

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

قُلْ لَوْ كَانَ الْبَحْرُ مِدَادًا لِكَلِمَاتِ رَبِّي

لَنَفِدَ الْبَحْرُ قَبْلَ أَنْ تَنْفَدَ كَلِمَاتُ رَبِّي

وَلَوْ جُنُنَا بِمِثْلِهِ مِدَادًا

(الكهف 109)

صدق الله العظيم

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

(Qur'an 18:109)

Error Assessment in the Teaching of Translation:

A Case of Garyounis University, Libya

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Submitted in Accordance with the Requirement of

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Dedication

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

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

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Abstract

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

On the basis of an analysis of Arabic/English trainees' performance and teachers' evaluation, we have identified a number of problems relating to the students' use of language and translation skills, and teachers' assessment of their trainees' errors. A two-stage translation course is recommended accordingly. The first is preparatory; it serves to eliminate the students' language deficiencies and provide the necessary background for teachers to devise the appropriate translation teaching tools. The second emphasises their needs in terms of translation skills, which our results show, are best identified and represented in a text-typological format.

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List of Abbreviations

bt	backtranslation
CA	contrastive analysis
CD	communicative dynamism
EA	error analysis
E	evaluator
EE	error elimination
fem	feminine
FLT	foreign language teaching
FSP	functional sentence perspective
Lit	literally
L ₁	first language
L ₂	second/foreign language
masc	masculine
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
NEG	negative
NP	noun phrase
P	person
pl	plural
P1	teaching problem
P2	resulting situation
3p	third person
PP	prepositional phrase
S	sample
sing.	singular
SL	source language
ST	source Text
SVO	subject verb object
TL	target language
TP	thematic progression
TS	trial solution
Ts	testees
TT	target text
V	verb
VP	verbal phrase
VSO	verb subject object

Backtranslation

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

Transliteration

The following Arabic transliteration system¹ has been employed throughout this thesis.

Arabic	Transliteration	Arabic	Transliteration
ا	a	ط	<u>t</u>
ب	b	ظ	<u>dh</u>
ت	t	ع	c
ث	θ	غ	ġ
ج	j	ف	f
ح	<u>h</u>	ق	q
خ	x	ك	k
د	d	ل	l
ذ	ð	م	m
ر	r	ن	n
ز	z	ه	h
س	s	و	w
ش	š	ي	y
ص	š	ء	?
ض	<u>d</u>		

VOWELS

Arabic	Transliteration
ا	a
إ	i
و	u
أ	ā
ي	ī
و	ū

¹ Note: the Arabic terms, Allah, Qur'an and Hadith have not been included in the transliteration system.

Scope and Purpose of the Study

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

This leads Hjelmslev to conclude that

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

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

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

instance, if a SL text involves a cultural problem it would require first an explanation of the cultural meaning of the lexical item concerned and then the finding of an equivalent meaning in the TL.

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

Translation teachers often rely on teaching models which anticipate the students' difficulties usually on the basis of a comparative analysis of both languages and in most cases, they depart from two languages to claim universality. That is, a translation theory or model, often assumed to apply to all sets of languages, is usually based on findings from a particular group of students or predictions of the theorist from his/her knowledge of a particular set of languages. Such translation models, although providing insightful methodological and pedagogical means for the teacher, are not always suitable for all groups of students and all types of language.

This divorce between translation theory and the context of the teaching situation can be bridged, as we shall discuss throughout this research, through the practice of Error Analysis (EA) and evaluation of students' performance. We shall demonstrate that the practice of EA provides the teacher with the necessary feedback regarding the particularity of the group or individual students and the suitability of the teacher's methodology, information which translation theory alone fails to supply. In short, EA provides the teacher with valuable information about trainees' areas of failure and the efficiency or inefficiency of teaching methods and practices. Errors should, therefore, be considered as an inevitable part of any learning or training situation which requires creativity or the ability to analyse and regularise (Tylor, 1980).

The primary concern of this study will, therefore, consist of examining and assessing students' errors when translating between English-Arabic-English. The study analyses the different types of error and their frequency. It seeks to explain the source of errors and examine the teachers' evaluation of their seriousness. Of particular interest to this study is the way different text-types place different demands on the students and induce specific types and distribution of errors. This is, to the best of my knowledge, the first study that investigates exhaustively the relationship between text-typology and students' errors and argues for a translation teaching model within these parameters. To achieve this purpose, the study examines the students' errors in terms of the three Hallidayan text-types of argumentation, exposition and instruction. The

text-typological model provides a an exhaustive feedback and reliable tool for the evaluation of students errors (see 4.1.1 for more details). That is, the errors analysed and assessed in this work are taken from students' translations of the above mentioned text-types.

Organisation of the Study

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

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

Chapter Two is a re-examination of translation teaching models. We have examined in this regard the linguistic, communicative and text linguistic models which represent a continuum rather than clear-cut typologies. The purpose of this chapter is to situate the assessment of errors in its context of

translation teaching methodology. Translation teachers often choose a teaching model and assess their students' performance according to a given model.

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

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

¹ This term is borrowed from Seguinot (1991:79).

This brings us to Chapter Six, which focuses on teachers' evaluation of these errors. It attempts to investigate what criteria, if any, teachers base their evaluation on and to what extent they are inter- and intra-consistent when performing this task. This is followed by Chapter Seven, which concludes the study by summarising the results of our analysis and examining its pedagogical implications.

CHAPTER ONE

Language, Culture and the Notion of Equivalence in Translation Teaching

1.1 Introduction

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

Svejcer holds the same notion:

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

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

- (1) Withdrawal of Israeli armed forces from **territories** occupied in the recent conflict;
- (2) Retrait des forces armées israéliennes des **territoires** occupés lors du conflit récent;

We notice the absence of the definite article before the word "territories" in the English text which has been interpreted by the Israelis as requiring a withdrawal from "some" and not "all" occupied "territories" which is made specific in its Arabic translation:

(1a) insihāb al-quwwāt al-musallaha l-isrāʾīliyya min **arādīn** ihtalathā xilāla l-harb al-ʾaxīra.

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

(2a) insihāb al-quwwāt al-musallaha l-isrāʾīliyya min **al-arādī** allatī ihtalathā xilāla l-harb al-axīra.

It follows that the lack of total equivalence can be either intentionally manipulated or unintentionally controversial. A sound analysis and assessment of the students' translation, however, is only possible if the issue of equivalence is settled. That is, we cannot assess a translation properly unless we know what type of equivalent TT we are looking for. Equivalence, however, as a general concept, will necessarily involve different views and opinions since concepts are often a subject of controversy and debate. Different frames of reference have been proposed for defining equivalence. Some would associate translation with the ST. But, can translation-teaching programmes that are ST-oriented provide the necessary skills for the preparation of professional translators?

Translation does not consist merely of the interaction of the translator with the ST. Translators may interact perfectly with the ST but may fail to transfer its meaning or a similar epistemic effect if their TL competence is inadequate. Hence, the mastery of the TL is equally important and the translator should be "*a nice critic in his mother tongue before he attempts to translate*" (Dryden in Schulte and Biguenet 1992:1).

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

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

Arabic) relate to each other and how do differences/similarities between them help/hinder the training process?

1.2 Language and Culture in Translation

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

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

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

1.2.1 Language Determinism and Translation Teaching

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

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

temperatures - cold, hot, cool, and warm - because Arabic offers only three degrees: "hār" or "sāxin" both referring to "hot" "bārid" referring to "cold"/"cool" and "dāfi?" for "warm".

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

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

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

However, even if the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is rejected, the translator still has to deal with differences in structures at the level of syntax, lexis and style.

Such differences may be either linguistically inherent or due to the different socio-linguistic contexts of each language (Johnstone 1991:218). This is better clarified within the scope of the weak version of Whorfianism, which suggests that language reflects (sometimes reinforces) the cultural structures it describes. Indeed, different cultures give rise to different linguistic classifications of reality.

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

attempt to explain this important aspect of meaning which represents a translation problem encountered daily by translators.

1.2.2 Connotative Meaning and Translation

Very often connotation is described in opposition to denotation. Following Hjelmslev, Barthes (1974:6-7) describes connotation as a second-order meaning which, in order to signify, builds on a first-order system, that of denotation. Barthes has had recourse to the Hjelmslevian paradigm in which the signifier and the signified work together to bring about a sign which has a denotative meaning¹. Then, the entire denotative sign becomes a signifier in a new signifying transaction, that of connotation. Indeed, Hjelmslev (1961:119) views all connotators as

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

Consider, for instance, Sentence 3:

(3) umm al-ma^Cārik²
(the mother of battles)

1 For details on signifier and signified, see de Saussure 1983.

2 A name given to the Gulf War by the Iraqi media.

The linguistic text itself, i.e. the graphical signs constitute the denotative signifier, while the concept of the above phrase, i.e. the Gulf war that broke out in 1990 between Iraq and the allied forces following Iraq's occupation of Kuwait, provides the denotative signified. The graphic signs combined with their corresponding concepts constitute the denotative sign which becomes a signifier in the second transaction of connotation. Thus, the denotative sign functions in its entirety as a signifier for ideological significations such as "holy war", "victory" and "Pan-Islamism".

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

In other words, meaning has no closure or singularity. A sign which becomes a connotator may, through the process of naturalisation, gain back the single

meaning (denotator) which is originally a connotative attribute; the same operation recurs with subsequent connotators. This makes Barthes rethink the relationship between connotation and denotation. Although denotation is associated with closure and singularity of meaning, it is just, as Silverman (1983:32) claims, "*a metaphysical fiction which passes itself off as...the light of truth*". Thus, denotation, Barthes (1974:9) points out

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

In this respect, every text is a free-play signification system of connotations. Barthes describes later connotation as the invasion of a text by a "code" and a digression away from that text toward the larger discursive field (ibid.:20-1). Thus, signs acquire their meaning through being structured into codes. According to Silverman (1983:239) codes supply a text with meaning by referring to other previously encountered texts and the cultural reality order which it defines. This process is referred to in translation as intertextuality¹. For instance, the following slogan was used during the funeral of a Palestinian alleged to have been killed by Israelis:

(4) al-janna tahta ʔaqdām ʕayyāš
(Paradise is under Ayash's feet)

¹ See 2.3.3.1 for a more elaborate discussion of intertextuality.

Sentence 4 cannot be thoroughly discerned unless other related texts and the symbolic order it represents are taken into consideration. It may refer, for instance, to the Hadith¹ text:

(5) al-janna tahta aqdām al-ummahāt

(Paradise lies under mothers' feet)

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

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

Applying Barthes's model to translation, it can be said that the English expression: "green with envy" cannot be translated as "ixdarra wajhuhu hasadan" (his face became green with envy) because of the positive connotations the green colour assimilates in the Arab culture. "Black" is rather the equivalent colour in Arabic that carries a relatively similar negative association as can be seen in the Qur'an when Allah describes the unbelievers in Surah āl 'imrān 106 as "iswaddat wujūhuhum" (whose faces will be black).

1 Sayings and deeds of the Prophet Muḥammad.

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

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

(6) al-harakāt al-ʾislāmiyya
(Islamic movements)

Western Connota- -tions	Islamic fundament- alism	A bunch of fanatics	Clandestine activities	Suicide attack	Death squad	Terrorist attack
Arab Connota- -tions	Party of God	Brothers in Islam	Prayer meeting	Martyrdom	Holy war	Self-denying act of heroism

(Table One: clash of connotations¹)

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

¹ Table One adapted from Hatim and Mason 1990:114.

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

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

1.2.3 Arabic-English Language and Culture

English-Arabic translation is bound to encounter many difficulties that relate to language and culture. While English maintains itself as the most favoured second or foreign language world wide, Arabic has the reputation among Western speakers of being a difficult language (Justice 1987). Obviously, the judgement is based on the contrastive claim that the more different two languages are, the more difficult the learning process becomes. It is this predictive power of the comparative analysis that helps teachers to anticipate some problems which confront their trainees. The power of comparative

analysis, on the other hand, lies in verifying these predictions and pinpointing those the teacher fails to anticipate. The source of difficulty in Arabic, as in any other language, lies outside the language as an abstract system. These problems are both linguistic and socio-cultural.

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

1.2.3.1 Linguistic Aspects

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

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

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

i. Phonological Level

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

ii. Morpho-syntactic Level

There are fewer differences than similarities between Arabic and English morphological rules. In Arabic, as in English, an affix can produce a new word, as in "fann/fannīy" and "art/artistic". Most words in English are simple roots while in Arabic derivation plays a much more pervasive role. Derivation differs from inflection in that unlike inflectional morphemes, derivational morphemes form new words either by changing the meaning of the base to which they are attached (cf. E.g. "grace" and "disgrace") or by changing the

word class that a base belongs to (cf. E.g. "grace" and "graceful"). In Arabic almost all words are derived from roots by the addition of affixes. Thus, from the radicals /k. t. b./, denoting "writing", we extract:

kataba	(he-wrote)	kitāb	(book)
kātib	(writer)	maktūb	(written)
maktab	(office)	and so forth.	

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

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

serious source of difficulty in translation because they are expected to move from complex rules in Arabic to simpler rules in English.

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

- (7) ṭala^Cat al-šams
 [appeared-fem the - sun]
(8) ṭala^Ca al-qamar
 [appeared-masc the - moon]

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

Number can also be a source of difficulty when translating into Arabic. For instance, a trainee who is not familiar with the British political culture and does not have further co-textual clues for a text like "the sons of the Queen of Britain" would not be able to decide whether "sons" is a plural or dual form, so

that s/he may confuse "abnā? malikat barīṭāniyā" (the Queen of Britain's sons) and "ibnayy malikat barīṭāniyā" (the Queen of Britain's two sons).

Arabic is also different from English in the "construct-phrase" (*idāfa*) whereby strings of more than two nouns are possible (Holes 1995:166-67). While, for instance, in English a noun agreement with another noun is always expected via an adjunct or a possessive, in Arabic such grammatical functions are licensed¹.

At the sentence level, Arabic is canonically labelled as a VSO language because of its sentential structure² which, unlike English, starts with verb, followed by subject and then object. That the two structures are different may at first be an area of difficulty for the trainee. For instance, in Arabic, phrases like:

(9) wuṣūl al-malik

(10) fī muxtalaf anḥā? al-^Cālam

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

(9a) the arrival **of** the king/the king's arrival.

(10a) in various places **of** the world.

1 For more discussion about agreement the reader is referred to Haegeman 1994 and Ouhalla 1994.

2 For an elaborate discussion on word order in Arabic, see Agius 1991.

The presence of agreement in Arabic depends on the location of the VP in relation to the inflectional NP (subject). If the VP precedes the subject, number-agreement is not realised as in the case of examples 11 and 12:

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

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

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

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

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

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

iii. Textual Level

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

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

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

¹ For illustration, see examples about directness and ways of argumentation in the following section.

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

(15) J'ai vu le film hier

(15a) I have seen the film yesterday

rather than

(15b) I saw the film yesterday

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

1.2.3.2 Cultural Aspects

Most translation theorists, such as Nida and Taber (1969), Chau (1983), Larson (1984), Bassnet (1991), hold that translation is not a mere rendition from one linguistic system into another; "*one does not translate LANGUAGES, one translates CULTURES*" (Casagrande 1954:338). Arabic culture, like any other culture, is based on language, religion, education, politics, economy, social norms and so forth. Yet, Arabic culture is more religiously oriented than English culture. Arabic has also different regional

cultures (e.g. Libyan, Saudi, Moroccan, etc.) that vary to a great extent politically, economically and socially, but as a unified culture, Arabic has acquired vital religious dimensions being the language of the divine revelation (the Qur'an). It is not surprising, therefore, that Islam and Arabic interact to produce a distinctive cultural thought that has its own reflections in language and therefore translation. The impact of the ecology of social structure of the Arab world on the language is no less influential. The extent to which translation involves culture has been illustrated by Nida (1964a: 91) through five types of cultural knowledge, namely (1) ecology, (2) material culture, (3) social culture, (4) religious culture and (5) linguistic culture.

i. Ecology

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

Furthermore, consider for example the rendering of the Arabic expression:

(16) aṭlaja ṣadrī

(it froze my heart).

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

(17) ça m'a rechauffé le coeur

(it warmed my heart).

ii. Material Culture

This type of cultural knowledge involves cultural features connected with food, clothing, transportation etc. For instance, it may involve different epistemic changes in the mind of the reader depending on whether s/he is an Arabic or English speaker as in "imra?a muḥajjaba" (a veiled woman). While the Arab reader may associate the veil on a woman with Islam and decency, the English, and by large the Western reader, will associate it with fanaticism, primitiveness, or a socio-political symbol of Islam depending on whether the reader is educated or semi-educated (cf. Hessini 1996).

As to food, most names, particularly when translating from Arabic into English, are paraphrased or just transliterated because of their extensive use within the host culture. For instance, the common English translation for "lahm ḥalāl" is "halal meat"¹. However, the response of English readers to the Arabic loanword depends on their attitude towards the Arabic language and culture. The same can be said about "burger" (Arabic birjir) that has become a borrowing in colloquial Arabic. On the other hand, other food names like "tabbūla" (traditional Middle Eastern dish consisting of vegetables and liver) or "ḥarira" (Moroccan vegetable soup) are untranslatable into English unless paraphrased.

iii. Social Culture

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

¹ Meat of animals slaughtered according to Islamic law.

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

iv. Religious Culture

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

Thus, in translation, texts relating to religion are usually integrated into the host culture. For instance, phrases like "sexual intercourse/making love", that are socially acceptable in the Western (Christian) culture are usually said in a decorous way in Arabic. Thus, the above English phrase can only be rendered

as "mu^Cāšarat al-azwāj" (they live like husband and wife), because any sexual intercourse outside the marital framework is socially unacceptable and highly tabooed in Arab-Islamic culture. This is clearly apparent in the following Qur'anic verses:

(18) aw lāmastum al-nisā?

"Or ye have been in contact with women"

(Qur'an: 4.43, Ali 1982:194)

(19) wa-qālat hayta lak

"and [she] said: now come thou (dear one)!"

(Qur'an: 12.23; Ali 1982:558)

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

v. Linguistic Culture

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

language is part of culture, but translation from one language to another involves, in addition to the other cultural problems, the special characteristic of the respective language.

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

So far, we have briefly discussed some areas of cross-linguistic and cultural variation between Arabic and English which can represent a source of difficulty for Arab students of translation. We have also emphasised throughout our discussion the claim of Hervey and Higgins (1992:28) that translation should involve the choice of features that are compatible with or indigenous to the TL and the target culture in preference to features with their roots in the source culture.

However, this process of domestication i.e. of ascribing a sense of the TL and culture to the ST to the extent that no foreignness can be sensed in the translated text is not devoid of limitations. It rather keeps translation away from its primary aim of introducing the TL reader to a new culture. Though it may achieve the same, or even a better, response than the ST, it confines the target readers to their own culture without the possibility of an opening on to other cultural values and thoughts. The TL can open on to the ST cultural values and thoughts by allowing, for instance, some Arabic words to appear in the TT or providing them with equivalents with further annotations when concepts are largely different, as in the example reported earlier of "Camm" and "xāl" or "Allah" and "God".

1.3 The Concept of Equivalence

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

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

However, the clarification of this relationship is still beset by contradictory statements involving relatively the same dichotomy: is translation a science or an art? Should it consist of transfer of style or of meaning from a context? These are some terminological questions that attempt to conceptualise the

notion of equivalence and define the translator's behaviour, i.e. the translation process.

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

1.3.1 Author-Oriented Translation

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

By focusing the attention on the authorship, it can be argued that this model is source-text-oriented. It involves the investigation and interpretation of the ST regardless of the TL implications. Associated with this model is the "hermeneutic" approach which claims that the text is "*a co-subject with which the translator, as an interpreter, falls into dialogue to create new meanings*" (Chau 1983:131). Thus, the "scientific" view of a totally objective understanding of text is rejected. The task of the translator is to interpret and render the ST in a manner favourable to the author's intended meaning. In

terms of actual teaching, Chau states that this approach trains students "*...to criticise texts and recreate them...the students gradually generalise principles from insights gained in this way*" (ibid.).

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

1.3.2 Reader-Oriented Translation

At the other end of the continuum, the reader-oriented model claims that the focus should shift from authorship to readership. In other words, focus should be on the response of the TL receptor rather than on the producer of the text. This method, known as dynamic equivalence, suggests that the response of the ST

must be compared with the way in which the original receptors presumably reacted to the message when it was given in its original setting (Nida and Taber 1969:1).

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

(20) raja^Ca bi-xuffay hunayn

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

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

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

(20b) he did not achieve what he was aiming at.

Thus, a more appropriate equivalent that benefits from the target culture material without sacrificing the general meaning, Sentence 20c, would be:

(20c) he came back empty handed.

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

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

A more refined perception of the dynamic principle is that of Newmark (1988a), which he calls "communicative translation". Though it is similar to Nida's (1964b:39) in that it defines translation as "*...an attempt to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original,*" communicative translation differs in its more comprehensive conception of translation. In other words, it views translation as a communicative unit whose goal is to reproduce a certain message with a specific meaning and not only an equivalent effect irrespective of whether the ST meaning is in effect.

Teaching according to the dynamic equivalence method will necessarily imply a comparison between SL and culture and TL and culture. Indeed, the use of comparative studies can be beneficial for the translation theorist and teacher alike. For instance, Lado (1986:46) shows that the most serious areas of difficulty that confront translators and foreign language learners in general are those that pertain to cross-cultural dissimilarities or untranslatability of the text itself.

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

i. Different Cultural Assumptions

Communicative difficulties constantly confront a trainee translator when the text begins with unshared assumptions about its communicative purpose. Consider, for example, the English word "bar" which has opposite cultural values in Arabic. For an English reader, it is a place where people get together, chat, drink, and play games. By contrast, the Arabic equivalent, "xammāra/hāna" (a place for drinking alcohol), is in itself a stigmatising term in the Libyan context. This is because it involves "xamr" (wine), which is forbidden in Islamic culture and is associated with moral deviance and religious corruption.

Instances of cross-cultural assumptions between Arabic and English are usually subject to a shift of ideology. For example, the word "gay" in its extended meaning from the adjective, "gay" meaning happy, as its denotative (see, 1.2.1), is most often translated into Arabic as:

(21) *šāḍ jinsiyyan!* (queer).

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

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

¹ For an elaborate discussion of discourse parameters, see Halliday and Hasan 1989; see also sections 3.2.2 and 4.5.3.

communicative activity including teaching as has been illustrated by Halliday and Hasan (1989:46):

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

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

ii Different Ways of Structuring Information

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

(22) al-rajāʔ ifāʔunā bi-nawāyākum fawran,
may result in an offence in English:

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

where a conventional way of requesting a favour would be:

(22b) we should be grateful if you would let us know

(Hatim and Mason 1990:76).

Another basic characteristic ascribed to Arab trainees translating into English that is often a source of communicative failure of the translation is that of rhetorical overassertion and exaggeration (Kharma and Hajjaj 1989). This has been proved to some extent by Prothero (1955:10), who claims:

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

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

iii. Different Ways of Speaking

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

1.3.3 Text-Oriented Translation

Being culture-bound linguistic signs, both the source text and the target text are determined by the communicative situation in which they serve to convey a message (Nord 1991:7).

Though ST and TT are closely related, one being the translation of the other, they apparently take place each in a different type of situation. The ST is often transferred and adjusted to suit the new TL situation. But how can translators find out whether or not the TT is suitable for the new situation in the TL and target culture? In other words, on what basis can they judge that the TT satisfies the communicative function that is fulfilled in the ST?

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

The textual and contextual factors are relational in character in that they are interdependent and determinative of each other (see Nord 1991:127-30). The reader builds up a certain expectation regarding the intra-textual characteristics of the text by observing its general situation or context but reciprocally it is only through text that the translator can identify the relevant contextual cues to its meaning (ibid.).

In real life, contexts precede texts as the situation is prior to the discourse that relates to it (Halliday and Hasan 1989:5). The translator is expected to encompass the whole situation of the text in question and its communicative function has to be considered within that framework. Hartmann argues that *"...if we want to translate a text we must find its situationally equivalent counterpart in the other language"* (1980:52), i.e. in terms of the social and intertextual play involved and the function of the text. For instance, it is only by considering the social relationship involved in the ST in Sentence 23 that the translator can choose between Sentences 23a and 23b:

(23) Your contribution is a valuable initiative.

(23a) inna **mušārakatakum** lanā la-bādira ṭayyiba

(23b) inna **mušārakataka** lanā la-bādira ṭayyiba

If the tenor of the ST involves power and/or formality, translation 23a will be more appropriate and vice versa. The translation can also be decided according to the rhetorical purpose of the text whether argumentative, expository, and/or instructive, as can be illustrated through the single word "suffer", which can be interpreted differently in Arabic according to the text type: as "yu^Cānī" (he suffers) in a medical expository text such as "yu^Cānī min maraḍ muzmin" (he suffers from an incurable disease) or as "yuqāsī" (he suffers) in a social argumentative text such as "yuqāsī min dank al-^Cayš" (he suffers from hardship).

However, such situational analysis based on the idea that no linguistic or contextual factors are reflected in a linguistic form presupposes that the text is a nucleus around which other contextual factors cluster; otherwise, the translator would be lost in an unlimited semiotic commutability¹. Although context is a crucial element in determining the structure of the text, the latter in its turn shapes and defines context. Thus, the analysis at the textual level is part of a thorough approach to translation. Nonetheless, text should not be viewed as another kind of sentence only bigger (Halliday and Hasan 1989). That is, text is not a mere composite of linguistic elements organised hierarchically: words combined to create phrases, and sentences to form text. Text is rather a communicative unit which borrows its meaning from both the compositionality of its linguistic elements as well as its context. It (text) is both a product and a process; a product in the sense that it is the creation of an author and a process in that it involves the negotiation of meaning that may vary according to the participants of discourse (producers and receivers of text) (Hatim and Mason 1990:3-4).

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

¹ For an elaborate discussion of semiotic commutability, see Peirce 1931.

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

1.4 Conclusion

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

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

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

Thus, the task of the translation teachers becomes difficult as they must concentrate on comparing not only the linguistic features of the two languages

in question but also the features of the two cultures. The task becomes even more intractable when translation involves texts from widely unrelated cultures such as the Arabic- and English-speaking worlds. Comparative teaching can be useful in this respect as trainees should be able to take into account the different cultural presuppositions in the two languages involved.

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

Having touched upon the problem of equivalence in translation, it would appear difficult to analyse translation in a systematic way because translation involves more than transferring words or structures; it also involves a network of ideas, meanings and above all socio-cultural norms and traditions. Translation should not be observed from one angle only. An interdisciplinary approach, which involves the interaction of all these models must be effected. However, it is an undeniable fact that the approaches discussed above offer

some insights that could be of great help for the translation teacher as we shall attempt to show in the following chapter. In our analysis of the students' errors all these angles will be taken into consideration and will be checked in terms of the gravity of the error.

CHAPTER TWO

Re-examination of Translation Teaching Models

2.1 Introduction

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

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

Analysis and assessment of the students' performance become a useful tool to check the (in)validity of such doubts. Yet, assessment is not merely a tool for judging wrong performance of students. I believe that one of the main goals must

be to appraise the effectiveness of the total teaching programme before any attempt is made to assess the students' performance and errors. It therefore becomes necessary to consider and review the translation teaching model from which any criteria or measures for judging errors must essentially derive.

2.2 Teaching Translation: the Conflict between Theory and Practice

Translation theory offers more than one model. Different models have been proposed and subjected to heated debate amongst theoreticians. To this effect, students are often confused as to what translation theory is and what the best model is that can consolidate their translation skills. As a result, the teaching of translation has been seriously impeded by what Snell-Hornby (1983:105) described as the great gulf between translation theory and practice. She points out that while

students express frustration at being burdened with theoretical consideration (both of translation theory and general linguistics) which they feel have nothing to do with the activity of translating, scholars talk scathingly of translators who are unwilling to investigate the theoretical basis of their work, thus reducing it to a "mere practical skill".

This can be traced back, as Thomas (1992:117-119) postulates, to the way models of translation are presented by their creators. The translation theorist develops a model and argues that it is better than the others. Therefore, the issue remains an area of open-ended discussion with no explicit consensual theory.

Thomas proposes an eclectic approach whereby translation theory is determined according to the type of text being translated. He suggests that the identification of a translation problem should precede the choice of the appropriate theory. For example, the decision to translate the following line from one of Shakespeare's sonnets:

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

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

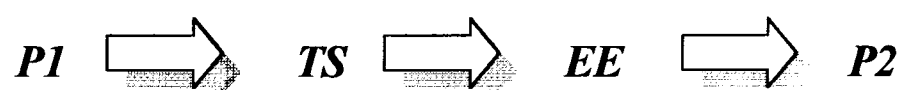
(24a) hal lī muqāranatuki bi-yawmin rabī^Cī?

(Shall I compare thee to a Spring's day?)

(24b) hal lī muqāranatuki bi-yawmin ṣayfī

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

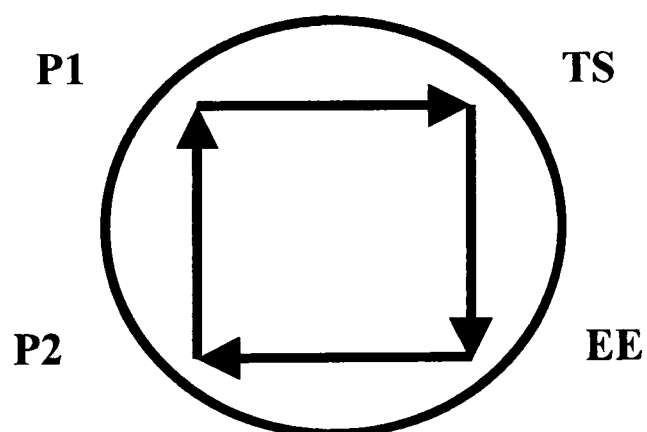
Thus, before making a decision about a translation teaching theory, we should follow the procedures Thomas (1992) borrowed from Karl Popper: identify a teaching problem (P1), introduce a trial solution (TS), an error elimination (EE), and finally construct the theory according to the resulting situation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



(Figure One: the linear process of translation)

In this respect, an EA of students' performance would provide a crucial feedback to the teacher helping to identify P1 as a first step towards determination of the

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



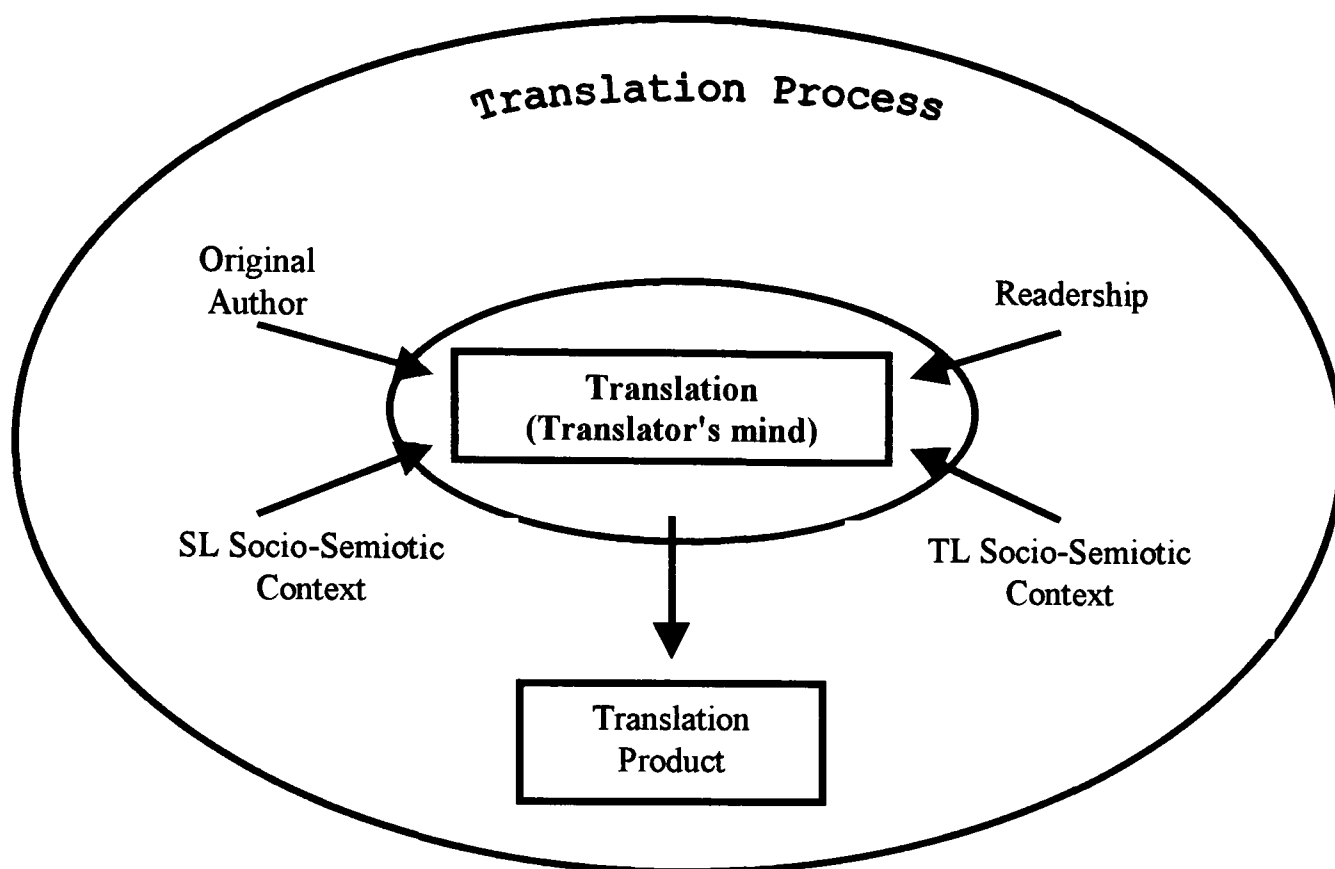
(Figure Two: the cyclical process of translation)

Any translation practice presupposes, therefore, an existing theoretical framework. But to determine how translation theory operates or rather should operate remains a controversial issue among linguists. In crude terms, the debate revolves around the process versus product dichotomy, a view that is expressed by Hartmann (1980:52) as follows:

one of the perennial difficulties in translation theory is that we do not have direct access to the *act* or process of translating, so we have to rely on indirect evidence in the form of the *product* or result of that process.

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

- a. Translating, which is the process by which we translate a communicative occurrence taking place within a social framework.
- b. A translation, which he identifies as the product of translating i.e. the translated text.
- c. Translation, which is the abstract that encompasses both the process of translation and the product of that process.



(Figure Three: translation network)

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

Having accepted that translation is both a process and a product, teachers are confronted with the problem of how to represent these two aspects in the teaching of translation. They can make use in this respect of the different existing methodological approaches to translation teaching. Kussmaul (1995:6) argues that the value of these approaches lies essentially in their pedagogical function. He writes,

...they [different approaches to translation] can help us to put our students on the right path, as it were, and if they have lost their way these approaches can help them to get a clearer view of their destination again.

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

2.3 Translation Teaching Models

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

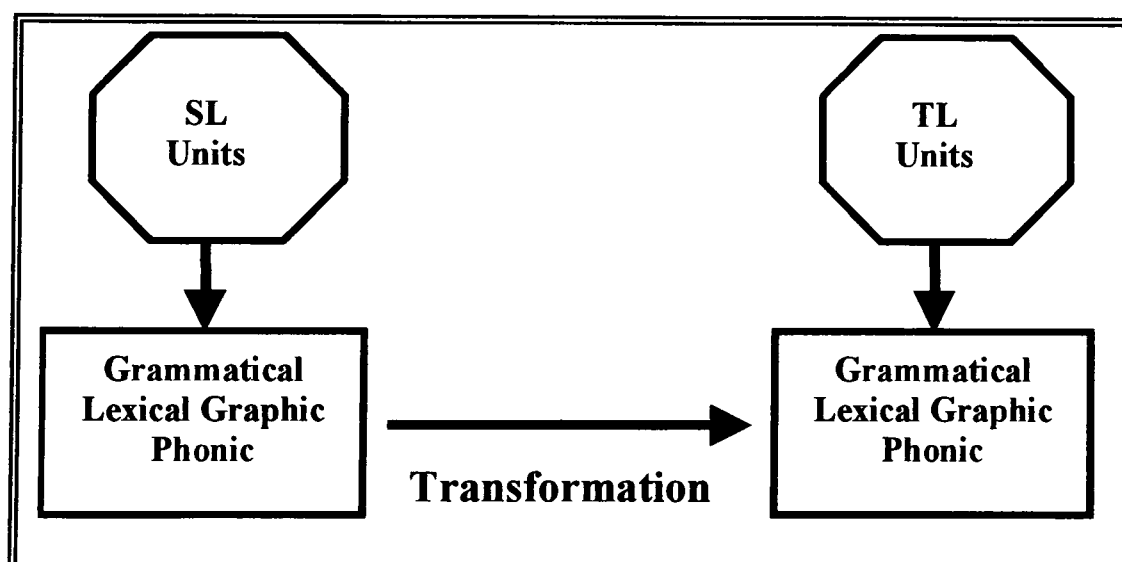
2.3.1 The Linguistic Model

The structural theory of language constitutes the backbone of the linguistic model. The study of language is thought of as an analysis of the text at different levels of structural organisation viz. phonology, morphology and syntax (Richards 1986:48). This scientific approach to language analysis is believed to

offer the foundations for the ideal approach to translation teaching. Translation training, it is assumed, entails the mastering of elements or building blocks of the languages in question (i.e. that are being taught) and acquiring the rules by which these elements are combined from phonic, graphic, lexical and grammatical units. One of the main proponents of applying the linguistic approach to translation is Catford (1965:viii) who holds that,

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

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



(Figure Four: the linguistic model of translation)

Although Catford's claim involves equality of grammatical structures as well as the meaning between lexical items as can be illustrated through Sentence 25:

(25) wa-nādaynā ixwānanā fī l-^Cālam

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

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

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

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

(26) Make hay while the sun shines

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

(26a) iṣna^C al-qaš^C inda ṭulū^C al-šams.

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

(26b) lā tuʔajjil^C amal al-yawm ilā l-ḡad

(do not postpone what should be done today till tomorrow).

We can also claim that this theory of language does not go beyond sentence level. There is often a tendency to manipulate language and disregard meaning

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

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

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

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

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

The determination of the metaphorical meaning of "squeeze" and "pips squeak" is even harder for a foreign reader such as the Arab translator. Although the meaning of the formula "squeeze somebody until the pips squeek" may be apparent for a native speaker, it is not often the case for a foreign reader.

Formulae are often parts of language that non-native speakers are less exposed to and therefore their meaning becomes difficult unless retrieved from the whole co-text. The translator should in this regard consider the text as a sequence of interdependent sentences rather than singly occurring fragments. For example, consideration of previous information conveyed in the text will undoubtedly make the interpretation of such fragments much easier:

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

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

Context is also a crucial aspect of translation. For instance, unless we know the situational context of Sentence 28, various interpretations arise:

(28) he is going home

(i) he is going to his house.

(ii) he is going to his country.

(iii) he is going to his home-town.

