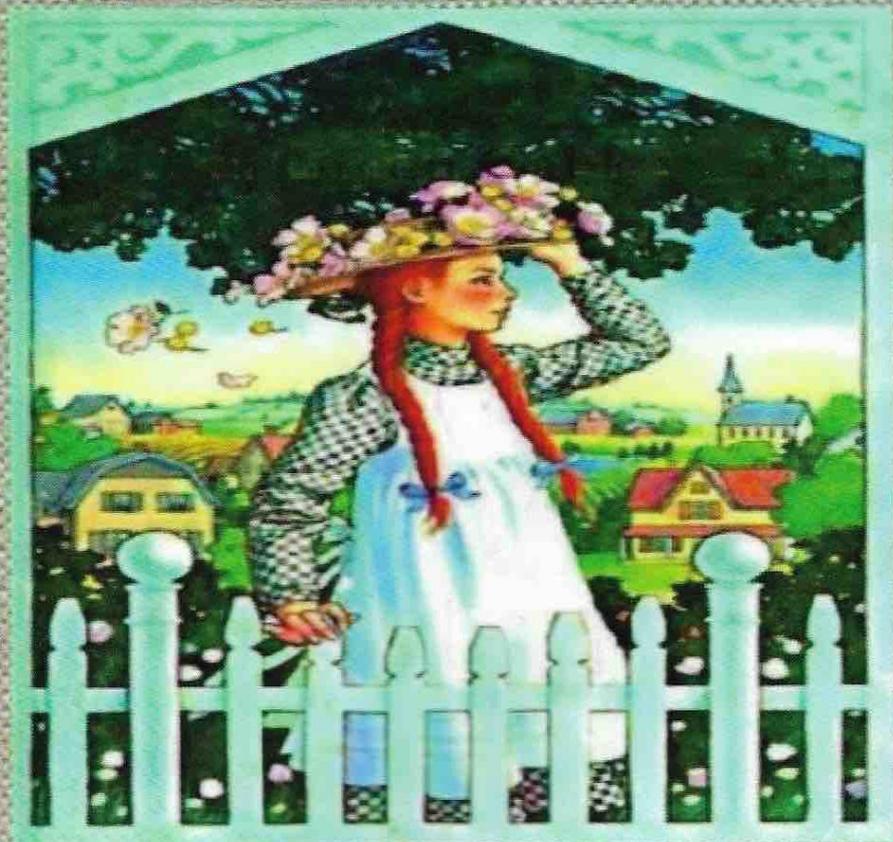


المركز القومي للترجمة

2553

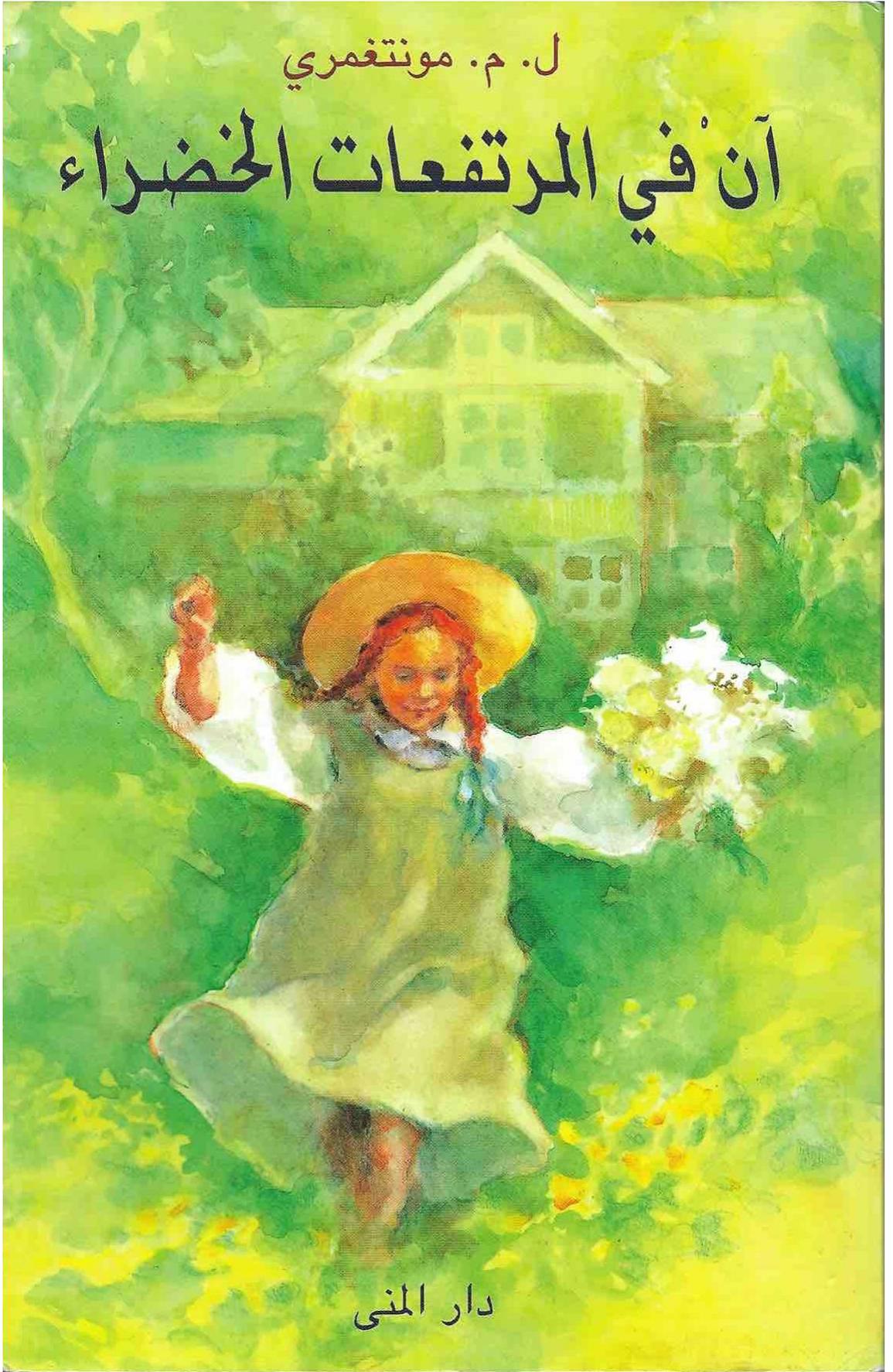
سلسلة  
الإبداع  
القصصي

Anne  
of  
Green Gables  
by  
L.M. Montgomery



ل. م. مونتغمري

# آن في المرتفعات الخضراء



دار المنى

## **The Secret Garden- English**

### **Ideational shifts examples**

At that very moment such a loud sound of wailing broke out from the servants' quarters that she clutched the young man's arm, and Mary stood shivering from head to foot. The wailing grew wilder and wilder.

alive. Everyone was too panic-stricken to think of a little girl no one was fond of. When people had the cholera it seemed that they remembered nothing but themselves. But if everyone had got well again, surely someone

It was Basil who thought of it first. Basil was a little boy with impudent blue eyes and a turned-up nose, and Mary hated him. She was playing by herself under

red cheeks and sharp black eyes. She wore a very purple dress, a black silk mantle with jet fringes on it, and a

It sounded like something in a book, and it did not make Mary feel cheerful. A house with a hundred

The guard lighted the lamps in the carriage, and Mrs Medlock cheered up very much over her tea and chicken and beef. She ate a great deal, and afterwards fell asleep

... people should wait on one.  
The station was a small one, and nobody but themselves seemed to be getting out of the train. The station-master spoke to Mrs Medlock in a rough, good-natured way, pronouncing his words in a queer broad fashion.