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

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

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

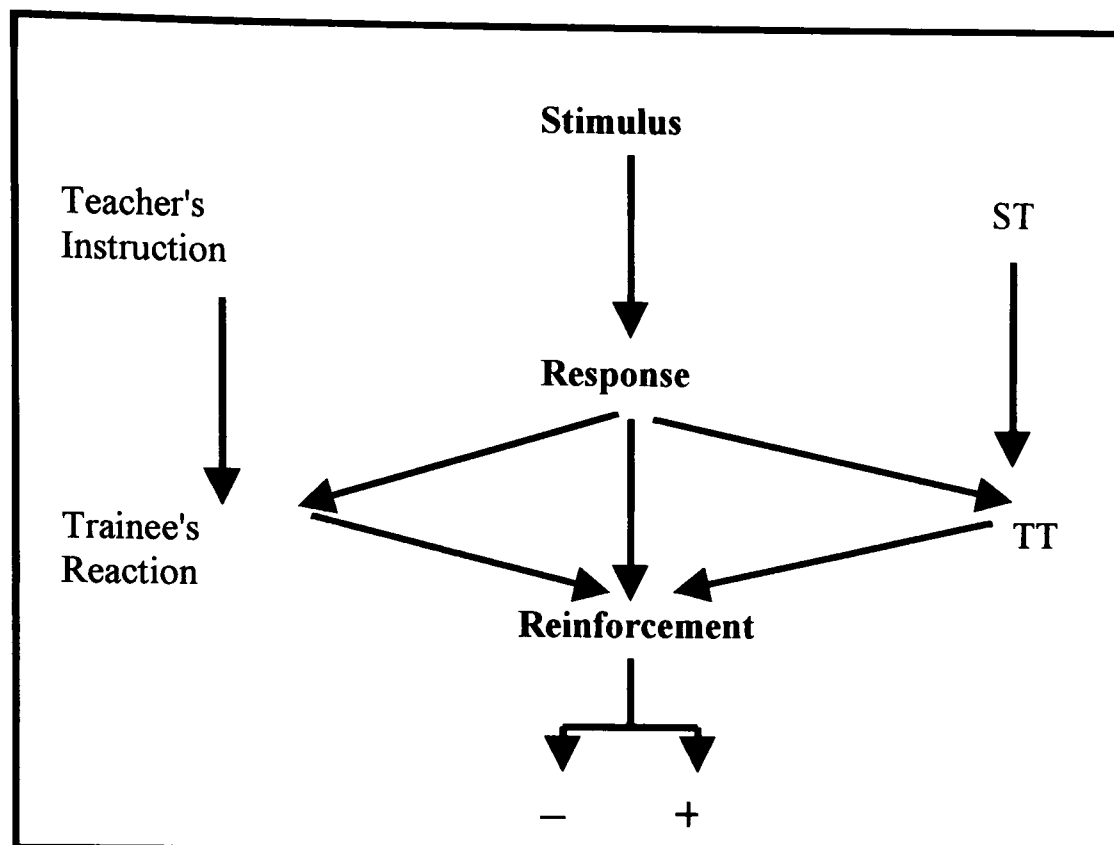
a method cannot be based simply on a theory of language. It also needs to refer to the psychology of learning and to learning theory (Richards 1986:50).

This mechanistic view of translation is similar to the behaviourist concept of language. Behaviourism is an empirically based approach to language¹ (cf. Skinner 1957). It claims that language is a habit, the learning of which is dependent on three crucial elements: stimulus, response, and reinforcement.

¹ For a non-empirical view of language, see Chomsky 1965.

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

If we view translation as a behaviourist practice, both the ST and the teacher's instruction on how to translate represent the stimulus component of the process. The response, on the other hand, is triggered by stimulus. It represents the trainees' reaction to the ST and the teacher's instruction. Finally, reinforcement is an important element in the training process because it increases the likelihood that the behaviour will not occur again, by positively reinforcing trainees' successful translation and negatively reinforcing their inadequate translation. The whole process can be represented in the following figure:



(Figure Five: the behavioural process of translation)

Let us consider again the reinforcement procedure, as it is a complex but essential one. If the TT is an adequate reflection of the ST, this means that the trainee has succeeded in following or adhering to the teacher's instruction. As a result, there will be positive reinforcement to the trainee's production (TT) and obviously to her/his method of translation. But what will happen if the trainee's reaction does not conform to the teacher's instruction? How can we judge a translation to be right or wrong if we consider the fact that a ST may have different but adequate translations?

Obviously, if teachers view translation as a habit reinforcement where errors should be eradicated by all means, they would fail to account for the creativity of trainees who can find effective ways of translation other than the teacher's. This is because translation training is a process that necessarily involves trial and

error. It is generally held that in a learning/training process, learners who play a reactive role by responding to the teacher's stimulus are often left with

little control over the content, pace, or style of learning.

They are not encouraged to initiate interaction, because this may lead to mistakes (Richards, 1986:56).

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

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

2.3.2 The Communicative Model

There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless (Hymes 1972:278).

The communicative model comes partly as a response to criticism that faced the linguistic model. Emphasis has moved to another fundamental dimension that was inadequately covered in the linguistic model - the functional and communicative potential of the text (e.g. Searle 1969 and Halliday 1978).

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

Therefore,

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

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

(29) allāhumma fa-šhad innī qad ballaġtu

allāhumma fa-šhad innī qad ballaġtu

allāhumma fa-šhad innī qad ballaġtu

(As God is my witness, I have conveyed the message.

As God is my witness, I have conveyed the message.

As God is my witness, I have conveyed the message).

The repetition in the Arabic text is very crucial to meaning as it is used as a stylistic device to emphasise the message (see also 4.5.2). Its parallel counterpart in the TL, however, produces an unnatural text because repetition is most often avoided in English. Therefore, a natural communicative equivalent could be:

(29b) I declare, as God is my witness, that the message has been conveyed

where repetition is omitted in the English text but its communicative function of emphasis is re-expressed by converting the SL active voice structure to a passive voice TT, as English would favour a passive construction in this context. Newmark (1988a:82-83) views the approach as an approximate translation where a SL cultural word is translated by a TL word. The choice of features indigenous to the target language and culture is made in preference to features with their roots in the SL. The result, Hervey and Higgins (1992:28) argue, is to minimise the forcing of SL-specific features in the TT, thereby converting it to some extent into a natural TL text within a target cultural setting.

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

(30) Alice in Wonderland

can be transplanted into Arabic as in Sentence 30a:

(30a) laylā fī bilād al-^Cajāʾib

(Layla in Wonderland).

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

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

However, the principle of natural and similar effect most often compromises the originality of the ST and may even alter its function as mentioned before. A more moderate view of this approach is Newmark's (1988b:47) communicative translation where he assumes that translation should:

render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.

The difference between the two (Nida and Newmark) is that Nida distinguishes between (i) formal equivalence as the closest possible match of form and content most applicable in legal and diplomatic contexts and (ii) dynamic equivalence as the closest match of effect. Newmark (1988a:39), on the other hand, distinguishes between semantic and communicative translation. Hatim and Mason (1990:7) argue, in this respect, that the

advantage of [Newmark's] formulation is that the categories (semantic and communicative)...cover more of the middle ground of translation practice. Semantic translation attempting to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structures of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original is less extreme than formal equivalence and therefore conforms more closely to common translation strategy.

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

faithfulness to the ST and altering the type and function that the text is set to fulfil.

2.3.3 The Text-Linguistic Model

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

2.3.3.1 Standards of Textuality

The importance of the text linguistic model is that it treats the text not as a set of separate words and sentences and not as a linguistic unit intended to impress or merely to inform, but as a whole communicative unit which derives its meaning from other aspects of context. The treatment of

sentences taken in isolation from their surrounding text will often be highly ambiguous, and sometimes practically meaningless; much of the message of text itself can only be understood when seen as a single structure (Papegaaïj and Schubert 1988:20).

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

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

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

i. Cohesion and Coherence

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

(31) *lā yuʾmin aḥadukum ḥattā yuḥibba li-axīh mā yuḥibb li-nafsih*

If the translation does not preserve the condition relation that holds in the ST, meaning can be distorted, as in Sentence 31a:

(31a) He who wishes for his brother what he wishes for himself truly believes in God.

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

(31b) None of you [truly] believes in God until he wishes for his brother what he wishes for himself.

Notice that the addition of the adverb "truly" is vital to the determination of the expression's intended meaning: belief in God does not depend only on wishing your fellow-humans well since this is just part of what is involved (Megrab 1997:232). In dealing with such texts, the analyst should carefully observe meanings and how they are conceptually related within the scope of what is intended and, as is apparent, the text-linguistic model offers the necessary framework to complete this task.

ii. Intentionality and Acceptability

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

Another task of the analyst is to examine whether the two notions in the ST are well represented in the TT. But this is not an easy task because, for instance, once intentionality, is identified, the translator faces two alternatives, namely

managing or monitoring the text (Beaugrande de and Dressler 1981:113-137). In managing, the translator attempts to manage or steer the ST in a manner favourable to the TT goals in respect of the TL receivers' response. This technique is usually very effective in translation teaching as it leaves some freedom for the students to learn how to develop an approach to translation that suits their personal characteristics and to act as responsible translators (Holz-Manttari, 1984:180-81).

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

iii. Informativity, Situationality and Intertextuality

The three remaining standards of textuality concern the way the text's information is structured, the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of

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

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

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

- a. Efficiency, which requires economy of effort by participants in discourse (producer and receiver).
- b. Effectiveness, which consists of creating the required conditions for the achievement of the communicative goal aimed at.
- c. Appropriateness, which attempts to provide a balance between (a) and (b).

This is not an easy task to accomplish because efficiency and effectiveness tend to be in conflict. Thus, the teachers' analysis of their students' translations should allow scope of encouragement of trainees to make a personal but responsible decision, because translation is a process which usually requires decision-making. A teacher-dominant view of translation teaching which emphasises a strict adherence to the teacher's method or technique rather than giving way to the student's role would rather produce

translators who have primarily learned how to adapt their translating styles to please their various teachers, and [show] the general passivity and absence of communication which are the natural consequences of performance magistrale (Király 1995:23).

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

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

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

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

pattern that perpetuates and organises the other standards. Thus, inadequacies in translation, as Neubert and Shreve (ibid.) postulate,

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

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

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

2.3.3.2 Text-Types

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

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

Proponents of the functional typological model (e.g. Newmark 1988a, 1988b) divide texts according to Bühler's (1965) three main functions of language: the expressive, the informative and the vocative. The expressive type consists of the

feelings of the author (producer) regardless of any response. The second type concerns the facts of a topic such as reported ideas or theories. The third type is concerned with the readership or the addressee. One advantage of this typology is that it makes it possible to list each text-type under a function. But the functional typology overlooks how these functions are rhetorically represented in the text.

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

Yet, the three typological notions (formal, functional and rhetorical) may not exclude each other. They overlap in some instances; for example, both the functional category "vocative" and the rhetorical category "instructive" tend to

aim at the readership. The notions may also complement each other; for example, the formal categories may serve as a format for either the functional or rhetorical typology. Texts can be categorised as (a.) expressive, literary or (b.) expository, scientific.

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

2.4 Conclusion

This summary of translation theory and teaching models is an attempt to integrate the empirical study of error analysis into the theory of translation. Translation teachers usually choose a model of translation and judge their students' performance accordingly. The process of analysis is not, however, as simple, since models of translation differ in focus and therefore in assessment. We have seen that the linguistic model locates meaning within the structural system, the communicative model within culture and communication, and the text-linguistic model within the text. We have shown that the text-linguistic model is more comprehensive, involving, as it does, the interaction of all the different models, although sometimes translating a text can be mainly related to one of them, depending on the knowledge that prevails in it. More important, translating is made more successful not by adapting one particular model but by

a better understanding of how different perspectives on translation relate to each other. This view of translation is also expressed by Neubert and Shreve (1992:32) who believe that despite the particularities of each model, their interdependencies are much greater and can contribute to the establishment of a comprehensive and integrated theory of translation.

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

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

CHAPTER THREE

Evaluation of Translation Errors: Procedures and Criteria

3.1 Introduction

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

First, errors in the corpus (students' translations) must be detected. For this, it seems necessary that the teacher should make an accurate critical analysis of the students' translations so as to be able to identify errors. In describing the identified errors, teachers should try to see in what way the student has failed to communicate or transfer the ST message by comparing the ST and the student's target product. Then, they will have to explain how the trainee has

deviated from an adequate translation and what rules s/he has broken. Finally, the teacher should adopt evaluative measures and seek appropriate pedagogical assistance.

3.2 Preliminaries to Error Evaluation

3.2.1 Identification

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

Translation quality assessment should then be performed in such terms rather than the right/wrong dichotomy. Satisfactory/acceptable translation is used here to indicate that the translated text cannot be judged as simply wrong or right as it is in monolingual statements such as:

(33) the earth is flat.

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

(34) ^camaliyya istiṣhādiyya

(martyr operation)

is often rendered into English as:

(34a) suicide attack.

The reverse translation of the English text (34a) will produce in Arabic a different meaning from the original text. This is likely to be because of a clash of cultures which is enacted in the two linguistic texts. In the Western culture such acts are often associated with violence, terrorism, and even fanaticism, whatever their reason or purpose. In the Arab-Islamic culture, however, such acts are a sign of self-sacrifice and courage especially when they are committed against a so-called "enemy" or "occupier". However, despite the ideological shift in translation (34a), it cannot be judged as simply true because it deviates from the ST meaning or simply false because it has been managed in a manner that serves the TL reader's thought and therefore the communicative purpose of translation.

To this effect, translation teachers may differ as to which translation can be considered acceptable/accurate or unacceptable/inaccurate and consequently as to what is to be considered as erroneous. An error sanctioned by a teacher as serious may be overlooked by another provided that the meaning is still effected. Consider Sentence 35:

(35) the decree was signed by the president

(35a) wuqqi^C a l-qarār min qibal al-raʿīs

(35b) waqqa^C a l-raʿīs al-qarār.

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

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

(36) Jesus, Son of God

(36a) ʿĪsā ibn Allah.

Nonetheless, not all translation failures can be clearly identified as either belonging to the category of "mistake" or "error". For instance, it would be hard to tell whether the inappropriateness of Sentence 36a is due to the

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

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

idiosyncratic style and the strategies used. This process is referred to as a plausible interpretation (ibid.).

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

3.2.2 Description

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

We may, however, still wonder how teachers design their reconstruction to which the student's erroneous translation is contrasted. This evaluative

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

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

(37) al-ijrāʿān al-awwalān

(37a) the two first procedures

- (37b) the first two procedures
- (38) the lesson is not easy
- (38a) al-dars laysa sahlān
- (38b) laysa l-dars sahlān
- (39) Hope Hospital adopts a non-smoking policy
- (39a) tattabi^Cu mustašfā hūb siyāsāt ^Cadam al-tadxīn
- (39b) yattabi^Cu mustašfā hūb siyāsāt ^Cadam al-tadxīn

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

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

However, a teacher's task is not restricted to the description of errors. S/He should also discover the cause of the error in order to provide a solution. For instance, the teacher's description of the erroneous Sentence 40a below by providing the appropriate translation in Sentence 40b is not adequate in

determining or constructing a reteaching plan to enable students to avoid errors of the same type that are generally made by Arab students:

(40) dawr al-i^Clām fī l-mujtama^C

(40a) the role of **the** media in **the** society

(40b) the role of media in society.

(41) super predators arrive

(41a) luṣūṣ fawqa al-^Cāda waṣalū

(41b) wuṣūl luṣūṣ fawqa l-^Cāda

In this case, the teacher needs to explain the errors in Sentence 40a as resulting from an inaccurate transfer from Arabic due to the divergence in use between the two languages of the definite article system. In Sentence 41a, the student transferred the English sentence structure (SVO) into Arabic which requires a different syntagmatic distribution (VSO). Though a possible structure without a verb can be rendered as 41b notice, however, that one of the characteristics of Arabic is the relative fluidity of its word order as it permits as many ways of ordering the constituents of the sentence as possible (Abdul-Raof 1998:44). The transfer in Sentence 41a is from the foreign language (L_2) into the mother tongue (L_1) in contrast to the common assumption that transfer errors occur the other way round, i.e. from L_1 to L_2 .

Trainees need to be introduced to such linguistic differences; it is the teacher's responsibility to explain such differences and make them part of translation strategies. Since translation errors vary a great deal, seeking different remedies according to the type of error would be realistic in translation practice. Thus, a classification of errors, though often overlapping, is essential. It should be

noted, however, that such a compartmentalisation does not necessarily imply a clear-cut line between translation errors as an error can be classified in more than one category.

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

At the micro-level, the syntactical type is usually more important in foreign language teaching but appears also in translations (Kussmaul, 1995:143-55). It includes errors such as the wrong use of conjugation, prepositions, agreement and word order. Semantic errors often refer to the wrong selection of a word's meaning particularly in judging between polysemes and synonyms such as the French "savoir"/"connaitre" or the English "see"/"watch", or the Arabic "inṣarafa" (went away)/"ġādara" (departed) or "akala" (ate) /"tanāwala" (had a meal or tackled a certain subject). The stylistic type represents the student's inability to distinguish between intrinsic stylistic features peculiar to each language or different situations within the same language. Indeed, different

styles are often used with different genres. For instance, repetition is a prominent stylistic feature that characterises Arabic texts and often shows up in English texts translated by native Arab speakers. In English, however, repetition is often considered redundant and is usually required to be avoided in translation from Arabic (cf. Williams 1984).

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

(42) execute one's orders

(43) do one's orders.

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

(44) cops came to his home

(45) the police came to his home.

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

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

advised to take into consideration the readership. Overt translation, on the other hand, is one which

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

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

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

3.2.3 Explanation

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

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

The trainee translator's task becomes more complex than that of the foreign language learner. While the latter is well advised to use the thought patterns of

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

Kussmaul (ibid.) points out in this regard that

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

An approach to explain the process of error in translation has been developed recently (e.g. House and Blum-Kulka 1986, Kussmaul, 1995, Fraser, 1996). The approach draws on the findings of cognitive science and information processing. Trainees are asked to verbalise as many of their thoughts as possible. The performance is generally tape-recorded and the think-aloud protocols, that is the written representation of the recordings, provide the basis for the analysis of the student's mental process involved in translation. The approach is indeed a step forward in the development of a coherent account of

the cognitive process of translation without which explanation of errors would be mere speculation and guesses.

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

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

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

3.3 Possible Criteria for Evaluation

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

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

(46) iyyākum wa-iyyākum an ta^Ctaqidū anna ayyata muškila lā
tastahiqqu ijtīmā^Ca l-majlis

(46a) Don't, don't ever think that any problem does not deserve the meeting of the Council.

In Sentence 46a, the speech act of command is realised but there is a communicative failure as such directness is not customary in a similar target situation and may even cause offence. Communicative translation would comprise other levels of meaning.

(46b) the Council will give full attention to all problems.

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

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

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

3.3.1 The Frequency Criterion

This criterion is quantitatively orientated and assesses errors in terms of the number of their occurrence. Most translation teachers would, however, opt for a quality assessment as translation involves a transfer of meaning which can be affected by the quality of the error rather than its quantity. Yet, a high distribution of an error can always alarm teachers and arouse their suspicion, especially when it is widespread among various students. Thus, we can distinguish, in terms of the frequency criterion two different ways for assessment of the relative gravity of the error.

The first relates the gravity of the error to its frequency in the work of the same individual student. Obviously, the procedure is not often easy to achieve by the teacher who normally cannot single out every individual error on account of economy of time and effort. That is, the teacher cannot, in addition to determining the distribution of each student's errors, design reteaching methods for each student. This is not indeed a practical goal if we take into account the fact that, because of shortage of time, the teacher has to satisfy the needs of different classes rather than individual students.

The second is more likely to be of interest to our subject teachers as it concerns the frequency of errors within a group of students, the most recurrent being the most serious. It is not surprising that most errors falling within the parameters of this criterion have been heavily penalised (see 6.2.1). Indeed, frequent recurrence of an error-type among students should urge teachers to view their teaching methods and material, and consider reteaching or remedial measures if necessary. This is because high frequency of an error-type means that the teaching method either ignores aspects which represent the students' areas of difficulty or simply fails to address them correctly. Corrective measures should then be initiated depending on the type and source of error. Unfortunately, checking what remedial or corrective measures our subject teachers would adopt in such cases falls outside the scope of this research owing to time limitations.

In respect of the frequency criterion, some foreign language educationalists suggest statistical methods to account for the gravity of the error. For example, Norish (1983:103-4) proposes that we can calculate the relative frequency by multiplying the number of errors by one hundred and dividing the total by the number of words in the same text, so that a small quotient represents a low level of seriousness, and vice versa.

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

(47) he is studying linguistics

(47a) yadrus al-luġa

Translation 47a may be acceptable for a laymen in the field of language and linguistics although we recognise the wrong selection of the word "al-luġa" (language) instead of "al-lisāniyyāt" (linguistics). On the contrary, in a situation where distinction between "language" and "linguistics" is essential to the meaning of text, the error can be regarded as serious.

Davies (1982:30) suggests in this respect a similar view, though more restrictive, claiming that errors should not be evaluated on the basis of their recurrence, but on the frequency of texts or constructions in which they occur. For example, a student is bound to make more mistakes with article use than with, say, use of the present perfect tense because the need to use articles arises more frequently than that of modality (see discussion of errors relating to articles and modality in 4.3.2, 5.2.2, and 5.2.4). Nonetheless, it is unlikely that our teachers would say that such errors or such erroneous constructions are serious solely on the basis of their frequency; they would decidedly ignore the fact that translation is a quality instead of simply a quantity process. The quality of the text can be breached by grammatical errors affecting its syntax, semantic errors affecting its intelligibility, or pragmatic errors affecting the general communicative goal of the ST. For this reason, other criteria are needed in order to examine the different basis upon which our teachers base their judgement of errors.

3.3.2 The Generality Criterion

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

(48) the birds are singing

(48a) yuǧarrid

singing-sing. -fem

al-ṭuyūr

birds-pl-masc

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

(48b) tuǧarrid al-ṭuyūr.

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

(49) jamma^Ctu kull al-ma^Clūmāt

(49a) I gathered all informations.

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

According to the generality criterion, grammatical errors are more serious than lexical ones as error gravity is determined in terms of the syntactic structures they violate. Norish (1983:32) distinguishes in this respect between two types of error. The first involves local errors which are evaluated as less serious since they involve single lexical items which are unlikely to affect the entire

understanding of the message. The second involves global errors which occur in main clauses and are likely to affect the meaning of the whole message. Such a claim of this nature is unlikely to account for the complexity of translation quality assessment. An error relating to a single lexical item can be more detrimental to the meaning of a message than a breach in a general grammatical rule at main clause level or otherwise (see 3.3.3).

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

3.3.3 The Intelligibility Criterion

The generality criterion discussed above implies that the acquisition of lexis is a less fundamental skill for the translator than the mastery of grammatical structures. The intelligibility criterion, however, holds that we are more likely to be comprehensible with the help of meaning of words without syntax than with syntactic structures without words. That is, the communicative goals of a text are more seriously affected if the breaches involve wrong selection of words rather than syntactic structures.

According to the intelligibility criterion, lexical errors can affect the intelligibility of the translation in two different ways; first by making the intended message totally unintelligible and thus causing a breakdown in the communicative function of the text; and second, by distorting the meaning without impairing communication, so that the TL reader understands something other than the original author's intentions. The importance of this criterion to our analysis lies in the fact that it determines how teachers differently assess distortion of meaning and disruption of communication. For instance, the translation of Sentence 50a below is likely to be unintelligible or nonsensical to a TL reader while the Hadith translation in Sentence 51a distorts the meaning:

(50) yahtāj ilā ^Camaliyyat naql damm

(50a) he needs an operation of blood transport

(50b) he needs a blood transfusion

(51) al-yad al-^Culyā xayr min al-yad al-suflā

(51a) the upper hand is better than the lower hand

(51b) the giving hand is better than the receiving hand.

Although the TL readers may be confused as to what "an operation of blood transport" means, they will probably be able to understand what the actual SL message is about. In 51a, however s/he is likely to associate "the upper hand" with power and authority which is completely different from the ST intended meaning successfully conveyed in Sentence 51b.

Nida and Taber (1969) among others recognise the impact of lexical and cultural words which tend to be etymologically obscure or unrelated to any corresponding words in the TL on the quality of translation. They suggest componential analysis as a technique to handle the lack of cross-linguistic correspondence between words. Newmark (1988b:114) points out that as far as translation and componential analysis are concerned,

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

Consider, for instance, Sentence 52:

(52) tanāqalat al-ṣuḥuf al-xabar

(52a) the newspapers reported the news.

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

	Reliability	Informativeness	Readability	Objectivity
Arab Daily	-	-	+	-
English Daily	-	+	+	+

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

Here the lack of informativeness and objectivity in Arab dailies, in contrast with their English counterparts, is mainly due to media censorship in the Arab

world and the fact that most of them are state-run. That both media share the feature of readability is motivated by the desire to reinforce or impose a certain ideological path. For this reason, the reliability of media in both cultures is often questioned by the audience.

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

(53) the story is **interesting**.

The word "interesting" in Sentence 53 can convey different meanings depending on con-text. It can be rendered as "mufid" (useful), "muhimm" (important), "mumti^C" (amusing), "musallī" (entertaining) etc. Componential analysis on its own cannot solve this problem of multiple choices with which translators are often faced. Only the con-text can help discover the intended meaning of the original author. That is, the meaning of a word is dependent on

other words which precede and follow, in and outside the text, and cannot be just atomised into semantic units irrespective of the linguistic and socio-semiotic situation of occurrence. We would therefore expect teachers to conceive different levels of seriousness in their assessment of intelligibility errors rather than be confined to the binary dichotomy of wrong/correct. For instance, the seriousness of confusion caused when substituting partial synonyms as in the "big/large" class is not the same as that caused by synonyms which are not mutually interchangeable in a certain context as in "big girl/large girl".

3.3.4 The Interpretation Criterion

The interpretation criterion takes the ST as a point of departure. It is precisely about how far the trainee's interpretation of the ST personified in the TL is correct or deviant. The teacher checks on the basis of a comparison between ST and TT to see whether all the information is included, and nothing is added, omitted and/or different (Larson, 1984:489-90). In other words, the criterion relates to the traditional paradigm of faithfulness in translation. Failure to be faithful to the ST can be either conscious or unconscious and the distinction between the two is essential in translation quality assessment. We shall investigate teachers' awareness of this distinction and the extent to which it is implemented in their assessment of the students' errors in Chapter Six. Now, I shall provide an account of how this operates in translation error assessment.

If the trainee consciously deviates from the ST in order to fulfil demands of the readership, the assessment procedure should be rather appreciative unless the circumstances are inappropriate. Consider, for instance, Sentence 54 below uttered by a Republican actor on the day of the American presidential elections:

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

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

(54a) ṣahīh anna amrīkā tu^Cānī min ba^Cḍ al-mašākil wa-lākin lam yaḥin waqtu taḡyīr raʿīsihā.

(54b) laqad aṣāba amrīkā maraḍ al-zukām wa-lākin hāḍa laysa bi-l-waqt al-munāsib li-taḡyīr raʿīsihā.

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

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

On the other hand, if the translator unconsciously shifts from the ST, the effect on the quality of translation is likely to be serious and the error is, therefore, to

be assessed as such. Such errors are most often a result of misinterpretation of the ST which in turn produces a "betrayed" version of the ST.

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

3.3.5 The Naturalness Criterion

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

In the process of my data analysis, it seems that problems relating to naturalness often arise when the text is of a covert type, which necessitates the management of the text in a way which meets the expectations of the TL audience. The risk of modifying the original text producer's intentions and discouraging inter-

cultural understanding is often higher with naturalistic approaches to translation. A naturalistic approach usually seeks a domestication of the ST into the TL and culture, thus compromising the culture-specific meaning of the ST. This process of acculturation often denies the TL reader the opportunity to acquaint her/himself with foreign thought patterns and violates the fundamental principle of historical fidelity in translation (Beekman and Callow 1974:203). On the other hand, encouraging a non-naturalistic approach to translation has the benefit of enriching the linguistic repertoire of the TL. In other words, the incorporation of SL features into TL features helps TL readers develop their potential for new terminologies. This whole process is referred to by Neubert (1990:100) as translational cross-fertilisation.

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

language its unique ornamental value; this utilisation, however, can be seen as awkward in English because of its straightforward nature (Kaplan 1966:6-10).

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

(55) **inna allađī yata^Cālā ^Calā l-jamāhīr wa-yata^Cālā ^Calā l-ša^Cb bi-^Cilmih aw bi-rutbatih aw bi-darajatih yajib an yasquṭ tahta aqdāminā l-?ān.**

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

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

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

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

3.4 Conclusion

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

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

It is held here that if productive translation research is to continue, we must consider the usefulness and availability of error evaluation to advance translation training and address the concerns of teachers. Although EA has been traditionally criticised for being retrospective and result-oriented, recent research (e.g. Kussmaul, 1995) shows that it can be both product- and process-oriented.

However, it should be noted that errors are just part of the students' development process in training. Any sound account of this process should involve the other part of the students' performance which does not involve error-making. In other words, the teacher's analysis should not be limited solely to those areas that are problematic to the students but can be extended to those mastered skills in order to draw a complete picture of the training process.

CHAPTER FOUR

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

4.1 Introducing the Data

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

4.1.1 Database One: Translation-Tests

The first database consists of four passages given as translation tests to Arab trainee-translators at Garyounis University, Libya (the four texts are attached as Appendix I). Testees (for each we assigned an alphabetical letter from A to K) were asked to produce the translations of three text-types (argumentative, instructive and expository) from English into their native language (Arabic)

and one thème translation (argumentative), i.e. into their foreign language (English). The four test-translations represent the main Hallidayan text types (expository, argumentative and instructive). Taking more than one sample from each trainee by testing them in terms of different text-types has two main implications for the present work. First, it increases representativeness of the student performance which varies even in similar tasks, let alone in producing different text-types. Second, it ensures the validity and reliability of the assessment of students' translations because the more samples we have from the output of each testee the more reliable the assessment is likely to be (Hughes 1989:81). Thus, the separation between text types is expected to provide a balanced assessment of errors because, as Hatim (1994:xiii) observes, the demands of each translation task vary according to the type of text being translated, certain types often being more demanding than others.

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

Trainees who undertook the tests were final-year undergraduate students of translation at the University of Garyounis. Their ages varied between twenty one and twenty eight. We did not examine their language proficiency but students who enrol for the translation course normally have an intermediate

level of English and an advanced level of Arabic. English is a compulsory subject in preparatory and secondary education in Libya. It is taught six hours a week in secondary schools and four hours a week in preparatory schools. The method followed emphasises the teaching of grammar. Teachers frequently resort to translation into Arabic in the class. Arabic, on the other hand, is the language of instruction in pre-university education. It is also supported outside the class through media and communication channels. As it is expected, university students' proficiency in Arabic is normally high compared with that in English.

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

Students were asked to translate from English into Arabic three texts which correspond to their text-typological practice. Translation into their foreign language (English) was tested through one text only.

As to the analysis of the students' translations, it starts with the identification of discrepancies in each text. These discrepancies are, afterwards, described by locating their linguistic realisations. That is, the actual part of the text which bears the discrepancy is defined in terms of the descriptive parameters (syntactic, semantic, and stylistic) which have been set out in Chapter Three (see 3.2.2). Because the analysis of the macro-structure of a text can be verified in translation only through the choice and arrangement of its actual linguistic signs (given that they are the usual feedback that trainees are provided with), syntactic, semantic and stylistic errors¹ will also be examined in terms of their effect on the macro-textual level of translations. The descriptive analysis will be carried out separately on each text-type.

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

¹ Errors in the same sample are sometimes discussed in different sections, depending on whether they are syntactic, semantic, or stylistic.

trace interference. Comparison between errors of different text-types can also determine the difficulties inherent in the rhetorical or discursal nature of the text-type being translated.

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

4.1.2 Database Two: the Questionnaire

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

random. I enclosed copies of the four source texts to the questionnaire: one in Arabic (Text One) and three in English (Texts Two, Three and Four).

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

1. Sample 6, Text Three, lines 1-3

...he seized what lay around him...

wa-istafād min kull mā hawlah...

The direction of the translation is obvious because the evaluator will find it in Section A, which contains translation samples from English into Arabic. The contextualisation of the extract is also made easier by mentioning the number of the text and lines as all four texts and their lines are numerated and attached to the questionnaire. Teachers were required to assess these constructions on the basis of two scales. In the first scale, they had to determine the type of error(s) as syntactic, semantic and/or stylistic. In the second scale, they were asked to evaluate the erroneous constructions in terms of their gravity using a score system from 0 to 5. Score 5 stands for most serious errors and 0 for non-errors.

The evaluators were translation teachers at the University of Garyounis whose age varied between thirty five and sixty. They were all educated to a higher degree level (seven were PhD holders and three were MA holders) mainly in the field of Linguistics, but some in Translation Studies. Their teaching experience also varied between six and thirty years. The questionnaire was distributed amongst them at the same university and was collected one week later.

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

4.2 The Analysis

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

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

imperative) to instructional verbs or models and thus the likelihood of tense confusion is smaller because the translation of the indicative present tense, unlike some aspectual tenses, between English and Arabic is straightforward given the non-variation of the two languages in this respect. Such correlations will be explained in the present and subsequent chapter in terms of our error-taxonomy (syntactic, semantic and stylistic).

4.3 Syntactic Errors

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

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

4.3.1 Tense/Aspect Errors

Before proceeding with the discussion of errors relating to tense and aspect, it is worth giving a brief definition of the meaning of the two terms in the present context. Both tense and aspect are concerned with correlation between grammatical forms and concepts of time: tense with location in time and aspect with continuing in time. Because of the closeness of the two grammatical forms, errors made in this context will be referred to as tense/aspect errors. This type of error represents in the corpus a high distribution compared with other syntactic errors and it figures more in Text One than in Text Two; for example, Table Two below illustrates the testees' translation of the main verbs in Text One (from Arabic into English). The discussion inferred from the table will be confined to tenses; other errors will be discussed at a later stage.

Ts	yattafiq	tamatta^cat	tabannat	tahşul^calâ	naşarat	akkada	laysat	aqlaqa	yusawwiğ
A	agree	were in harmony	has adopted	receives	-----	has confirmed	was not	disturbed	-----
B	agrees	-----	has adopted	receives	have published	assured	is not	worries	have been justifying
C	agreed	are enjoying	took	receive	carried	confirmed	does not	are worry	declared
D	agreed	please with	has been embrace	has received	published	reaffirmed	is not	are worried	formed
E	agree	remarked	has adopted	receives	published	assured	is not	worried	justifying
F	agrees	have been close	has adopted	receives	have published	confirmed	is not	worried	continued
G	agree	enjoyed	adopted	receives	published	confirmed	is not	are worry	declared
H	agree	are enjoying	was adopted	has received	had published	confirmed	was not	disturb	were justifying
J	agrees	has marked	adopted	is receiving	wrote	confirmed	is not	were disturbed	were justifying
K	agrees	were on good terms	adopted	receives	published	confirmed	is not	get worry	began

(Table Two: translations of English tenses in argumentation)

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

(56) kamā akkada mustašār al-raʿīs anna mišr...

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

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

(57) ...al-^Calāqāt al-amrīkiyya l-miṣriyya **tamatta**^Cat li-akṯar min ^Ciqd min al-zaman bi-ulfa wa-widd mumayyazayn.

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

(58) fa-l-wilāyāt al-muttahida **tabannat** dawran riyādiyyan li-miṣr munḏu ttifāqiyyat al-salām al-isrāʿiliyya l-miṣriyya.

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

Inter-consistency can also be seen in the mixing between the Arabic imperfect (present) and perfect (past) aspects (Table Two). For example, the verb "yusawwiġ" (justify) is translated by most students into a past tense while a present tense is more appropriate. The difficulty of translating Arabic aspects resides partially in the type of text being translated (argumentative). Unlike a narrative text where chronological hierarchy of the order of tenses is clear and

even predictable, or a descriptive text where the notion of time is often constant, argumentative texts usually allow an unrestricted play of all three time dimensions (present, past and future) whenever the argument requires.

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

Yet, such inherent variations are not usually an insurmountable problem if trainees are equipped with the appropriate interpretive tools. For example, in the case of Sentences 57 and 58 above, "tamatta^Cat" (enjoyed) and "tabannat" (adopted), are used to express the present perfect in English. The students' failure to recognise this function may not be due to the lack of an overt realisation of the perfective in Arabic, but to their interpretation of the text. This is made obvious by the fact that even those trainees who managed to translate "tabannat" correctly into the present perfect tense, still opted for a past tense for "tamatta^Cat".

This claim also finds justification when analysing students' errors in their translation of Text Two. For instance, the tense error in Sentence 59 below made by student B involves an obvious alteration of meaning arising from the students' failure to interpret the ST or the implication of his translation correctly:

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

(59a)...bi-mīzāniyya muxaffada tu?addī ilā aqall iṭlāqāt...

bt: with reduced budget that leads to fewer launches.

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

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

It is apparent from Sentence 60 that the transformation of the "big" agency into a "small" launching site is not a potential consequence. On the contrary, it is a *de facto* situation that started in the past and continues in the present and,

therefore, only an Arabic perfect aspect (addat) (led to) in this situation can fulfil this function.

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

4.3.2 Preposition and Article Error

Another recurrent error type in the translation of argumentation is the misuse of prepositions. Trainees used the preposition "of" for "by", or "of" instead of "for"; sometimes they simply added another preposition where only one is needed. For instance, consider the translation by student A of Sentence 61a, from Text One:

ST (61) fa-l-amrīkiyyūn kānū yadǧaṭūn bi-stimrār ^Calā l-ḥukūma l-miṣriyya li-talyīn mawqifahā min al-ḥukūma l-isrāʾīliyya.

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

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

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

(62) ḏahabtu bi-maradī ilā l-jāmi^Ca

(I went to the university while I was ill)

(63) ḏahabtu bi-sabab maradī (ilā l-mustašfā)

(I went to hospital because I was ill).

Preposition errors, reflecting a difficulty in the testees' competence in the TL or the SL, in Arabic or English, tend to be an idiosyncrasy of the individual rather than the group. Only a few have been detected in the corpus as group errors, like the translation of the preposition "to" in Sentence 64 from Text Two:

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

(64a) hubūṭ al-markaba bi-ṣūra^C amūdiyya **ilā** l-ard

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

(65) kamā kāna mutawaqqa^C **habatat** al-markaba l-fadā'iyya **ilā** l-ard
yawma l-ṯāliṯ min šahr nīsān al-munšarim

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

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

(65b) suqūṭ al-markaba l-fadā'iyya bi-ṣūra^C amūdiyya **ṣawba** l-ard

bt: the falling of the spacecraft vertically towards the earth.

In fact, "to plummet" is to fall steeply. An Arabic equivalent which captures this meaning aspect is the verb "xarra" as it is used in the Qur'an¹:

(66) wa-man yušrik bi-Allāh fa-ka-annamā **xarra** min al-samā? fa-taxṭafuhu al-ṭayr (22:31)

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

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

(65c) **xarrat** ṣawb/ilā l-ard.

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

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

¹ See Abdul-Raof 1999:37-68 for further detailed discussion of the translation of the Qur'an.

(67) ...ya^Ctaqidūn annahu **hamla murakkaza**...didda miṣr

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

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

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

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

4.3.3 Other Syntactic Errors

The corpus drawn from students' translations (see Appendix II) provides a considerable number from a whole range of syntactic errors especially when

translating into English as can be illustrated by Sentences 68 69, 70, 71, and 72, the translation of trainees', A, G, H, J, and K:

(68) wa-aqlaqa anṣār isrāʾīl anna qiyādat ḥusnī mubārak...