...in carriage is waitin' outside for thee.'  
 A brougham stood on the road before the little outside platform. Mary saw that it was a smart carriage and that it was a smart footman who helped her in. His long waterproof coat and the waterproof covering of his hat were shining.

or so in a cottage with toys and sweets and odd things set out for sale. Then they were on the high road, and she saw hedges and trees. After that there seemed nothing different for a long time – or at least it seemed a long time to her.

passed. After they had left the station they had driven through a tiny village and she had seen whitewashed cottages and the lights of a public house. Then they had passed a church and a vicarage and a little shop window

...spread out before and around them. A wind was rising and making a singular, wild, low, rushing sound.

'It's – it's not the sea is it?'

— A neat, thin old man stood near the manservant who opened the door for them.

opened in a wall and she found herself in a room with a fire in it and a supper on a table.

Mrs Medlock said unceremoniously:

ladies. Mary felt as if she were in the forest with them. Out of a deep window she could see a great climbing stretch of land which seemed to have no trees on it, and to look rather like an endless, dull, purplish sea.

not thought of amusement. Perhaps it would be better to go and see what the gardens were like.

and over some of the beds there were glass frames. The place was bare and ugly enough, Mary thought, as she stood and stared about her. It might be nicer in summer, when things were green, but there was nothing pretty about it now.

Presently an old man with a spade over his shoulder walked through the door leading from the second garden. He looked startled when he saw Mary, and

flew away. He was not like an Indian bird, and she liked him and wondered if she should ever see him again. Perhaps he lived in the mysterious garden and knew all about it.

'He has flown over the wall!' Mary cried out, watching him. 'He has flown into the orchard – he has flown across the other wall – into the garden where there is no door!'

A few days after she had talked to Ben Weatherstaff, Mary stopped to notice this and wondered why it was so. She had just paused and was looking

waited on her, hand on her hip, of her company. Now she was followed by nobody and was learning to dress herself, because Martha looked as though she thought she was silly and stupid when she wanted to have things handed to her and put on.

they had gone, and why they wore such odd clothes. There was a stiff, plain little girl rather like herself. She wore a green brocade dress and held a green parrot on her finger. Her eyes had a sharp, curious look.

'Where do you live now?' she said once, when

seemed only babies. Mary had seen carved ivory in India and she knew all about the elephants. She opened the door of the cabinet and stood on a footstool and played with these for quite a long time. When she got tired about the clock swept away in the night by the wind.

The wind itself had ceased and a brilliant, deep blue sky arched high over the moorland. Never, never had Mary seen words she did not know.

Martha laughed as she had done the first morning.

'There now' she said, 'I've talked broad Yorkshire through her window at the far-off blue. It was so new and big and wonderful and such a heavenly colour.'

morning she saw it. It looked just a trifle like little Susan Ann's when she wanted something very much.

you, an' she says: "Now, Martha, you just think how you'd feel yourself, in a big place like that, wanderin' about alone, an' no mother. You do your best to cheer her up," she says, an' I said I would.'

it was over the moor. The robin flew down from his tree-top and hopped about or flew after her from one bush to another. He chirped a good deal and had a very

The robin spread his wings – Mary could scarcely believe her eyes. He flew right up to the handle of Ben Weatherstaff's spade and alighted on the top of it. Then the old man's face wrinkled itself like this: "That's why I come."

He stooped to pick up something which had been lying on the ground beside him when he piped.

In her talks with Colin, Mary had tried to be very cautious about the secret garden. There were certain things she wanted to find out from him, but she felt

If gardens and fresh air had been good for her, perhaps they would be good for Colin. But then, if he hated people to look at him, perhaps he would not like to see Dickon.

Every bush and tree. She clasped her hands for joy, and looked up in the sky, and it was so blue and pink and pearly and white and flooded with springtime light that she felt as if she must flute and sing aloud herself, and know that thrushes and robins and skylarks could not

'Eh!' he said. 'I was up long before him. How could  
 that people were so frightened that they gave him  
 his own way in everything rather than hear them. She  
 put her hands over her ears and felt sick and shivering.  
 'I don't know what to do. I don't know.'

Whoever on earth  
 There was so much to talk about. It seemed as if Colin  
 could never hear enough of Dickon and Captain and  
 Soot and Nut and Shell and the pony whose name was  
 Jump. Mary had run round into the wood with Dickon  
 you, an' she says: "Now, Martha, you just think how  
 you'd feel yourself, in a big place like that, wanderin'  
 about alone, an' no mother. You do your best to cheer  
 her up," she says, an' I said I would.'

The robin was tremendously busy. He was very much  
 pleased to see gardening begun on his own estate. He had

LOOK AT THE MOOR! LOOK AT THE MOOR!

The rain-storm had ended and the grey mist and  
 clouds had been swept away in the night by the wind.  
 The wind itself had ceased and a brilliant, deep blue  
 sky arched high over the moorland. Never, never had  
 Mary dreamed of a sky so blue. In India skies were

clear twilight to work in, and that was her quiet time.

She could sit upon the low rough wall and look on and  
 hear stories of the day. She loved this time. There were  
 not only vegetables in this garden. Dickon had bought

A wind was rising and making a singular, wild, low, rushing sound.

around their necks. She always stopped to look at the children, and wonder what their names were, and where

or so in a cottage with toys and sweets and odd things set out for sale. Then they were on the high road, and she saw hedges and trees. After that there seemed nothing different for a long time – or at least it seemed a long time to her

A neat, thin old man stood near the manservant who opened the door for them.

it was over the moor. The robin flew down from his tree-top and hopped about or flew after her from one bush to another. He chirped a good deal and had a very

around their necks. She always stopped to look at the children, and wonder what their names were, and where

## Textual shifts examples

the veranda. She pretended that she was making a flower-bed, and she stuck big scarlet hibiscus blossoms into little heaps of earth, all the time growing more and more angry and muttering to herself the things she would say and the names she would call Saidie when she returned. 8

She knew that she was not going to stay at the English clergyman's house where she was taken at first. She did not want to stay. The English clergyman was poor and

broke out. She was making heaps of earth and paths for a garden and Basil came and stood near to watch her. Presently he got rather interested and suddenly made a suggestion.

'A more marred-looking young one I never saw in my life,' Mrs Medlock thought. (Marred is a Yorkshire word and means spoiled and pettish.) She had never seen a child who sat so still without doing anything; and at last

When he shut the door, mounted the box with the coachman, and they drove off, the little girl found herself seated in a comfortably cushioned corner, but she was

At last the horses began to go more slowly, as if they were climbing up-hill, and presently there seemed to be no more hedges and no more trees. She could see nothing in the distance.

‘Eh! you should see ’em all,’ she said. There’s twelve of us an’ my father only gets sixteen shilling a week. I can tell you my mother’s put to it to get porridge for ’em all.

tha’s got victuals as well as an appetite. There’s been twelve in our cottage as had th’ stomach an’ nothing to put in it. You go on playin’ you out o’ doors every day

**T**WO days after this, when Mary opened her eyes she sat upright in bed immediately, and called to Martha.

‘She came into the room last night. She stayed with me a long time. She sang a Hindustani song to me and it made me go to sleep,’ said Colin. ‘I was better when I

only coming. It is here now! It has come, the Spring! Dickon says so!’

tha’s got victuals as well as an appetite. There’s been twelve in our cottage as had th’ stomach an’ nothing to put in it. You go on playin’ you out o’ doors every day

Mary had worn her contrary scowl for an hour after that, but it made her think several entirely new things.