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

(69) mubdiyan istiḡrābahu li-tawqīt al-ḥamla

(69a) he showed his surprising **for** campaign time

(70) abdat al-wilāyāt al-muttahida inzi^Cājan wādiḥan lil-taqārub al-mustamirr bayna miṣr wa-lībyā

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

(71) wa-kānat miṣr qad ablaḡat al-ḥukūma l-amrīkiyya annahā tarfudu mawḏū^Ca...

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

(72)...li-annahā tuqallil min istiqlāliyyatihā l-siyāsiyya wa-min ḥurriyyat ḥarakatihā l-tafāwudiyya

(72a) It weakens its political independence and **negotiatlional** power

As we may notice, trainees have made all sorts of errors, some of which change the meaning expressed in the ST. For example, trainee A substituted the passive voice for the active voice. Obviously, "Israelis disturbed" and "Israelis were disturbed" have two completely different propositional contents. Likewise, student J confused the two modes and passivized a form (it is refused) which must be active (it refuses) in order to maintain the meaning of

the ST. Yet, shifting of mode or categories does not always indicate a failure of the translator. It can be either forced upon the translator by the TL format or exploited in a bid to manage the text in favour of the target readership expectations.

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

(73) illā anna l-wilāyāt al-muttahida kānat targāb fī dağt mişrī ^Calā lībyā bi-hadaf ^Cazl al-nidhām al-lībī.

(73a) The United States wants Egyptian pressure on Libya in order to **isolate** the Libyan leadership.

Turning the noun "isolation" into a verb "isolate" seems more natural in English than forcing a nominalised form. In fact, Sentence 73a will read even less ambiguously in English if the noun "pressure" is also changed into a verb as in Sentence 73b:

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

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

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

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

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

(74a) **wa-mā aθāra l-dahša** fi^Clan lam yakun fuqdān al-qamarayn **wa-lākin kāna quṣūr rūsyā** ^Can istibdālihimā.

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

(74b) wa-mā aθāra l-dahša fi^Clan lam yakun fuqdān al-qamarayn wa-innamā quṣūr rūsyā ^Can istibdālihimā.

However, the addition of the copula "kāna" (lit. was) imposes a predicate structure which is different from Sentences 74a and 74b. The copula "kāna" in Arabic requires a predicate and an argument as in Sentence 74c:

(74c) kāna [quṣūr rūsyā^Can istibdālihimā] [muṠīran lil-dahša]
argument 1 predicate

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

Having said that, a common feature between the syntactic errors committed by most testees is their inconsistency. That is, the occurrence of an error-type is not systematic; the same constructions can be correct at one stage of the text and erroneous at another. This indicates the uncertainty or incompetence of the trainee about the TL's grammatical system and sometimes about the

interpretation of the ST itself. Syntactic errors are not simply a reflection of the student's incompetence in the TL (cf. Weir 1993); they also reflect a defect in the teaching method as well as a weakness in the students' interpretation, i.e. critical faculties when dealing with the ST.

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

Errors, syntactic or otherwise, are unacceptable forms of the language if textness is to be observed; their repetitiveness is likely to alarm the TL reader. What also makes syntactic errors a source of alarm is that they are more marked than other erroneous forms as they are easier to be identified by a native layman even without having any prior knowledge about the ST or translation theories. Syntactic errors are often penalised heavily because of the

high expectations of the translation training courses about the student's syntactic competence. They may, therefore, damage the credibility of the translator even if they do not affect the quality of translation. A clear picture of how syntactic errors are and must be assessed will be completed by further discussion in Chapter Six.

4.4 Semantic Errors

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

Students' translations of Texts One and Two involve several types of semantic error which affect the quality of the translation in different ways. Like the other texts, Texts One and Two involve semantic errors caused by synonymy in the TL or inappropriate interpretation of the ST. But more peculiar to this type of text is the rise of errors when translating idioms, collocations or simple lexemes with high ideological load or strictly language specificity. This is not surprising given the fact that the need to use such devices arises more often in argumentation.

Comparing both texts in terms of House's (1977) overt/covert typology, Text One can be classified as belonging to the covert-type. It is not, therefore, expected to pose serious semantic difficulties due to cross-cultural variation given that the theme of West/Middle East political relations is as much discussed by the Western press as the Arab media. On the other hand, the theme of the "Russian space programme" in Text Two is not as common for the average Arab readership as the Western counterpart. The lack of sufficient knowledge on this theme is behind some problems Arab students encountered in their translations.

4.4.1 Synonymy Errors

Most semantic errors made when translating Texts One and Two are of the synonymy type. Trainees often select the wrong word from a set of other choices they know or find in the dictionary but cannot establish a precise distinction between them. In most cases, trainees find it difficult, owing to their insufficient knowledge of the semantic field of the TL words, to choose between more than one equivalent in the TL. Malone (1988:29) refers to this process in translation as "divergence" and defines it as "*a translational nexus reflecting relative paradigmatic richness of the target resources compared with the source [resources]*" (ibid.).

The analysis of Texts One and Two shows that divergence errors can have equally detrimental effects on the quality of the translation regardless of its direction. This parameter of direction does, however, affect the distribution of errors as they seem to have a higher frequency in Text One where English is the TL. Instances like Sentences 75 and 76 abound in Text One's translation:

(75) **ittifaqiyyat** al-salām al-isrāʾīliyya l-miṣriyya

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

(76) **wa-l-ṣaḥīḥ** anna ʿadadan min al-maṭbuʿāt al-amrīkiyya...našarat maqālāt wa-taḥlīqāt taḥmilu ʿadāʿan ḍidda miṣr

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

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

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

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

(77a)...bi-imkān ayyat ḥulūl tiqaniyya **tuṣliḥ** adrārah

bt: any technological solution can **fix-up** its damage

Sentence 77a does not reflect a failure to understand or interpret the ST but rather a lack of knowledge of the semantics of the TL. The word "fixing" can be translated by either of the Arabic hyponyms "taṣlīh" or "iṣlāh". Being the superordinate, "iṣlāh" can be used in both contexts and can therefore replace "taṣlīh". The word "taṣlīh" is a hyponym and its use is restricted to situations which involve a manual process similar to the English counterpart "mending".

Consider Sentences 78 and 79:

(78) taṣlīh sayyāra (fixing a car)

(79) taṣlīh al-^Calāqāt (fixing relations)

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

(80) iṣlāh al-^Calāqāt (restoring relations)

(81) iṣlāh al-^Caṭal (mending the fault)

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

(77b) bi-imkān ayyat hulūl tiqaniyya tusāhim fī iṣlāh adrārih

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

to reproduce them in the TT. For instance, consider the translation of Sentence 82 below:

(82) inna mā yusammā bi-l-hamla ^Calā miṣr laysat jadīda

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

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

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

(83) rafḍ al-nidhām al-lībī taslīm muttahaamayh fī hādīθ tafjīr tāʿirat
"ban am" fawqa iskutlanda

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

The SL author used "hādīθ" (accident) with "tafjīr" (bombing) where it would have been possible for him/her to use "tafjīr" alone. Here, the author's semantic choice is potent with ideological meaning. The word "hādīθ" is used to play down the seriousness of the bombing. I asked native-English speakers who are students of Arabic at the University of Leeds to translate the same text. Comparing both groups' (Libyan and English) translation, the conflict of

ideologies is quite obvious. English trainees transferred "hādiθ tafjīr" (accident of bombing) into a single word "bombing". Likewise, the Libyan group opted for a single word translation but different in meaning "explosion". Suleiman (1997:75) reveals in this respect that if the socio-political frames of reference which envelop the ST are not immediately available to the TT reader, *"it is inevitable that processing difficulties will obtain in some instances, leading to incorrect translations"* (ibid.). The translation of Sentence 83 by Arab and British students is a case in point. Obviously, "bombing" is stigmatising while "explosion" is neutral.

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

Experiential meaning is often investigated under the modal of transitivity (see Hatim 1997:179-81). This shows how individuals mentally encode in language

some pictures of reality to account for the world around them. Because it is concerned with the expression of ideas through the grammar of the text, transitivity depicts what Halliday (1985:101) calls the ideational function of language:

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

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

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

(84) this was enough to cause observers inside Russia and out to **wonder aloud** just how deep the space...

(84a) wa-kāna ḏālika kāfiyan li-yaj^Cal al-mulāhidhīn dāxil rūsyā wa-xārijihā **yatasā?alūn bi-ṣawt^Cāl^Can madā^Cumq...**

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

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

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

Among other errors which reflect a deficiency in the semantics of the SL, though not necessarily a result of synonymy confusion, are register errors.

They relate to what Baker (1992:15) calls evoked meaning and arise from dialect or register variation. Trainees find it difficult to interpret, let alone to translate, words from classical Arabic¹ such as "yusawwiġ" (justify) in the ST. The ST writer could have used "yu^Callil" or "yubarrir" (justify), a MSA which is more common and easier to understand, but he opted for the archaic alternative to fulfil extra semiotic values associated with this variety of Arabic. Most testees failed to interpret correctly this word (see Table Two:118) and those who succeeded could not find an equivalent with the same extra-semiotic values.

4.4.2 Equivalence Errors

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

¹ See Holes 1995 for more details on the function and value of Classical Arabic.

Ts	al-maṭbū^Cāt	futūr
A	press	coldness
B	periodicals	coldness
C	press	weaken
D	printing	coldness
E	printed matters	coldness
F	releases	tepidness
G	copies	chilling
H	printed matters	languor
J	papers	frigidity
K	press	tepidity

(Table Three: translations of "maṭbū^Cāt" and "futūr")

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

As for non-correspondence errors, they represent mainly words or expressions which do not have proper equivalents in English like the following Arabic expression taken from Text One:

(85) *lā yaquddu madāji^C al-masʔūlīn al-amrīkiyyīn...*

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

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

Such semantic failures can be traced back to a heavy reliance on bilingual dictionaries. Indeed, we find that almost all choices presented by the students figure out in most Arabic/English dictionaries. Trainees do not seem to resort to the contextual cues to resolve such problems of what Newmark (1988a:167) calls "referential synonymy". Trainees must recognise that "*...no two words*

out of context have the same meaning" (ibid.). That is, words must not be separated from their context in order to achieve an appropriate equivalent. For instance, the context of the word "^Calāqāt" being international relations, will make it clear and obvious that "relations" rather than "relationships" is the appropriate translation.

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

4.4.3 World Knowledge Errors

Semantic errors do not necessarily indicate lack of competence in the semantics of the SL or TL as in the case of synonymy errors or an inherent cross-linguistic variation as in the case of equivalence errors. They may also reflect an inherent difficulty due to the nature of the translation process. Translators, no matter how proficient they are, are bound to encounter difficulties relating to insufficient database (world knowledge) about the field

of the text they are translating; the more specific the field is, the harder the translator's task becomes. The specificity of the field is often determined in terms of the familiarity of the translator with its technicality. Consider Sentence 86:

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

(86a) fa-munḏu inhiyār al-šuyū^Ciyya tilka l-hay?a llatī qaddamat lil-^Cālam al-qamar al-šinā^Cī sbutnik qad jarra xalfahu inhiyār jajarīn wa-l-mahatta l-fadā'iyya "mir".

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

The radical alteration of meaning in Sentence 86a follows mainly from the limitation of the student's world knowledge. This becomes obvious when some testees interpreted the Russian astronaut Gagarin as a satellite, or a space station. Had the students had adequate knowledge about (Russian) space programmes such misinterpretations would have been avoided. To confirm this claim, I briefed the three students who translated Sentence 86 about the Russian space programme and asked them to translate again the first paragraph. Surprisingly, the quality of their second version improved significantly. The number of errors was reduced and the core meaning of the ST remained intact in their new translation.

Lack of world knowledge is clearer in some students' translation of "red planet" into Arabic as "kawkab rid" (كوكب رد) or even "kawkab red" (Red كوكب), keeping the English graphical form of the word "Red". This indicates that the students' astronomic knowledge is poor as they failed to realise that "Red Planet" is a metonymy for the Planet Mars. However, no matter how rich the world knowledge of the translators is, they are likely to encounter this kind of problem. The issue, then, is how to deal with such problems when encountered rather than what should have been done after they happened. Pym (1993:136) suggests that *"you don't have to understand a text in order to translate it. You just have to know how to avoid errors"*. The implication of this statement for translation teaching is that it is necessary to equip the students with the skill to avoid the problem while trying to minimise the effect on the quality of the message as well. This strategy can be more practical in certain context than the strategy of exposing the problem without any deletion of information.

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

(87) Russia has been funnelling all its space resources into the launch of its Mir 1996 probe, unmanned spacecraft designed to orbit the **Red Planet**, dispatch a quartet of landers to the surface and, perhaps most

important, return the country to the space faring pre-eminence it once enjoyed.

(87a) ^Cakafat rūsyā muʔaxxaran ^Calā ʕabb kull maʕādir al-tamwīl al-fadāʔī ladayhā fī maʕrū^C itlāq al-marrīx 1996 wa-hiya safīna bilā ruwwād tamma taʕmīmuhā li-tada^C arba^Cat aʕhizat istiṭlā^C ^Calā saṭḥ al-kawkab wa-rubbamā aydan wa-akṪar ahammiyya tu^Cīd rūsyā māḍīhā l-majīd fī majāl al-fadāʔ

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

(87b) ^Cakafat rūsyā muʔaxxaran ^Calā ʕabb (like 87a...tamma taʕmīmuhā li-tadūr ḥawl **kawkab rid** wa...(like 87a)

bt: Russia (like 87a bt) designed to orbit planet "Red", to dispatch...(like 87a bt).

Both versions, 87a and 87b, are relatively similar translations of the same ST. Students K and B, who produced these translations respectively, did not seem to understand parts of the meaning of the ST (the Red Planet). The only difference between the two is that student K simply avoided the information "to orbit the Red Planet" in his translation whereas student B ventured and included this part of the text despite his uncertainty about its meaning. The result, as Sentence 87b shows, was an inappropriate translation.

The translators used two different techniques when dealing with the same problem. The first group of translators resorted to the avoidance (or deletion) strategy without drastic changes in the core meaning of the text. The second kept the whole informational content of the ST despite doubts about the comprehension of some elements. Both options would not fit in a method where the ultimate goal is translation par excellence. However, this is a farfetched goal; translators are bound to encounter problems inherent in the language or culture owing to the limits of their linguistic or pragmatic competence.

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

As far as translation teaching is concerned, Pym's strategy of avoidance would be the least appropriate technique. Students should be encouraged to reveal their weaknesses rather than conceal them; otherwise, the teacher's feedback

from the students would be incomplete being based on what they know and not on what they tried to avoid as well. Assessing what the students know is only part of the evaluation process; confining the teaching process to this segment of the students' performance would overlook a basic part of their needs which is the main concern of every teaching method.

4.4.4 Collocation Errors

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

In respect of Text One, a significant number of semantic errors can be associated with this type; for instance, the word "musā^Cadāt" (aid) which has

been rendered as "help, assistance, contribution, etc." (see Table Four), all of which are acceptable translations. But if translated collocatively (i.e. in relation to the word(s) it collocates with: "musā^Cadāt iqtisādiyya", only the English corresponding collocation "economic aid" is most suitable.

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

Ts	a near-earth lob shot	the grand promenade	wonder aloud	musā ^C adāt
A	qafza ^C alā marmā qadam min al-ard	al-rihla l- ^C adhīma	yatasā?alūn jahran	help
B	itlāq ardī batī?	al-ihtifāl l-kabīr	yataşawwar	aid
C	qunbula ardiyya	al-nuzha l-kabīra	yuθīr ^C ajab	aids
D	darba ^C aksiyya	al-nuzha	yata ^C ajjabūn	aid
E	dawra bi-l-qurb min madār al-ard	al-nuzha l- ^C adhīma	yata ^C ajjabūn	assistance
F	irtidād al-markaba bi- şidda ^C alā şakl qaws	al-nuzha l-fadā?iyya	yatasā?alun	aids
G	qaðf qurb al-ard	al-rihla	yatasā?alūn jahran	helpings
H	bi-l-qurb min al-ard	al-nuzha l-kabīra	ta ^C ajjub kabīr	contributions
J	darba ^C aksiyya muqawwasa	al-rihla l-fadā?iyya	yuθīr al- tasā?ul	assistance
K	qaðf muqawwas ^C alā l-ard	rihlat al-fadā? al- ^C adhīma	yatasā?alūn jahran	aids

(Table Four: collocation errors)

As can be seen from Table Four, students found it difficult to understand the expression "a near earth lob shot". However, their difficulty stemmed from different reasons. One group of students (C, D, G, and H) seemed to

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

The "grand promenade" is another illustration of students' difficulty in translating collocation or fixed expressions. It has been translated by most students literally as "al-nuzha l-kabīra/l-^Cadhīma" (the big/great excursion). This literal translation lacks various meaning aspects existing in the ST. The use of French words in the ST is not meaningless, but serves the purpose of irony which the original author intended to achieve. In other words, French is often used in English to mark prestige or greatness, but is used here by the author ironically to indicate that what was claimed to be the "grand promenade" (notice the use of the polysyllabic Romance word) has turned out to be, in actual fact, an "earth lob shot" (notice parallelly the use of monosyllabic Germanic words).

Aware of the problem, students G and J simply preserved the core meaning of the text by translating it as "al-rihla" (journey) and "al-rihla l-fadā'iyya" (space journey) respectively. Both translations, however, failed to convey the sense of irony existing in the ST which can be re-conveyed in the phrase "rihlat al-qarn" as in Sentence 88:

(88) tahawwalat rihlat al-qarn hāḍihi ilā...
(the journey of the century turned into...)

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

It is, therefore, essential, as emphasised throughout this study, that students are encouraged to translate the text as one whole unit rather than a set of separate sub-units. Words and sentences in a text are usually related to each other in their cohesive and conceptual unity within and outside the text. The interpretation of a word, sentence, or even text without placing it in its immediate or universal context is likely to allow the translation only partial access to its meaning.

In conclusion, semantic errors in the argumentative translation corpus are abundant and can sometimes be harmful to the quality of the text. In view of this fact, it seems that a proper measurement of semantic errors as a feedback for the (re)construction of effective teaching or remedial techniques is essential. This is only achievable if feedback from the teacher, the trainee and field research combine in order to produce an exhaustive account of the subject.

4.5 Stylistic Errors

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

4.5.1 Cohesion

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

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

(89) **wa-l-ṣahīh** anna ^Cadadan min al-maṭbū^Cāt al-amrīkiyya našarat maqālāt **wa-ta^Clīqāt** taḥmil ^Cadaʿan didda miṣr **wa-maṣālihihā**. **wa-raddat** al-ṣihāfa l-miṣriyya munaddida kamā anna mustašār al-raʿīs mubārak akkada anna miṣr laysat tābi^Ca li-aḥad

bt: **and** in fact a number of the American presses published articles **and** commentaries carrying hostility against Egypt and its interest. **And** the Egyptian press replied condemning (the act) **and** President Mubarak's counsellor...

English language does not allow such a series of conjunctions in discourse and is less favourable toward implicit inter-clause relationships. Most testees did indeed manage to cut down these structural functions which are often disfavoured in English. This paratactic form specific to Arabic where clauses are more additive than subordinative (Johnstone 1990:217) seems to be partly monitored by testees. For example, the above passage has been translated by most students as Sentence 89a:

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

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

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

or simply as Sentence 89c:

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

When translating Text Two, students seemed to be equally aware about the cohesive requirements of Arabic. Arabic tends to make explicit inter-clause/sentence relationships, usually through conjunctions that English tends to leave implicit (Williams 1984:124-25). Consider Sentence 90:

(90) ...for the Russian space programme, the comeback was supposed to begin last month. Ever since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world Sputnik appeared to have fallen too.

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

(90a) fa-inna min al-muftarad an yabda? barnāmaj al-fadā? al-rūsī l-šahr al-mādī fa-munðu suqūt al-šuyū^Ciyya yabdū anna wakālat al-fadā? qad saqaṭat aydan.

4.5.2 Repetition

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

can be realised in different ways in Arabic one of which is the reiteration of the same lexical element(s) as Sentence 91 from Text One illustrates:

(91) tarfuḍ baḥṮa silāḥihā l-kimyāʔī aw mawḍū^C al-silāḥ al-kimyāʔī fī l-šarq al-awsaṭ.

bt: It refuses the search of its **chemical weapons** or the subject of **chemical weapons** in the Middle East.

Out of ten testees, only student J avoided repetition of the phrase "chemical weapons" in his translation as in Sentence 91a:

(91a) It refuses to discuss the issue of chemical weapons in Egypt or in the Middle East.

The translation of repetition of synonymy or near synonymy represents no less difficulty for the testees and is even a challenge for any claim that identical equivalence in translation is possible.

Ts	widd wa-ulfa	maqālāt wa-ta ^C līqāt	al-i ^C tidāl wa-l-līn
A	harmony and cordiality	-----	-----
B	cordially	articles and commentaries	moderation and leniency
C	familiarity and friendship	-----	moderate
D	friendships	essays and comments	moderation and suppliance!
E	familiarity and cordiality	articles and comments	moderation and tradability
F	close and friendly	articles and comments	moderation and softening up
G	familiarity and cordiality	articles and comments	moderate and leaning
H	familiarity and cordiality	essays and comments	moderate and softness
J	friendship	articles and comments	moderation and flexibility
K	good terms	articles and comments	moderation

(Table Five: forms of repetition)

As can be seen from Table Five above, testees opted for different strategies when translating such forms of repetition. For instance, repetition in Sentence

92 was kept in the student's translation, most of which involves wrong lexical choice:

(92) wa-kāna l-masʔūlūn al-miṣriyyūn mā bariḥū yusawwiġūn al-
C alāqāt tahta jaḏb lībyā nahwa l-i^C tidāl wa-l-līn.

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

(92a) Egyptian officials have always been justifying their relation with Libya by attracting her towards **moderation** and **leniency**, the preservation of repetition makes the style in the English text repetitive, as expressions consisting of two synonyms like "moderation and leniency" are not in frequent use in English. However, the domestication of this sentence according to the form and structure of the TL by avoiding peculiar Arabic stylistic forms, as did student K, may not reproduce the same effect of the ST:

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

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

a translation loss. It is rather the case in literary works that pompous or pedantic devices should be included in the TT to maintain a certain flavour of the ST.

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

As far as Text One is concerned, the need for a compensation strategy is even greater when translating morphological or syntactic repetition such as that between "maqālāt" (articles) and "ta^Clīqāt" (commentaries). The assonance between the two words has obviously an aesthetic value which most students

seem to ignore or to be unaware of. The same can be said about Sentences 93 and 94:

(93) wa-yu^Cabbir al-mawqif al-miṣrī^C an ijma^C arabī^C
(the Egyptian stance reflects Arab unanimity)

or

(94) al-ṣamt al-ġarbī^C an al-silāh al-nawawī^C
(the silence of the West about the nuclear weapon).

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

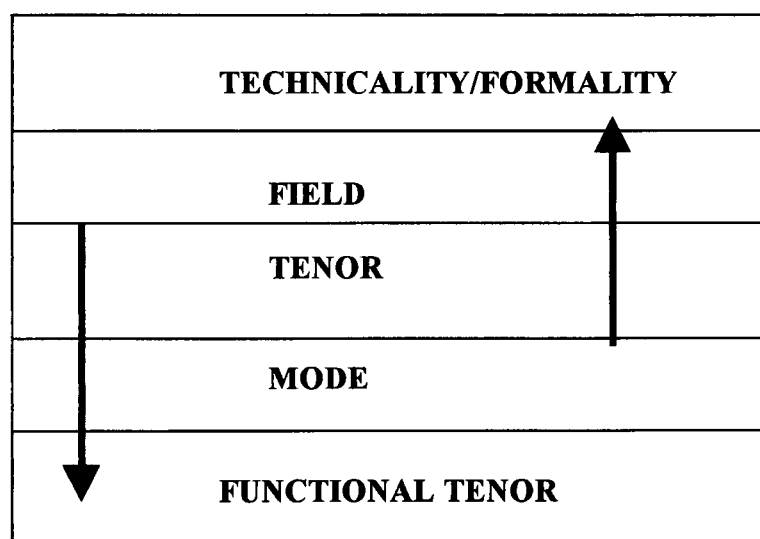
Argumentation is an area where extensive use of semantic as well as stylistic play is often the norm. Therefore, the meaning of text can be generated not only from the semantics of isolated words but also from the use of words as one textual unit which depends in turn on the socio-linguistic context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

4.5.3 Discourse Parameters

As mentioned earlier, style is often determined by the social relationship that holds between participants in discourse as, for instance, between the translator and the TL reader in the case of translation. This interaction between producer (trainee /translator) and receiver (TL reader) must also operate, as Hatim

(1997:25) points out, "*within constraints imposed by the particular 'use' to which they [text producer and receiver] put their language*".

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



(Figure Seven: overlap of discourse parameters)

Discourse parameters and their interface can play an essential role in the quality of translation and can therefore be an important teaching element. Indeed, in the case of Text Two, we notice that the level of formality (tenor) is in fact an interval in that it overlaps in a number of significant ways with the field as well as the mode of discourse. For instance, the use of technical and French terms tenor and field interact to colour the text with a relatively high level of formality, as in Sentence 95:

(95) For a time the craft was going to hit Australia, endangering it not with just debris but also with the 270 grams of plutonium it was carrying as a power source.

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

For instance, the expression "reconnaissance capabilities" from Text Two can be translated as "al-qudra^C alā istiqṣāʾ al-ma^Clūmāt" (the ability to trace knowledge). Although the tenor of the translation is not the same as that of the ST, it succeeds in reproducing the ST's sense of irony (cf. also discussion of "grand promenade" in 4.4.4) by the addition of another expression as in Sentence 96:

(96) li-taṣila qudurātihā ^Calā istiḡṣā? l-ma^Clūmāt ilā mustawā lā
tuḡsadu ^Calayh

(its reconnaissance capabilities have left Russia in an unenviable position).

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

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

4.5.4 Text-type Format

It goes without saying that the type of text reinforces certain stylistic formats than others. The contextual focus tends to emphasise certain patterns more

than others. For instance, in argumentation the topic sentence sets the tone which must be substantiated and would exhibit a pattern like:

Tone-setter > Thesis substantiated

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

Scene-setter > Aspects of the scene expounded

(Hatim and Mason 1990:155-56)

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

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

The balance type gives the text-producer the option of signalling explicitly or implicitly his/her antithesis after the claim to be opposed is made which is the

case in Text Two. On the contrary, antithesis in the lop-sided argument is anticipated in advance as the thesis to be opposed is initiated by an explicit concessive (e.g. while, although, despite, etc.). Hatim (1991:194), then, presented an order of preferences which may be taken as indicative of the general trend of argumentation in each language as follows:

English	Arabic
A. the balance counter-argument	through-argumentation
B. through-argumentation	the lopsided argument
C. the lopsided argument	the balance argument

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

Texts can also have different levels of argumentation which Hatim (ibid.) identified as macro- and micro-argumentation. Macro-argumentation indicates the argumentative format of the entire text whereas micro-argumentation indicates an embedded argument within the macro-pattern of text. For instance, in Text Two, we have an explicit macro-balance argumentation signalled by the cohesive device "but" at the beginning of the second paragraph (line 11) and implicit micro-balance argumentation between the second sentence of the first paragraph (Ever since.... underfinanced), on the one hand, and the rest of the paragraph [sentences (i) and (iii)], on the other. While translating Text Two into Arabic, all students kept the ST argumentation format. The following is a translation of the first paragraph similar in terms of argumentation structure to those produced by almost all students:

(97) kāna min al-mutawaqqa^C an yabda? al-šahr al-mādī al-barnāmaj al-fadā?ī l-rūsī allađī dāhamahu al-marađ munđu fatra bi-iltiqāṭ anfāsih (i). fa-munđu inhiyār al-šuyū^Ciyya yabdū anna tilka l-wakāla allatī qaddamat lil-^Cālam sbūtnik wa-jajārīn wa-l-mahatta l-fadā?iyya mir qad ašābahā l-šalal aydan bi-sabab al-taxfīd al-kabīr lil-mīzāniyya mimma addā ilā tadā?ul ^Cadad ^Camaliyyāt al-itlāq wa-inzi^Cāj al-mujtama^C al-dawlī min xuṭūrat hāđihi l-rihlīt ruġma qillatihā bi-sabab tamwīlihā al-zahīd (ii). wa-ma^Ca ḏālika fa-qad ^Cakafat rūsyā mu?axxaran ^Calā šabb kull mašādir al-tamwīl al-fadā?ī ladayhā fī mašrū^C itlāq markabat al-marrīx 1996 wa-hiya safīna bilā ruwwād tamma tašmīmuhā li-tadūr hawla al-kawkab al-aḥmar wa-li-tursil arba^Cat ajhizat istikšāf ilā sathīhi, wa-la^Calla ahamm mā fī l-amr huwa muḥāwalat rūsyā isti^Cādat māđihā l-majīd fī riyādat al-fadā? (iii).

The Arabic translation above is a formal rendering of the ST (Text Two). The native speaker of Arabic is unlikely to perceive in it an underlying continuity in argumentation especially between sentences (i) and (ii). This is because Arabic rhetoric does not usually allow such formats as that linking sentences (i) and (ii), where a single statement claim is followed immediately and without previous anticipation by a counter-claim. The norm is rather that should follow a description, an explanation or supporting argumentation. The expectation of a support rather than an opposition is further highlighted by the use of the cohesive device "fa-" which mainly functions as the English conjunctive "and" or to express a cause/effect relation like "because" or "therefore". In the case of the translation above, it does not serve either function. Linking sentences (i) to (iii) by the connector "fa-" would be more

appropriate in Arabic as one supports the other. As to the macro-balance relation [sentences (i) and (iii) to (ii)], it is best translated taking Hatim's (1991:195) following suggestion into account: *"To deal with this case of multi-level argumentation, the micro-balance would have to be transformed into a lop-sided format in Arabic"*.

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

(98) raġma al-šalal allađī ašāba wakālat al-fadā? al-rūsiyyā allatī qaddamat li-l-^Calam al-qamar al-šinā^Cī sbutnik wa-rā?id al-fadā? jajarīn wa-l-mahatta mir fī a^Cqāb inhiyār al-šuyū^Ciyya iθra l-inxifād al-hādd fī mīzāniyyatihā l-amr allađī addā ilā taddanī malhūdh fī ^Cadad al-rihalāt wa-inzi^Cāj al-mujtama^C al-dawlī min xuṭūrat mā tabaqqā minhā bi-sabab tamwīlihā l-zahīd (ii) fa-innahu kāna min al-mutawwaqa^C an yabda? barnāmaj al-fadā? al-rūsī allađī dāhamahu l-marad munḏu fatra bi-iltiqāt anfāsih al-šahr al-mādī (i) iḏ ^Cakafat rūsyā mu?axxaran ^Calā šabb kull mašādir al-tamwīl al-fadā?ī fī mašrū^C iṭlāq safīna bilā ruwwād ilā l-marrīx sanat 1996 li-tadūr hawl al-kawkab al-aḥmar wa-tursil arba^Cat ajhizat istikšāf ilā sathīhi wa-rubbamā l-aḥamm min ḏālika kullih an tasta^Cīd rūsyā makānatahā l-sābiqa fī riyādat al-fadā?...

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

4.6 Conclusion

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

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

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

constraint framework of the TL but must find at the same time compensating techniques to preserve the pragmatic goal of the ST.

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

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

CHAPTER FIVE

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

5.1 Introduction

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

Before embarking on the discussion of errors made by testees, we shall provide a description of the texts under investigation. Text Three (see Appendix I) is an expository one in which the contextual focus (see Hatim and Mason 1990:154-55) is on the composition (synthesis) of concepts from constituent elements. That is, the author states the topic idea only after presenting a number of sub-topics. For instance, in presenting the topic idea

(synthesis) in Text Three, the author first describes how the principle of "necessity is the mother of invention" has governed human lifestyles throughout history. The second paragraph shows how the principle finds its way through the development of the study of matter. Only the third paragraph explicitly uncovers the main idea of the text concerning the development of the study of glass.

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

(99) fly Air Malta,

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

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

the overt type and testees are not expected to face difficulties related to culture-specificity.

5.2 Syntactic Errors

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

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

5.2.1 Tense/Aspect Errors

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

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

(100a) hayθu annahu yada^C yadah^C alā kull mā hawlah

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

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

(101a) munđu l-bidāya an wada^C a yadah^C alā kull mā hawlah...

The erroneousness of Sentence 101a stems from the fact that the Arabic particle "an" is usually followed by an expressive verb which must be in the subjunctive mood. The two grammatical conditions are not met in the Arabic translation provided above.

Text Four shows an even higher degree of syntactic accuracy. This is because the choice of tense in instruction is very limited given that nearly all predicate verbs are in the imperative form if not preceded by an obligation. All tenses in Text Four point towards the influence or creation of a future behaviour and only an imperative or an instructive mode can directly fulfil this function. The singularity of this tense mode is clear enough for trainees not to get confused in contrast, for instance, with an argumentative text where time reference (i.e. moving across different times: past, present and future) is customary because of the usual cross-temporal demands of argumentation as mentioned earlier in section 4.2.

5.2.2 Article and Preposition Errors

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

(102) ...shows that trial and error has done pretty well

(102a) ...tubayyin anna l-ṭarīqa l-muḥāwala wa-l-xaṭa? **al-ḥasana**

The insertion of the definite article "al-" (the) before the noun "ṭarīqa" (method) is not grammatically correct in Arabic. This follows from the fact that a head noun of construct phrase in Arabic must always be indefinite. This error seems rather to be a slip of the pen as this type does not show at all either

within the translation of Student H or the corpus of the whole group. Sentence 102 also shows a typical English structure which is not easy to translate. In the ST, "error" and "trial" are considered as a single entity which accounts for the singular agreement form of the verb. On the contrary, a dual form in Arabic is compulsory in this case which inevitably results in a translation loss (i.e. trial and error are inseparable rather than independent entities). Compensation is possible at this stage and Sentence 102 can be translated, for instance, as follows:

(102b)...fa-inna l-muhāwala wa-l-xata? ma^Can qad addayā dawrahumā
alā akmal wajh
(both trial and error have done pretty well).

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

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

(103)...he sews his way through life.

(103a)...yansuju darbah ^Cabra l-ḥayāt
(he sews his path through life)

(103b)...yašūqq bi-hā ṭarīqahu ^Cabra l-hayāt
(he sews with it his way through life)

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

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

(104) to build new properties **into** matter

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

Testees	To build new properties into matter
A	li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda dāxil al-mawādd
B	li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda li-l-mādda
C	li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda li-l-mādda
D	li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda li-l-mādda
E	li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda fi l-mādda
F	li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda dāxil al-mādda
G	li-binā? xawāṣṣ al-mādda l-jadīda
H	li-binā? xaṣā?iṣ jadīda ilā l-mādda
J	li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda fi l-mādda
K	li-binā? xawāṣṣ jadīda fi l-mādda

(Table Six: rendering of the preposition "into")

The translation of student G and H are unequivocally wrong. Student's G's translation means that there are already established new properties which the scientists will try to build. The preposition "ilā" (to) in student's H rendering

simply does not make sense. The remaining translations, using either “dāxil” (inside) or (fī), can be rejected on different grounds. First, they lack the motional aspect expressed by “into” in the ST. That is as Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:147) point out, “into” generally requires a dynamic verb such as “build” while “in” generally expressed the notion of static position as in Sentence 105:

(105) zayd fī/dāxil al-bayt

(Zayd was in/inside the house).

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

(106) li-yabnū xawāṣṣ jadīda fī/dāxil al-mādda.

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

(i) [VP yabnū [NP al-xawāṣṣ al-jadida [PP fī/dāxil al-mādda PP] NP] VP].

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

(ii) [VP yabnū [NP xawāṣṣ jadida NP] PP fī/dāxil al-mādda PP] VP].

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

Consider Sentence 107:

(107) fī/dāxil al-mādda, yabnū xawāṣṣ jadida

(into matter, they build new properties).

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

(108) li-yabnū xawāṣṣ jadida tudāf ilā/takūn fī al-mādda

bt: to build new properties added to/to be in matter.

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

Ts	Take care to avoid spreading onto surrounding normal skin
A	ihḍar tajannub naṣr qaṭarāt al-dawā? hawla l-jild al-salīm
B	ihḍar li-tajannub intiṣārihā ilā l-jild al-salīm wa-l-minṭaqa l-muhīta bi-hā
C	ihḍar tajannub min intiṣār al-dawā? hawla l-jild al-salīm
D	ihḍar an lā tanṣur al-ṣabḡa ^C alā l-jild al-ṣāliḥ al-mutajāwir
E	wa- ^C alayk al-haḍar kay lā tasmah li-tilk al-niqaṭ an tuṣīb al-jild al-salīm al-muhīd bil-minṭaqa
F	kun haḍir wa-ḍālik li-tajannub intiṣār al-sā?il ^C alā l-jild al-ṭabī ^C ī l-salīm
G	hāwil an tatajannab intiṣār al-dawā? ilā l-jild al-salīm al-muhīt bil Ḡu?lūl
H	kūnū haḍirīn min al-intiṣār ilā l-jild al-ṭabī ^C ī l-muhīt bil darar
J	ihḍar tajannub naṣr al-dawā? fawqa l-jild al-salīm
K	ihḍar tajannub intiṣār al-dawā fawqa l-jild al-salīm al-muhīt

(Table Seven: rendering of the preposition "onto")

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

(109) tajannab intišār al-sāʔil ^Calā l-jild al-salīm.

The preposition "^Calā" refers to the position of something on the surface of something else and can therefore be said to correspond to the English preposition "on". The meaning aspect expressing the process of the positioning is lost in this translation. Testees B, G, and H, on the other hand, captured the missing meaning aspect in translation (109) by using "ilā" (to) but at the expense of the aspect referring to the position itself.

The erroneousness of the translations of other students, such as those of A and K, is not inherent in the language itself but rather in their failure to make the proper choice of prepositions. Consider their translations in Sentences 110 and 111 respectively:

(110) *ihḏar tajannub intiašār al-dawā? ḥawla l-jild al-salīm*

bt: beware to avoid spreading of medicine around the normal skin.

(111) *ihḏar tajannub intišār al-dawā? fawqa l-jild al-salīm*

bt: beware of the spreading of drops over the normal skin

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

(112) take care to avoid spreading onto surrounding normal skin

(112a) *ihḏar tajannub našr qaṭarāt al-dawā? ḥawla l-jild al-salīm*

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

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

The meaning of Sentence 113 is completely the opposite of that existing in the ST.

5.2.3 Agreement and Case-Marking Errors

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

(114) treatment can take up to twelve weeks

(114a) wa-yumkin an tastağriq muddat al-^Cilāj iθnā ^Cašarata usbū^Cin

(114b) min al-mumkin an tataṭallab al-mu^Cālaja ilā iθnā ^Cašarata
usbū^Cin.

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

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

(115) the researchers presenting it can use

(115a) inna **al-bāhiθūn** allaḏīna yumaθθilūnahu bi-istitā^Catihim
isti^Cmāl...

Being the noun of the particle "inna", "al-bāhiθūn" (researchers) must be accusative i.e. "al-bāhiθīn". Errors of this kind do not affect the intelligibility

of the TT but rather its grammatical acceptability and they reflect the difficulty involved in mastering the Arabic agreement and case system.

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

(116) Glass is transparent and made of sand

(116a) al-zujāj mādda **šaffāf** wa-**maṣnū**^C min al-raml.

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

(116b) li-?anna l-zujāj **yu**^C**tabar** mādda šaffāfa.

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

(117) They have developed a wide field of material science

(117a) qāmū bi-taṭwīr **maydānan fasīhan** fī ^Cilm al-mawādd

In Sentence 117a, the student has assigned the accusative case to the noun "maydān" and its adjective "fasīh"; they should read, however, be in the genitive case because of the "idāfa (construct phrase). In Arabic, case-marking is morphologically inflected while it is often uninflected in English. The task

is therefore easier in English since it is often the case that exactly the same form of a word assumes all different case-markings.

5.2.4 Modality Errors

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

Ts	Trial and error will suffice
A	al-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sa -tafi bil-ḡarad
B	tafi l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? bil-ḡarad
C	al-tajruba wa-l-xaṭa? sa -takfi bil-ḡarad
D	li-anna l-mādda l-maṣnū ^C minhā qad awfat bil-ḡarad
E	fa-inna l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sawfa tafi bil-ḡarad
F	fa-inna l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sa -tafiyā bil-ḡarad
G	fa-inna l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? kānat sa -tafi bil-ḡarad
H	wa-lākin qabla ḏālika l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? tafi bil-ḡarad
J	fa-inna l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sa -tafi bil-ḡarad
K	ḥayṠu innahu qabla ḏālika l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? kānat sa -tafi bil-ḡarad

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

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

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

5.2.5 Negation Errors

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

Ts	But scientists, of course, are not satisfied with it
A	inna l- ^C ulamā? ġayr rādīn bi-ḍālik
B	lākin al- ^C ulamā? laysū rādīn ^C anhā
C	ġayra anna l- ^C ulamā? lā yattafiqūn ^C alā ḍālik
D	wa-lākin hāḍā lam yakun yurdī l- ^C ulamā?
E	wa-lākin al- ^C ulamā? lam yakūnū rādīn ^C anhā
F	wa-lākin al- ^C ulamā? lam yardū bi-ḍālik
G	lam yakun al- ^C ulamā? rādīn bi-ḍālik
H	wa-lākin al- ^C ulamā? ġayr rādīn ^C anhā
J	lam yakun al- ^C ulamā? rādīn bi-ḍālik
K	lam yakun al- ^C ulamā? rāġibīn bi-ḍālik

(Table Nine: translation of negation)

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

Scientists	are not	satisfied with	it
^C ulamā? s	ġayr/lam NEG	rādīn predicator	^C anhā i

(Figure Nine: translating logical relations)

However, other meaning elements which go beyond the logical relations are either absent or misrepresented. The fact that the ST is a negated statement about a present state of affairs is actually represented in the rendering of students A and H in Table Nine. The other translations, on the other hand, include aspectual elements which do not exist in the ST because of the wrong selection of the appropriate negation constituent. Student B used "laysa" which is a negation constituent that marks a progressive tense aspect, while student C used "lā" which marks the negation of a habitual present/future action. The remaining translations, those of students D, E, F, G, J and K, in Table Nine used the Arabic negative device "lam" which normally expresses the negation of a past action. Obviously, these tense aspects do not constitute part of the ST and can even hinder or distort the understanding of the original meaning. The negative system in Arabic is more complex than in English and therefore needs to be highlighted more carefully in Arabic/English translation curricula.

I asked informally some of the trainees if they saw any difference between the translations provided in Table Nine above in terms of the negation markers. Most of them knew very well their morphological case-marking, for example, that "lam" is jussive and "anna" is followed by an accusative, but they did not see any difference in terms of meaning. This suggests that Arab trainees often possess a considerable knowledge of Arabic prescriptive grammar but lack the knowledge of the pragmatic functions of grammatical categories, especially function words. This can be traced to the fact that the Arabic language programmes in Libyan schools are centrally prescriptive and fail to account for the meaning (functional) aspect of grammar which has an essential role in translation. This only emphasises the fact that translation errors in particular and translation teaching in general are not a mere manifestation of the translation class but rather part of the whole educational culture.

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

meaning of the English structures; in fact, most of their (syntactic) errors, did not have any serious impact on the intelligibility of the TL text.

5.3 Semantic Errors

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

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

if we take into account the other fact that "*the words of a language often reflect not so much the reality of the world, but the interests of the people who speak it*" (Palmer 1976:21).

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

5.3.1 Non-Equivalence Type

Semantic non-equivalence results from two main situations. The first reflects a defect at the conceptual level in the TL; the ST element expresses a concept

which is totally unknown in the target culture. For instance, the concept of the word "Speaker" in the English Parliament, as Baker (1992:21) points out, has no equivalent in many other languages, Arabic amongst them. She writes that it is often translated in Russian in the sense "chairman" which does not reflect the independent role of the Speaker to maintain order in Parliament.

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

Other theorists, however, view technical translation as a difficult task for translators. This task can present difficulties even when translating from one European language into another, let alone between typologically different languages such as Arabic and English. Lefevere (1992:63) observes that it is very difficult to translate any European law register that is based on the old "Code Napoléon" into English because of the cross-linguistic variation in terms of the historical values that law register bears in each language.

It is true that the task of translating the specialised registers is formidable indeed, but the difficulty does not basically lie in the historical or constructive dependencies of words as this is a characteristic of all varieties of language including dialects (cf. Comrie 1989). In fact, the difficulty in translating technical words in Text Four lies in their low frequency of usage by the average reader compared with people specialised in that field. For example, legal words are in common use among lawyers and barristers, while scientific words are in common use among scientists. The professional translator, let alone the trainee, can only have modest knowledge of an infinite universe of specialised registers. Widdowson's (1979:69) idea that scientist-to-scientist translation can be an easy task is only true if the translator is first a scientist but since most translators are not, the statement may not be valid. In their translation of the medical terms "wart", "verruca", "corn" and "callus" in Sentence 116, testees apparently found it difficult to draw a distinction between these terms, let alone find equivalent words in Arabic

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

Ts	wart	verruca	corn	callus
A	al-Ṯu?lūl	al-jasa?a	-----	-----
B	al-Ṯu?lūl	al-jasa?a	al-nutū? al-ṣaġīr	-----
C	al-Ṯu?lūl	al-nutū? al-ṣaġīr	-----	-----
D	Ṯa?ālīl al-qadam	-----	-----	-----
E	Ṯu?lūl al-qadam	-----	-----	-----
F	Ṯu?lūl al-qadam	-----	-----	-----
G	Ṯu?lūl al-qadam	al-jasa?a	-----	-----
H	al-Ṯu?lūl	al-nutū? al-ṣaġīr	al-jasa?a	-----
J	al-Ṯu?lūl	al-nutū? al-ṣaġīr	al-nutū? al-ṣaġīr	-----
K	Ṯa?ālīl al-qadam	al-jasa?a	-----	-----

(Table Ten: translation of technical register)

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

1. Wart Ṯu?lūl/nutū? ṣaġīr
2. Verruca Ṯu?lūl
3. Corn mismār al-qadam/taṣallub mawḍi^Cī fī bašarat al-qadam
4. Callus al-jasa?a/juz? min al-jild mutaṣallib aw ġalīdh

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

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

(118a) kayfa tu^Cālīj al-Ṯu?lūl wa-Ṯu?lūl al-qadam wa-l-jasa?a.

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

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

Ts	Pumice stone	Manicure emery board	Applicator
A	hajar al-ġafāf	lawh taqrīm al-adhāfir	al-qadīb
B	hajar al-ġafāf	lawh tadrīm al-adhāfir	al-mu?aššir
C	hajar al-ġafāf	lawh tadrīm al-adhāfir	al-qadīb
D	-----	lawh tadrīm aladhāfir	al-jihāz
E	hajar al-ġafāf	lawh tadrīm al-adhāfir	al-qadīb
F	hajar al-ġafāf	lawh tadrīm al-adhāfir	al-qattāra
G	nasafa	lawh tadrīm al-adhāfir	al-qadīb
H	hajar al-ġafāf	lawh tadrīm al-adhāfir	al-qattāra
J	hajar al-ġafāf	lawh taqlīm al-adhāfir	al-mu?aššir
K	hajar al-ġafāf	lawh sanfarat al-adhāfir	al-jihāz

(Table Eleven: translation of technical register)

Although testees succeed in finding Arabic equivalents for the three expressions presented in Table Eleven, the mode of the ST has been altered. The primary function of an instructive text like Text Four is to transmit as

clearly as possible specific instructions to the average reader. Clarity in this type of text is always desirable for the sake of avoiding misunderstanding or ambiguity of the ST communicative functions. In their translation, however, students used terms like "al-xafāf" (pumice stone) and "tadrīm" (manicure emery board) which are not common in MSA and may therefore impair the understanding of average TL readers.

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

The jargon of technical texts, in general, requires not only a wide semantic knowledge in the field being translated but also an accurate analysis of and interaction with the text. Most testees, however, resort to the bilingual dictionary without hunting its meaning first in the SL dictionary or within its co-textual natural environment.

The testees' translation of Text Three does not indicate jargon difficulties given the nature of the text being translated. The semantic field of the text consists of lexical sets representing general facts about the world. Text Three rather involves difficulties relating to the second type of semantic non-equivalence which reflects a deficiency in the TL at the linguistic level rather than the conceptual level. That is, the ST element expresses a concept which exists in the TL but has no lexicalised form. Consider the translation of the phrasal verb "fashion into" and the lexical "seized" provided by the testees in Table Twelve below.

Testees	seized	fashion into
A	kāna yada ^C yadah	li-yušakkil
B	istahwađa	li-yuhawwil
C	istahwađa	šāġa
D	kāna yastawlī	li-yaşna ^C
E	an wađa ^C yadah	li-yušakkil
F	istaġalla	li-taškīl
G	kāna yamsuk	li-yušakkil
H	istafāda	Şawwarahā
J	kāna yada ^C yadah	li-yušakkil
K	yada ^C yadah	li-yušakkil

(Table Twelve: TL deficiency)

Apart from Student H, all testees succeeded in conveying the general message of the ST's "fashion into". The translation of Student H, "şawwarahā" (depicted it), rather distorts the meaning of the phrasal verb in the ST. Consider Sentence 119:

(119) he seized what lay around him **to fashion into** tools, with which to sew his way through life

(119a) wa-istafāda min kull mā hawlahu wa-**ṣawwarahā** fī adawāt bi-wāsiṭatihā ṣaqqā ṭarīqahu fī l-hayāt

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

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

(120) istahwaḏ ^Calā kull mā hawlahu wa-**sāḡahu** ^Calā hay[?]at adawāt ṣaqqā bihā ṭarīqahu ^Cabra l-hayāt

The Arabic verb "šāḡa" has a similar evaluative value as the English "fashion into" although each derives its evaluativeness from etymologically different sources. This suggests that language-specifics do not always imply impossibility of translation and are not always insurmountable.

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

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

of righteousness of the act given that it indicates a proper and beneficial use of something.

5.3.2 Synonymy

The choice between words, phrases or sentences can be problematic when translating an instructive or expository text. Although errors related to synonymy are not a particularly characteristic of technical instructive texts as they are of other text types, errors of this sort found in the testees' translation of Text Four are not much different from those found in Text Three. They usually reflect a state where students are trapped by the limited choices provided by a bilingual dictionary out of their context. But, the seriousness of synonymy when translated into L_1 (as in the case of Texts Two, Three and Four) is not as grave as when translating into L_2 (Text One).

In the thème translation, testees could at times differentiate between synonyms which are not interchangeable in certain contexts. On the other hand, in L_1 translation, all used synonyms are interchangeable though the degree of suitability can be different. In respect of texts Three and Four, synonymy errors can be divided into two main types. The first type involves synonyms which differ in their expressive meaning.

Ts	bottle	soak	warm water	microscope	provide
A	zujāja	inqa ^C	mā? dāfi?	mijhar	yuqaddim
B	qārūra	inqa ^C	mā? sāxin	mijhar	yamnah
C	qārūra	inqa ^C	mā? dāfi?	mijhar	yuqaddim
D	zujāja	inqa ^C	miyāh dāfi?a	mikroskūb	yamnah
E	zujāja	inqa ^C	mā? dāfi?	mijhar	yamudd
F	zujāja	ballil	mā? dāfi?	mijhar	yuzawwid
G	qinnīna	inqa ^C	mā? dāfi?	mijhar	yuqaddim
H	zujāja	inqa ^C	mā? sāxin	mikruskūb	yuqaddim
J	qinnīna	ballil	mā? sāxin	mijhar	yuqaddim
K	zujāja	ballil	mā? sāxin	mijhar	yuqaddim

(Table Thirteen: translation of synonymy)

For instance, "bottle" in Table Thirteen was translated by most students as either "qārūra", "qinnīna" or "zujāja". In fact, all three words can be used interchangeably to refer to the same thing; the only difference is that "zujāja" is of a more common usage in MSA, the other two tending to be classical terms with a limited usage. Since the primary function of an instructive text is to transmit as clearly as possible the content of the text rather than attempt to transmit poetic effects to the reader, "zujāja" is therefore most suitable for this purpose. Its common use amongst the average reader makes its meaning more easily recognisable than those of "qārūra" and "qinnīna".

The translating of "microscope" in Text Three is another similar case. A few testees opted for the loan translation "mikruskūb" while others used the Arabic

counterpart "mijhar". In terms of semantic meaning, the two translations are identical, i.e. two referents for the same referee. But acceptability of the loan word depends on various factors such as the ideological culture of the TL, the reader/evaluator and the curriculum (objectives). For example, the Arab, and that includes Libyan, educational systems are in the midst of an Arabisation process (cf. Grandguillaume 1981) and therefore the use of a loanword when an Arabic equivalent is available will be less desirable.

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

(121) *ibtallat al-ʔard (bi-l-māʔ)*
(the land was soaked with water)

or

(the land was wet),

although it is not used in this way in other discourses as in Sentence 122:

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

The word "inqa^C", on the other hand, denotes a volitional act. Consider Sentence 123:

(123) anqa^C malābisī fī l-mā? wa-l-ṣābūn

(I soak my clothes in soap and water).

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

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

(124a) uǧmur kull layla l-minṭaqa l-muṣāba fī miyāh dāfi?a.

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

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

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

A way of translating Sentence 125 into Arabic is by using the neutral term "^Cibāra ^Can" (roughly meaning: "as" or "to be"), as in Sentence 125a:

(125a) wa-hāḏā l-zujāj al-ma^Cdanī ^Cibāra ^Can mazīj min al-quwwa wa-l-murūna.

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

(125b) wa-l-jadīd anna hāḏā l-zujāj al-ma^Cdanī yuṣakkil mazījan min al-ṣalāba wa-l-murūna.

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

(126) hutt rijlīk f-mmayya **sāxna** (Libyan Arabic)
(put your feet in **hot** water)
(put your feet in **warm** water).

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

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

5.3.3 Collocations

The meaning of lexical items within collocative expressions is often largely determined by the dimensions of the genre and type of discourse. The chain of words which constitutes a collocative expression can also determine its meaning, though in most cases the chain of words and discourse are interdependent. For example, the Arabic verb "yulqī" collocates with a number of words with which the equivalent English "throw" does not fit. Each of its collocative patterns requires a different translation:

- To make a public speech	yulqī xiṭāb
- To give a lecture	yulqī muḥādhara
- To lay down one's arms (to surrender)	yulqī l-silāh
- To ask a question	yulqī suʿāl
- To place responsibility on	yulqī l-masʿūliyya ^C alā

(Kharma and Hajjaj 1989:68)

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

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

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

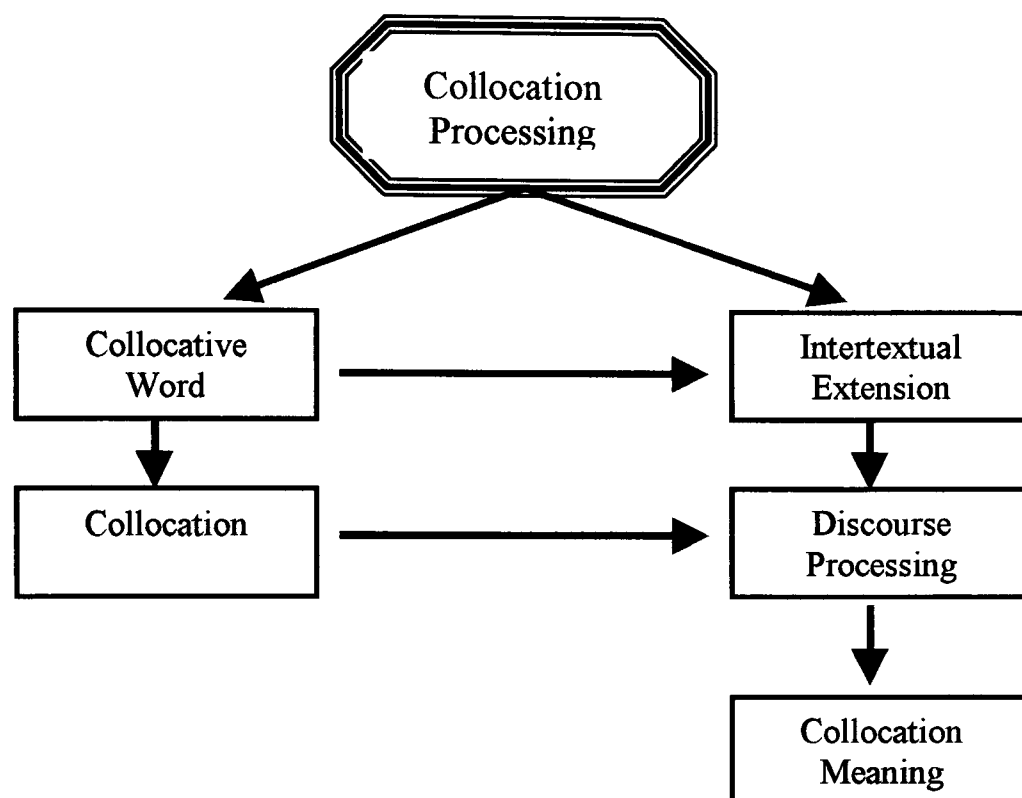
In the expository text, Text Four, the meaning of the word "directions" when it collocates with the word "use", as in Sentence 127 below, can be easily recognised and distinguished from other meanings which depend in their turn on other collocative patterns as in Sentences 128 and 129:

(127) Directions for use

(128) Directions from the Home Office

(129) One way direction only

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



(Figure Ten: the processing of collocation in the translator's mind)

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

and comparison between discourse types rather than rendering single words, or even strings of words separately helps identify collocational translation for expressions such as that in Sentence 127a:

(127a) *ṭarīqat al-isti^Cmāl.*

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

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

In general, semantic difficulties encountered by the testees in their translation of texts Three and Four did not evoke any major concern compared to the thème translation. The semantic errors in this context showed most often a

partial and not total deficiency in the meaning of a word or expression. This indicates, again, a lack of critical faculties when dealing with both source and target texts. Students had not established a sound and comprehensive analysis of the ST. They need to discover what it means and what its intentionality is.

5.4 Stylistic Errors

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

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

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

5.4.1 Cohesion

From what precedes, we may assert that it is essential that translators possess a good knowledge of the mechanics of the language systems they translate into

or from. The students' translations seem to indicate that their insufficient knowledge of the stylistic fabrics of Arabic made their task very hard indeed. Consider, for instance, the first two sentences taken from the first paragraph of Text Three:

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

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

(130a) kāna l-insān dāʾiman māddiyyan munḏu l-bidāya kāna yada^C yadah^C alā kull mā ḥawlah.

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

(130b) kāna l-insān dāʾiman māddiyyan wa-munḏu l-bidāya kāna yada^C yadah^C alā kull mā ḥawlah.

The two clauses in Sentence 103b are rather developmental (Beekman and Callow 1974:288), i.e. they are related to each other by the addition relation which does not conform to the meaning structure found in the ST. In the ST, the relation between the two clauses is rather a causal one: the fact that man

was materialistic led him to seize what lay around him. Therefore, the Arabic connective "fa-" (lit. as/and) would be the most appropriate linkage device. Accordingly, the most likely translation would read as Sentence 130c:

(130c) kāna l-insān dāʾiman māddiyyan fa-munḏu l-bidāya kāna yada^C
yadah ^Calā kull mā ḥawlah.

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

(131) treatment can take up to 12 weeks for resistant lesions, so you must persevere.

(i) Every night soak the affected area ...

(ii) Dry thoroughly

(iii)...

All testees preserved the same structure of the ST. Their translation was like Sentence 131a:

- (131a) qad tastamirr muddat al-^Cilāj ilā iθnā ^Cašar usbū^C li-yakūn al-^Cilāj nājihān li-ḏā yajibu l-muḏābara
- (i) inqa^C kull layla l-minṭaqa l-muṣāba
- (ii) jaffif kulliyyan
- (iii)...

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

- (131b) nadharan li-ṭabī^Cat al-marad fa-inna muddat al-^Cilāj qad tastaḡriq iθnā ^Cašar usbū^C li-ḏā yajib istimrār al-mu^Cālaja **muttabi^Can al-xuṭuwāt al-tāliya**

- (i) inqa^C

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

The insertion of the phrase "muttabi^Can al-xuṭuwāt al-tāliya" (following the steps below) bridges the cohesion textual gap between the two parts of the text.

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

- (132) Carefully unscrew the cap of the bottle and, using the applicator attached to the inside of the cap (see illustration), apply a few drops...

The placement of an apposition after a connector, as in Sentence 130, is not a characteristic of Arabic. As a result of this variation between English and Arabic, some testees like B, D, H and J avoided the use of the connective device, leaving a linking gap between the two sentences, as in Sentence 130a:

(132a) inza^C bi-haḍar ġitā? al-zujāja, musta^Cmilan al-qattāra l-muttaṣila bih da^C ba^Cd al-niqāt.

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

(132b) inza^C ġitā? al-zujāja bi-haḍar wa-da^C ba^Cd al-niqāt bi-wāṣitat al-qattāra l-muttaṣila bih.

5.4.2 Paragraphing

The students' difficulty using connectives was not confined to sentences but also embraced the linking of paragraphs. Paragraphing, in general, is an area of cross-linguistic variation between Arabic and English and it is often thought that Arabic paragraphing presents a problem when translating into English and not vice versa. El-Shiyab (1992:319) argues that paragraphing in Arabic is not generally used as a division of thought or, as an independent unit of meaning. He argues, "*Common sense dictates that lack of paragraphing of this type in Arabic editorials is a genuine problem for the English reader*" (ibid.).

It is true that paragraphing in English makes a new theme or sub-theme while in Arabic it can be used for merely stylistic reasons which may pose some problems for the translator. For instance, when translating into Arabic, s/he will have to opt either for keeping these thematic units separate in terms of paragraphs as in English and therefore introduce a conceptual framework of text that is alien to Arabic, or restructure the ST according to the Arabic stylistic requirements.

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

- innamā yusammā bil-hamla didda miṣr laysat jadīda [**paragraph 2**]

(the campaign against Egypt is not new)

- wa-hunāk ^Cawāmil ^Cidda addat ilā l-futūr al-axīr fī l-^Calāqāt al-miṣriyya l-amrīkiyya [**paragraph 3**].

(several factors led to the recent cooling of relations between America and Egypt).

- wa-l-amr al-θānī allaḏī az^Caj al-amrīkiyyīn fī l-kunḡris...ammā mā yata^Callaq bi-taʔazzum al-^Calāqāt al-amrīkiyya l-miṣriyya [**paragraph 4**]

(the second issue which upsets the American Congressmen...as to the deterioration of relations between America and Egypt).

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

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

The fact of the matter is that the "real world" is to a large extent built upon the language habits of the group. No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which

difficult societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached to it.

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

5.4.3 Nominalisation

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

a nominalisation process while others preserved the ST structure as Sentences 133a and 133b illustrate respectively:

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

(133a) yajib **wad**^C "salāktul" marra kull layla ^Calā l-Θu?lūl li-ajl **taḥqīq** al-šifā?

(133b) yajib an **tada**^C "salāktul" marra wāḥida kull layla ^Calā l-Θu?lūl.

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

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

(134) Man was ever materialistic. Right from the start he seized what lay around him to fashion it into tools...

(134a) munḏu l-bidāya istahwaḏa l-insān ^Calā kull mā hawlah wa-
ṣāḡahu ^Calā hay?at adawāt...

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

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

(134b) fa-munḏu l-bidāya istahwaḏa l-insān ^Calā kull mā hawlah li-
yaṣūḡahu ^Calā šakl adawāt...

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

5.5 Conclusion

The investigation of the problems related to the translation of exposition and instruction shows that in most cases students lacked the frame and schema of the type and genre of the text they were translating as they made all types of errors. Testees seem to give little attention to the textual aspects of text, such as cohesion, coherence and the organisation of information (thematic, forms, argumentation).

Compared with their translation of argumentation, testees performed better in exposition and instruction as in these texts their errors became less frequent and less serious especially with regard to the core meaning of text. Most of their errors affected partially either the meaning of some words/expressions or the naturalness with which the whole text was presented. The students' main incompetence in this regard was the way they processed the text. They seemed to opt for a minimal processing of words and sentences and did not give way for a multiplication process (using Barthes's terms, see Section 1.2.2) within the whole context in order to allow its expressive and communicative aspect to become manifest. In short, students lacked the necessary pragma-textual framework, when dealing with two culturally and linguistically distinct languages such as Arabic and English.

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

CHAPTER SIX

The Assessment of Teachers' Evaluation and Consistency

6.1 Introduction

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

In Chapter Three, I tried to predict different possible criteria teachers might be using during their evaluation, viz. frequency, generality, intelligibility, interpretation, and naturalness. The present chapter will investigate, on the basis of a questionnaire (see Appendix I) administered to teachers, the use they make of these criteria. Beforehand, I shall mention that conclusions from

my analysis are tentative given that the evaluation corpus is limited to a questionnaire distributed among a relatively small number of teachers (ten).

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

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

6.2 Criteria of Evaluation and Teachers' Use

The main purpose of this section is to put into practice what has been theoretically discussed about evaluation criteria. It will also test whether my conclusions about the testees' main areas of difficulty are shared by teachers.

That is to say, while the analysis of the students' translation in Chapters Four and Five has identified and looked into a number of students' errors, this section will investigate how teachers account for them in terms of the evaluation criteria.

6.2.1 Rating of the Frequency Principle

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

Evaluators	Sample 1	Sample 6	Sample 11	Sample 16
I	3	3	2	4
II	5	4	4	4
III	3	1	4	5
IV	4	5	5	5
V	3	1	3	3
VI	2	0	1	5
VII	3	0	3	5
VIII	3	1	2	3
IX	4	4	4	4
X	4	1	3	5
Total scores	34	20	31	43

(Table Fourteen: ratings of frequency errors)

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

(135)...he seized what lay around him to fashion it into tools with which to hack, carve, pound and sew his way through life.

(135a) wa-istafāda min kull mā ḥawlahu wa-ṣawwarahu ^Calā hayʔat
adawāt bi-wāsiṭatihā yastafī^C al-^Cazqa wa-l-naḥta wa-l-saḥqa wa-
yaṣuqq ṭarīqahu fi l-ḥayāt

(136) treatment can take up to twelve weeks for resistant lesions

(136a) min al-mumkin an tataṭallab al-mu^Cālaja iṮnā ^Cašarata usbū^Cin
lil-adrār al-muqāwima

Most errors in Sample 6 are not as explicit as in Sample 11 because they are semantic errors in partial synonymy with the more appropriate renderings. This makes them less obvious than say syntactic errors as in Sample 11. For instance, as discussed in Chapter Five, both the verbs "istafād" and "šaqqa" can translate the ST verb "seized" in Sample 6, the only difference being that "šaqqa" conveys the sense of forceful use of something existing in the corresponding ST word, a meaning aspect that "istafāda" lacks. The same is also true about the translation of the ST phrasal verb "fashion into" as "ṣawwara". As explained in Chapter Five, "ṣawwara" lacks parts of the meaning existing in the ST such as the fact that the act is manual which is usually considered an artistic work and therefore initiates a positive response in the reader. These meaning aspects can be represented in this context by the Arabic word "šāġa".

Such partial semantic or pragmatic losses usually pass unnoticed as the sentence (text) is grammatically wellformed and the content of the message is also conveyed. However, the same cannot be said about the agreement and case-marking errors of "iṮnā ^Cašarata" and "usbū^C" in Sample 11. These two

errors are a blatant breach of grammatical rules (see 5.2.3) in the sense that they cannot be exchangeable with the correct grammatical forms as is "ṣawwara" with "ṣāḡa" and are therefore more marked in terms of their identification. Unlike the errors of Sample 6, those of Sample 11 have been identified by most teachers and therefore are more prone to receive higher scores. In fact, teachers VI and VII marked Sample 6 as 0, which indicates that the Sample is error-free. To find out whether this group of evaluators would have rated the errors highly, had they discovered them, will depend on how they score other samples with frequent errors.

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

	Evaluators	Sample 1	Sample 6	Sample 11	Sample 16
First Group	III	3	1	4	5
	V	3	1	3	3
	VI	2	0	1	5
	VII	3	0	3	5
Second Group	I	3	3	2	4
	II	5	4	4	4
	IV	4	5	5	5
	IX	4	4	4	4
Third Group	VIII	3	1	2	3
	X	4	1	3	5

(Table Fifteen: division of teachers' ratings)

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

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

first consider Sample 16, discussed in 4.5.1, which is repeated here as Sentence 137:

(137) kāna min al-mutawwaqa^C fa-inna barnāmaj al-fadā? al-rūsī bada?
fī l-^Cawda ilā l-warā? min al-šahr al-mādī

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

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

(138) kāna min al-mutawwaqa^C **fa-inna** barnāmaj al-fadā? al-rūsī...

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

(i) pro + V, as in:

(i) kāna min	al-mutawwaqa ^C	an	yarji ^C a	mubakkiran
It was	expected	that	comes	early

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

or

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

(ii) kāna min	al-mutawwaqa ^C	an	yarji ^C	al-ra?īs
It was	expected	that	comes	the-president
mubakkiran				
early				

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

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

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

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

(139a) bada? fi l-^Cawda ilā l-warā?...
bt: it started to retreat...

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

(139b) kāna min al-mutawaqqa^C an **yasta?nif/yasta^Cid** barnāmaj al-fadā? al-rūsī **našā^Ctahu** l-šahr al-mādī.

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

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

ST One: wa-yu^Cabbir al-mawqif al-miṣrī ^Can ijmā^C ^Carabī wa-islāmī lam ya^Cud yatahammal al-ṣamt al-ġarbī ^Can al-silāh al-nawawī l-isrā?īlī.

Sample 1 involves different types of error: (i) grammatical errors such as the unnecessary addition of the preposition "for" and the inappropriate use of "on" instead of "regarding", (ii) deletion of information like "ijmā^C ^Carabī wa islāmī" (Arab-Islamic unanimity) and (iii) distortion of information by the use

of expressions such as "expressed to" instead of "reflects" and "will not" instead of "cannot". Since Sample 1 involves a high frequency of different error types, and represents a poor-quality message, it has been given a relatively high score apart from that of evaluator VI, ranging between 3 and 5.

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

6.2.2 Rating of the Generality Principle

The generality criterion presupposes that infringement of general rules triggers the teachers' reaction and, therefore, high-rating scores. The questionnaire

involves several samples with errors that violate general rules, some of which can alter the intended message of the ST like Sentence 141:

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

ST: wa-yu^Cabbir al-mawqif al-miṣrī ^Can ijmā^C ^Carabī wa-islāmī lam ya^Cud yataḥammal al-ṣamt al-ġarbī ^Can al-silāḥ al-nawawī l-isrāʾīlī.

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

Evaluators	Sample 4	Sample 8	Sample 10
I	0	3	2
II	1	4	3
III	0	1	1
IV	1	2	0
V	1	1	2
VI	0	0	1
VII	3	2	3
VIII	1	3	2
IX	1	1	1
X	0	0	0
Total Scores	8	17	15

(Table Sixteen: ratings of generality errors)

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

Consider Sentence 142:

(142) ST ...what raised eyebrows was not the loss of the satellites but Russia's inability to replace them.

(142a) wa-mā aθāra l-dahša laysa **faqaṭ** fuqdān al-aqmār al-šinā^Ciyya
bal ^Cajz rūsyā ^Calā istibdālihā

bt: what raised astonishment was not **only** the loss of the satellites
(plural) but also Russia's inability to replace them (plural).

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

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

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

Consider Sentences 143a and 143b:

(143a) wa-qabla ḏālik fa-inna l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sa-taḥī bil-ḡarad

(143b) wa-qabla ḏālik fa-inna l-muhāwala wa-l-xaṭa? sawfa taḥī bil-ḡarad.

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

¹ See 5.2.4 for elaborated discussion on modality.

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

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

On the other hand, native speakers are usually readily able to predict and form retrospectively or prospectively what the word, sentence or text being read (or uttered) is about. Therefore, the interest of the native speaker is often in the message rather than the grammar. The predictive capacity of a non-native speaker, on the other hand, is slower and its process is often carried out

through the joining of words to form sentences and texts, i.e., it is a grammatical process. In other words, native speakers rely heavily on their cultural competencies to process a text while non-natives, given their limited cultural competence, resort to the construction of words and sentences via grammatical rules into a meaningful text.

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

6.2.3 Rating of the Intelligibility Principle

Violation of the intelligibility criterion means that the message conveyed in the TT is either distorted, incomplete or simply incomprehensible.

Evaluators	Sample 3	Sample 7	Sample 15	Sample 19
I	1	3	4	3
II	2	2	5	5
III	1	3	5	4
IV	2	5	0	3
V	2	2	2	4
VI	0	1	4	1
VII	1	3	0	3
VIII	1	1	0	3
IX	3	4	3	0
X	2	3	0	4
Total scores	15	27	23	30

(Table Seventeen: ratings of intelligibility errors)

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

To confirm either claim, let us take a closer look at teachers' assessment of the four intelligibility samples in Table Seventeen above. Sample 3, repeated below as Sentence 144, received the lowest score (15) of the intelligibility samples.

(144) ST: *istimrār al-rafd al-lībī taslīm muttahaḡayh fī ḡādīḡ tafjīr t̄āʔirat "ban am" fawqa iskutlandā*

(144a) the Libyans still refuse to extradite their two suspects in the Pan Am **explosion accident**.

The Sample involves wrong lexical choices owing to partial synonymy which alters the ideological connotations existing in the ST (see 4.4.1). This can provide an explanation for the low scores given to Sample 3 as errors involving partial synonymy losses or (partial) ideological shifts often pass unnoticed owing to their discreteness at the surface level of language. In fact, seven out of ten of the evaluators failed to detect any trace whatsoever of an ideological shift. Their marks were awarded on the basis of other reasons, such as the omission of the phrase "fawqa iskutlandā" (over Scotland) or "t̄āʔira" (plane) which are not essential to the meaning of the text because for the English reader, only words such as "Libyans" and "Pan Am" will suffice to understand what the text is all about in this context.

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

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

(145a) *qāmū bi-taḡwīr maydān wāsi^C fī ^Cilm al-mādda yas^Cā ilā tafsīr mā sabbabathu andḡimat al-mādda taḡta al-mijhar min xawāḡḡihi...*

bt: they have developed a wide field in the material science which seeks to explain the effect of the matter's arrangement under the microscope

The markedness of Sentence 145a accounts for the highest score (34) it received. The same goes for Samples 7 and 15, presented as Sentences 146 and 147 respectively:

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

(146a) kayfiyyat mu^Cālajat Ḥa?ālīl al-qadam **wa-ġayrihā**

(147) in the wake of the Mars **debacle**

(147a) fī a^Cqāb **fašal** riḥlat al-fadā? ilā al-marrīx.

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

The rating of Sample 15 is similar to that of Sample 7 as they both involve a wider dispersion of marks than that existing in Samples 3 and 19. That is, while most marks are equal or below 2 in Sample 3 and are equal or over 3 in Sample 19, Samples 7 and 15 involve all types of scores from 0 to 5. As far as the scores of Sample 15 are concerned, we can distinguish between three groups of evaluators. The first group of evaluators (IV, VII, VIII and X) simply did not recognise the errors and therefore assigned a 0 score to the Sample. The second group (V and IX) awarded average scores ranging

between 2 and 3. High scores (4 and 5) were awarded by the third group, consisting of evaluators I, II, III and VI. However, not all high scores in this case reflect the teachers' evaluation of the error resulting from the translation of the word "debacle". Only evaluator III from the third group identified the error; the others saw the erroneousness in other parts of the construction such as the adjectival phrase "al-rihla l-fadā'iyya" instead of the construct NP "rihlat al-fadā'?" or the adverbial "C alā iΘr" instead of "fi aC qāb" (in the wake of) or even the offering of an alternative translation using the same word "fašal".

	Evaluators	Sample 15
First Group	IV	0
	VII	0
	VIII	0
	X	0
Second Group	V	2
	IX	3
Third Group	I	4
	II	5
	III	5
	VI	4

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

As with Sample 3, only three evaluators (III, V and IX) identified the error in Sample 15. Although failure to identify this error may hinder generalisations about teachers' assessment, this shows that this type of error is more prone to

pass unnoticed by teachers. To this effect, the error may become a consistent habit of students as far as it is not detected. Errors of partial synonymy, though often they do not affect the general meaning of the text as in Sample 15, can be very serious especially when they involve an ideological shift between two languages with two conflicting and competitive ideologies as in the case of Sentence 144 repeated earlier.

6.2.4 Rating of the Interpretation Principle

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

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

(148a) fa-munḏu inhiyār al-šuyū^Ciyya tilka l-hay?a allatī qaddamat lil-^Cālam al-qamar al-šinā^Cī "sbutnik" qad jarra xalfahu inhiyār jajarīn wa-l-mahatta l-fadā?iyya "mīr"

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

It is very clear that the ST and the translation are two different texts with different meanings and concepts. The reason is that the ST does not provide

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

Valuators	Sample 12	Sample 14
I	4	2
II	5	4
III	4	3
IV	5	5
V	3	3
VI	3	3
VII	5	3
VIII	3	2
IX	4	3
X	3	4

(Table Nineteen: ratings of interpretation errors)

Notice that scores granted to Sample 12 are high (most of them are fours and fives). On the other hand, Sample 14 received relatively average scores; apart

from evaluators II and X all scores are limited to twos and threes. Consider Sample 14 repeated below as Sentence 149:

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

(149a)...wa-l-bāhiθūn allađīna yumaθθilūnahu yastaḡi^Cūna isti^Cmāl
đālika l-^Cilm fī taškīl xawāṣṣ jadīda fī l-mādda.

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

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

of previous samples showed that frequency and generality were often assessed with leniency.

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

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

6.2.5 Rating of the Naturalness Principle

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

Samples 2, 17, 18 and 20 represent in this respect some failures to observe the naturalness principle.

Evaluators	Sample 2	Sample 17	Sample 18	Sample 20
I	2	3	2	3
II	1	3	1	3
III	1	5	2	0
IV	5	4	1	0
V	2	3	1	0
VI	0	1	1	1
VII	1	5	3	1
VIII	3	3	2	0
IX	4	4	2	0
X	2	3	1	0
Total Scores	21	34	16	8

(Table Twenty: ratings of naturalness errors)

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

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

(150a) innanā^C indamā naqūm bi-ṣun^C šay? min lā šay? fa-innanā na^C lam li-māḏā ṣuni^C a hāḏā l-šay? ammā qabla ḏālik fa-lā na^C lam šay? an al-mādda l-xām

bt: when we make a thing out of nothing we knew why this thing was made but before that we do not know anything about raw material.