She stood at the window for about ten minutes this morning after Martha had swept up the hearth for the

## Ann in the Green Gables- English.

### Ideational shifts examples

And yet here was Matthew Cuthbert, at half-past three on the afternoon of a busy day, placidly driving over the hollow and up the hill; moreover, he wore a white collar and his best suit of clothes, which was plain proof that he was going out of Avonlea; and he had the buggy and the sorrel mare, which betokened that he was

seems so wonderful that I'm going to live with you and belong to you. I've never belonged to anybody—not really. But the asylum was the <sup>alter</sup>worst. I've only been in it <sup>p. 15</sup> four months, but that was enough. I don't suppose you ever were an orphan in an asylum, so you can't possibly understand what it is like. It's worse than anything

"Oh, I don't mean that sort of a name. I mean just a name you gave it yourself. Didn't you give it a name? May I give it one then? May I call it—let me see—

Bonny would do—may I call it Bonny while I'm here? Oh, do let me!" <sup>p. 43</sup>

"Goodness, I don't care. But where on earth is the sense of naming a geranium?"

"Oh, I like things to have handles even if they are only geraniums. It makes them

**I**T'S time Anne was in to do her sewing," said Marilla, glancing at the clock and

"You'd find it easier to be bad than good if you had red hair," said Anne <sup>p. 6</sup> reproachfully. "People who haven't red hair don't know what trouble is. Mrs. Thomas told me that God made my hair red *on purpose*, and I've never cared about Him since. And anyhow I'd always be too tired at night to bother saying prayers. People who have to look after twins can't be expected to say their prayers. Now, do you honestly think they can?"

"Perhaps your imagination will be in better working order by the morning," said Marilla, rising to depart. "You'll have the night to think over your conduct in and to a better frame of mind. You said you would try to be a very good girl if we <sup>p. 6</sup> kept you at Green Gables, but I must say it hasn't seemed very much like it this evening."

"I—I don't suppose it will," said Marilla. "Go to sleep now like a good child. Good night."

"I can only say good night tonight with a clear conscience," said Anne, cuddling luxuriously down among her pillows.

"No," said Marilla slowly, "I'm not trying to excuse her. She's been very naughty and I'll have to give her a talking to about it. But we must make allowances for her. She's never been taught what is right. And you *were* too hard on her, Rachel." <sup>p. 8</sup>

Marilla could not help tacking on that last sentence, although she was again surprised at herself for doing it. Mrs. Rachel got up with an air of offended dignity

just as soon as I can get some suitable clothes made for her. I foresee that I shall have my hands full. Well, well, we can't get through this world without our share of trouble. I've had a pretty easy life of it so far, but my time has come at last and I suppose I'll just have to make the best of it."

trial to her. She was terribly mortified about the pudding sauce last week. We had plum pudding for dinner on Tuesday and there was half the pudding and a pitcherful of sauce left over. Marilla said there was enough for another dinner and told me to set it on the pantry shelf and cover it. I meant to cover it just as much as

"Oh, I'm so glad. I know you and I are going to get along together fine. It's such a relief to talk when one wants to and not be told that children should be seen and not heard. I've had that said to me a million times if I have once. And people laugh at me because I use big words. But if you have big ideas you have to use big words to express them, haven't you?"

I asked her all about it. And she said there were trees all around it. I was gladder than ever. I just love trees. And there weren't any at all about the asylum, only a few poor weeny-teeny things out in front with little whitewashed cagey things about them. They just looked like orphans themselves, those trees did. It used to

"Diana Barry lives over at Orchard Slope and she's about your age. She's a very nice little girl, and perhaps she will be a playmate for you when she comes home. She's visiting her aunt over at Carmody just now. You'll have to be careful how you behave yourself, though. Mrs. Barry is a very particular woman. She won't let Diana play with any little girl who isn't nice and good."

how he's likely to turn out. Why, it was only last week I read in the paper how a man and his wife up west of the Island took a boy out of an orphan asylum and he set fire to the house at night—set it on purpose, Marilla—and nearly burnt them to a crisp in their beds. And I know another case where an adopted boy used to suck

sure it will be my own fault if I don't. I feel it's a great responsibility because I have only the one chance. If I don't grow up right I can't go back and begin over again.

I've grown two inches this summer, Marilla. Mr. Gillis measured me at Ruby's party. I'm so glad you made my new dresses longer. That dark-green one is so pretty and it was sweet of you to put on the flounce. Of course I know it wasn't

plans, sometimes walked home with one or the other of them from prayer or Debating Club. But Anne Shirley he simply ignored, and Anne found out that is not pleasant to be ignored. It was in vain that she told herself with a toss of her head that she did not care. Deep down in her wayward, feminine little heart she knew that she did care, and that if she had that chance of the Lake of Shinn

"Whatever is the matter, Diana?" cried Anne. "Has your mother relented at last?"

"Oh, Anne, do come quick," implored Diana nervously. "Minnie May is sick—she's got croup. Young Mary Joe says—and Father and Mother are away in town and there's nobody to go for the doctor. Minnie May is awful bad and Young Mary Joe doesn't know what to do—and oh, Anne, I'm so scared!"

She was sitting there one afternoon in early June. The sun was coming in at the window warm and bright; the orchard on the slope below the house was in a bridal flush of pinky-white bloom, hummed over by a myriad of bees. Thomas Lynde—a meek little man whom Avonlea people called "Rachel Lynde's husband"—was sowing his late turnip seed on the hill field beyond the barn; and Matthew Cuthbert

### Textual shifts examples

"Well, she didn't. She brought her. I asked the station-master. And I had to bring her home. She couldn't be left there, no matter where the mistake had come in."

"Well, this is a pretty piece of business!" ejaculated Marilla.

then that I had a lot of chocolate caramels, but I always wake up just when I'm going to eat them. I do hope you won't be offended because I can't eat. Everything is extremely nice, but still I cannot eat." p.32

The "Avenue," so called by the Newbridge people, was a stretch of road four or five hundred yards long, completely arched over with huge, wide-spreading apple-trees, planted years ago by an eccentric old farmer. Overhead was one long canopy of snowy fragrant bloom. Below the boughs the air was full of a purple twilight and far ahead a glimpse of painted sunset sky shone like a great rose window at the end of a cathedral aisle.

Its beauty seemed to strike the child dumb. She leaned back in the buggy, her

think of coming to a really truly home. Oh, isn't that pretty!

They had driven over the crest of a hill. Below them was a pond, looking almost like a river so long and winding was it. A bridge spanned it midway and from there to its lower end, where an amber knob half a road hills about it is from the dock and a gold water, was a

enjoyed my trip to the Island with all my might. I wasn't a bit sick coming over in the boat. Neither was Mrs. Spencer although she generally is. She said she hadn't time to get sick, watching to see that I didn't fall overboard. She said she never saw the beat of me for prowling about. But if it kept her from being seasick it's a mercy. I did prowl, isn't it? And I wanted to see everything that was to be seen on that boat. because I didn't know whether I'd ever have another opportunity. Oh, there

"Diana Barry lives over at Orchard Slope and she's about your age. She's a very nice little girl, and perhaps she will be a playmate for you when she comes home. She's visiting her aunt over at Carmody just now. You'll have to be careful how you behave yourself, though. Mrs. Barry is a very particular woman. She won't let Diana play with any little girl who isn't nice and good."

Anne looked at Marilla through the apple blossoms, her eyes shining with interest.

They had a very good time and nothing untoward happened until after tea, when they found themselves in the Barry garden, a little tired of all their games and for any enticing form of mischief which might present itself. This presently took the form of "daring."

and was the strongest prop of the Church Aid Society and Foreign Missions Auxiliary. Yet with all this Mrs. Rachel found abundant time to sit for hours at her kitchen window, knitting "cotton warp" quilts—she had knitted sixteen of them, as Avonlea housekeepers were wont to tell in awed voices—and keeping a sharp eye on the main road that crossed the hollow and wound up the steep red hill beyond.

said.