The Arabic translation consists of many inaccuracies: first, it reads, as some teachers pointed out, unnaturally which is basically owing to the inappropriate use of repetition. Repetition is a common feature of Arabic; its use is not random but always has a function or purpose such as cohesion or emphasis¹. Repetition of "šay?" (thing) in the above translation does not function as a cohesive device or serve to highlight an emphasis existing in the ST. This reason alone does not explain the high score given to Sample 17 because other samples involving stylistic awkwardness were assessed tolerantly. Consider again Samples 2, 18 and 20 repeated below as Sentences 151, 152 and 153 respectively:

(151)...tarfudu bah_θa silā_hihā l-kimyā_ʔī aw mawdū^Ca l-silā_h al-kimyā_ʔī
fī l-šarq al-awsaṭ

(151a)...it refuses the search for its chemical weapons or **the subject of chemical weapons** in the Middle East

(152) every night, soak the affected area(s) in **warm water**

(152a) uḡmur kull layla l-mintaqa l-muṣāba fī **miyāh dāfi?a**

(153) this metallic glass provides a combination of **strength** and flexibility

(153a) wa-yu^Cṭī hāḏā al-zujāj al-ma^Cdanī mazīj min **al-quwwa** wa-l-murūna.

The use of "miyāh dāfi?a" in Sentence 152a does not sound as natural as the common collocative expression "mā? dāfi", the word "quwwa" in Sentence 153a similarly does not collocate with "zujāj ma^Cdanī" as naturally as "šalāba"

1 See Al-Jubouri 1984:99-117 for further detailed discussion of the function of repetition in Arabic.

and, furthermore, the preservation of the Arabic repetition in the English translation in Sentence 150a does not sound natural.

We can also notice that the total scores of Samples 18 and 20 are lower than that of Sample 2. This is because Sample 2 is a translation into the foreign language (English) and evaluators are expected to be less tolerant when evaluating the trainees' performance in L₂ (see, 6.2.2). As for Sample 20 it is quite likely that its low score is due to the discreteness of the errors, so that most teachers did not recognise them.

The Arabic translation also contains an alteration in the mode of address. In the ST, the second person mode is used to refer to a general addressee (anybody making materials from scratch). In the Arabic version, instead, the first person plural form "našna^C" is more appropriate in this type of discourse. The translation would read unnaturally, had the translator kept the same mode of address as the ST. This only indicates that this alteration cannot be the reason behind a well-founded penalisation of Sample 17.

This high score (34) granted to Sample 17 cannot be explained in terms of the generality or intelligibility principles as the translation is grammatically wellformed and semantically comprehensible. Yet the comparison (of the backtranslation) of translation 148a and ST 148, mentioned earlier, shows that although the translation is grammatical and intelligible, its communicative content is different from that of the ST. We have seen that the distortion of the

ST's message was often regarded as serious by the teachers especially when it was readily identified. In their comments regarding Sample 17, most teachers pointed to this distortion of the ST's meaning which stands as the most likely reason for their reaction to the erroneous nature of Sample 17.

To sum up, the discussion of teachers' assessment in terms of the evaluation criteria set in Chapter Three gives us a general account of their approach to the gravity of errors in translation. The seriousness of an error is often associated with two main values: (i) distortion of a ST's meaning or incomprehensibility of the message enacted in the TT and (ii) markedness/unmarkedness of the error. Value (i) represents errors which distort the meaning existing in the ST or simply make it unintelligible regardless of the criterion that has been violated. Value (ii) assesses the degree and explicitness of the meaning loss in translation. Discrete errors like partial synonymy or ideological shifts are often assigned low scores when they are identified. These two values can also trigger a higher penalisation when combined with frequency. In other words, a translation which involves, in addition to the alteration or incomprehensibility of the message, a high frequency of errors is likely to be assigned a higher gravity score.

6.3 Teachers' Inter- and Intra-Consistency

6.3.1 Introduction

From the discussion of teachers' evaluation in the previous Section, it can be claimed that there is a considerable imbalance in their assessment in terms of

the different criteria and tools available for this purpose. Such an imbalance can have undesirable effects on the teaching/learning process. The inconsistency in teachers' evaluation is likely to cause confusion for the trainees and mask the clarity of the course objectives as discussed in the following chapter. This section will be concerned with the analysis of teachers' consistency when scoring the same samples investigated earlier. As mentioned before, consistency will be looked at from two related angles: inter-consistency and intra-consistency.

Before proceeding with the analysis of consistency, it is worth mentioning that the primary aim of this analysis is not only to pinpoint those elements where teachers fail to be consistent but also to highlight areas where they show shared criteria of evaluation. Table Twenty One below is a numerical representation of teachers' assessment of the twenty samples administered as a questionnaire. I rearranged the order of samples in the table according to the criteria which they mostly violate and were intended to test. In other words, one sample may involve the violation of more than one criterion but in most cases it is set to test one of the criteria regardless of the teachers. For instance, we have under the category of frequency, Samples 1, 6, 11 and 16 as the four Samples were administered with the purpose of examining the teachers' use of the frequency criterion. I shall, therefore, examine the teachers' inter-consistency in respect of each criterion separately.

	Frequency Principle				Generality Principle				Intelligibility Principle				Interpretation Principle				Naturalness Principle			
Evaluators	S1	S6	S11	S16	S4	S8	S10	S13	S3	S7	S15	S19	S5	S9	S12	S14	S2	S17	S18	S20
EI	3	3	2	4	0	3	2	2	1	3	4	3	2	1	4	2	2	3	2	3
EII	5	4	4	4	1	4	3	3	2	2	5	5	2	2	5	4	1	3	1	3
EIII	3	1	4	5	0	1	1	5	1	3	5	4	1	2	4	3	1	5	2	0
EIV	4	5	5	5	1	2	0	1	2	5	0	3	0	0	5	5	5	4	1	0
EV	3	1	3	3	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	4	0	0	3	3	2	3	1	0
EVI	2	0	1	5	0	0	1	0	0	1	4	1	0	0	3	3	0	1	1	1
EVII	3	0	3	5	3	2	3	3	1	3	0	3	1	1	5	3	1	5	3	1
EVIII	3	1	2	3	1	3	2	1	1	1	0	3	2	0	3	2	3	3	2	0
EIX	4	4	4	4	1	1	1	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	2	0
EX	4	1	3	5	0	0	0	1	2	3	0	4	1	0	3	4	2	3	1	0
Total scores	34	20	31	43	8	17	15	20	15	27	23	34	12	9	39	32	21	34	16	8

(Table Twenty One: numerical representation of teachers' assessment)

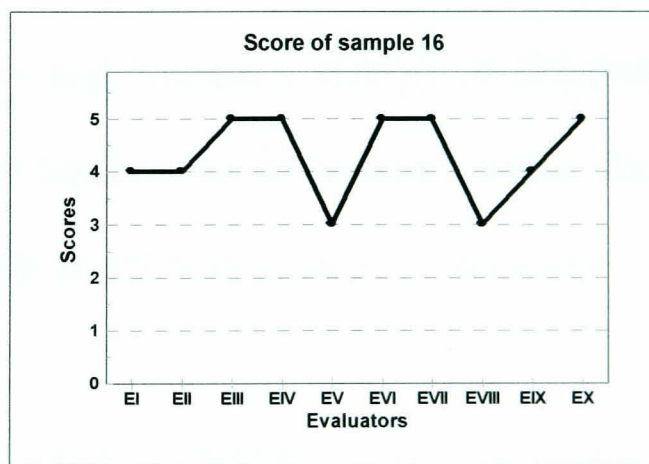
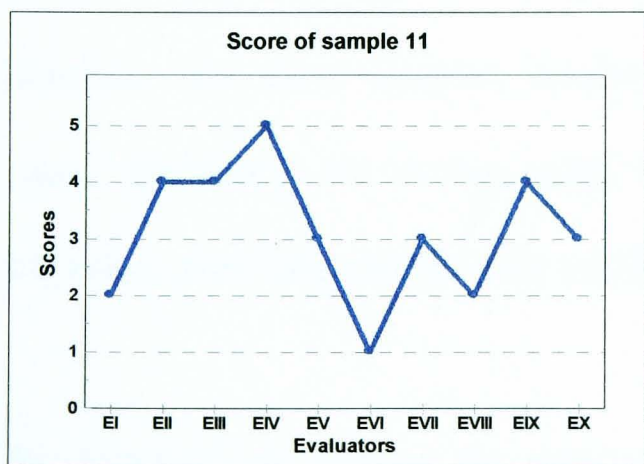
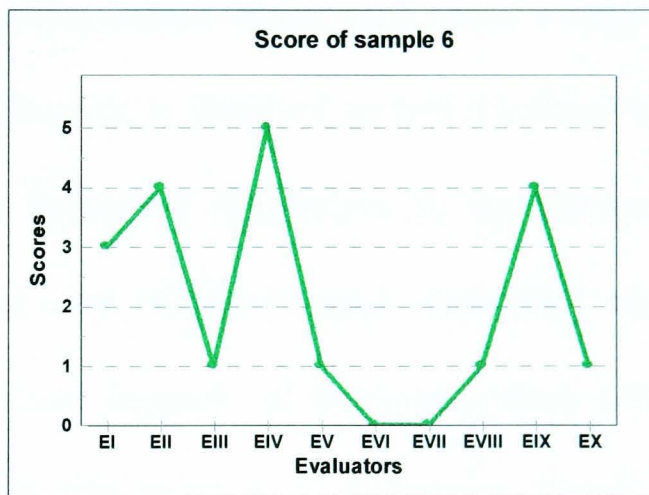
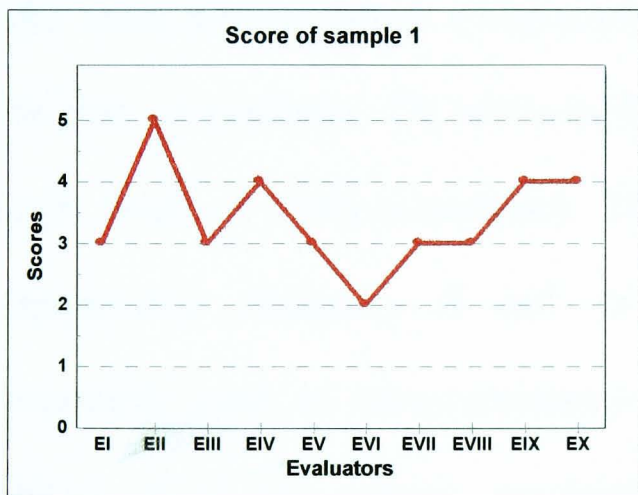
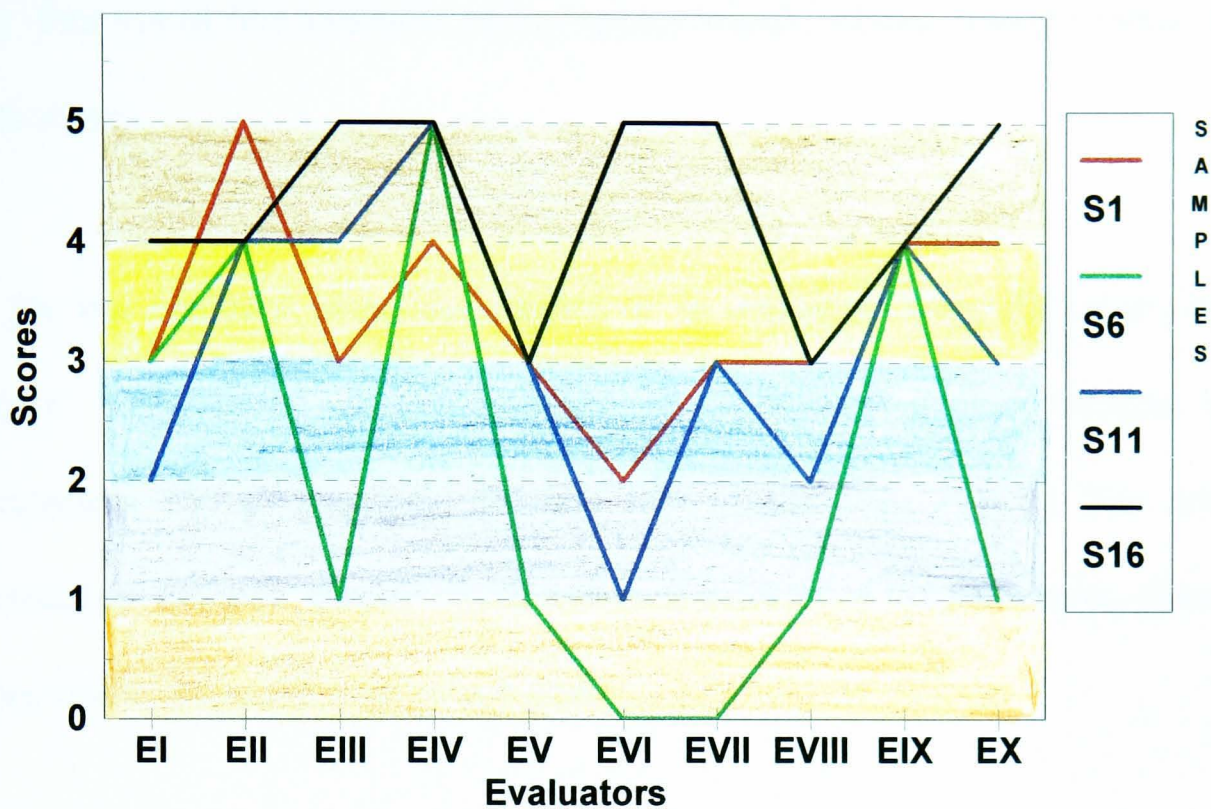
6.3.2 Consistency of the Frequency Scores

As far as the frequency criterion is concerned, a look at the samples representing this category in Table Twenty One shows that there is a significant dispersion between teachers' scores, i.e. the lack of inter-consistency is high. This is well illustrated in Graph One below. Each curve in the Graph represents the ten evaluators' scores of one sample.

We have basically two different types of curve: one stretching upwards (hyperbolic) and the other downwards (parabolic). Hyperbolic stretches reflect high-scoring rates, whereas parabolic stretches reveal low-scoring rates. It is the consistency and similarity of the fluctuations within each curve that determine the degree of (in)consistency between teachers. To measure the fluctuations of each curve, I have assigned for each space between one score and the other a different colour. That is, the degree of fluctuation will be determined in terms of the colour spaces each curve operates on.

In this respect, the score given to Sample 16 can be said to be the most consistent as the fluctuations of the curve operate mainly within one space (light brown). By contrast, Sample 6's scores are the least consistent as the fluctuations of its curve pervade all five colour-spaces. Almost the same contrast between Samples 6 and 16 exists also between Samples 1 and 11. The red curve's fluctuations of Sample 1 are basically centred within the yellow colour-space, except for evaluators II and VI. Therefore, consistency is

Graph One: Inter-consistency of frequency scores



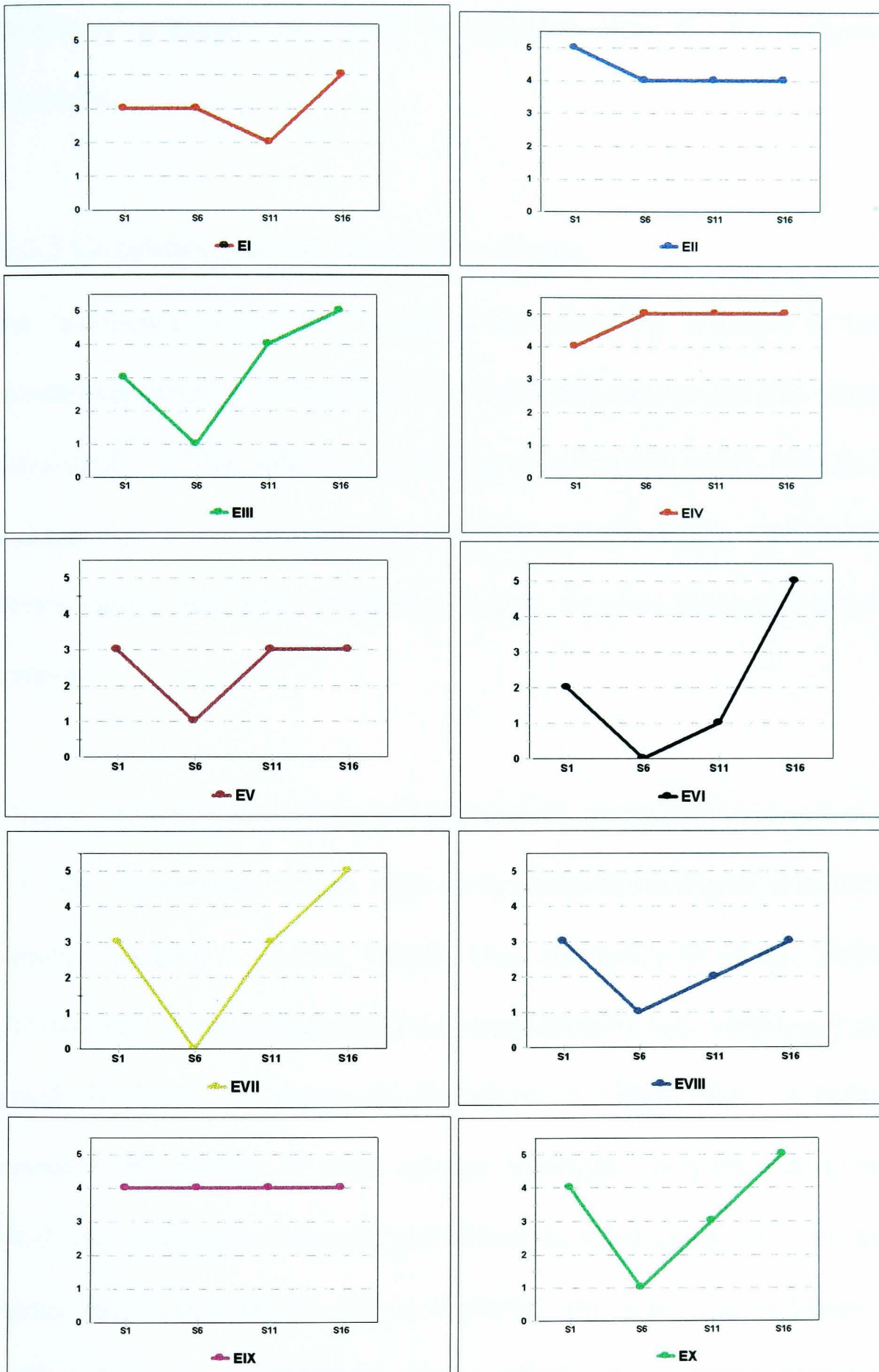
relatively achieved. On the other hand, the fluctuations of Sample 6 are spread over four out of five available colour-spaces which indicates the inconsistency of its scores.

As for the teachers' intra-consistency, it is measured using the same graph system. The scores of each teacher for the four frequency samples are represented by a separate polygon (see Graph Two below). The intra-consistency of each teacher is determined in terms of the fluctuation of each curve within the number of colour-spaces.

The chart clearly shows a high level of fluctuation within each curve, except for that of evaluator IX, where no fluctuation is observed so that it reflects a high level of intra-consistency. The degree of fluctuation of the curves representing evaluators II and IV is also relatively small indicating an acceptable level of intra-consistency. Low degrees of intra-consistency are shown along the curves designed for the remaining evaluators. Recall, however, that these samples involve a high frequency of errors of different types. Therefore, we cannot judge the teachers as inconsistent unless the frequency principle was the only available or utilised criterion of evaluation.

As discussed throughout the previous section, teachers do not seem to have assessed the samples in terms of the frequency of the errors they involved, but rather in terms of their quality. In other words, high fluctuation of the curves

Graph Two: Intra-consistency of frequency scores



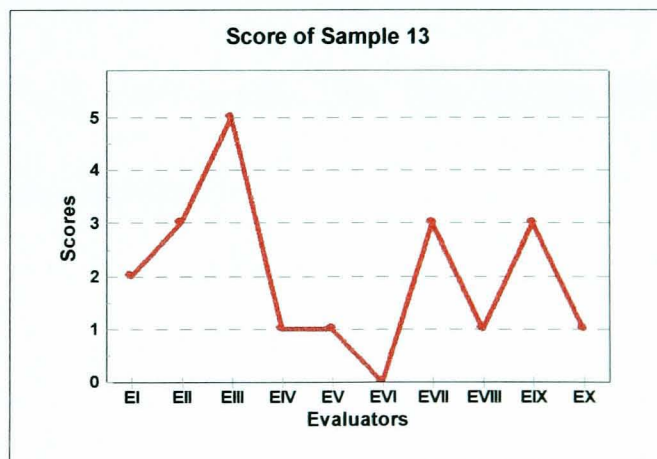
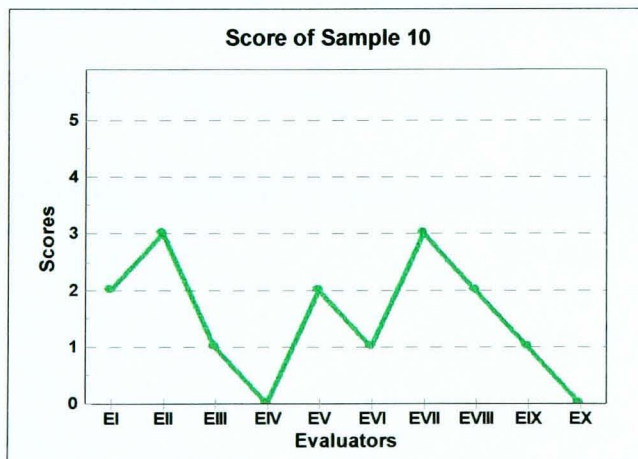
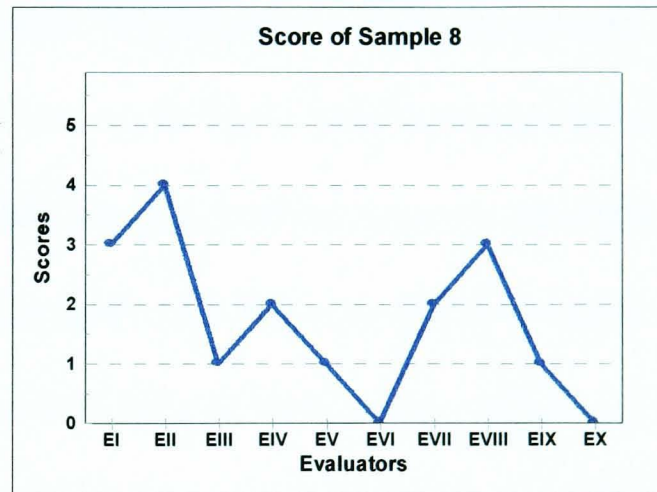
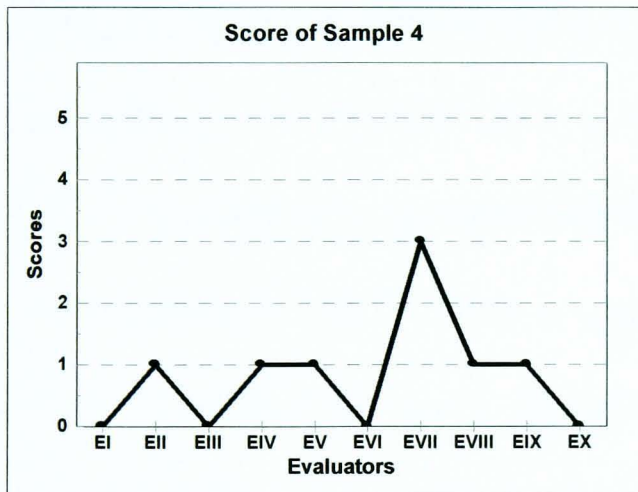
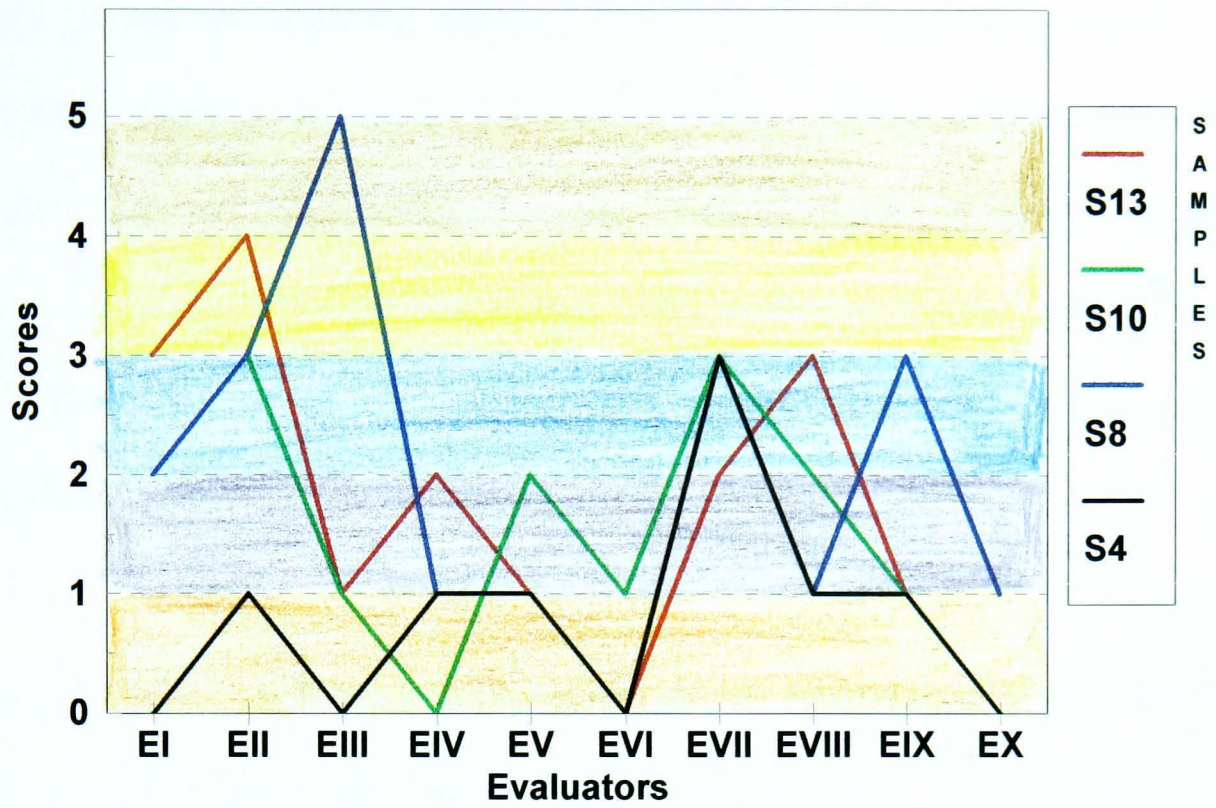
does not reflect a variation in the teachers' assessment concerning the frequency principle but rather a variation between the samples being measured.

6.3.3 Consistency of the Generality Scores

As mentioned before, the breach of the generality principle is not often sanctioned severely by teachers. The aim of this sub-section is to examine the consistency of this tolerance regarding the generality errors. Like frequency, consistency in the assessment of generality samples will be carried out at two levels (inter- and intra-consistency) using the same illustrative technique of graphs.

Graph Three below represents all the teachers' scores for Samples 4, 8, 10 and 13. The fluctuations within each curve represent the degree of inconsistency among teachers. Unlike Graph One, all curves in Graph Three point downwards which indicates that the scores given to each sample are relatively small. However, the degree of fluctuation in Graph Three is higher if we consider the number of space-colours where each polygon (curve) operates. With the exception of the polygon of Sample 4, which basically occupies one space colour if evaluator VII is excluded, the remaining polygons operate within three up to five space-colours which indicates a low degree of inter-consistency.

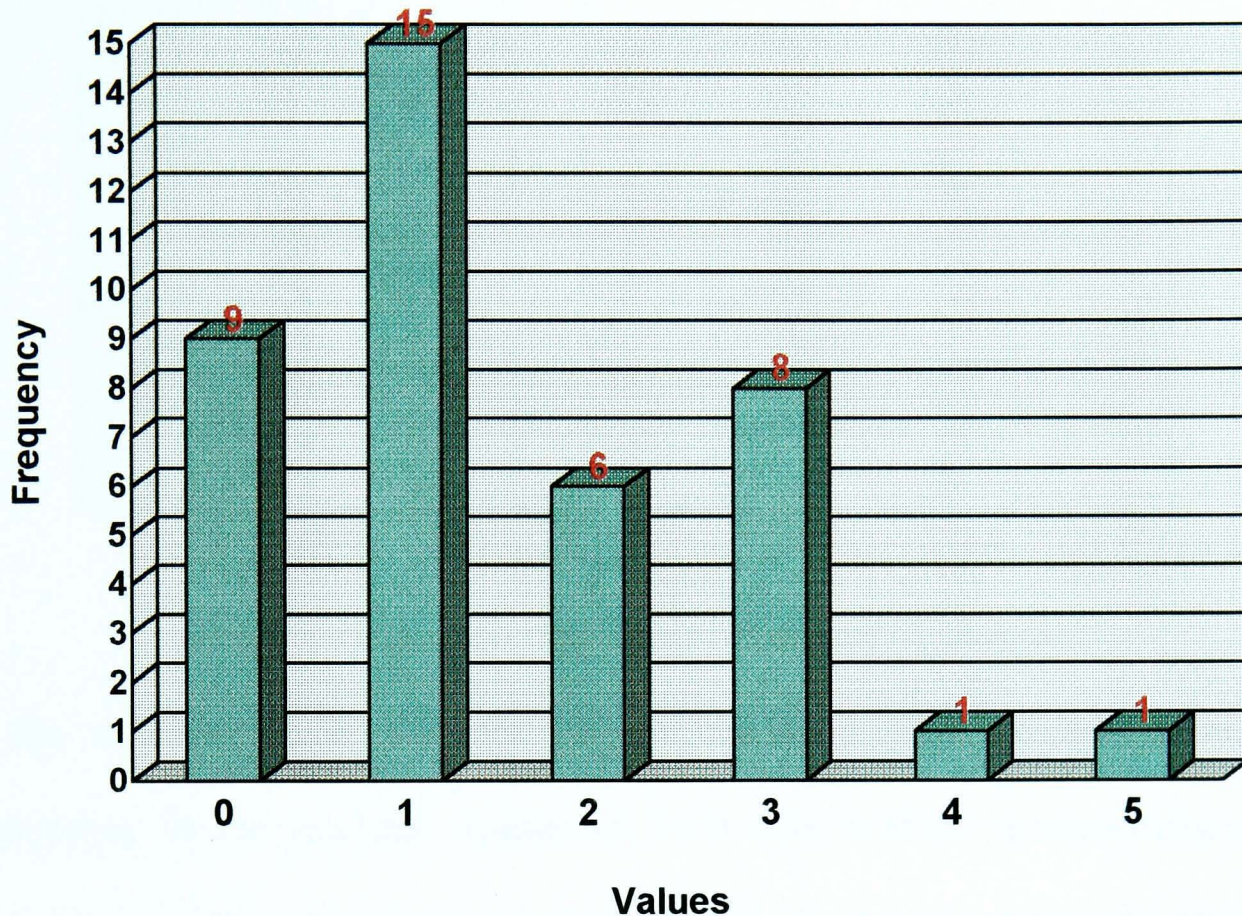
Graph Three: Inter-consistency of generality scores



On the whole, some teachers did not identify the errors being measured while others scored for different elements from those intended to be assessed. This may raise serious questions about the validity of these results concerning teachers' lack of inter-consistency. The issue has been previously discussed and it has been noticed that in instances when teachers identify and score the same generality errors, their marks tend to be similar. The same goes here regarding teachers' intra-consistency on the generality principle.

Graph Three above shows significant variation in the scores of each individual teacher on the generality samples. This indicates that intra-consistency is minimally achieved. However, if we exclude irregularities and extreme scores, the findings will certainly have a different path. Here, irregularities refer to those scores which by no means represent true values of the elements intended to be measured. The 0 value is a case in point as it indicates that the teacher has not identified the error. Extreme scores refer to those values with a very low distribution. For instance, out of the forty scores given to the generality samples, the values 4 and 5 surface only once each. The distribution of generality scores is presented as Histogram One below.

Histogram One: Distribution of generality scores



As Histogram One indicates, the recurrence of values is not equally distributed. The scores are mainly centred around 1. Values 4 and 5 have occurred only once and can therefore be considered as extreme scores. 0 is not a representative value either, despite its high frequency. The non-representativeness of the value 0 follows from the fact that it indicates failure to identify the erroneousess the teacher was supposed to assess. Thus, the discussion of teachers' intra-consistency will be confined to the values 1, 2 or 3 while eliminating the non-representative values 0, 4 and 5. Let us now tabulate the scores of the generality samples this time without the values 0, 4 and 5.

Evaluators	Sample 4	Sample 8	Sample 10	Sample 13
I	---	3	2	2
II	1	---	3	3
III	---	1	1	---
IV	1	2	---	1
V	1	1	2	1
VI	---	---	1	---
VII	3	2	3	3
VIII	1	3	2	1
IX	1	1	1	3
X	---	---	---	1

(Table Twenty Two: true values of generality Samples)

As the non-representative scores are replaced by a dash, we can see some consistency in the teachers' evaluation. Each value is often repeated twice or three times within the scores of each teacher. It can be said that the intra-consistency is relatively achieved. However, the frequency of the unrepresented value, especially that of 0 as illustrated by Histogram One, cannot be ignored. The fact that teachers quite frequently fail to identify errors reflected by the high distribution of the value 0 is alarming and constitutes a potential threat for the training and development of qualified translators.

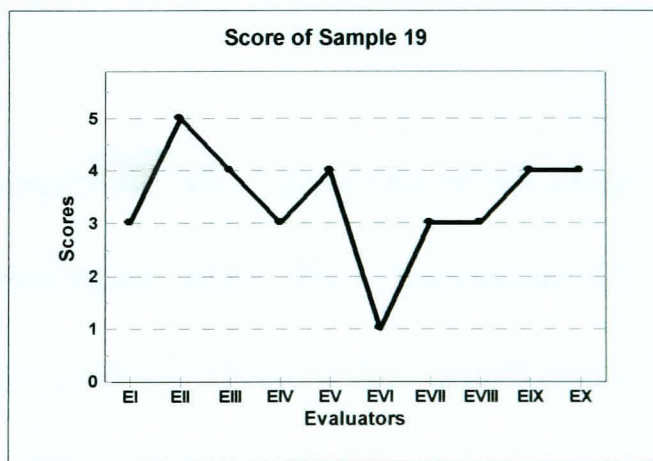
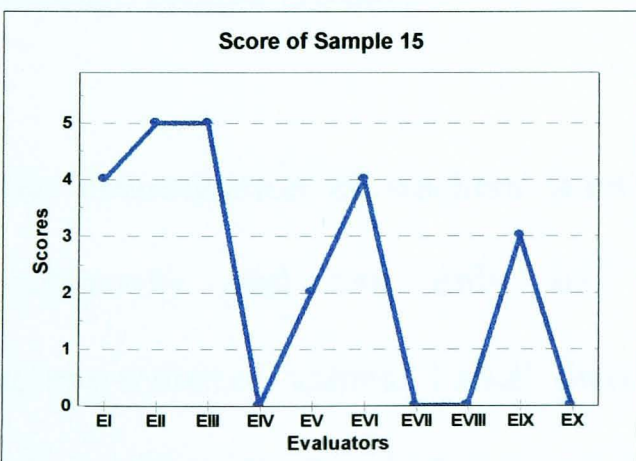
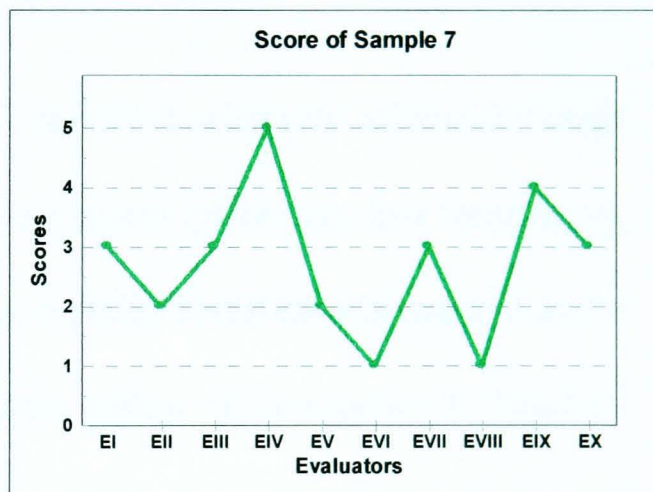
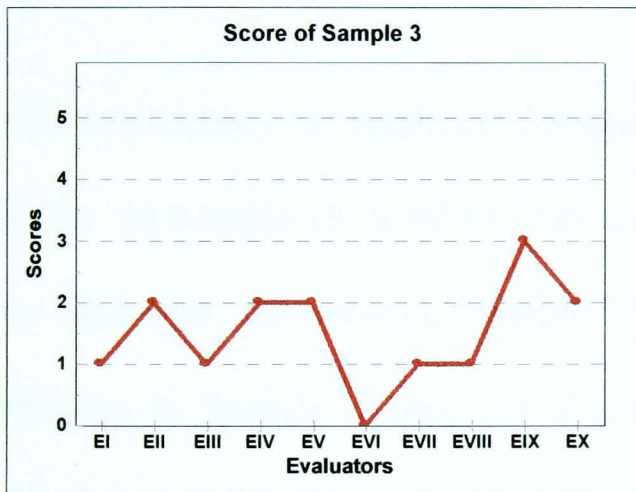
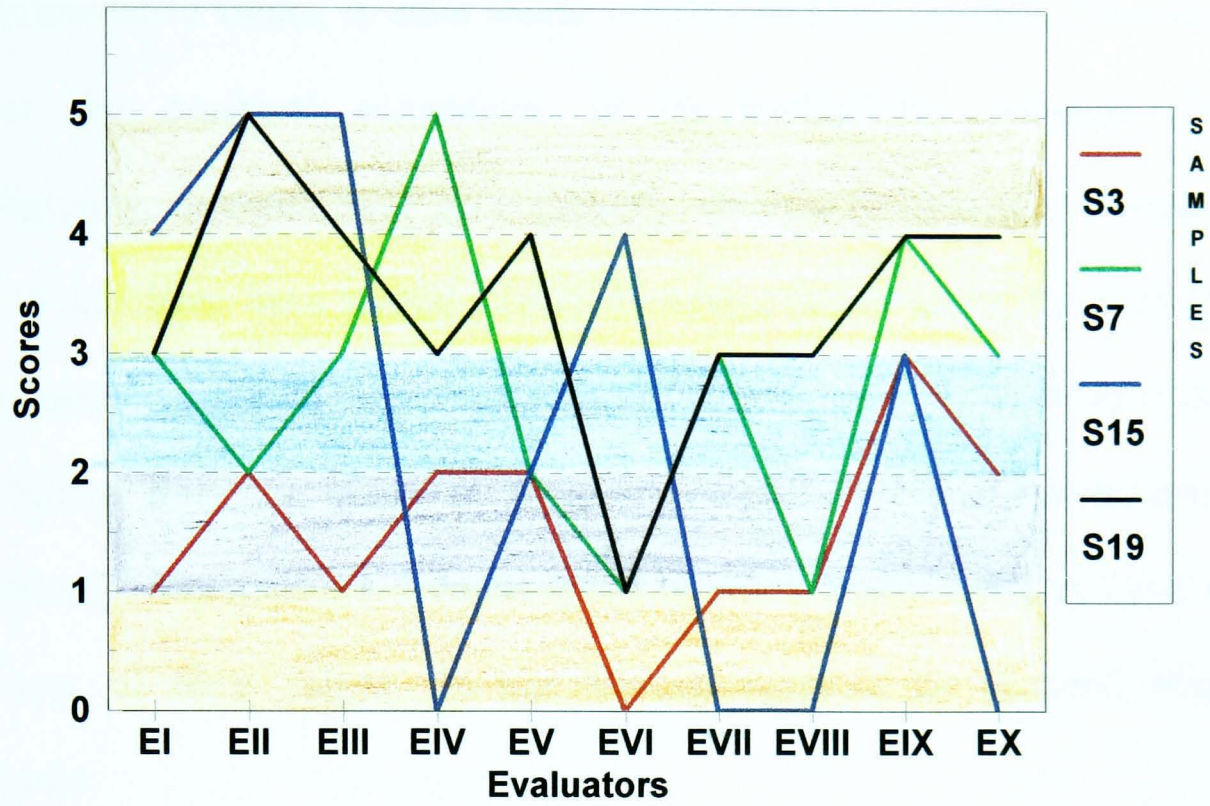
6.3.4 Consistency of the Intelligibility Scores

The determination of teachers' consistency regarding intelligibility is even more controversial. The intelligibility criterion was represented in the questionnaire by Samples 3, 7, 15 and 19. Sample 7 involves deletion of part of the ST information, Samples 15 and 19 relate to (partial) synonymy and

Sample 3 involves an ideological shift. There are, however, other samples subsumed under other criteria which still affect the intelligibility principles and the same goes for all principles. Teachers' scores for each of these samples are represented in Graph Four below.

Most points joining the polygons, except for those of Sample 3, tend to be centred within high-score levels. The fluctuation levels differ from one polygon to another. Samples 3 and 19 tend to have a limited level of fluctuation. The polygon of Sample 19 operates within one colour-space except for the scores of evaluators II and VI. The same goes for the polygon of Sample 3 if we exclude the scores of evaluators VI and IX. Inter-consistency regarding these two Samples is relatively achieved. On the contrary, the level of inter-consistency in respect of Samples 7 and 15 is low as the fluctuations of their polygons operate almost equally within five space-colours.

Graph Four: Inter-consistency of intelligibility scores

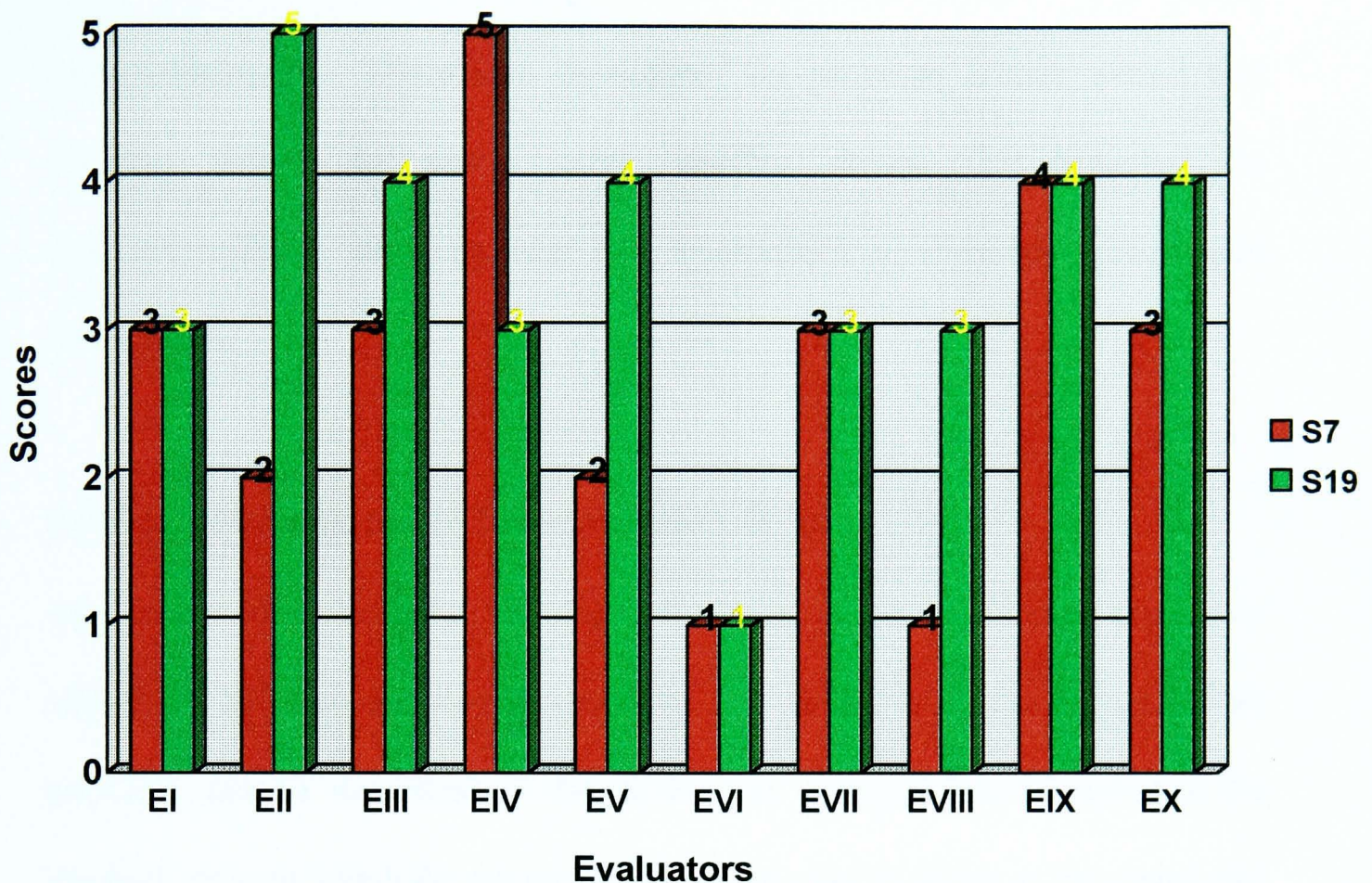


The controversy about such conclusions stems from the distribution of unrepresentative values. In other words, not all scores used to build Chart Four reflect the teachers' assessment of the intelligibility principle. The intelligibility elements have been properly detected by teachers in Sample 7 and 19 but have been passed unnoticed, except by evaluators III, V and IX, when assessing Samples 3 and 15. It will then be inappropriate to infer any conclusions from the values of Samples 3 and 15 regarding teachers' inter-consistency. The issue is less controversial when it comes to Samples 7 and 19 as most of their values are true representations of the elements being measured.

Inter-consistency in respect of Samples 7 and 19 is relatively achieved though higher in Sample 19. If we exclude extreme scores (with very low frequency), we find that the values of Sample 19 are equally distributed between 3 and 4 whereas in Sample 7 they are distributed within three scores - 1, 2 and 3 - although centred around 3.

The determination of teachers' intra-consistency also gives rise to the same controversy and can only be determined after the elimination of unrepresentative values. I shall, therefore, confine myself in this regard to the values of Samples 7 and 19 represented in Histogram Two below.

Histogram Two: Intra-consistency of intelligibility scores



Histogram Two reflects the scores of each evaluator for the two Samples. The identity of each pair of boxes reflects a high level of intra-consistency. This is indeed the case with evaluators I, VI, VII and IX. The boxes assigned to evaluator III and evaluator X reflect an acceptable level of consistency while those of the remaining evaluators reflect relatively low ones. As we can notice from Histogram Two, with the exception of evaluator II, there is some kind of consistency among evaluators who do not have identical scores for the two Samples. The consistency lies in the fact that for each teacher, the second (green) box is consistently higher than the first (red one). This indicates that teachers identify a difference between the two Samples, i.e. they establish

other sub-levels of intelligibility and so their evaluations may have varied accordingly. Indeed, whereas Sample 7 involves an omission of part of the text's content without affecting its core meaning, Sample 19 is almost incomprehensible. Discussion throughout the previous section shows that teachers tended to assess more harshly errors that hindered the comprehensibility of the message than those which involved a lack of parts of information.

6.3.5 Consistency of the Interpretation Scores

As mentioned earlier, the violation of a principle can be either explicit or implicit. The four samples representing the violation of the interpretation principle can be described in the same way. Samples 5 and 9 represent the implicit type in which the erroneousness is not easy to detect as the ambiguity in the ST allows more than one interpretation. Consider Samples 5 and 9 repeated respectively as Sentences 154 and 155:

(154) ^Cazzaza infitāh miṣr al-dawr al-qiyādī allatī kānat la^Cibathu marrāt ^Cadīda fī l-tārīx al-^Carabī l-mu^Cāṣir wa-l-qadīm.

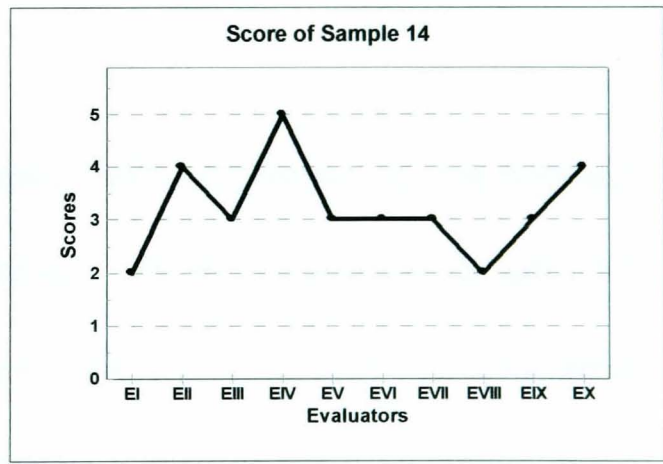
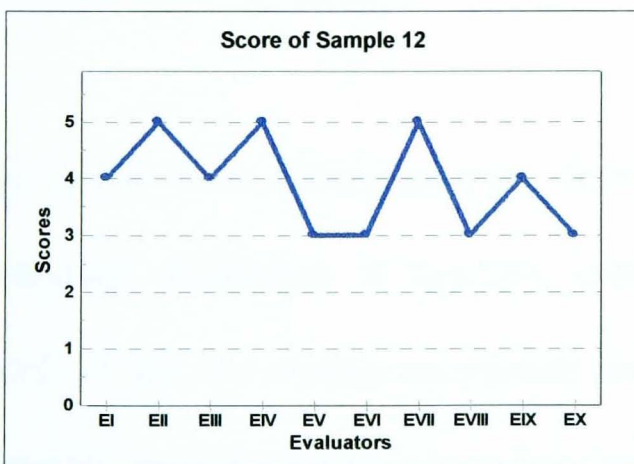
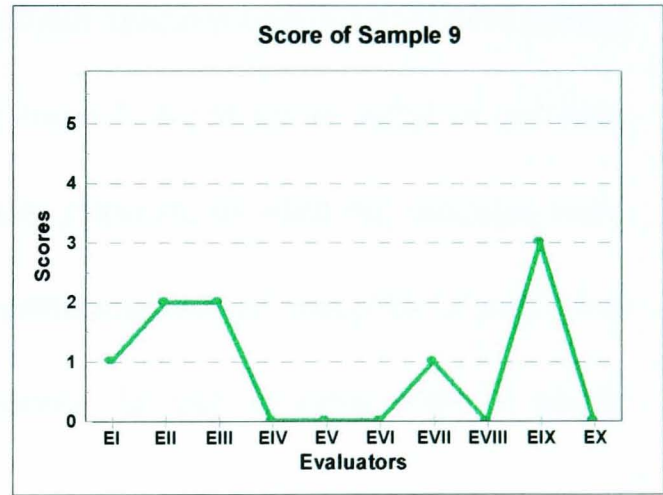
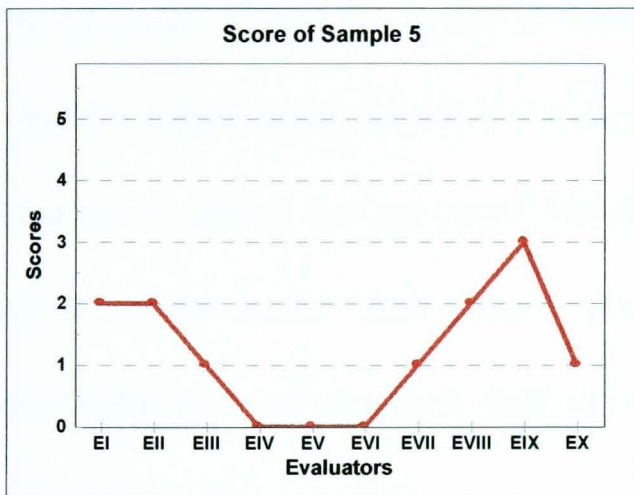
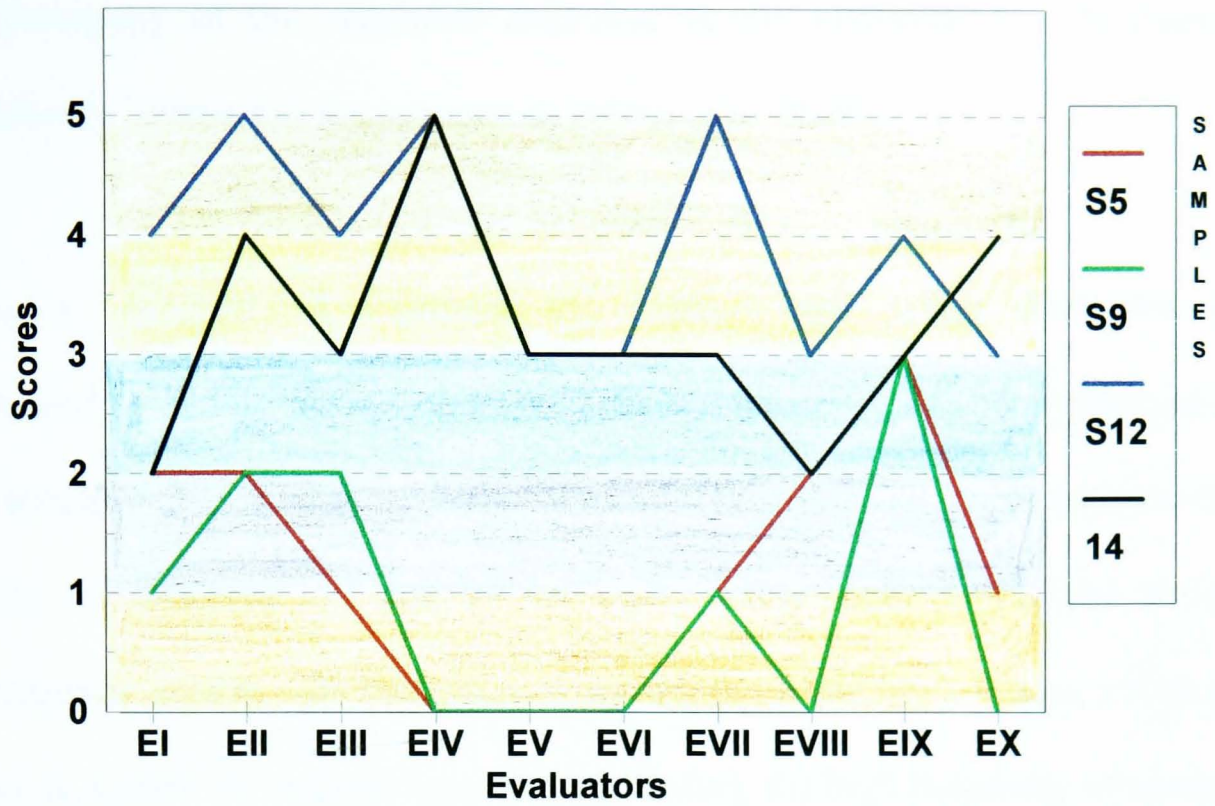
(154a) **Egypt's leading role** which she played many times in both contemporary and ancient Arab history **has consolidated its open door policy.**

(155) If the affected area is on the sole of the foot, cover it with an adhesive plaster.

(155a) iḏā kānat al-miṭṭaqa l-muṣāba fī asfal al-qadam fa-da^C ^Calayhi ṣarīṭ lāsīq.

In Sample 5 the ambiguity concerns the predicate-structure of the verb "^Cazzaza" (consolidated). The English translation involves a substitution of the

Graph Five: Iter-consistency of interpretation scores

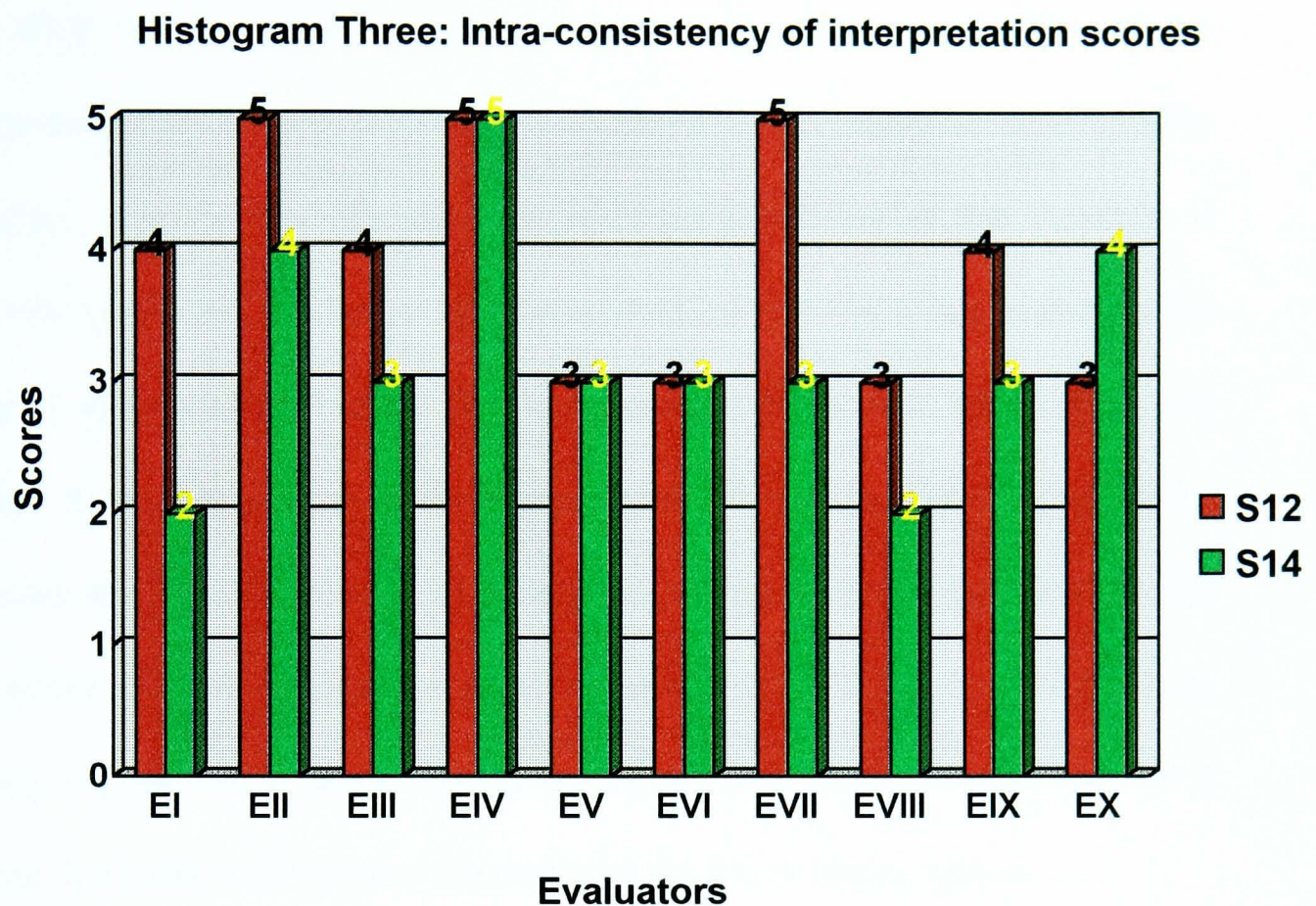


external argument for the internal one. In Sample 9 the confusion is related to the ambiguity of the anaphoric reference of the expletive "it". The student mistakenly interpreted the pronoun as referring to "foot".

Samples 12 and 14 represent the explicit type where distortion or incomprehensibility of the message is clear. This divide has been reflected in the teachers' evaluation as Samples 5 and 9 received low scores whereas the scores of Samples 12 and 14 are considerably high. Yet if this divide corresponds clearly with two types of scoring (high and low), it does not do so when it comes to teachers' consistency. In fact, the high frequency of score 0 for Samples 5 and 9 makes it hard to infer reliable conclusions concerning teachers' consistency. In other words, the score 0 is not a true value in our case because it stands for "no error" which runs opposite to what the samples were set to assess in the first place. The erroneousness of Samples 12 and 14 is identified by all teachers and their scores do not involve even a single occurrence of the mark 0.

In Graph Five above, however, the scores of all four Samples are represented although discussion of teachers' consistency will be confined to Samples 12 and 14 for the reason mentioned before. The polygons of the two Samples operate basically within two colour-spaces if we exclude the score of evaluator IV for Sample 14. Inter-consistency can be said to be relatively achieved,

although not to a high degree. The same goes for intra-consistency as Histogram Three illustrates.



As can be seen from Histogram Three, the twin boxes are identical on three occasions (scores of evaluators IV, V and VI) and slightly different on five other occasions (evaluators II, VIII, IX and X). Therefore, intra-consistency is achieved among teachers as far as the interpretation criterion is concerned.

Another regularity among teachers which can be observed in Histogram Three is that, except for evaluator X, the left red box is always equal to or higher than the green twinned one. This means that, despite the relative consistency in the assessments of the two Samples, one cannot deny the fact that they

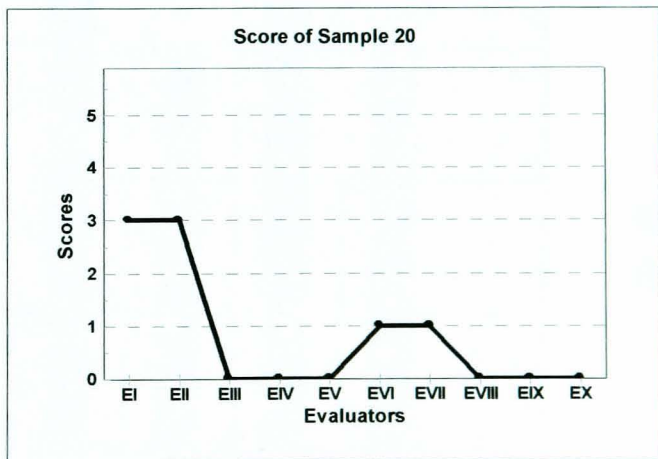
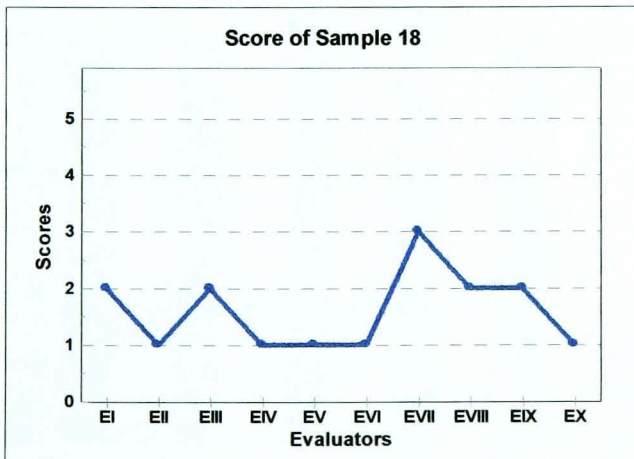
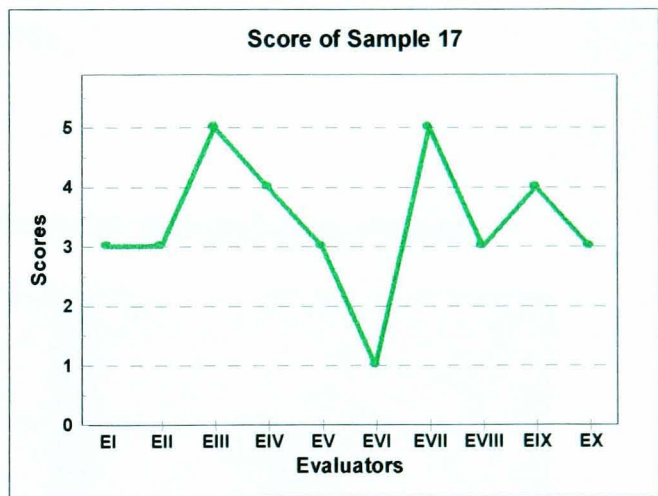
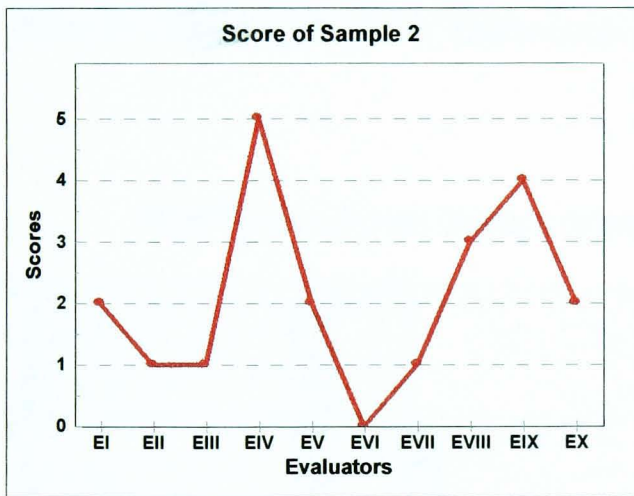
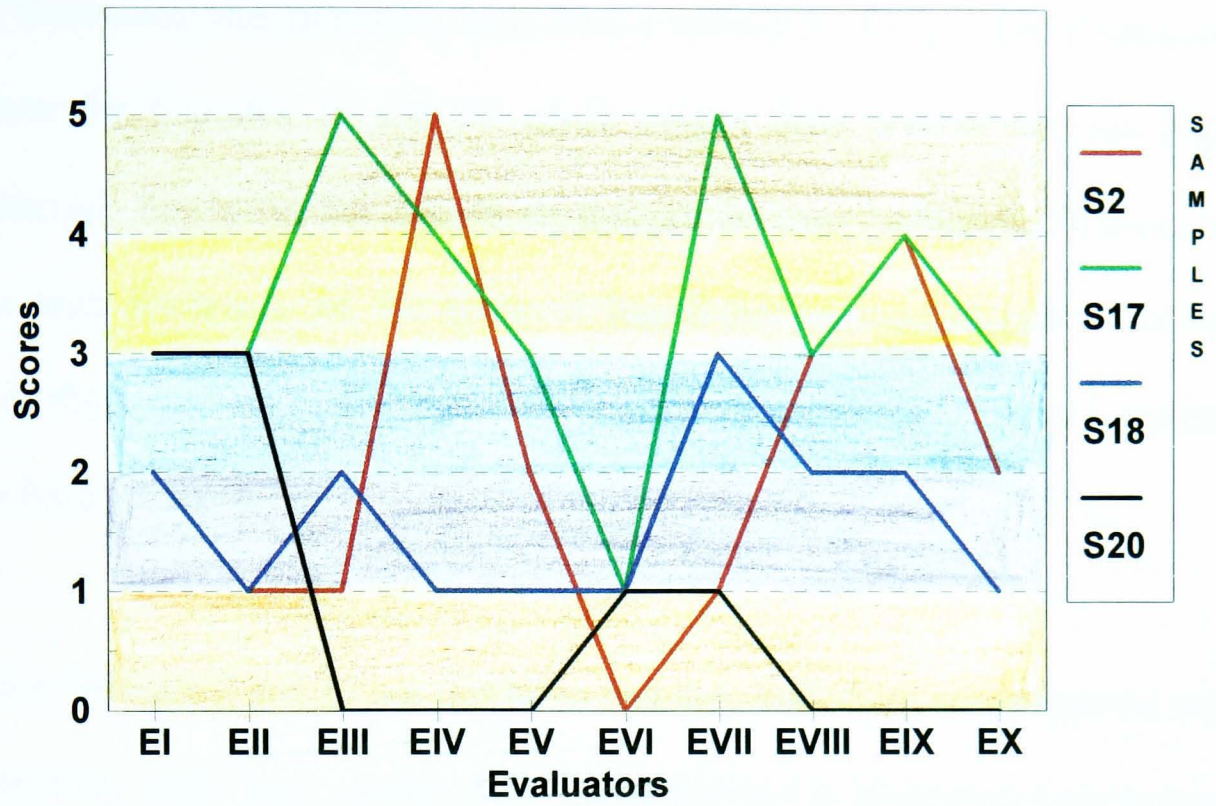
differ in terms of other aspects such as the frequency and scale of markedness of error (see 6.2.4) which is reflected as such in the teachers' assessment.

The high scores given to the samples that involve a violation of the interpretation criterion confirm our claim made in discussing the intelligibility criterion, namely that alteration or incomprehensibility of the message is severely penalised. In fact, intelligibility and interpretation can be exactly the same if examined as merely final product errors because both refer to the extent to which content is well represented in the translation. But if we consider the whole process of translation, interpretation failure occurs when processing the ST before the stage of rendering into the TL. Intelligibility failure, on the other hand, occurs during the final stage of translation and is mostly due to the trainee's incompetence in the TL or target culture.

6.3.6 Consistency of the Naturalness Scores

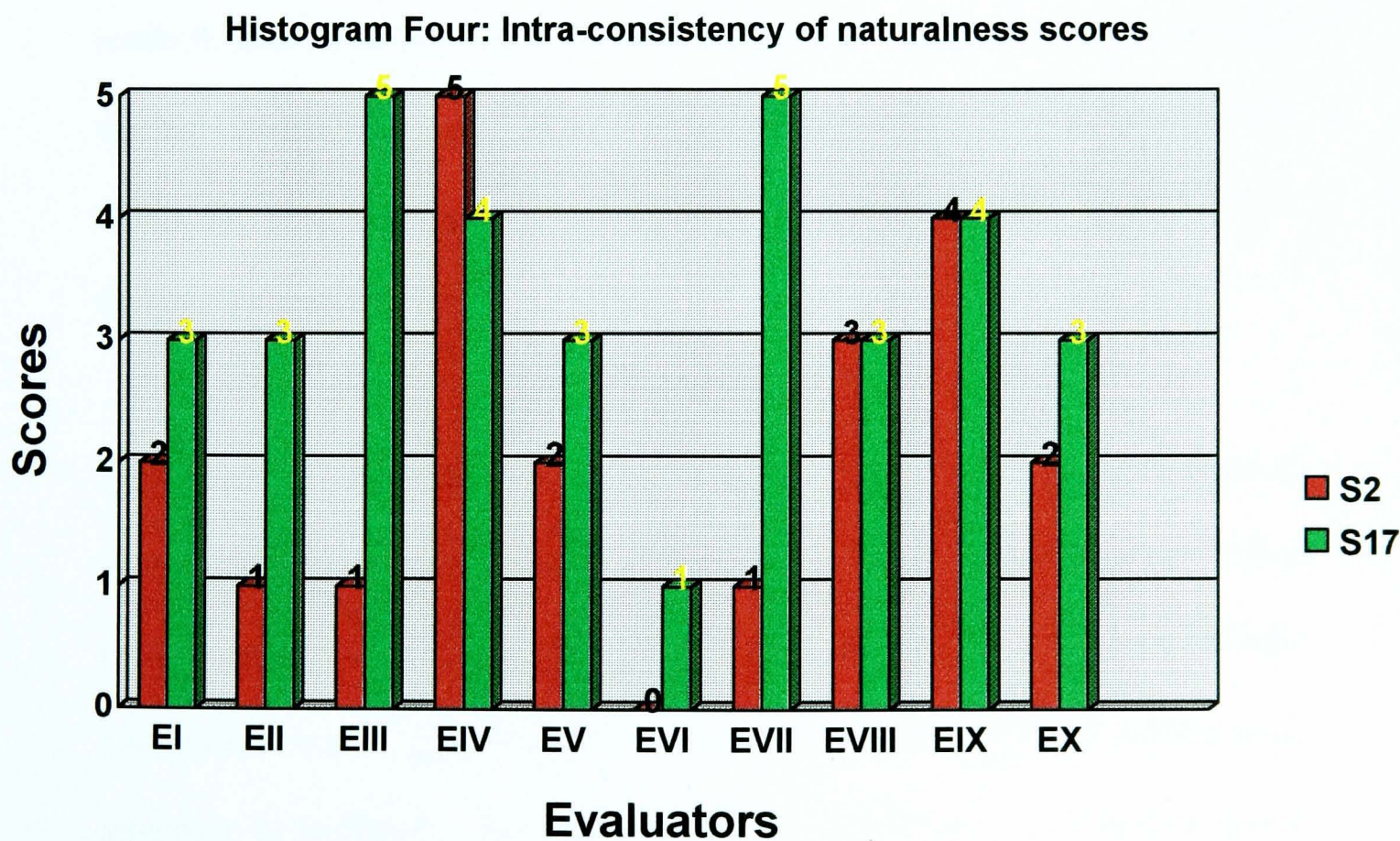
The naturalness principle is examined in terms of four samples, two of which (Samples 18 and 20) relate to collocation and two others (Samples 2 and 17) to repetition (see 6.2.5). Teachers' scores for these Samples have been transformed into Graph Six below.

Graph Six: Iter-consistency of naturalness scores



The polygons for Sample 2 and, to a less extent, Sample 17 show a high level of fluctuation and, therefore, little inter-consistency. The level of fluctuation is lower for Samples 18 and 20 which makes their inter-consistency higher. Although this is true for Sample 18, it is not the case for Sample 20 because of the high frequency of the score 0. Recall that the score 0 is not a true value and, therefore, no conclusions about teachers' consistency can be inferred on the basis of this score.

Since Samples 2 and 17 are similar in that they both make inappropriate use of repetition, only their scores will be represented in Histogram Four below in order to examine teachers' intra-consistency.



The histogram shows very little intra-consistency between teachers. The only regularity here, again, is that all red boxes representing Sample 17, except for evaluator IV, are equal to, or higher than, their green twinned boxes which represent Sample 2. This disparity between the scores of Samples 2 and 17 can be explained by the fact that Sample 2 is a translation into English. Naturalness in this respect is best identified and valued by a native speaker of English whereas, in fact, all our evaluators are native speakers of Arabic.

6.4 Conclusion

Table Twenty One, presented earlier, shows a serious disparity among teachers' scores. However, a detailed analysis of these samples takes into account the different types of error each one involves; their recognition by teachers also indicates that the level of inter- and intra-consistency amongst teachers is relatively satisfactory. Most of them severely penalise errors which affect the core meaning of the ST either by altering it, deleting part of it or making it unintelligible.

The alarming observation which can be inferred from the teachers' evaluation is that their analysis and assessment of the trainees' translations are often performed at the surface level. In other words, teachers, in the process of their assessment, check upon the main content of the ST without paying equal attention to pragmatic and stylistic aspects of translation such as ideological shifts, intertextual meanings, naturalness and collocative patterning of words.

Evaluation is an important element of translation teaching for it is a feedback from which teachers check upon their students' achievements and needs. To be so, it must probe into all meaning aspects that are crucial to a successful translation. In the case of our evaluators, apart from the semantic content, almost all other aspects were overlooked. Teachers' feedback from their evaluation in this context is not of much help as it does not cover all students' needs. It can even be misleading if teachers design their own syllabus, remedial teaching or completion of the course on the basis of the findings from this kind of evaluation.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Conclusion

7. Implications of the Case Study for Translation Pedagogy

Considering the significant number of problems our testees faced in the text translation (see Chapters Four and Five), it goes without saying that the methodological and pedagogical tools used in the teaching situation of Garyounis University are not efficient. It is therefore important at this stage to make some pedagogical suggestions which derive from the analysis and empirical evidence brought forward in the foregoing chapters. These are not, however, prescriptions detailing the only way to train translators; they are recommendations whose authority derives from a survey of translation theory and teaching and from a study of the students' performance in translation.

The study of the students' performance has been mainly based on an EA of their translation work and the teachers' assessment of their errors. To be able to draw pedagogical conclusions from these findings, it is essential to consider them within their broader teaching context. Students' errors can be pedagogically useful only if they are constantly related to other variables that constitute the teaching context such as the course design and the professionalism of the teacher.

7.1 The Course Design

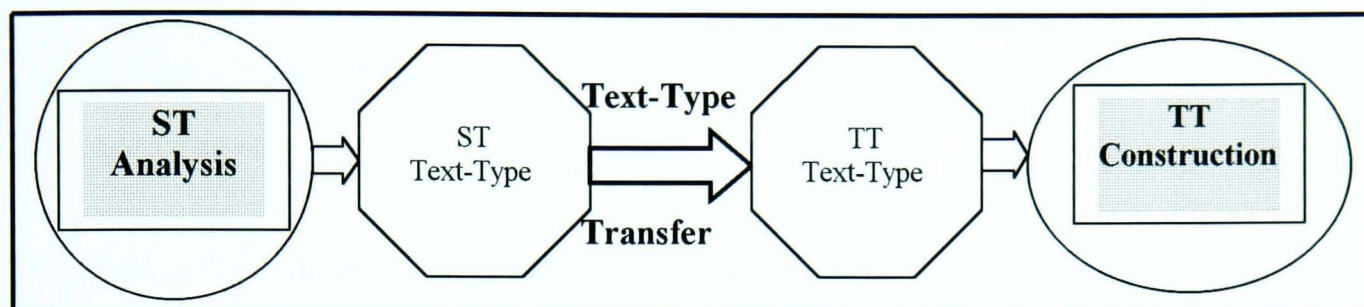
As mentioned earlier, the subject of translation is a four-year course at the University of Garyounis. As far as the first two years of the course design are concerned, their primary objective is to consolidate students' linguistic competence in both languages. This may be an appropriate measure given the results of our analysis of students' performance which show an alarming lack of competence in the two languages. Yet the problem of incompetence in either language keeps surfacing in the final (fourth) year of the course as can be deduced from the analysis carried out in Chapters Four and Five.

The likely logical explanation for the persistence of the problem can be related to the methodology of teaching. Teaching proceeds without reference to the social and cultural context of what the students are being taught. The focus is mainly on the grammar and rhetoric of Arabic, and on grammar and reading in English. Although students made a significant number of grammatical errors *per se* (i.e. simple breaches of grammatical rules) when translating into English, these were not as frequent and serious as other pragmatic errors which relate to the communicative functions of words and grammatical structures themselves. In several instances, students translated linguistic structures correctly but failed to incorporate their pragmatic functions in the translation.

It seems, therefore, justified to recognise the failure of the teaching model followed in Garyounis University and the need to implement a functional-oriented method. The functionality of the method must not focus on each language separately. It should emphasise, in addition to the use of the language within its natural context, those functional aspects that are most relevant to translation between the two languages. In other words, the method should be based on a functional comparative approach in order to consolidate both the monolingual and bilingual skills of trainees.

In the final two academic years of the course, students are mainly taught translation. The course design does not apparently have a clear objective. Students are introduced to the main translation models without any serious critical involvement in or encouragement to relate the theory to their translation practice. The practical part of the course is divided according to the Hallidayan text-types into three main classes (argumentative, expository and instructive) taught by different teachers. This division of the course is confusing as its purpose is not made clear, at least for students. In each class, students are given a text-type and asked to translate without any theoretical account of the notion of text-typology. In fact, text-linguistics and -typology are the subjects of the last lesson in the translation model-course. The confusion could be prevented if students were shown how each text-type requires a certain rhetorical structure of text. The identification of the typology of text provides a ready-textual frame for the TT and reduces the task of the

translator to a process of information-filling as illustrated in the following figure (from Megrab and Aabi 1999):



(Figure Eleven: text-type transfer)

This lack of clear purpose in the course design, at least for the students, is reflected in their performance as all types of errors were committed. Analysts would normally expect fewer errors in one area than the other, depending on the focus of the teaching model. For instance, if the course were linguistically oriented, the number of linguistic errors in the students' corpus would be minimal and the same goes for a communicative or text-linguistic-oriented model. Nevertheless, the most common errors in the corpora from Garyounis trainees are those related to the nature and type of text despite the fact that the apparent focus of the course seems to be text-typological.