With this Mrs. Rachel stepped out of the lane into the backyard of Green Gables. Very green and neat and precise was that yard, set about on one side with great

Since Avonlea occupied a little triangular peninsula jutting out into the Gulf of St. Lawrence with water on two sides of it, anybody who went out of it or into it had to pass over that hill road and so run the unseen gauntlet of Mrs. Rachel's all-seeing eye.

She was sitting there one afternoon in early June. The sun was coming in at the window warm and bright; the orchard on the slope below the house was in a bridal flush of pinky-white bloom, hummed over by a myriad of bees. Thomas Lynde—a meek little man whom Avonlea people called "Rachel Lynde's husband"—was sowing his late turnip seed on the hill field beyond the barn; and Matthew Cuthbert

was taking him; (he) was the shyest man alive and hated to have to go among strangers or to any place where he might have to talk. Matthew, dressed up with a white collar and driving in a buggy, was something that didn't happen often. Mrs. Rachel, ponder as she might, could make nothing of it and her afternoon's enjoyment was spoiled.

—I suggested getting a home boy. But I said no that to that. They may be all—I'm not saying they're not—but no London street Arabs for me,' I said. 'Give a native born at least. There'll be a risk, no matter who we get. But I'll feel

brook. Here Diana met her, and the two little girls went on up the lane under the leafy arch of maples—"maples are such sociable trees," said Anne; "they're always rustling and whispering to you"—until they came to a rustic bridge. Then they left the lane and walked through Mr. Barry's back field and past Willowmere. Beyond was a boy he stole a strawberry tart out of his aunt's pantry and she never had any respect for that minister again. Now, I wouldn't have felt that way. I'd have thought that it was real noble of him to confess it, and I'd have thought what an encouraging thing it would be for small boys nowadays who do naughty things and are sorry

Miss Stacy?!" asked Josie Pye. Josie Pye never scrupled to ask questions; in this instance the rest of the class felt grateful to her; none of them would have dared to ask it of Miss Stacy, but all wanted to, for there had been alarming rumors running at large through the school for some time that Miss Stacy was not coming back the next year—that she had been offered a position in the grade school in another town. A dismal sigh she went for the scissors.

"Please cut it off at once, Marilla, and have it over. Oh, I feel that my heart is broken. This is such an unromantic affliction. The girls in books lose their hair in fevers or sell it to get money for some good deed, and I'm sure I wouldn't mind

## Ann in the Green Gables- Arabic.

### Ideational shifts examples

"يبدو أنها لم تفعل، وبدلاً من ذلك أحضرت هذه الفتاة كما فهمت من مسؤول المحطة. وفي جميع الأحوال كان عليّ أن أحضرها معي إلى البيت إذ لا يمكن تركها وحيدة هناك، مهما كانت فداحة الخطأ الذي تم ارتكابه."

علمت من السيدة سبنسر أنها ثمانية أميال، وهذا يسرني لاني احب السفر. أوه، من الرائع أن أنتمي إليكم وأعيش معكم، فأنا لم يسبق لي الانتماء إلى أحد انتماءً حقيقياً، ولكن الملجأ كان أسوأ مكان ذهبت إليه. ورغم أنه لم يمض علي وجودي فيه سوى أربعة أشهر، إلا

أوه.. أنا لم أقصد هذا النوع من الأسماء. إنما عنيت الاسم الذي تطلقينه عليها أنت. ألا تطلقين عليها أي اسم؟ أ.. أسمحين لي بتسميتها؟ أيمن أن أسميها.. دعيني أفكر الآن.. بوني يمكن أن يفني بالغرض.. أيمن أن أسميها بوني وأنا هنا؟ أرجوك.. أرجوك اسمحي لي بذلك."

"رباه.. لا يهمني أي اسم تطلقينه عليها، ولكن بحق السماء، أين يكن المنطق في إطلاق اسم على نبتة إبرة الراعي؟"

"حان الوقت الذي يجب أن تعود فيه أن لتتدرب على الخياطة، قالت ماريلا لنفسها وهي تنظر إلى الساعة ثم إلى الخارج نحو... تحت وطأة وهج القبط... لو كنت مكاني لوجدت أنه من الأسهل لك أن تكوني سيئة على أن تكوني حسنة الخلق، إذا كنت حمراء الشعر،" قالت آن معاتبة. "ولا يعرف الناس الذين ليسوا ذوي شعر أحمر أية مصيبة هو هذا الشعر."

"لا.. لا أظن أن هذا سيسكّل أي فرق"، قالت ماريلا. "نامي الآن كما ينبغي على بنت مطيعة أن تفعل، تصبحين على خير."

"ربما سيعمل خيالك بطريقة أفضل عند الصباح"، قالت ماريلا وهي تنهض استعداداً لمغادرة المكان. "لديك الليل بطوله لتفكّري بهذا الموضوع ولتتدبّري أمرك حتى يتوصل ذهنك إلى حلّ أفضل. وعدتني سابقاً بأنك ستبذلين جهدك لتكوني بنتاً مطيعة إذا احتفظنا بك في المرتفعات الخضراء، ولكني هذا المساء أرى أن الحال ليس كما وعدت."

"لا"، قالت ماريلا ببطء، "أنا لا أحاول خلق الأعذار لها. كانت قليلة الأدب، وسوف تنال نصيبها من التوبيخ، ولكن علينا أن نبرّر لها تصرفها، فهي لم تُلقن من قبل أي شيء عن الأصول التي يجب مراعاتها. كما أنك كنت شديدة القسوة عليها ياريتشيل."

ساعة إليها ياديانا. أما الأفظع من هذا، فكان حادثة شراب الفطائر التي سببت لها حرجاً رهيباً. ففي عشية الثلاثاء كان لدينا عشاء، لم نأكل إلا نصفها، وبقي نصفها الآخر مع دورق ملاّن في الحفود. ورأت ماريلا أن هناك ما يكفي من أجل عشاء آخر،

ولكني حلّقت مع خيالي ورأيتني أرتدي ثوباً من الحرير الأزرق الفاتح لا يضاهي جماله شيء.. هذا لأنك عندما تتخيّل شيئاً، يجب أن تتخيّل ما يستحقّ التخيل.. كما رأيتني أعتمر قبعة عريضة تكملها الأزهار والريش المتطاير، وأضع ساعة ذهبية وقفازات وجزمة يليقان بالأطفال. وسرعان ما شعرت بالابتهاج ممّا جعلني أستمتع برحلتني إلى الجزيرة

"آه، لا، يمكنك التكلم قدر ما تشائين، أنا لا أمانع".

"أوه، كم يسعدني ذلك. أعرف أننا سنكون أنت وأنا على أتمّ وفاق مع بعضنا. إنه من المريح أن يتكلم المرء عندما يرغب، وأن لا يُقال له إن الأطفال يجب أن يراهم الناس بدون أن يسمعوهم. هذا ما كان

"قالت السيدة سبنسر إن لساني معلق من وسطه. ولكنه ليس كذلك، إنه مثبت بإحكام عند نهاية حلقي. وقالت السيدة سبنسر إن منطقة أملاكك تدعى المرتفعات الخضراء. وقد سألتها عن كل شيء يتعلق بها. أخبرتني أنها محاطة بالأشجار، وكم شعرت بالسعادة عندما علمت ذلك، فأنا أعبد الأشجار، ولم يكن في الملجأ أشجار تستحق الذكر إلا بضع شجيرات ضئيلات ذابلات عند مدخل الملجأ

"هناك فتاة تدعى ديانا باري تسكن في دارة منحدر البستان، وهي تقاربك عمراً. هي فتاة لطيفة جداً، ومن المحتمل أن تصبح

رفيقتك عندما تعود إلى بيتها، لأنها الآن تزور عمّتها في بلدة كارمودي. وإذا حدث وتعرّفت عليها يجب أن تتصرفي بلياقة، فالسيدة باري امرأة حازمة جداً، ولن تسمح لديانا باللعب مع بنت ليست دمتة ومؤدبة."

لأنني لا أملك في هذه الحياة إلا فرصة واحدة، وإذا لم أحسن استغلالها فلن أستطيع العودة إلى الطفولة لأبدأ من جديد. لقد ازداد طولي في هذه الصيف بمعدل إنشيين ياماريلا. عرفت هذا لأن السيد غيليز قاس طولي في حفلة روبي. وكم سرّني أنك فصلت لي فساتيني الجديدة أطول من السابق. وذلك الفستان الأخضر جميل جداً، كان لطيفاً منك أن تضع له الحاشية على أطرافه. أعرف

add n.

كانت السيدة ريتشيل ليند تسكن حيث ينحدر طريق قرية أفونليا الرئيسي نحو الغور الصغير، الذي تحفه الأعشاب الحرجية والعرائش، ويقطعه جدول ينبع من الغابة التي يقع فيها منزل آل كُتبيرت القديم. جدول اشتهر أنه كان في باكورة جريانه جدولاً غنياً

### Textual shifts examples

أثناء نومي أنه لدي الكثير من هذه الحلوى، ولكني كنت كلما هممت بالتهامها أستيقظ من النوم. أرجو ألا تنزعجي من عدم رغبتي في الأكل. ورغم أن هذا الطعام شهى جداً، أنا عاجزة عن تناول أي شيء منه.

"يبدو أنها لم تفعل، وبدلاً من ذلك أحضرت هذه الفتاة كما فهمت من مسؤول المحطة. وفي جميع الأحوال كان علي أن أحضرها معي إلى البيت إذ لا يمكن تركها وحيدة هناك، مهما كانت فداحة الخطأ الذي تم ارتكابه."

بعيد مزارع غريب الأطوار. كانت أغصان الأشجار العالية المكتسية بالبراعم العبقة تتشابك منحنية ومتراصة كقبة ثلجية، وقد تضرّج الجو تحتها بظلال الشفق الأرجوانية، بينما شعت السماء عند نهاية الطريق موشاة بألوان الغروب، وكأنها نافذة مستديرة مخرمة لكاتدرائية ما، تقع عند نهاية الممر.

أصاب جمال هذا المشهد الطفلة بالخرس. فتراجعت مستندة على مقعد العربة وقد تشابكت يداها النحيلتان أمامها، وانتصب وجهها

لجمت أن لسانها بطاعة عمياء، غير أن صمتها المطبق اتار  
 حفيظة ماريلا، التي شعرت وكأنها تواجه موقفاً غير طبيعي. كان  
 ماثيو غارقاً في الصمت أيضاً، لكن هذا كان على الأقل تصرفاً  
 طبيعياً بالنسبة إلى ما درج عليه ماثيو. <sup>add.</sup>  
 ... كما أن نسبة المصاحبة لها بصمت. وبينما انكث الثلاثة

يغادر المنزل، مما يعني أن ما استدعاه لذلك لا بد وان يكون حدثاً  
 طارئاً، خارجاً عن الحساب. <sup>supine</sup> فقد كان ماثيو من أكثر الرجال الأحياء  
 خجلاً، وكان ينفر من الاضطرار إلى الذهاب حيث يوجد الغرباء، بل  
 وحتى إلى أي مكان يضطر فيه إلى الكلام. ولم تكن رؤيته متأنقاً

وصلت العربة إلى قمة تلة، فأشرفا على بركة بدت أشبه بنهر <sup>alte</sup>  
 طويل ملتوٍ. يقطعها عند منتصفها جسر ممتد فوقها. ومن بدايتها إلى  
 طرفها الأقصى الذي يفصله عن الخليج الداكن الزرقة حزام من تلال

كثيراً ما وجدت السيدة ريتشيل متسعاً من الوقت لتجلس لساعات  
 أمام نافذة مطبخها تحيك أغطية اللحف القطنية؛ التي حاكت منها

وسرعان ما شعرت بالابتهاج مما جعلني أستمتع برحلي إلى الجزيرة  
 استمتاعاً كاملاً. وعندما استقلينا المركب لم أُصب بالدوار، وكذلك  
 السيدة سبنسر رغم أنها عادة تصاب بدوار البحر. وقالت لي إنها لم  
 تجد متسعاً من الوقت لتصاب بالدوار وهي تراقبني خشية أن أقع في  
 الماء. وقالت أيضاً إنها لم تر أحداً يضاهيني في كثرة الحركة. لكن  
 إذا كان تنقلي في أرجاء المركب قد منعها من أن تصاب بالدوار أفلم  
 يكن ذلك لصالحها؟ لقد أردت رؤية كل شيء يمكن للمرء أن يراه على

هناك فتاة تدعى ديانا باري تسكن في دارة منحدر البستان، وهي تقاربك عمراً. هي فتاة لطيفة جداً، ومن المحتمل أن تصبح

رفيقتك عندما تعود إلى بيتها، لأنها الآن تزور عمّتها في بلدة كارمودي. وإذا حدث وتعرفت عليها يجب أن تتصرفي بلياقة، فالسيدة باري امرأة حازمة جداً، ولن تسمح لديانا باللعب مع بنت ليست دمثة ومؤدبة.

"حسناً ياماريلا، بكل صراحة أقول لك إنك على وشك ارتكاب خطأ جسيم، بل هو خطأ أمر محفوف بالمخاطر. إنك لا تعرفين ما أنت مقدمة عليه. إنك تجلبين صبيّاً غريباً إلى عقر دارك وأنت لا تعرفين أدنى شيء عنه، لا من أي عريكة هو، ولا أي نوع من الأهل كان أهله، ولا عن أي طبع سيسفر فيما بعد. ولم كل هذا العناء؟ في الأسبوع الماضي فقط قرأت في الجريدة كيف أن صبيّاً، تبناه رجل وزوجه في غرب الجزيرة، بعد انقضاء اجتماع الصلاة في نادي المسطرات. أما إن شيرلي فكانت بكل بساطة غير موجودة بالنسبة إليه. واكتشفت أن أن تجاهل الآخرين لها لم يكن شيئاً مستساغاً، وعبثاً أقنعت نفسها وهي تجرّ رأسها أن هذا لم يكن مهماً لها، لكنها في أعماق قلبها الأنثوي لصغير المشاكس كانت تعرف أنها تهتم، وأنها إذا حصلت على فرصة حادثة بحيرة المياه البراقة من جديد، فستجيب جواباً مختلفاً.

متواضعة ومُنتقاة،" أكدت أن لما رايلا. "بنات صفنا فقط."

قضت الفتيات في تلك الحفلة وقتاً ممتعاً. ولم يحدث شيء إلا بعد فراغهن من تناول الشاي، عندما وجدن أنفسهن في حديقة آل باري، ضجرات من جميع ألعابهن المعتادة، وجاهزات لتقبل أية تسلية جديدة يمكن أن تُثيرهن، فظهرت هذه الإثارة في لعبة التحدي.