The design in the second stage of the translation course can be said to have two main drawbacks. First, it makes a clear-cut distinction between the theory of translation (translation models) and translation practice. In the class, students compare their translations with that of the teacher as if this were the correct version without any retrospective feedback from translation theory.

This is owing to the absence of a solid discipline of what Holmes (1988) calls Applied Translation Studies which implement findings that can be of value in the pedagogical area of the teaching of translation and the training of translators. This defect may result in two negative pedagogical implications. First, students may think of translation theory as a kind of philosophical debate which has no direct impact on actual translation. They may also assume that for each text there is one and only one correct translation, that of the teacher, which runs contrary to the non-binary nature of translation (see 3.2.1).

The second limitation related to the course design is that teachers take translation theory for a translation teaching method. The inappropriateness of this view for the translation follows from the fact that a translation theory does not always coincide with the specific course objectives, the actual students' competence and the cross-linguistic and cultural framework of the two languages involved in the translation course. Translation theory, as Konigs (in Kiraly 1995:6), points out, predicts problems which usually end up dominating the teaching approach, at the expense of other potentially significant characteristics of the learning and translating situation.

A more satisfactory approach should combine theory of translation with selected instructional situations based on empirical studies such as EA which was the case in the development of this work. Relying on translation theory *per se* can also be too abstract or too specific in actual translation practice. For

instance, Delisle (1980:57) observes with regard to English-French translation that translation theories do not make the task of teaching translation any easier because of their excessive abstractedness and their broadness in respect of particular genres of text.

The abstractedness and particularity of translation theory for a teaching situation can also be traced back to the fact that it is not empirically driven. That is, it does not stem from the needs and requirements of the relevant teaching situation. An insightful alternative for this situation is that followed in this work, where a pedagogical working hypothesis should consist of the interplay of translation theory and feedback from translation product. A continuous assessment of students' performance is therefore necessary to implement and reshape translation theory into a suitable teaching model that incorporates students' needs and the course objectives.

7.2 The Teacher

The role of the teacher is the most essential in training operation. No matter how comprehensive a course design is, the teacher will still have to interact with it and present it in the best way to achieve the course objectives. It is the teachers' skills and competence which allow a smooth and successful transition from theory to practice. Newmark (1991:130) suggests that the success of any translation course must depend 65% on the personality of the teacher, leaving all other factors that make up part of the teaching process

with the scanty share of 35%. This is not, however, to imply an orthodox teacher-centred approach to translation with the persistent image of the teacher as, using Kiraly's (1995:99) description, "*the guardian or translatory truth-keeper of 'the correct translation'*". On the contrary, part of the teacher's role is to de-emphasise this view.

As we have mentioned earlier, the teacher has to make students practically aware of the non-binary nature of translation when assessing their performance. Pym (1993:102) argues that, even before then, the teacher should make a distinction between mistakes and errors as the former are not to be corrected. For him (*ibid.*), the class should discuss errors not mistakes and only if mistakes are significant enough to prevent the text from functioning adequately should they then be corrected quickly. This quick solution does not solve the problem as far as the teaching situation under investigation is concerned. Our testees are final-year students on the verge of becoming practising translators but they still make persistent "mistakes". The persistence of the problem requires a reconsideration and review of the teaching methods and not a quick fix which is only temporary. It may be too late at this stage to rethink the methods or reteach the language skills, but it is not so for future students. Two pedagogical implications can be drawn from this situation, one in terms of assessment and the other in terms of course design.

Assessment is not a one-off operation which should be left until the end of the course. Teachers must constantly be aware of their students' progress and assessment must, therefore, follow suit. I suggest, in this respect, that assessment in translation should be formative in order to provide a continuous feedback for the teacher and the student alike about the development of the training process. Formative assessment should not, however, be conceived, Hatim and Mason (1997:200) warn us, as a series of mini-examinations of a summative kind because of the negative pedagogic implications this may generate. On the contrary, it should be basically inferred from oral discussion of trainees' translations in order to allow students to identify their own errors and/or defend their versions. Translation workshops and assessments between students in class should also be encouraged to make students aware of the plurality of translation as each individual may suggest a different translation.

Assessment should also be coordinated, if possible, with all teachers of the same class. The examination of teachers' assessments of students' errors in Chapter Six demonstrated that, although teachers' intra-consistency is relatively achieved, their inter-consistency is seriously low. This may cause confusion amongst students as to what is the primary objective of the course and what are the translation skills required. It should be noted, however, that teachers' lack of consistency may stem from the fact that the inter-rate consistency is not properly formulated.

The implications are even more detrimental as teachers, in many cases, do not recognise the errors even those pertaining to the format of the text-type being translated, despite the fact that text-typology is supposed to be their teaching model. This may be due to the fact that teachers lack either the necessary training in, or motivation for the model. For Le Féal (1996:39), this type of situation results from the existence of different contemporary theories of translation which rather adds to the confusion of both teachers and students alike and the lack of well-trained professional teachers especially in the field of error analysis.

In fact, every translation course must have a syllabus which clearly defines the teaching method and its theory of translation if applicable. Therefore, the idea of different teaching theories is not an issue here; the lack of well-trained teachers is. Most translation teaching studies (e.g. Newmark 1991, Pym 1993, Kiraly 1995, Campbell 1998) agree that the translation teacher must preferably be a translator as well. This should also be reflected in the training process because as Wilss (1992:395) points out,

...a closer cooperation between translation teaching on the one side and translational practitioners on the other is imperative in an attempt to combine the systematic features of formal translation teaching with the practical advantages of collecting translational experience by on-the-job training, on the basis of translator-trainee-tailored apprenticeships of one sort or another.

This is neither the case in the situation of Garyounis University nor it is in most institutions elsewhere. But qualified teachers can be well assisted by a comprehensive course design in which the teaching methodology, the course objectives and assessment procedures are clearly set out.

An active interaction of the teacher with the course design is still essential. The persistence of "mistakes", for example, suggests that they should be catered for within the design, contrary to claims stating that teaching languages should not be part of a translation course (e.g. Nord in Pym 1993:107). If the principle of teaching translation is applied to the present situation in Garyounis University, we will end up chasing an unattainable goal rather than aiming at a tangible objective. Pym (1993:103) offers a more realistic view than Nord's, suggesting that both language and translation should be taught but in separate classes: a translation class which allocates its entire time for the discussion of errors and a language class which works towards the elimination of linguistic mistakes.

It is true that we cannot teach translation unless the bilingual competence of the students is adequate, and since it is not, it cannot be simply left out. But Nord's advice against teaching languages is no less founded. For her, the language class is a consumption of time that should be devoted to translation skills which are the primary objective of the course. Translation students are expected to have control over the languages they translate into and from.

The way out of this controversy in our situation is, as reported before, to divide the course into two teaching stages of four years altogether. In the first, linguistic and bilingual competence is emphasised using a comparative approach in order to predispose the students theoretically for the next stage where translation skills must be emphasised. It is during this first stage that students build awareness, on the basis of a comparative approach of cross-linguistic and cultural variation. The teacher's encouragement of students to use their own initiative to deal with these variations is crucial for both of them (students and teachers). The students get to know that there is not always one straightforward solution for every problem which only the teacher can provide. They become aware that solutions are to be sought from the meaning the student/translator makes of the type of situation and text to be translated and often not from the teacher.

At the same time, by giving place for students' initiative, the teacher can gather informative and comprehensive feedback about the students' needs and how these are or should be catered for within the course design especially in the second stage of the course. Equally important, students must be introduced during this first stage to such translation-aiding materials as the computer and the dictionary. If financial resources do not allow the use of computers as in the case of Garyounis University, students should be taught how to use dictionaries for translation purposes. Through analysis of the students' translation errors, we have identified those that are due to the wrong use of the

dictionary. Sometimes, they simply pick up the first choice offered by the bilingual dictionary even when they are uncertain about its meaning. Students must be taught that the choice of a lexical item has to be in harmony with its context. Students may have recourse to the dictionary when reading the ST as well as when looking for an equivalent in the TL; harmony must be respected in either case. The ST harmony, as Kussmaul (1995:105) points out, is achieved if the definitions found in the SL monolingual dictionary fit into the context. A way of testing this harmony is by substituting the definitions for the words in question. The TT harmony, on the other hand, is achieved if the equivalents found in bilingual dictionaries can be used within their target context to express the meaning desired to be conveyed. This also implies that when students are not certain about the meaning provided in the bilingual dictionary, they must have recourse to the monolingual dictionary.

But there are other cases where a problem arises with the monolingual dictionary itself or when the bilingual dictionary does not provide an equivalent which is in harmony with the TT. Students must be encouraged in this context to perform an analysis of the text to eliminate the confusion and extract the required meaning of the word from its co-text and/or retrieve a relative context equivalent available from their knowledge of the TL. By the end of the first stage, students must have the required linguistic and bilingual competence for a translation, and the teacher should have the necessary feedback from his/her students to teach them translation skills in the next

stage, although a continuous assessment of the teaching tools in the light of the students' progress will always be essential. By the end of the second stage trainees are expected to achieve a high standard of proficiency allowing them to qualify as professional translators or pursue higher education.

7.3 Further Research

It is axiomatic that this thesis cannot provide solutions to all the problems and issues raised in it. Therefore, future research must be conducted to explore the area of assessment of translators' performance in order to provide the pedagogical base necessary to satisfy students' needs and specify the appropriate teaching measures.

On the basis of a broad EA and error assessment, we have identified a number of problems relating to both students' use of language and teachers' assessment of their trainees' performance. We discovered the need for training of teachers in text typology as a teaching model, and in error analysis as a practice for the identification of the students' needs. The insights gained from this study, as far as the relevant teaching situation is concerned, lead to advising a two-stage course design. The first stage is preparatory and serves to strengthen the students' language competence while the second emphasises their translation skills. The basic teaching approach underlying our proposed course design for this stage is text-typological based on our findings which go hand-in-hand

with GÜlich and Raible's idea that different text-types place different demands on the translator (in Hatim and Mason 1997:181).

As to the trainees' competence, I concur with Mackenzie (1998:15) in that they need not to be linguistic geniuses to be translators. The real need is for teachers to identify and make their students recognise where their skills are lacking, when support is needed and what measures are to be taken to deal with such issues. Error assessment provides this training framework as it gives teachers the tool to monitor the progress of their students and the appropriateness of their teaching model. Teachers should, therefore, be well enough trained to be able to identify and assess students' errors in line with the course objectives. It is suggested that this is possible by their being able to demystify text-type forms through the application of a broad view of text linguistics that incorporates insights from other models of translation.

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Appendix I

QUESTIONNAIRE

Personal Data:

Evaluator.....

Teaching Experience..... years

Degree(s) or other qualifications.....

Gender..... Age.....

Marital Status.....

This questionnaire follows an elaborate examination of trainees' errors in translation. Its purpose is to incorporate the teacher's view of error evaluation into our own analysis.

The following samples are taken from the translations of four texts by Year Four undergraduate trainees at Garyounis University, Benghazi, Libya. The samples involve different types of errors which you are kindly requested to evaluate. You will find enclosed the four source texts.

Please circle as appropriate using the following scales for your evaluation

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Prepared by:
RAMADAN AHMED MEGRAB
UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS
JULY 1996

A. Extracts of Arabic-English Translation: Text One (Journalistic)

Sample 1, Text One, lines 30-31

ويعبر الموقف المصري عن إجماع عربي وإسلامي لم يعد يتحمل الصمت
الغربي عن السلاح النووي الاسرائيلي

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

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 2, Text One, line 28

...ترفض بحث سلاحها الكيميائي او موضوع السلاح الكيميائي في
الشرق الأوسط

...it refuses the search for its chemical weapons or the subject of chemical weapons in the Middle East.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 3, Text One, line 23

استمرار الرفض الليبي تسليم متهميه في حادث تفجير طائرة بان ام فوق
اسكتلندا

Libya still refuses to extradite its two suspects in the accident of Pan Am explosion
over Scotland.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 4, Text One, lines 2-3

فالولايات المتحدة تبنت دورا رياديا لمصر منذ اتفاقية السلام الإسرائيلية
المصرية.

The United States adopted a leading role to Egypt since the Egyptian-Israeli peace
treaty.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 5, Text One, lines 15-16

عزز انفتاح مصر الدور القيادي التي كانت لعبته مرات عديدة في
التاريخ العربي المعاصر و القديم.

Egypt's leading role which she played many times in both ancient and contemporary
Arab history has consolidated its open-door policy

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

**B. Extracts of English-Arabic Translation: Text Two (Argumentative),
Text Three (Expository), and Text Four (Instructive)**

Sample 6, Text Three, lines 1-3

...he seized what lay around him to fashion it into tools with which to hack, carve,
pound and sew his way through life.

واستفاد من كل ما حوله وصورها على هيئة أدوات بواسطتها يستطيع
العزق والنحت و السحق و يشق طريقه في الحياة.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 7, Text Four, line 1

How to treat your wart, verruca, corn or callus.

كيفية معالجة ثآليل القدم وغيرها.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 8, Text Two, lines 21-22

...what raised eyebrows was not the loss of the satellites but Russia's inability to replace them.

...وما اثار الدهشة ليس فقط فقدان الاقمار الصناعية بل عجز روسيا على استبدالهما.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 9, Text Four, lines 40-42

If the affected area is on the sole of the foot, cover it with an adhesive plaster.

إذا كانت المنطقة المصابة في أسفل القدم فضع عليه شريطا لاصقا

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 10, Text Three, line 6

... before that trial and error will suffice.

وقبل ذلك فإن المحاولة و الخطأ ستفي بالغرض.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 11, Text Four, lines 10-12

Treatment can take up to twelve weeks for resistant lesions.

من الممكن أن تتطلب المعالجة اثني عشرة اسبوع للاضرار المقاومة

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 12, Text Two, lines 2-3

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

فمنذ انهيار الشيوعية ، تلك الهيئة التي قدمت للعالم القمر الصناعي
سبوتنك ، قد جر خلفه انهيار جاجارين والمحطة الفضائية مير.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 13, Text Four, line 39

Replace the cap tightly.

أعد و اغلق الغطاء على القارورة باحكام.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 14, Text Three, lines 14-15

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

...والباحثون الذين يمثلونه يستطيعون استعمال ذلك العلم في تشكيل خواص جديدة في المادة.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 15, Text Two, lines 22-23

In the wake of the Mars debacle,...

في اعقاب فشل رحلة الفضاء الى المريخ...

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 16, Text Two, lines 1-2

For the Russian space programme, the comeback was supposed to begin last month.

كان من المتوقع فان برنامج الفضاء الروسي بدأ في العودة الى الورا من الشهر الماضي

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 17, Text Three, lines 4-6

It is only when you make materials from scratch that knowing why things as they are begins to matter,...

اننا عندما نقوم بصنع شيء من لا شيء فاننا نعلم لماذا صنع هذا
الشيء اما قبل ذلك فلا نعلم شيئا عن المادة الخام

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 18, Text Four, line 8

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

اغمر كل ليلة المنطقة المصابة في مياه دافئة .

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 19, Text Three, lines 8-11

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

قاموا بتطوير ميدان واسع في علم المادة يسعى الى تفسير ما سببته
انظمة المادة تحت المجهر في خواصه.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Sample 20, Text Three, line 23

This metallic glass provides a combination of strength and flexibility...

و يعطي هذا الزجاج المعدني مزيجا من القوة و المرونة.

Comments:

<u>Scale one</u>		<u>Scale two</u>	
No error	[0]	Syntax	[syn]
Marginal error	[1]	Semantics	[sem]
Slightly serious error	[2]	Stylistics	[sty]
Serious error	[3]		
Very serious error	[4]		
Disastrous error	[5]		

Source Texts

Text One: Argumentative
Time Allowed: Two Hours
The use of a dictionary is permitted

Read carefully and translate the following passage into English:

- 1 يتفق الجميع أن العلاقات الامريكية-المصرية تمتعت لاكثر من عقد من الزمن بألفة وود مميزين ...
- 2 فالولايات المتحدة تبنت دورا رياديا لمصر منذ اتفاقية السلام الاسرائيلية المصرية. وتتلقى مصر
- 3 سنويا نحو 2, 2 مليار دولار امريكي من المساعدات الاقتصادية والعسكرية بالاضافة الى نحو سبع
- 4 مليارات دولار من الديون التي محتها امريكا ابان حرب الخليج. ويبيدي مسؤولون مصريون قلقهم
- 5 الشديد مما يعتقدون انه حملة مركزة في الصحافة الامريكية ضد مصر ودورها في المنطقة.
- 6 والصحيح أن عددا من المطبوعات الامريكية (مثل مجلة يو أس وورلد أند نيوز ريبورت) نشرت مقالات
- 7 وتعليقات تحمل عداً ضد مصر ومصالحها. وردت الصحافة المصرية منددة كما أن مستشار الرئيس
- 8 مبارك اسامه الباز أكد أن مصر ليست تابعة لاحد مبديا استغرابه لتوقيت الحملة.
- 9 ان ما يسمى بالحملة على مصر ليست جديدة. فأنصار اسرائيل ما فتئوا يشككون بضمن صداقة
- 10 مصر زاعمين أن اسرائيل وحدها هي الصديق الدائم لأمريكا بسبب استقرارها السياسي.
- 11 وأقلق انصار اسرائيل أن قيادة حسني مبارك انتهجت خطأ منفتحا على العالم العربي مما أزال
- 12 رواسب خلافات مرحلة ((كامب ديفد)). وكان انصار اسرائيل يحذون استمرار العزلة السياسية
- 13 لمصر لأنها تقلل من استقلاليتها السياسية ومن حرية حركتها التفاوضية... وعزز انفتاح مصر الدور
- 14 القيادي التي كانت لعبته مرات عديدة في التاريخ العربي المعاصر والقديم... وكانت اسرائيل تعول
- 15 على عزلة مصر في محاولة لبناء سياسة مزدوجة في المنطقة تلحق فيها مصر بالمصالح
- 16 الاسرائيلية الاستراتيجية.
- 17 وهناك عدة عوامل أدت الى الفتور الاخير في العلاقات المصرية-الامريكية. حيث أن الولايات
- 18 المتحدة ابدت انزعاجا واضحا للتقارب المستمر بين مصر وليبيا. وكان المسؤولون المصريون ما
- 19 برحوا يسوغون العلاقات تحت شعار جذب ليبيا نحو الاعتدال واللين الا أن الولايات المتحدة كانت
- 20 ترغب في ضغط مصري على ليبيا بهدف عزل النظام الليبي عن محيطه العربي. ويعتقد مسؤولون
- 21 امريكيون أن التقارب الوثيق بين مصر وليبيا لم يعط ثماره بدليل استمرار الرفض الليبي تسليم
- 22 متهميه في حادث تفجير طائرة ((بان أم)) فوق اسكتلندا.
- 23 والامر الثاني الذي ازعج الامريكيين في الكونغرس وخارجه هو الالتزام المصري بالحل الشامل
- 24 لمشكلة الشرق الاوسط. فالامريكيون كانوا يضغطون باستمرار على الحكومة المصرية لتليين

- 25 موقفها من الحكومة الاسرائيلية. أما ما يتعلق بتأزم العلاقات الامريكية-المصرية فيتعلق بموضوع
- 26 السلاح النووي الاسرائيلي. وكانت مصر قد ابلغت الحكومة الامريكية أنها ترفض بحث سلاحها
- 27 الكيميائي او موضوع السلاح الكيميائي في الشرق الاوسط من دون ربطه بالترسانة النووية
- 28 الاسرائيلية التي لا تقض مضاجع المسؤولين الامريكيين الذين يجولون الكرة الارضية بحثا عن اثبات
- 29 وجود ابحاث نووية. ويعبر الموقف المصري عن اجماع عربي واسلامي لم يعد يتحمل الصمت
- 30 الغربي عن السلاح النووي الاسرائيلي.

Text Two: Argumentative
Time Allowed: Two Hours
The use of a dictionary is permitted

Read carefully and translate the following passage into Arabic:

1. For the Russian space programme, the comeback was supposed to begin last
2. month. Ever since the fall of communism, the agency that gave the world
3. Sputnik, Gagarin and the space station Mir appeared to have fallen too, with
4. slashed budgets leading to fewer launches and worried whispers in the
5. international community that even those missions were dangerously
6. underfinanced. Lately, however, Russia has been funnelling all its space
7. resources into the launch of its Mars 1996 probe, an unmanned spacecraft
8. designed to orbit the red planet, dispatch a quartet of landers to the surface and,
9. perhaps most important, return the country to the spacefaring pre-eminence it
10. once enjoyed.

11. But last month, the grand promenade to Mars turned into a near earth lob
12. shot, when a booster malfunction sent the spacecraft plummeting back to
13. earth shortly after its launch. For a time it looked as if the craft was going to
14. hit Australia, endangering it not just with debris but also with the 270 grams
15. of plutonium it was carrying as a power source. That disaster was averted
16. when the ship sailed past the continent and plopped ignominiously into the
17. Pacific.

18. A few days later, Russia sustained a less conspicuous public relations
19. blow when officials admitted that two of the country's spy satellites had
20. recently fallen from orbit, leaving the military without any space-based
21. reconnaissance capabilities. What raised eyebrows was not the loss of the
22. satellites but Russia's inability to replace them. In the wake of the Mars
23. debacle, this was enough to cause observers inside Russia and out to wonder
24. aloud just how deep the space programme's troubles run and whether any
25. technological solution can fix what ails it.

Text Three: Expository
Time Allowed: Two Hours
The use of a dictionary is permitted

Read carefully and translate the following passage into Arabic:

1. Man was ever a materialist. Right from the start he seized what lay around him
2. to fashion it into tools with which to hack, carve, pound and sew his way through
3. life. But as he did so, he had little understanding of why each had particular
4. strengths and weaknesses. Nor did he need it. It is only when you make
5. materials from scratch that knowing why things are as they are begins to
6. matter; before that, trial and error will suffice.

7. The array of materials around today shows that trial and error has done pretty
8. well. But scientists, of course, are not satisfied with it. In the past century they
9. have developed a wide field of material science that seeks to explain what
10. arrangements of matter at a microscopic level give rise to the properties of
11. substances. This knowledge has its practical side. When scientists gathered at
12. the California Institute of Technology (Caltech) last month to hear about its
13. work in material science, it was not just the knowledge that drew them; it was
14. the fact that the researchers presenting it can use that knowledge to build new
15. properties into matter.

16. One of the materials they have been working on is glass. Glass is extremely
17. hard and can be shaped fairly easily, encouraging scientists to look for ways
18. to use its strength while eliminating, or getting round, its tendency to shatter.
19. The usual way to toughen glass, developed in the 1920s, is to draw it into
20. fibres that can reinforce other materials. A different approach was on display
21. at Caltech in the form of a handful of shiny lozenges cooked up in the
22. material-science laboratories. These lozenges were glasses, but were made of
23. metal. This metallic glass provides a combination of strength and flexibility
24. nothing else can match.

25. The fact that these lozenges are called glass demonstrates the differences
26. between the way normal people and scientists think about materials. To most
27. people glass is transparent and made of sand. To scientists glasses are solids
28. with no internal order to the arrangement of their atoms.

Text Four: Instructive
Time Allowed: Two Hours
The use of a dictionary is permitted

Read carefully and translate the following passage into Arabic:

1. How to Treat Your Wart, Verruca, Corn or Callus

2. Directions for Use

3. Before initial use, carefully remove and discard the white ring from the Salactol bottle.

4. One daily application

5. You should apply Salactol once every night to your wart, verruca, corn or
6. callus in order to achieve success. Treatment can take up to twelve weeks for resistant
7. lesions, so you must persevere.

8. 1. Every night, soak the affected area(s) in warm water for 2-3 minutes.

9. 2. Dry thoroughly with your own towel.

10. 3. Gently rub away any loose hard skin from the surface of the wart, verruca,
11. corn or callus with a piece of pumice stone or manicure emery board, used
12. only for this purpose.

13. 4. Carefully unscrew the cap of the bottle and, using the applicator attached to
14. the inside of the cap (see illustration), apply a few drops of the paint to the
15. affected area, allowing each drop to dry before the next one is applied. Take
16. care to avoid spreading onto surrounding normal skin. Any surplus spreading
17. onto surrounding skin should be wiped off with cotton wool.

18. 5. Replace the cap tightly.

19. 6. If the affected area is on the sole of the foot, cover it with an adhesive plaster.

20. This enhances absorption of the active ingredients and, for warts and verrucas,
21. helps prevent the virus from spreading. Elsewhere treated areas need to be covered.

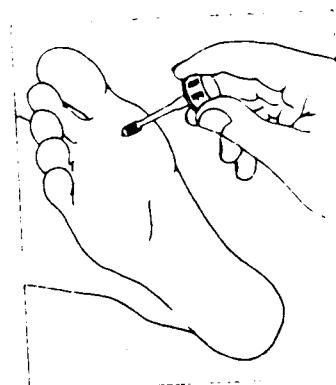
22. 7. Leave for 24 hours and repeat the procedure every night after first
23. removing any plaster.

24. 8. Remember your wart, verruca, corn or callus may take some time to
25. disappear completely - you must persevere with your treatment.

26. Warnings

27. Keep away from the eyes and mucous membranes.

28. Salactol should not be used on the face.



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THE PAGE

All agree that the American-Egyptian relations were in harmony and cordiality in more than decade. US has adopted a peace role, for Egypt since the Israeli-Egyptian peace Convention. However, Egypt receives yearly about \$22 billion, as economic and military help, as well as, about \$ seven billion, as aids the America has wipped off during the Gulf war. Egyptian officials expressed their serious concern about what they believed is a concentrated campaign in the American press against Egypt, and its interests. And the Egyptian press has denounced that Ad Osama Al Bazz, the adviser of the president Mubarak, has confirmed that Egypt is not a war country, expressing his astonishment of the campaign's time the time of the campaign.

What is called a campaign against Egypt was not unusual thing. However, the Israeli's patrons out to cease their aids of the Egyptian friendship. Claiming that only Israel is the ever-lasting friend of America, because its political stability. The Israeli's patrons disturbed for the Hosni Mubarak's leadership has followed an open door policy with Arab world countries, which put an end to the conflicts degrees of Camp David. So Israeli's patrons wished that of cancelling of isolation policy, for it ^{because} decrease ^{weaken} its political independence and its freedom in the negotiational movement. The open door policy of Egypt, has strength the leading role with which it was played several times in the Arabu Contempary and ancient history, and Israel rely on the isolation of Egypt to build a subtle policy.

is the case, by which Egypt would still followed
the Israeli Strategic Interests.

However, there are many factors that caused the last
coldness in the American-Egyptian relations, where as,
U.S. expressed its clear concern about the closeness between
Libya and Egypt. The Egyptian officials nevertheless, the
U.S. wished that Egypt would oppose in Libya, for the sake
of isolate the Libyan regime from the other Arab countries.
As American officials believe, that the intimate closeness
between Egypt and Libya was unproductive; due to the
continuous of Libya's rejection to extradite the two Libyans,
who have been charged with the accident of Pan American
explosion, over Scotland.

The other thing (factor) which had disturb the
American in and outside the Congress, was the Egyptian's
commitment to realize a total solution for the Middle East
problem. The American keep pressuring on the Government
of Egypt to soft its stance from Israeli Government. The
dead lock of American-Egyptian relations depends on the
Israeli nuclear weapons and Egypt had knowledge the
American government that its refuse to discuss its chemical
weapons or the middle East's chemical weapons without linking
it with Israeli nuclear arsenal, which does not disturb the
American officials, who keep touring the world (global), looking
for evidence that proved the existence of nuclear researches.
The Egyptian's stance, expressed in Arab-Islamic maxims
that not to endure the western ignorance of Israeli nuclear
weapon.

B

Every one agrees that the Egyptian-American relations had a special cordiality for more than a decade. Since the Egyptian-Israeli peace agreement the US has adopted a leading role for Egypt. Egypt receives, annually, about 2-2 billion of economical and military aid in addition to 7 billion debt which US erased in the Gulf war. Many Egyptians officials are very anxious for what they consider as a campaign ^{focus on} ~~against~~ Egypt's role in the region in the American press. As a matter of fact many of the American periodicals such as (US world and news report magazine) have published antagonistic articles and comments carries a lot of hostility towards Egypt and its institutes. Egyptian press refuted and denounced Mr. Usama Albar president. Mubarak's consolation assured that Egypt is not in any case, inferior to any one, he also expressed his surprise for the campaign timing.

These called campaign against Egypt is not new. Israel supporters have always been making doubts about the liability of Egypt friendship claiming that Israel, because of its political stability, is America's best friend. The open policy that Hosny Mubarak leadership has taken, which wiped out the remains of Camp David period conflicts, worries Israel supporters. They used to acclaim the continuance of Egypt's relation for its confine its political independence and its negotiational freedom. Egypt's leading role, ~~policy~~ which she played many times in both ancient and contemporary Arab history has consolidated its open door policy. Israel has relied on Egypt isolation to try establishing a double policy in Egypt follows Israel's strategic interest.

Many factors led to the recent address in the American Egyptian relations, US has expressed its clear annoyance for the continuous convergence between Egypt and Libya. Egyptian officials have always been justifying their relation with Libya by attracting Libya towards moderation and leniency. USA, however, wished for Egyptian pressure upon Libya in order to isolate the Libyan regime out of his Arabian neighbours. Many American officials

believe that The Egyptian-Libyan close convergency is a fruitless process because of Libya's constant refusal to extradite its two suspects in the Pan Am explosion over Scotland.

The other thing which annoyed Americans in and out congress is The Egyptians maintains to the total solution for the Middle East problem. American have always pushed Egyptians government to moderate its attitude towards the Israeli government. The aggravation of a American-Egyptian relations is caused by Israeli nuclear weapon issue. Egypt informed the American government that it refuses to discuss neither its chemical weapon nor the chemical weapon issue in the Middle East unless it is connected with Israeli nuclear arsenal which doesn't bother American officials at all while exploring all over the world searching for evidences of nuclear researches.

The Egyptians position declares an Arabi-Israhelic unanimity that couldn't stand the western side line about Israeli nuclear weapon any longer.

C

all people agreed that relationship between America and Egypt are enjoying ~~more~~ far more than ten years ago with a distinct familiarity and friendship.

The United States took a leadership role for Egypt since the Israel-Egyptian 6th Peace convention.

Egypt receive about two billion dollars from the economic and military aids, in addition about seven billion dollars from the indebtedness which obliterated it during the gulf war.

The officials Egyptian showing their words about the American Press campaign against Egypt and its role in the zone.

The fact that a lot of American Press like TIME magazine and World and News reports which carried program against Egypt and its interest.

The Egyptian Press answered and Osama Al Baze the advisor of President Mubarak confirm that Egypt doesn't follow any country.

and he was wondered about the timing of campaign.

That what is called a campaign against Egypt is not a new matter to do.

Israeli followers are starting to secure the friendship relation between Egypt and America, they maintained that Israel is the only friend for America because its political stability.

Israeli followers were worry about the command of Mubarak which to following an opening line in the Arab world, and this obliterated the disputed which result from Camp David stage.

Israeli followers liked the political isolation for Egypt because it weaken its political independence and its free negotiations movement.

and supported the leader way of Egypt which it was played many times in the modern and old Arabic history.

Israel depend on Egypt isolation

In attempt to re-established doubled policy in the zone, which will binds Egypt with the Israel strategic area.

There are several factors, caused the American-Egyptian relationship to be

weaken where America showed dislike to the good Egypt-Libya relationship.

The Egyptian officials declared that this relation will bring Libya to be moderate.

But America wanted an Egyptian sanction on Libya to isolate the Libyan regime from in the Arabic sphere.

American officials believe that this close relationship between Libya and Egypt didn't

succeed, because Libya still refuse to surrender the accused persons in Pan Am

explosion over Scotland.

The second matter which troubled the American in the Congress and outside is

the undertaking of Egypt to settle the

Problem of the middle East :-

The American always sm pressed Egyptian Government to ^{be} deal with Israeli sm government :-

What caused the conflict ^{the relationship} between

America and Egypt is the Israeli nuclear weapons.

Egypt informed America, that Egypt refuse to discuss the chemical weapons of Egypt or the subject of chemical weapons in the middle East without being connected with Israeli nuclear weapons, which doesn't worry the American officials who travel the earth looking for probes of nuclear researches.

The Egyptian position sm represents the Arabic Islamic countries, sm re sm ted sm up with the silence of the west towards the Israeli nuclear weapons.

D

24.11.1946
Sunday.

University of Cairo
Faculty of Arts and Education
Department of English Literature

2- All agreed of that American and Egyptian relationship pleases with special friendship century ago the United States has been embrace Egyptian leader role since F. Trail peace convention Egypt yearly has received 2.2 million \$ from America as economic help addit. of military aid. America has remove about seven million \$ of Egyptian diets through Gulf war. Egyptian charges represented their worried from which they believed that concentrate campaign of American press against Egyptian role in the war. In fact that many of American printing like (U.S. & Foreign World and news reports) they published essays and articles carrying opinion to support their advantage. Egyptian press has replied by reply and Mr. Aswan Baz president of the Egyptian Chamber confirmed that Egypt never be fallow way one and he represented his surprise of campaign time.

That which named campaign upon Egypt it
 isn't new, because Ezzail supports also
 doubting of Egypt guaranty friendship
 they claiming that Ezzail alone who cont-
 inuous friend to America because of its
 constantly of politic. Ezzail supports are
 worried of these Mopark leader who has
 open lain method to Arab would which removed
 clashes precipitate of Game Dailed 3 stage
 Ezzail supports were ~~were~~ wishes that
 continuous politic deposition to Egypt
 because that decreased of its politic independence
 and of negotiation free movement.
 Egypt openness has consolidated leader role
 which were play several time in the present
 and push Arab history. Ezzail were depended
 of Egypt deposition in a attempt of build
 double politic in the area to cohesion
 Egypt with Ezzail strategy benefit
 There are many factors rises to last address
 in the Egypt and America relationship thus
 U.S. Arabon clear disturb of continuous approach
 between Libya and Egypt. Egyptian changes
~~was formed that relation under password~~
 to attract Libya to the moderation and supplies

P¹

But U.S.A were hope Egypt pushed upon Libya
and the goal of that to depositing Libyan
system from the environment of Arabic
American charges believe that strong approach
between Egypt and Libya it didn't gave
a result the evidence of that continuous
Libyan against of suspected's hand down
who were suspected in the explosion occurrence
of DANAM plane over Scotland.
and a cause which disturb American people
in the congress and out of it, that Egyptian
engagement of completely solve of mid east
problem. American people were continuously
pushing upon Egyptian government to supplying
it's station from Israel government. But
about American and Egyptian relationship crisis
it is about Israel nuclear weapon subject
Egypt has been informed American government
it's refuse to receive the nuclear weapon or
chemical weapon subject in the mid east
without including Israel nuclear arsenal
which did not let follow demand of American
charges who traveling all the world researched
for existance evidence of nuclear research
Egyptian stand it express about Islamic and Arabic unanimously.
East silent it can't be effort about Israel nuclear
weapons.

2 ~~3~~ All agree that the relation
between U.S.A and Egypt remarked
for more than decade by ~~good~~ fairness
and cordiality.

The U.S.A has opted to play leading ~~role~~ role
in ~~role~~ role for Egypt since Egyptian-Egypt
peace treaty.

Egypt receives about \$2.2 billions as economic
and military ~~aid~~ assistance in addition \$7 billions
debt which U.S.A cancelled in Gulf war

Many Egyptian officials expressed extreme anxiety
who thinking that is a consistent American press
campaign against Egypt and its role in the
region.

As matter of fact there are number of
American printed ^{matters} (such as US world and news report)
published articles and comments which carry
a hostility against Egypt and its interest.

The Egyptian press retaliated sensibly
also the consultant of president Mubarak to
Osama Al Bar answered that Egypt
non affiliated showing his wonderment
of the time of press campaign

What is named press campaign against Egypt

It's not new supporters of Eritrea get
~~major~~ ~~misgivings~~ ~~of~~ ~~sure~~ ~~of~~ ~~the~~ ~~relationship~~
 with Egypt ~~can~~ ~~be~~ ~~alleged~~ ~~that~~ ~~only~~
 Eritrea the lasting friend to U.S.A
 Cause its political stability, the supporters
 of Eritrea worried of the leadership of Hosni
 Mubarak follows opening with Arab world
 of what removed the rest of disagreement
 of stage of Camp David

The supporters of Eritrea was hoping
 that the political isolation with
 Egypt would continue because
 it decrease its political independence
 and its free movement - negotiation
 Egypt openness contributed the leading
 role which was it played many times
 in the Arabic the old and modern
 Eritrea was dependent to isolation of
 Egypt due trying to establish double
 political in the area to make Egypt
 follow with Eritrean strategy interests
 There are many factors leaded to
 fast closeness in Egyptian - American
 relation whereas U.S.A was clear way
 for the continual approaching between

①

E

Egypt and Libya. The Egyptian and Arab -
still justifying the rebellion under slogan
to attract Libya to moderation and
tradability but U.S.A. was to pressure
against Libya to goal to isolate Libyan
regime away of Arab states.

American officials thinking that
close approaching didn't give its result
with evidence continuation killing delivery
suspected in explosion Banham over
Scotland.

The second matter which disturbed
The American in the Congress about it
is the Egyptian observance of complete
solus of middle East problem.

American were continual starts on Egyptian
government ~~was~~ to soften its position of
about Egyptian government about the critical
of American - Egyptian relation. It being
nuclear arm of Ezril Egypt was.

informed American government that it
relucting discuss its chemical arm
subject or any chemical arm subject
in middle East ~~but~~ without connect it
with Ezrilian nuclear arsenal. which

E

(2)

...which alerting American officials ...
...who are traveling over earth searching
of evidences about nuclear researchs...
Egyptian position expressing of unanimously
of Arab and Islam Council stand :
Western silence of nuclear arm of
...Ezrit...

Everyone agrees that the American-Egyptian relations have been especially close and friendly for more than a decade - for the United States has adopted a special role for Egypt since the Israeli-Egyptian peace transaction. Every year Egypt receives about 2,2 billion dollars of economic and military aid, in addition to the extermination of debts worth 7 billion dollars, after the Gulf war. Egyptian officials are showing their deep concern of what they think is a concerted crusade against Egypt and its role in the region in the American press. The tenth or thirteenth number of American releases - like the U.S. world and news "week magazines" - have published articles and comments which carry full responsibility for Egypt and its interests - accordingly the Egyptian press has condemned this as response. President Mubarak's advisor, Mr. Usama El Baz, also condemned that Egypt doesn't depend on anyone, showing his surprise at the timing of this crusade.

The so-called crusade against Egypt isn't something new, for Israel's since 1967 has kept sabotaging the viability of Egypt's friendship, claiming that Israel alone is America's predominant friend because of its political stability; and what worried Israel's supporters is that Mubarak's leadership has followed an open policy toward the Arab world which caused the prejudices of the "Camp David" period, for they preferred that Egypt's political isolation continued because it reduces its political independence and the freedom of its negotiation movement. . . . Egypt's openness has consolidated the key role it has played many times in Arab and modern history - and Israel was depending on Egypt's isolation as an attempt to establish a double policy in the region regarding Egypt with the Israeli strategic interests.