أفونليا كانت تقع في شبه جزيرة صغيرة مثلثة تشرف على خليج سانت لورانس ويحيط الماء جانبين من جوانبها، فإنه كان لزاماً على أي شخص يغادرها أو يقدم إليها أن يسلك طريق تلك الهضبة،

جلست السيدة ريتشيل في عصر يوم من أوائل أيام شهر حزيران أمام نافذتها، وقد انسابت أشعة الشمس عبر النافذة دافئة وساطعة، وتألقت بستان الغور الذي يشرف عليه المنزل محتفلاً بعرس براعمه ذات البياض المورّد، والتي همهمت فوقها أفواج من النحل. في تلك الأثناء، كان توماس ليند؛ الرجل المتواضع الذي يدعو أهالي أفونليا زوج ريتشيل ليند، يبذر بزور موسم اللفت الأخير في حقل التلة خلف

مع ذلك هاهي ترى ماثيو كُتبيرت، في الساعة الثالثة والنصف من عصر يوم حافل بالعمل، يقود عربته برباطة جأش مجتازاً الغور نحو التلة، والأهم من ذلك أنه كان يضع ياقة بيضاء ويرتدي أحسن بزّة من بزّاته، ممّا يدلّ بجلاء على مغادرته أفونليا. بل إن العربية والفرس البنية تبرهنان على أن وجهته تبعد مسافة جديرة بالاعتبار.

ولكني لا أريد متشردين من الأزقة في منزلي، لذلك قلت له: أحضر لي صبيّاً من المواليد المحليين على الأقل. ستكون هناك مجازفة مهما يكن الصبي الذي ننوي جلبه، ولكني سأشعر بارتياح فكري أكثر وسأنام

وصلت الصغيرتان بعد ذلك إلى الجسر البدائي، حيث تركتا عنده  
الدرب وتابعتا طريقهما عبر حقل السيد باري مروراً ببركة  
الصفصاف التي يوجد خلفها وادي البنفسج، ذلك الفج الصغير  
الواقع بين ظلال حرج السيد أندروز بيل الشاسع. "طبعاً لا يوجد فيه

تريدان بنتاً في حوالي الحادية عشرة من العمر، ورأت القيّمة على  
الملجأ أنني أفي بالعرض. إنك لن تدركي أبداً كم شعرت بالسعادة، بل  
إن شدة فرحي منعني من النوم الليلة الماضية."

في ذات مرة سمعت قساً يعترف بسرقة كعكة توت من خزانة مؤونة  
عته عندما كان صغيراً، ومنذ ذلك الحين فقدت احترامها لذلك القس  
تهائياً. أما أنا فما كنت لأشعر بنفس الشعور أبداً، بل ولا اعتبرت  
اعترافه تصرفاً نبيلاً، وعظة مشجعة للأطفال الصغار هذه الأيام، من  
الذين يتصرفون تصرفات طائشة ثم يندمون عليها، وذلك إذا عرفوا

"هل ستعودين إلينا في السنة القادمة يا أنسة ستيسي؟" سألتها

جوزي باي.

لم تكن جوزي باي تتخرج عن طرح أي نوع من الأسئلة أبداً.  
وفي تلك اللحظة شعر الجميع بالامتنان لها، لأن أحداً منهم لم يجرؤ  
على طرح هذا السؤال على الأنسة ستيسي رغم رغبتهم في ذلك. فقد  
سبق أن سرت في المدرسة إشاعة كبيرة مفادها أن الأنسة ستيسي

## The Secret Garden – Arabic

### Ideational shifts examples

كانت المحطة صغيرة. ولم تلاحظ ماري <sup>add 2</sup> ترجل أحد غيرهما من القطار، ثم سمعت <sup>add 2</sup> مدير المحطة يوجه الكلام إلى السيدة ميدلوك بخشونة ودية ناطقاً عباراته بطريقة غريبة. واكتشفت لاحقاً أنها اللحمة المريرة.

كانت المركبة تقف عند رصيف المحطة الخارجي الصغير، وبدا لماري أنها عربة أنيقة جداً، وأن الخادم الذي ساعدها على الركوب كان لبقاً، ولاحظت أن معطفه الطويل الواقى وغطاء رأسه البلاستيكي كانا يقطران ماء المطر مثلاً، جميع الأشياء هناك من ضمنها مدد المحطة الحسنة.

لأنه لا يشبه الطيور الهندية، وشعرت أنها تستلطفه، وتساءلت عما إذا كانت شراء من جديد، بل وخطر لها أنه.. أنه لربما كان يعيش في حديقة الغامضة، ويعرف كل شيء عنها!

للأشياء التي مرّوا بها؛ كان أول ما تجاوزوه بعد أن غادرت العربة المحطة بلدة صغيرة رأت فيها أكواخاً بيضاء اللون، وأضواء فندق، ثم الكنيسة ومنزل القس. <sup>add 23</sup> كما رأت في أحد الأكواخ ما يشبه واجهة متجر فيها ألعاب وحلويات وأشياء مختلفة معروضة للبيع. ثم قادتهم الدرب إلى

ميدلوك لم تفكر بأدوات التسلية عندما جهّزت لها غرفة المعيشة، ووجدت أنه قد يكون من الأفضل أن تذهب وترى ما هي عليه تلك الحدائق، فالتفتت إلى مارتا وقالت:

ضحكت مارتا كما فعلت يوم اجتمعنا للمرة الأولى، ثم قالت ببطء

ووضوح:

هي عليه في المستنقع. ولم تمض هنيهة إلا وغادر أبو الحنّ غصنه  
العلي، وبدأ يقفز ويحجل قريباً منها، أو يطير خلفها من أجمة إلى أجمة.

شعرت ماري وكأن ذلك شيء تقرأه في كتاب، شيء لم يجعلها تتشرح

تلك امرأة تهتم بشؤونك، وقالت لي: حسناً يا مارتا، فكّري فقط كيف

سعرين إذا كنت في مكان كبير كذاك، تتجولين فيه وحدك، ولا أم لديك

عراك، وقالت أيضاً: اعلمي ما في وسعك للترفيه عنها، وقلت إنني

في تلك اللحظة عينها تعالى صوت عويل ثاقب من مسكن الخدم، فتشبّثت

السيدة لينوكس بذراع الشاب من هول المفاجأة، أما ماري فتسمّرت في

أرضها وهي ترتعد من رأسها إلى أخمص قدميها. ولما ازداد العويل حدّة

كانت العاصفة الماطرة قد انتهت، وكانت الريح نفسها قد توقفت بعد أن

جرفت في الليل جحافل الضباب الرمادي والغيوم القاتمة، فأسفرت الدنيا

في اليوم التالي عن سماء عالية مشرقة وزرقاء طوّقت أرض المستنقع

كلها.

- "إيه.. لقد نهضت قبل طلوع الشمس بوقت طويل"، قال، "كيف كان

من أن يجعلهم يفكرون ولو قليلاً بينت لا أحد أحبّها. وبدا لها أن الناس

عندما يصابون بالكوليرا لا يفكرون في تلك الأثناء إلا بأنفسهم، ولذلك

رأت أنه إذا شفى الجميع فمن المؤكد أن أحدهم سوف يتذكّرها، وسيأتي

المستمرة. أما في هذا البيت فهي لم تعد فقط غير متبوعة من أحد، بل وتعلمت أيضاً كيف ترتدي ثيابها بنفسها، لأن مارتا كثيراً ما جعلتها تشعر بأنها خرقاء وبليدة الذهن عندما كانت تطلب منها مناوئتها الأشياء أو الإشراف على هندمتها.

جسيمة البنية وذات خدين شديدي الحمرة وعينين سوداوين حادتين. وكانت في ذلك اليوم ترتدي ثوباً أرجوانياً فاقعاً، وشالاً حريراً أسود مطرزاً بالكهرمان، وتضع على رأسها قلنسوة سوداء تتبثق منها أزهار أرجوانية

لأبراج قلاع، وصيادين وأحصنة وكلاباً ونساء، ولبرهة شعرت وكأنها هي أيضاً في هذه الغابة. وفي أحد الجدران كانت هناك نافذة غائرة استطاعت أن تلمح منها امتداداً شاسعاً لأرض مرتفعة بدت خالية من الأشجار، وأشبهه ببحر لا متناه، راكد، وضارب إلى اللون الأرجواني.

ماري يديها بسعادة مطلقة وأجالت نظرها في السماء التي فاضت بنور الربيع، وبدت في وقت واحد زرقاء ووردية ولؤلؤية وبيضاء، وشعرت كما لو أن شيئاً أقوى منها يحثها على الدندنة والغناء بصوت عالٍ، بل إلا ليتحاشوا سماع هذه الأصوات. سدّت أذنيها بيديها وتملّكها الغثيان

وارتعشت من رأسها إلى أخمص قدميها.

الظلمة المنتشرة حولهم. وكانت هناك ريح غاضبة تتصاعد وتتفتت صغيراً حاداً مسعوراً.

للأشياء التي مرّوا بها؛ كان أول ما تجاوزوه بعد أن غادرت العربة المحطة بلدة صغيرة رأت فيها أكواخاً بيضاء اللون، وأضواء فندق، ثم الكنيسة ومنزل القس. كما رأت في أحد الأكواخ ما يشبه واجهة متجر فيها ألعاب وحلويات وأشياء مختلفة معروضة للبيع. ثم قادتهم الدرب إلى الطريق العام الذي امتدّت على جانبيه السياجات والأشجار. وبعدهنّ تواءى

نفسها، إذ تميل فيها إلى الاستكانة، فتقصد الحديقة وتجلس على الجدران الواطئ وتمليّ عينيها بما حولها، وتستمع إلى حكايات النهار من ديكون

كان لدى ماري الكثير مما ترغب في قصّه على كولن. وبدا أن كولن لم يملّ أبداً السماع عن ديكون وكابتن وسوت ونت وشيل والمهر الذي يُدعى جمب. كانت ماري قبل عودتها إلى البيت قد مضت مع ديكون إلى

حدث في اللحظة التالية كان أغرب من أن تصدّقه ماري. إذ فرد أبوها عن حاجبه، ثم طار مباشرة نحو مقبض مجرفة بنّ ويذرستاف وحطّ رجليه عليه. فتحوّلت التكشيرة المرتسمة على وجه الرجل العجوز إلى

أعناقهم، وكانت كلما طالعتها لوحات الأطفال تقف وتمعن النظر فيهم وهي تتساءل عما يمكن أن تكون أسماؤهم، وأين رحلوا، وما الذي جعلهم يرتدون تلك الثياب العجيبة. ثم وقع نظرها على صورة بنت متجهمة وغير جميلة مثلها تقريباً، تضع عليها ثوباً من الدمقس الأخضر، ويقف على إصبعها ببغاء أخضر أيضاً، وفي عينيها نظرة حادة فضولية.

كان باسل ذو العينين الزرقاوين الوقحتين والأنف الأفتس أول من أطلق اللقب عليها. وقد كرهته لأجل ذلك. إذ حدث أنها جلست تلعب وحدها تحت إحدى الأشجار، تماماً كما كانت تلعب يوم تفشى وباء الكوليرا في

الطريق العام الذي امتدّت على جانبيه السياجات والأشجار. وبعدئذ تواءى لها أنه ما عاد هناك أي شيء مختلف لوقت طويل، أو على الأقل بدا لها وقتاً طويلاً. أخيراً.. شعرت أن الخيول قد بدأت تخبّ ببطء، كما لو أن العربة تتسلق تلاً. <sup>add.</sup> ورات أن السياجات والأشجار قد اختفت، وأنها بلغت لا

### Textual shifts examples

- "إنها أشدّ سخطاً ونكداً من أي طفل شاهدته في حياتي"، قالت السيدة ميدلوك لنفسها وهي تمعن النظر إليها، لأنها لم يسبق لها قط أن رأت طفلاً يجلس ساكناً في مكانه من غير أن يفعل شيئاً، ثم ما لبثت أن شعرت

باب في أحد الجدران. ووجدت الصغيرة نفسها تدخل غرفة فيها مدفأة وعشاء على منضدة. وهناك قالت السيدة ميدلوك بفضافة:

حسن حظك أن يتوافر لك الطعام والشهية معاً؛ فأولئك الصغار الذين في كوخنا لديهم شهية كبيرة، ولكنهم لا يجدون ما يقتاتون به. واضطبي على الخروج واللعب في الخلاء كل يوم، وستكتسي عظامك ببعض اللحم، ولن تظلي شديدة الشحوب."

في ذلك اليوم، وضعت ماري وجه "المشاكسة المتناقضة"، وظلت متجهمة الأسارير ساعة كاملة. لكن الحادثة جعلت تفكيرها يخوض أموراً عديدة

بعد يومين من هذه الحادثة، لم تكد ماري تفتح عينيها في الصباح حتى سارعت إلى الجلوس في سريرها، وصاحت تنادي مارتا:  
- "انظري إلى المستنقع! انظري إلى المستنقع!"

عن خادم الباب وحمل صندوق الحاجيات مع الحوذي وانطلقت العربية في طريقها. ووجدت الصغيرة نفسها جالسة بارتياح في ركن مؤسّد. وبما قرب الشرفة. وهناك، تخيلت أنها تُعدُّ حوضاً من الأزهار، وبدأت تغرس براعم أزهار الجبل القرمزية في أكوام صغيرة من التربة. لكن سخطها كان يزداد حدة مع مرور الوقت. فانبرت تنفس عن غضبها بشتى أنواع الشتائم والصفات المستنكرة التي ستعت بها مربيتها عندما تعود. *Saidie*

- "إيه! يجب أن تزي أخوتي كلهم"، قالت مارتا، "هناك اثنا عشر واحداً منا، ولا يكسب أبي إلا ستة عشر شلناً في الأسبوع، وأصارحك القول أن لي تبذل جهودها لتوفّر بهذا المبلغ ما يكفي أخوتي من الثريد. وهم

طريقه إلى المجيء. إنه هنا الآن! لقد جاء الربيع يا كولن! هذا ما قاله  
ديكون!"

- "أحقاً؟" صاح كولن الذي وإن كان لا يعرف شيئاً عن الربيع شعر بقلبه

وقتماً طويلاً. أخيراً.. شعرت أن الخيول قد بدأت تخبّ ببطء، كما لو أن  
العربة تتسلق تلاً. <sup>add.</sup> ورات أن السياجات والأشجار قد اختفت، وأنها بلّنت لا

- "إنها أشدّ سخطاً ونكدأ من أي طفل شاهدته في حياتي"، قالت السيدة ميدلوك لنفسها وهي تمنع النظر إليها، لأنها لم يسبق لها قط أن رأت طفلاً يجلس ساكناً في مكانه من غير أن يفعل شيئاً، ثم ما لبثت أن شعرت بالضيق من مجرد مراقبتها فقط، فانبرت تقول بصوت نشيط جلف:

ذاك سارع كولن إلى القول:

- "لقد جاءت إلى غرفتي ليلة أمس وبقيت معي مدة طويلة، وغنت لي غنية هندية جعلتني أنام، ولذلك كنت أشعر بالتحسن عندما نهضت في الصباح، بل وشعرت بالرغبة في تناول إفطاري. حسناً يا ميدلوك إنني أريد الشاي الآن. هيا بلغي هذا للمرضة."

عرفت أنها لم تذهب للبقاء في بيت القسّ الإنجليزي حيث أخذت في البداية. بل ولم ترغب في ذلك. كان القسّ الإنجليزي فقيراً، وأباً لخمسة أطفال متقاربين في العمر، يلبسون ثياباً مهلهلة، ويتشاجرون باستمرار

غيره، وبعضها صغير جداً وكأنه مازال في طور الطفولة. وبما أنه سبق لماري أن رأت الكثير من العاج المنحوت في الهند، إضافة إلى أنها تعرف كل شيء عن الفيلة، فتحت باب الخزانة، ووقفت على مسند للقدمين، ولعبت بها فترة طويلة من الوقت. ولما ملّت أعادت الفيلة إلى أماكنها، ثم عادت وأغلقت الخزانة.

## The Second Arabic version of the Secret Garden.

ولا إرادياً كانت تبتسم للحشائش والبقع الخضراء طوال الوقت. كان أبو الحناء مشغولاً بشكل ملحوظ. كان مسروراً لرؤية دولته بدأت تشملها هذه الرعاية. كان دائماً يعجب من بن وذرستاف. حيث تجعل البستنة كل ما هو جيد للأكل في تفاعل مع التربة. الآن أتى شخص لا يتعدى نصف حجم بن، ولكنه كان لديه الدافع ليدخل حديقته ويبدأ في الحال.

"أمى تقول إنه يجب أن تتلقى العلم في هذا التوقيت ويجب أن تكون هناك سيدة ترعاك"، وتقول: "الآن، يا مارتا، فكرى كيف ستشعرين وأنت في مكان كبير مثل هذا تتجولين فيه وحدك، وليس لديك أم، ابذلى عاقر وسعك كى تبهجيتها"، وقلت لها: "سأفعل". نظرت لها نظرة طويلة ثابتة.

في الهند يتحدث أهلها بلهجة مختلفة لا يفهمها إلا القليل، لذلك لم تندهش عندما استخدمت مارى كلمات لا تعرفها.

ضحكت مارتا كما ضحكت في الصباح.

قالت مارتا:

"إيه... ينبغي عليك أن تشاهديهم جميعاً. نحن اثنا عشر، وأبى يتحصل على ستة عشر شلناً في الأسبوع. ويمكننى أن أخبرك أن أمى تعاني كثيراً

## Comparable Examples of the two Arabic versions of The Secret Garden

### Example 1

**ST:** At that very moment such a loud sound of wailing broke out from the servants' quarters that she clutched the young man's arm.

**TT1:** في تلك اللحظة عيناها تعالي صوت عويل تاكب من مسكن الخدم، فتشبثت السيدة لينوكس بذراع الشاب من هول الفجاءة.

**BT1:** At that very moment, such a loud sound of wailing broke out from the servant's' quarters that she clutched the young man's arm because of the sudden surprise

**TT2:** في تلك الأثناء، انفجر صوت بالنحيب من مسكن الخدم، مما جعلها تتشبث بذراع الشاب.

**BT2:** At that very moment, such a loud sound of wailing broke out from the servants' quarters that she clutched the young man's arm

### Example 2

**ST:** It was Basil who thought of it first, Basil was a little boy with impudent blue eyes and turned-up nose and Mary hated him.

**TT1:** كان باسل ذو العينين الزرقاوين الوقتين والأنف الأفتس أول من أطلق اللقب عليها وقد كرهته لأجل ذلك.

**BT1:** It was Basil who thought of it first, Basil was a little boy with impudent blue eyes and turned-up nose and Mary hated him because of that.

**TT2:** باسل هو من فكر في هذا اللقب في البداية، وكان باسل صبياً صغيراً ذا عينين زرقاوين وقتين، وأنف أفتس وكانت ماري تكرهه.

**BT2:** It was Basil who thought of it first, Basil was a little boy with impudent blue eyes and turned-up nose and Mary hated him.

### Example 3

**ST:** She wore a very purple dress, a black silk mantle with jet fringes on it.

**TT1:** وكانت في ذلك اليوم ترتدي ثوباً ارجوانياً فاقعاً وشالاً أسود مطرزا بالكهرمان.

**BT1:** On that day, she wore a very purple dress, a black silk mantle with jet fringes on it.

**TT2:** كانت ترتدي فستاناً بنفسجياً زاهياً، وعباءة حريرية سوداء ذات شراريب سوداء من الكهرمان.

**BT2:** She wore a very purple dress, a black silk mantle with jet fringes on it.

### Example 4

**ST:** It sounds like something in a book and it did not make Mary feel cheerful.

**TT1:** وكان ذلك شيء تقرأه في كتاب، شيء لم يجعلها تنتشرح على الإطلاق

**BT1:** It sounds like something in a book and it did not make Mary feel cheerful at all.

**TT2:** أحست ماري بأن كل ما يُحكى لها ما هو إلا جزء من كتاب، وهذا لم يُبهجها.

**BT2:** Mary felt that everything she had been told is a chapter in a book and it did not make her cheerful.

### **Example 5**

**ST:** The station was a small one, and nobody but themselves seemed to be getting out of the train.

**TT1:** كانت المحطة صغيرة، ولم تلاحظ ماري ترجل أحد غيرهما من القطار.

**BT1:** The station was small one, and Mary noticed that nobody but themselves seemed to be getting out of the train.

**TT2:** كانت المحطة صغيرة، وبدا أنهم هم الأشخاص الوحيدون الذين نزلوا من القطار.

**BT2:** The station was a small one, and nobody but themselves seemed to be getting out of the train.

### **Example 6**

**ST:** A brougham stood on the road before the little outside platform, Mary saw that it was a smart carriage and that it was a smart foot man who helped her in. His long water proof coat and the water proof covering of his hat were shining and dripping with rain....

**TT1:** كانت المركبة تقف عند رصيف المحطة الصغير وبدا لماري أنها عربية أنيقة جداً. وأن الخادم الذي ساعدها على الركوب كان ليقاً ولاحظت أن معطفه الطويل الواقي وغطاء رأسه البلاستيكي كانا يقطران بماء المطر

**BT1:** A brougham stood on the road before the little outside platform, Mary saw that it was a smart carriage and that it was a smart foot man who helped her in. And she noticed that his long water proof coat and the water proof covering of his hat were shining and dripping with rain....

**TT2:** كانت هناك عربية صغيرة تنتظر على الطريق أمام الرصيف الخارجي الصغير. شعرت ماري أن العربية أنيقة، وأن الخادم الذي ساعدها في ركوبها كان أنيقاً أيضاً. كان معطفه الطويل الواقي من المطر وغطاء قبعته الواقي من المطر يلمعان ويتساقط منهما قطرات المطر.

**BT2:** A small brougham stood on the road before the little outside platform, Mary felt that it was a smart carriage and that it was a smart foot man who helped her in. his long water proof coat and the water proof covering of his hat were shining and dripping with rain.

**Example 7**

**ST:** she was making heaps of earth and paths for a garden and Basil came and stood near to watch her.

**TT1:** وبينما هي تصنع تلالاً ترابية وممرات فرعية لحديقته الخيالية، جاء باسل ووقف على مقربة منها يراقب ما تفعله.

**BT1:** she was making heaps of earth and paths for a garden and Basil came and stood near to watch what she was doing.

**TT2:** كانت تعمل أكواماً من التراب وتخطط طرفاً لحديقة، أما باسل فقد أتى ووقف بجوارها ليشاهدها.

**BT2:** she was making heaps of earth and paths for a garden and Basil came and stood near to watch her.

**Example 8**

**ST:** when he shut the door, mounted the box with the coachman and they drove off.

**TT1:** أغلق الخادم الباب وحمل صندوق الحاجيات مع الحوذي وانطلقت العربية في طريقها.

**BT1:** when he shut the door, mounted the box with the coachman and the carriage drove off on its way

**TT2:** بعد ان اغلق الباب، أعطت صندوق المتعلقات لسائق العربية، وانطلق بالعربية.

**BT2:** after he shut the door, the box was given to the coachman and he drove off the carriage.