There are many factors which led to tensions in the Egyptian-American relations lately. As the United States showed clear annoyance to the continuing closeness between Libya and Egypt. Egyptian officials continued admiring the relation under the slogan of attracting Libya towards moderation and softening up, but the United States wanted Egyptian pressure on Libya in order to isolate the Libyan leadership from its Arab surroundings.

American officials think that the close relation between Libya and Egypt hasn't showed any results and the proof of that is the Libyan objection to surrender the two suspects of the "Pan-Am" plane explosion over Scotland, and the second thing that bothered the Americans congress is the Egyptian insistence on the complete solution to the problem in the middle East, for the American government to soften its attitude towards the Israeli government; and as for what concerns the complication of the American-Egyptian relations is related to the issue of the Israeli nuclear weapons. Egypt has informed the American government that it objects to search its chemical weapons and the issue of chemical weapons in the middle East without involving it with the Israeli nuclear arsenal that doesn't bother the American officials who roam the globe looking for proofs of nuclear research. The Egyptian attitude expresses Arab and Islamic unanimity that cannot bear the western silence towards the Israeli nuclear weapons.

G

(1)

All agree that the American Egyptian relations enjoyed more than one decade with a distinguishing firmness and cordiality.

United State adopted a good role for Egypt since the Egyptian Erecali peace treatment and Egypt recieves 2.2 millions \$ yearly from economic aid mainly helps in addition to seven millions \$ from debtless which

→ American optiterated during the Gulf war and Egyptian responsiblets show their very wastiness about what they think it's a concentrate campaign in American press against Egypt and its role in the zone

Indeed ~~some~~ numbers from American copies (like U.S. World news report magazine) published articles and comment ~~as~~ which carried eneminy against Egypt and its interests and

the Egyptian press answered refusely

G

(2)

and the late Hossni Mubarak, president's adviser (Osama F. Elbaz) confirmed that Egypt is not a follower to any one and he showed his surprising Row campaign time.

What is called a Campaign on Egypt is not new. Israel Followers are still doubting about Egyptian's Friendship, pretending that Israel only is a constantly friend for America for its political stability.

Israel Followers are worry about Hossni Mubarak leadership which take an opening line to the Arab world.

So it puts an end to disputes the stage conflicts of (Camp David) Israel Followers were liking to continue political isolation to Egypt, for this decreased from its political independence and its movement negotiational freedom.

G

what supported Egypt is a leader role
that it played in several times in
the Arabic history, contemporary and
in the past

Israel had depended on Egypt isolation
trying to build two world politic
in the zone which Egypt is
followed with strategic Israel interests

There are other factors caused
to the last breaking in the relations
between America and Egypt.

where as United State showed its
clear disturbance for a constantly close
between Libya and Egypt -

Responsibles Egyptian declared that
~~the~~ relation to attract Libya toward
moderation and lenience, but United State
was willing to press Egypt on Libya
to isolate the Libya order about
its Arabian surrounding.

Some ^{American} responsibles think that the strong
close between Egypt and Libya didn't
give its fruits, for Libya continues refusing
its accusers for a plane exploding accident

5

②

on Scotland.

The second matter which disturbed Americans in side the congress and it is the Egyptian settle with including solution for the problem of Middle East.

Americans were pressing constantly on the Egyptian government to learn its situation from Israel government.

But what caused ~~conflicting~~ the American Egyptian relations is the Israel nuclear wipper and Egypt had told the American government that it was refusing research its chemical wipper or the chemical wipper subject in middle east.

without connect it with the Israel nuclear arsenal which didn't rest the American responsible who travelled around the world to look for previous nuclear researches existence.

The Egyptian situation expresses about Islamic Arab majority. it can't afford the western silence about the Israel nuclear wipper.

H

All are agree that America Egypt relations are enjoyment for more than decade of time by distinguished familiarity and cordiality. The united states has adopted a prominent role in the Egypt & since Israel-Egypt peace treaty Egypt has received annually about 2.2 \$ billion from economic and military contributions. In addition to 7 \$ billion from the debts which America had granted to the Egypt during the Gulf War. Egyptian Officers show their strange and anxious for what they think, It is a ^{containing} concentrated press campaign in the American press against Egypt and its role in this area. The true is the number of American printed matter (like The US & world news and American Report Magazine) had published essays and comments ^{carrying} ^{concern} ^{to} the Egypt and its interests. The Egyptian press ^{replyed} ^{reflected} criticized as the chancellor ^{adviser} of The President Mubarak & Mr. Osama Al baz ^{emphasize} confirmed that Egypt was not subordinate to any one & he demonstrate his astonishment for the time of this Campaign.

That's What ^{suppression} called the Press Campaign On Egypt, is not news. The ^{army} ^{backers} of Israel are still doubting in surety of Egypt friendship, they alleged that Israel alone is being friend to the America because of its political stability.

The Israel backers are ^{distrust} ^{worried} about the ^{israel} ^{stages} which to the Arabic world & which is ~~the~~ Hosni Mubarak

Leadership has proceed of which removed the precipitate
 of dispriments in the stage of Camp David.
 For Israel backers were approved the continuity of
 Isolationism on Egypt. Because this will belittle
 from its political independence and from the freedom
 of its negotiation activity. The Egyptian ~~perigance~~ consolidated
 the leading role which it has been played for several times
 in the Arab history ancient and the contemporary. Israel
 was reliance on Egypt Isolation for attempt to ^{can construct} set up
 double policy in the ^{region} area to ^{make} ^{concrete} ^{presser} Egypt to following
 the Israeli strategy interests.

There are many ^{elements} factors led to the last
 language in Egyptian American relations. Whereas the
 U.S. show clearly displeas from the continual convergence
 between Egypt and Libya. The Egyptian officers were
 still ^{justly} ^{stage} ^{attracted} this relation under slogan attraction of
 Libya to be moderate and softness. However, U.S.
 was wishful that the Egyptian pressing on Libya in order
 to separate Libyan region from the Arab ^{environment} surroundings
 and the American officers thinking that the close convergence
 between Libya and Egypt give so its fruits by evidence
 of continue refuse Libya to extradite their accused
 in exploding accident of bin. M. airplane over Scotland.

The second matter which disturb the American
 in and outside the Congress is the Egyptian observance of
 Comprehensive Solution to the Middle East Problem.

H

Americans were continually pressing on Egyptian government to softening its attitude from Israel government.

In respect of aggravated of Egyptian American relations are ^{concerned} related with the Israel nuclear arms.

Egypt was informed American government that it's refused the discussion of its chemical arm or subject of chemical arms in the Middle East without connected with Israel nuclear arsenal which ^{aroused} ^{in rest} ^{beds} ^{looking} ^{for} ^{evidence} ^{of} ^{occurrence} ^{to} ^{the} ^{nuclear} ^{researches}.
due to disturbance American officers sleeping when itinerary in the world searching for evidence of occurrence to the nuclear researches.

The Arabic attitude expressed to the Arab and Islamic unanimity that will not endure any more for the western silence on the Israeli nuclear arms.

Everyone agrees that the American-Egyptian relations has marked, for more than a decade, with a distinguished friendship. The United States adopted a leading role for Egypt since the signing of the Egyptian-Israeli Peace Convention. Every year Egypt is receiving 2.2 billion dollars as economic and military assistance, in addition to a debt of seven billion dollars were obliterated by the United States during the Gulf War. Egyptian officials were seriously concerned of what they think it is a concentrated American press campaign against Egypt and its role in the Middle East. In fact, some of the American papers (such as US World and News Report magazine) wrote articles and commentaries full of hostility against Egypt and its interests. The Egyptian press reply was criticism. President Mubarak counselor Mr. Osama Al-Baz also confirmed that Egypt is not subordinate any other state. Showing his astonishment for the timing of the campaign.

What's called a campaign against Egypt is not new. Israel supporters are still causing doubts about Egypt friendship liability pretending that only Israel is the permanent friend of America for its political stability. They were disturbed for open policy that Hosni Mubarak leadership pursued on the Arabic world which eliminated the disagreement impressions of Camp David stage and they were preferring the continuation of political isolation of Egypt because it is reducing its political independence and its negotiation activity freedom. The opened policy of Egypt sustains its leadership role which Egypt played several times in the old and contemporary Arabic history. Israel was relayed upon isolating Egypt in a key to establish a stable policy role in the Middle East to attach Egypt to strategic Israeli interests.

There are many reasons that conduce to recent frigidity in the American-Egyptian relations whereas the United States express its obvious inconvenience about the continual approximation between Egypt and Libya. The Egyptian officials were still justifying the

the relation under the emblem of attracting Libya towards moderation and flexibility, but --
 the United States wished under Egyptian pressure, to isolate the Libyan Regime away from
 the Arab environment. Some American officials believe that the solid approximation between
 Egypt and Libya doesn't offer its benefits for the continuity of Libyan rejection to deliver
 the two accused in the in the explosion of PANAM plane over Scotland.

The second thing which disturbed the Americans in and out of the Congress is the Egyptian
 adherence with the absolute solution of the Middle East Crisis, because they were continually
 pressing on the Egyptian government to delicate its attitude against the Israel government.
 The Israeli nuclear weapon was the plot that tumbled the Egyptian-American relations.
 Egypt intermed the American government that it is refused to discuss the subject of the
 chemical weapon in Egypt or in the Middle East without connecting it with the Israeli
 nuclear arsenal which do not agitate the American officials are ~~are~~ assuming the
 Gibe searching to find an evidence about ^{existed} nuclear researches; the Egyptian attitude expresses
 on Arab and Islamic unanimity that couldn't bear the silence of West about the Israeli
 nuclear weapon.

K1

K

J

K

All agreed that American - Egyptian relations were on good terms for more than a decade. United States adopted pioneer role toward Egypt since the Israel - Egyptian peace convention. Egypt annually receives about 2.2 billion economical and military aids in addition about 7 billion dollars as debts which America erased during the gulf war. Egyptian officials express their worry about the concentrated campaign in American press and its role in the area. Some American pressings such as "United States World and Times Reports" published articles and comments which carry enmity against Egyptian press and its interests. On the other hand Egyptian press refuted that. And also Osama Al-Bazaj, the consultant of the president Mubarak confirmed that Egypt is not a follower-country to any one, and clearing his amazement for campaign time. What named a campaign at Egypt is not new thing. Israel champions continuously advocate in Egyptian friendship, claiming that only Israel is the perpetual friend for America, for its political stabilization, that is why Israel champions get worry that Hosny Mubarak command followed an open policy toward Arab world countries which cleared reciprocal disagreement of Camp David. Israel champions desired to continue in the isolationism policy toward Egypt because it weakens its political independence and negotiational power. The open policy support the pioneer role which played many times in contemporary and classical Arabic history. Israel looks to Egyptian isolationism to establish a double policy in the area in which Egypt follows Israel strategy interests. There are many elements that cause the last peculiarity in the American Egyptian relations, that United States showed a clear distaste for the closeness between

K2

Libya and Egypt. Egyptian officials began to form the relation under the slogan of changing Libya towards moderation but United States desired of support of Egypt on Libya in order to separate the Libya ~~region~~ system from Arabic world.

American officials believe that the closeness between Egypt and Libya give no results than appears in the the continuous of Libya rejection to extradite its suspected men in Pan American explosion accident over Escobedo. The second thing that disturbs the Americans in and outside the Congress is the Egyptian obligation of complete solution for the meddler problem.

American suppress continuously on the Egyptian government to flex its attitude toward the Israeli government.

كان من المفترض أن يبرهن الرقيب المرافق البرنامج الفضائي الروسي
 الذي يدعم الموقف منذ شروع التفاوض أنقذنا عما يبدو أن
 انقضاء الشريعة تلك الهيئة التي ^{من} ^{تحت} ^{قائمة} / للعالم القدر
 المناهج سببها، قد حوّل حذره ^{المعيار} ^{الحاجات} ^{والطاقة}
 الفضائية مير وذلك بسبب تخفيض الميزانيات ^{سواء}
 وقد أدى هذا بدوره إلى تضائل ^{باعتبار} ^{الإطلاق}
 وتناقل ^{المسبب} ^{المختصات} ^{الدولية} ^{بالتفصيل} ^{تحويل} ^{علاوة}
 الإطلاق، ^{الثلاثة} ^{أفهم} ^{تحويل} ^{لدى} ^{المقابلة} ^{مع} ^{هذا} ^{فقد}
 عكفته روسيا مؤزراً على ^{ضيق} ^{كل} ^{منه} ^{التحويل} ^{الفضائي} ^{لدى}
 في مشروع إطلاق ^{مبارزة} ^{مارس} ¹⁹⁹⁷ وهو ^{مهمة} ^{بلا} ^{توارد}
 تم تصميمها ^{لنمو} ^{حول} ^{الكوكب} ^{الأرض} ^{وترسل} ^{أربع} ^{أجهزة} ^{إلى}
 الأرض ثم ^{معالجة} ^{ثم} ^{على} ^{الأمر} ^{تعود} ^{روسيا} ^{إلى} ^{سابق}
 مبرها ^{في} ^{مبدأ} ^{الفضاء}

المهمة

والأمر، فقد انتهى ^{الطائر} ^{الاجل} ^{العظيمة} ^{حول} ^{كوكب} ^{الأرض}
 لتصبح ^{مهمة} ^{بلا} ^{توارد} ^{في} ^{الأرض} ^{ونفذ} ^{بعد} ^{أمر} ^{بها}
 عمل في ^{مهمة} ^{الطائرة} ^{بمجرد} ^{السيارة} ^{عابداً} ^{باتجاه} ^{الأرض}
 بعد شروع ^{في} ^{الإطلاق} ^{وإذ} ^{بدأ} ^{وكان} ^{المهمة} ^{تتم}
 بأستراتيجية ^{مهددة} ^{بالأخطار} ^{فهي} ^{بأننا}
 أيضاً ^{بمستش} ^{مستش} ^{بمبدأ} ^{من} ^{مادة} ^{البوتونيوم} ^{التي} ^{كانت}
 تحملها ^{كوقود} ^{وقد} ^{تفجرت} ^{في} ^{الأرض} ^{من} ^{عبر}
 المهمة ^{فوق} ^{القائمة} ^{أثناء} ^{بشكل} ^{في} ^{المحيط} ^{الهادئ}

وبعد أيام قليلة ^{واحدة} ^{مسيار} ^{فضيحة} ^{عامة} ^{أخرى} ^{والتي} ^{أقل} ^{وضوحاً}
^{مبارزة} ^{تواري} ^{أنا} ^{مركبي} ^{تتم} ^{مضامين} ^{قد} ^{خرجنا} ^{عنا}
^{مبارزة} ^{تواري} ^{التوجه} ^{للدراسة} ^{من} ^{أية} ^{قدرة} ^{في}
 استقصاء ^{المعلومات} ^{على} ^{ضلال} ^{النفاذ} ^{والتي} ^{أو} ^{أثار} ^{الاهتمام}
 لم يكن ^{مع} ^{إضافة} ^{التعريف} ^{بأننا} ^{عزز} ^{بمبدأ} ^{تعزيزها} ^{وأن}
 كانت ^{مهمة} ^{أهم} ^{مبدأ} ^{كافية} ^{لتجعل} ^{أفهم} ^{داخل} ^{خارج}
^{مبدأ} ^{بأننا} ^{جهداً} ^{عن} ^{مبدأ} ^{مبدأ} ^{بمبدأ} ^{الفضاء}
 وهل ^{تتم} ^{أية} ^{هلولة} ^{تكنولوجية} ^{من} ^{مبدأ} ^{أدائها}

بالنسبة لبرنامج الفضاء الروسي فإن الجواب كان مع المفترض
 أن ~~كان~~ يبدأ الشهر الآخر .

مختار من المحييين

تمتد مسقط الشريعة إلى بين الوكاله التي مقصود للعالم

سرتنيله وقافارسه والمطه الفضائيه من غير انما

استطقت أيضا عيزايبه منخفضة تؤدي إلى أعلى المبرقاه

وهناك قلعه في آذان المجره الدوليه بأنه

من تلك المرحله كانت ناقصه التحويل بوجه قطره

ومع ذلك فإن روسيا قامت أصراً بتركيز كل مصادرها

الفضائيه في اطارها لفضتها الفضائيه ~~مما~~ ماركس

في أكتوبر 1996 الضيفه الفضائيه الغير مزوده مأهولة

بالقوات التي تمت لتقوم عمل كوكب رد مرسله ^{سوم} رانك

بم البربرز للسطح ربما أكثر أهمية إدارة البرود ا

مصر الفضاء المتقدم الذي تمتص به داع برمج

ولله الحمد الاطفال الكبرياء من الشهر الماضي تحول إلى

الملايه أرفع بطيه حين تفضل هيانه الدفع وحصل لفضيه

الفضائيه قصه زربط ليزه عمودياً بعد فتحه مقصود

منه الرضا

و للمهلة الاولى ~~تكون~~ وكان الشئ الفضائيه منتقما

في أمريكا لما عرضة اياها للخطر ليس ~~في~~ الخطام فقط

وذلك في 270 جراح ~~التي~~ من البلوترونم كانت محملا

السفيرة كهدى للطاقه.

بعد أيام قليلة ، ساندت روسيا عصفه العزلات لسانه

المنافسه قليلا حين اعترف ~~المستعمل~~ نتائج ترميمه من أعمار

التي ~~من~~ سقطت من الملاء أخيراً جعله اليه بدون

أى قدرات استطلاع فضائيه .

وما يقدر الاستغراب ليس تقدرات الرصاص الصناعه

ولكنه ~~من~~ مفرقة روسيا ^{على} الاستعدادها .

وفي اعقاب كارثة المارس كان ذلك كافياً لجعل

المراقبين داخل وخارج روسيا أن يتساءلوا ~~عن~~ ~~الخطام~~ ~~من~~ ~~تصور~~

مسائل الرناي الفضائيه واذا ما استطاع أي حل تقني

تكميد ما يوجد

يتمتع بالميراث لأولاد الغنيمة لرؤس براد الغنيمة أي لأولاد

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مستأنف الحجة الشريفة من مدارج السالكين في معرفة أحوالهم وطرائق عملهم، تأليف الشيخ أبي بكر

البناني، تصانيفه المشهورة في تصحيح الاعتقادات، تصانيفه في بيان حقائق العقائد، تصانيفه في بيان

الاصول والافعال، تصانيفه في بيان احوال السالكين، تصانيفه في بيان احوال العارفين، تصانيفه في بيان

الانبياء والمرسلين، كتابه في الاشارة بنسب بيتهم كصحة الراغبين داخل وخارج بيتهم

على وجه تفصيل، كتابه في بيان احوال العارفين، تصانيفه في بيان احوال السالكين، تصانيفه في بيان احوال

من اصله وذلك



عونه ببرنامج القضاء المروري ^{الاساسه} ككلمه مع الافتراضه اسم تجرأ في الشهر

اعاضه فمؤخره من الشريعه بيت بنسخته وقارنهم

محلل النفاذ من دكا في استوار شاماً كأنسباً ذلك النظام السوي

هذه للنظم فالتاليات المنفردات من التقليل من اعداد الروايات

الاعضائيه من بيت صحت القلم تسري في الكتيعه الديكي عم اسم

قراهه اللينيت تم توطيل لصوره هزيلة ودرغم كل ذلك بدأت

ميساير فرآ في استعجاب كل واحد من الفضايله مع اجل الطولت

ارها الفضايلي في مارس 1997 وهو مركب فضايله لم يطول عليها

ايديهم صحت مع اجل الدرهم حوله كوكب الكريخي الاحمر وانزال

ان بعد من كشميه عن سطحه والادغم من كل ذلك اعلمه سبياً

ان صبه الغامبر في مجال الاثبات الفعالية

وتكم تحركت في الشرح الكافي هذه النزعة الرضيد كما سببنا

تعمل احد المقويات عم العمل صحتنا بالركب من افرى السن

الارض بعد دفقت فقيوم اعلا قطر وبيت لفتور كما انما سببنا

عن طراليا وتربها ليس فقط بشظايا النظام المشاوشو بل ايضا

شمنه تدلنا ولا غزواً من العلو تروم مالت كانت بمشابه مصدر

طانه المركب منكم تحركت هذه الكاثة عنوا صوت السفيد بجانب

القارة الاستراليا سبقت لشكل مغزى في الوسط الكارثي

بعد ايام تحلت سبياً ضربه كالتفات على اقل انما عنوا اقرام اولم

الروسيوم انه قريم صبا عيسى قجم سببنا العقيم للدليل سببنا مؤفراً

علم مداريها سببنا بذلك في سلب الجيش قد رتبه المشاوشو

المقويات الفعالية

عدا اثار الدهش ففتر ايكه فقد ام القريم منكم كلامه مصدر

سبياً علم سببنا الرجاء

لقد فتت كالتفات على العريم اذ كانت سببنا رهيلاً صبا لعجب

الراشبيير في الدافل والمخرج رت اؤوم عم مجمع اصحاب البرواج الفعالي

رصد هناك حل كتنه للعلاج

كان من المفترض ان يبدأ برنامج الفضاء الروسي

استعادة توازنه في النصف الماضي، فيزد سطر وشرحه

يدوان وكما ان الفضاء الروسي التي قدمت للعالم مرتبة

الفضاء سرتلك واجازت، وهو ان الفضاء من قد

تقررت للسمو ارضاً ^{تقبل} يوم ميام روسيا ^{تقبل} الميزانك

دلالة لفرق وتغيير الطلقات، كما ان عات تلت، لاجت

الدول في ان هذه المهمات قد تعرضت لفر التمر

وكي كل حاله ففي الفترة اللاحقة بان روسيا

التي تقبل ما رواها الفضائيات في سبيل المراقبة مرتبة

الاجتية ^{تقبل} كما في عام 1996، وهي ليست بالمتأثر بالفر

التي - والجماع للدوران حول الحوكب «Rece» لتخذ

التي للصور ^{تقبل} على سطر اللاحق، وربما عودة اللاحق

التي للصور في مجال الفضاء، والذي استتمت به لفترة

من الفضات حر اليكستر الجياك، ولا تنهت لفر

الماضي فونتس للفرحة للفرحة اي انما هي الى دور

يا لفر من ^{تقبل} من ادى وصول الكون في ارساله

المرتب الى ^{تقبل} في صور اللاحق في ارساله

وذلك بعد فترة وجيزة منذ انضمامهم . وفترة من الوقت

بداية الحرب وكما ذكرنا في كتابنا الى ان النظام بقاره

استتبها، التفرقة لهذا نصفه الوقت مما سبب الاضطراب

الحرب، بل هو جرائم من الدولة تقوم الذي كانت تحمي

الحرب، كمصدر للحفاة . وقد تم تجنب الحرب من هذا

لحرب الحرب المحطوب بالسلاح ونظرة يقوم

ويصوره ذلك في الخط الحادي

ولقد نشرت بعض الامام بعض العلاقات روسيا السياسية

تتفق، وذلك بعد ان التفقت السلطات الروسية

منه الاتحاد السياسية الدولة الخاصة بالأمة

قد سقطت أمر على مدار حدا تاريخ

سكانه الذين المقوات لحملة بدون قدرة استعداد

وما أثار الدهشة ليس فقط فقدان الاتحاد السياسية

بل مخز روسيا أعلان بذلك لها ومر الاستيقان

على الحكومة الخاصة لروسيا ما الذي كانت

كانت تحمي الحرب دافع وخاص روسيا ان تتغير

في تسوية لرأيه للعرض في السرير من الخاصة

العصبة من الخاصة هذا البرهان من الخاصة

كانت تجلبها الى بيتهم كغيرها من الناس وتكلم فيهم بقدر
 القابض الاستاذة لتتقدم اجمل طلبة متارية بزياد كارتنه
 حفته
 وبعد ايام قليلة عانت بوجعا من عنده لم يصاحبها الكثير من القدر
 الدرر والخبز الاطعموي عندما اعنف الحشود بانها اشين من
 اقرار التجرب الرعوي قد ضجعا عسيرا لها (ويحتمل) تباركون بزياد
 المتان المعكوه بدونه ان قدرات استلاله ضاينه وما انار
 الرصه لسيد ليسه ^{مؤلف} افترا رويها طننيه القميين بل عدم
 شرتها فلهذا ^{مؤلف} اخللا ببال كمالا؟ ايها القبايه اسويله مشوع ليربح الفياضي
 انشع ^{مؤلف} الطرايقون داخل رويها وخارجها الى المت اوله حرك
 عت ^{مؤلف} الكله المتعلقه بالبرامج الفياضي ولعمه انكايه ايجاد حلاله
 دعلاج ^{مؤلف} الاصابع من الزيار

G النص الأول

كانت المفترض أن يعود برنامج الفضاء الروسي
الشهر المنصرم، ^{الطريق} بحسب قوس الشيوعية سقط كذلك
الوكالة التي قدمت للعالم سبوتنيك وكوكارين
والحقيقة الفضائية مير السلام " وذلك راجع إلى
اقتطاعات ^{الميزانية} مما أدى إلى ^{تأخير} قتل
في الإطلاق وتراجع في الأوساط الدولية ^{إشاعات}
متخوفة من أن ^{تكون} هذه ^{العمليات} ^{تكون} نقطة
خطيراً في التحويل ^{من} ذلك ^و قامت روسيا ^{بالتدفع}
بشكل مما ^{يبدو} أنها الفضائية من أجل إطلاق مركبتها
مخوكوب مارس ^{تسنة} 1996 وهي مركبة فضائية غير
مأهولة صممت للدوران حول الكوكب الأحمر ^و
لرسل إشارات ^{بالتصوير} إلى السطح بالإضاءة إلى
ورسما هذا هو الأهم هو العودة ^{بالبلد} إلى ^{التفوق}
الفضائي الذي تمت ^{به} ذات ^{أمر}
الذي تحركت الرحلة الشهر الماضي إلى قذفي قريبا
الأرض حين أصاب ^{جاذبات الدفع} ^{إتلال} أعاد
المركبة الفضائية إلى الأرض في طارت بعد إقلاعها

وبديء لوهلة وكان الركبة مستقيمة أسير اليا
 هي مشكلة خطرا ليس فقط بسبب التظاير او انما كذلك
 بسبب 270 عزاب من البلويون نوم التي كانت تحملها
 كمبر للطاقة ^{بشكل} حيث اجتمعت
 المركبة القارة وسقطت ^{بشكل} في المحيط الهادئ
 انجبت روسيا اياما بعد ذلك بفترة والعلاقات
 العامة حين اقترحه دولون في اثنى من اقبال
 التحسين قد وقع ^{من} اسيارها من اثاره الجين
 دون قدرات استطلاعية ففلائية وليس المشي
 فورا ان القهرين الاصطناعية وانما ^{من} عتيم وقد
 روسيا علم تقويةها مكان كاقيا انما
 اندخار مشروع ^{من} دفع الرامبين داخل
 زوميا وخارجها الى ^{من} اجفرا عن مدى
 حجم مشاكل البرضاج الفيلاني واذا كان
 بإمكان اية حلول تكنولوجية ^{من} اضراره

انها كالمحنة لبرنامج الفضاء الروسي بقائه من المعتاد ان

استعدادا لهذا البرنامج ^{وقد} شرع فيه ضد اسم المرفوع

ومن حينه الزيار الشيوعية فان وكالة ان صحتي للعالم

قد ظهر بان سموتيله وجاجرين ومولة الفضاء

صيرت تم اخفها كدالك مع ميزانيات منخفضة

تقود ال اطلاق غضاثة اقل ويحسنة تلاقة في

البحر الدولي بان تلك البرامج كانت ايضا ناقصة

التمويل على نحو ظهري ومع هذا فادركت في وقت سابق

كانت روسيا تشر جميع مصادرها الفضائية ال

الاطلاق صحتي الفضائية ال كوكب المريخ في 1996

والان تباركنا من سفينة فضائية يرون اشياء على

متننا وصحة من اجل اطلاقها كوكب الام

مسلة فريخ رمانز من الاراطية على الريط ورمز الاكثر

ألمية الدولة ان التفوق في مجال الرحلات

الفضائية قد يثبت في النهاية

ولكن في السنة ال اضا ما بين الزهرة الليرة المسخرة

الريخ (بارزكا) قد بدأت بالعبث من الارض

وذلك كما ان ^{ارسل} ~~التي~~ القاصم ^{التي} ~~التي~~ ^{التي} ~~التي~~ ^{التي} ~~التي~~ ^{التي} ~~التي~~

ج

طازض المفترض ان يبدأ برناج ارضنا و اروسنا بسعدنا كما قرأنا

بعد سقوط لنظام السوي ما زال لالة الرقودم للعالم كمنته
سوي سنيل و كما في رن و القضاة ارضها منه سر ان كمنته
ايضا جنرايه منته اذت لكه اقل رجدت

و سره صمات قبله ما اذ ان المجرى البردييه بان جمر تليل
المصمات القضايه تا تة منفضة التمدل يد رجه هنيه له ا

و رنم ذلوه قاعد و سبامو فرآ نير لزلزل صداد صا القضايه
فخ اطق رصينه القضا. تة و نة صلح الرصمات لته و
عدول اللوليل الاخر من رسة لرجه اهنزه مع الرطخ
و ربا الر الصمات عاده البداد عصر الرضا و المتفوق
الذو قبرته م ر يوم صا ر نياك
القضايه

و تزل الا جفالا الاكبر بالاجلة اسر المان تحول الحس
خا تة النامه من تحت اقطار ارض الدف الا صر الزنا
جوزل سبوا الرصمات و كمنته لته و كمنته لته و كمنته لته
نتره و حيزه م اطر اقرنا

و للصلة لاولك بدت اذ الرصمات القضايه حتمت
على قارة اسراليا معرضة هذه الرضاة للخطر
ليس سظاما مستق و لكن بما حمله من 270 جرام
من حتمت البلد يوم الرضاة تحول الرصمات
كسعد الرضاة

و نعدده و حيزه جارت روسيا عاصفه قرا لدا
العارة حيزه الحزن السقولون بار صمات من اصغار
المسك سطلت ممدارهما ما اذ ان كمنته لته
الحين الروسي ديون اهي قدرات اسطلاميه

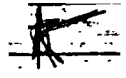
تأخر في التصرف في شأن السيد السمر الحياض برنامج العضاد الإرسالي
 الذي أصابه المرض منذ فترة باستعارة شيا فيه وبعد
 الحياض السبرية منذ الصبغة التي قدمت للدم العمر
 الضاعما سيوتيل في الحقا با انصبا جاجا ريرا والحياض لادمانه
 مير وذلك نتيجة انخفاض الحياض الكضائيه الزرد

وادي ذلك الى قلة عدد عمليات الاطلاق وسر
 الجهن بين الوسط الدوليه بله تصويره في عمليات
 الاطلاق فداهم ضمنا جدا وعزم ذلك تحكمت
 وسياسم مزا على ضملا لاصار العزير لعضاد
 لادمانه الاطلاق الصبة قضائيه المبرمج 1996 هـ
 صبه يدور واذا تم تصورها لتدور حول
 اللوكه ~~بعض~~ ويضع عليه ارجح اجهزة ولعل
 الكه من هذا الله الله ان سعيد وشيا مكا تصا
 الب لفة في زيادة الضاد

الطيرة

ومن المنزلة ان مرحلة العضاد التي المبرمج العصى
 انتهت الى ~~قده~~ ~~مقوس~~ ~~العلوي~~ الارض وذلك بعد
 ان تعطل بحول الطاعة بعد فترة قصيرة من اطلاق
 وقد يدرا ان الصبة ستمطتم يا ستراليا
 هود، اياها و سايها ليس يقبليا جيا فصا
 بل بمسئله وسجين غير اما مس مادة اللدنيوم التي
 شملها الصبة كوجود لها وقد تم تباد وح
 هذا الحذر بعد ان كثرت الصبة نوز آثاره
 استراليا وسقطت بشكل مذل في المحيط الإيران

وبعد هذه واجهت في صيا صم ارضي ولكن بصورة
 سريته حيث اقر في المسود كون ان صهرين من
 اهدرة التخصيص الموجه منه ~~حوما~~ عن
 حاد صا تاركه المدين الروسارون ار فعملوا
 استطاديه وللا ما اثار الدعيته ليس اصناده
 التمدين الصنائير وانها عجز وسيا من اجسادها



وقد طاعة عملي امير في الفاس له لاصيه لتجعل اطراف قيس
 من الداهية والناج من اعدائنا ~~عبد الله~~ عن فني حضوره
 من تاج الفضايل اروسى وصل من مال اعدائه من ايراد
 جلوس بنة طيبه تسلم من خداجها

كان الزئبق دائماً مادياً منذ البداية كان يمنع بده على كل ما هو حوله ليتمكن على هيئة أدوات والتي عن هرتزيل يقطع وينتج ويضرب ويختط هرتزه وعندما صنع ذلك فهم القليل عن كيفية انه تملك كل واحدة نظام مختلف وقوة معينة .

ولم يكن في حاجة الى ذلك انما فقط نقوم بوضع شئ محدد شئ نعلم تماماً لماذا تبدأ في التكون فقبل ذلك فإيه المحاولة والمخطأ بنفسى بالفرض ويوضح لنا العدد الهائل من المواد التي تحولت اليوم الى المحاولة والمخطأ فدأت دورها على كبريل وجه .

ولكن بالتحقيق العلماء غير راضين بذلك وفي القرن الماضي قاموا بتطوير جديده واسع في علم المواد والذي يسعى لشرح ما يحدثه في ترتيب المواد لخواص تحت المجهر وهذا العلم لديه جانبه العملي وذلك عندما اجتمع العلماء في معهد كاليفورنيا للتحقيقه انهم الماهي لرؤية عملة في مجال علم المواد لم يكن العلم لا تقط الذي جذبهم بل كانت الحقيقة بأنه الباحثين الذين يمثلونه يستطيعون احتمال ذلك العلم في تشكيل خواص جديدة داخل المواد .

كأنه الزجاج هو احد المواد التي قاموا بالعمل فيها فهو صلب ويمكن تشكيله بسهولة وامرجه .

وتشجيعاً للعلماء ليبحث لخصه لاختبار قوته بشيا نزيلونه نرسته للكر انه الطريقة المعتادة لجعل الزجاج قاسياً هورن في سنة 1920 (أي في العشرينات في هذا القرن) وهذا الطريقة وتتمتع على وجه اى اتيان وذلك ممكنه دعم مواد أخرى

وفي عرض في المعهد كانت هناك فريق مختلفه وهي اى شكل حفرة في معينات مصنولة اعدت في معامل علم المواد .

هذه المعينات كانت هجائياً مصنوعة في المعدن يقدم تركيبه في الصلابة لايضاها وهذه الحقيقة بأنه هذه المعينات التي تسمى زجاجاً توضع الفاره بينه زهرة الناس الهاديين والعلماء بنائه المواد بالنسبة لمعظم الناس فإنه الزجاج مادة شفافة مصنوعة في الرمل اما بالنسبة للعلماء فالزجاج مادة صلبة دوناً ترشيداً داخل لنسودراته .

10.12.96

B

كان الانشاء هادياً دائماً. نخذ البدء استمود
 على ما توجه حوله ليحوله الى ادوات للقطع والتمت والدم ولنسج
 دربه محلاً كحياة غيراته بينما كانه يفعل ذلك لميكه فحاجه الى انه ينهم
 سبب نقاط ضعف وقوة كل مادة . فمرة ما هي الاشياء لا تأخذ
 قدراً من الأهمية الا عندما تصنع مادة من لا شيء ومن غير هذا تفنن
 المحاولة والكفأ بالزمن.

بجموعة المواد التي حولنا اليوم نظهر لنا أنه المحاولة والنظام
 التي جدواها كلك العلماء ليسوا راخيه عنط بالطبع فقد طورتا
 من القوم السابقين مثلاً واسماً من علم المواد الذي يهتف الى مس
 أي ترتيب (نعم) من المادة على مستوى المبررى قد يرفع
 من مستوى مفاتيح المواد . هذه المعرفة لها جانب العلم
 فغدا ما اجتمع العلماء من معهد كاليفورنيا للتقنية (كالتيك) باسم
 الماضي ليشعروا بالعمل في مجال علم المواد . لم يتجمهم المعرفة
 منسب بل حقيقة أنه البحوث القديمة تستخدم لتجميع اية تستخدم
 هذه المعرفة للابتلاء فواحد جديدة للمادة .

الزجاج أحد هذه المواد فالزجاج شديد الصلابة وسمي
 بشكل سهولة بشرية . وهذا اسمع العلماء على البنفسج طريقة
 لا تستخدم قوته ههزه مع ازالة أو احتيال على ميله للنفثس .
 طورت الطريقة المعتادة لتقسية الزجاج فذلك لتعريفات من
 هذا القوم وذلك بسهم الى البيان ~~طريقة~~ تفرز مواداً اخرى
 ثم من شهر آفرى كالتيك (معهد كاليفورنيا للتقنية) على شكل
 صفة من المعينات الحقيقية ^{الطبيعية} من سائل علم المواد
 كالمصنعة وهذه لميات من الزجاج مصنوع من العاديه .
 هذا الزجاج المعدني يمتصنا تركباً من القوة والحرارة بطريقة لا يقاوم

حقيقة انه هذه المعينات من الزجاجاً نظهر لنا
 بوجهنوح القوم فهم طريقة التفكير من المواد بين العلماء والناس

العاديين الزجاج شفاف وصنوع من الرجل يساهم
 للعلماء مادة صلبة به يوم نظام ته كيب دسج دافلي
 تدراً

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

C

كانت المادتين مادياً على الزمان ، وهذا هو معنى البقاء
استخدمنا الآن ان كل ما عليه هو مادة وصفاً على
هيئة اذ لا يسهل نقتضيه ونشعره ونشعره بها كطريقه عبد الله
ورغم انه نفاذ هذا الا انك فهمه ههنا ليس على سبيل
قوة ، ففهمه الزاوية ابتلاء المراد ولا عن اهتمامه لغيره
منه انك تعلم انك لا تشي نعلم تماماً اننا قد اقم
التدوين او احياء خلاص فاعلم
بالكيفية والخطا استأنف بالقرطبي

ان في نسخة الافوار من كتابه ملان النجوم ، الظاهر ان
طريقة الكبريت في الأثر قد سمى طبيعياً بنجاح بالهـ

فهم انه العلم ان لا تتفق وتوافق خلاصه بالاسم ، فتميز
المفاهيم طبع العلم من الأثر وسعاً لعلم المراد الذي
سواء من ان ضيق كيميائيات المادة على مسطرة مجرورة
للرغم من هذا من المادة ، ولربما العلم ما نبي محاور
فقدما فهم العلم من الأثر المفاهيم مجردة والبيوت
لاكتشافها في الأثر ، لا اطلاع على العمالة من علم
المواد ، لم تكتسب المعرفة فحسب هو العلم ههنا
نفس الحقيقة ان الباطن المحلوس بأعمالهم استعمال
تلك المعرفة لغيرها من جهة المادة

وامر تلك المواد التي قاصدا بدورها كان زجاجاً
زجاج صلب للفضائية كانت ككليه الى ههنا بسفر

انما يحدد اعداد اللبنة عند طهارة استنزام قوته
 باستعداد اذ كاشي، تنظيره للكس، الطهور
 من العنيديات، من هذا القول.

وان الطريقة المعتادة لوجع الزحاج قاصداً تتم
 بسببه عنده هيكه المياف، التي يمكن ان تستعمل
 تركيب مواد اخرى.

التي تسمى ^{التي تسمى} بالمتن
 اما ^{التي تسمى} بالمتن ^{التي تسمى} بالمتن ^{التي تسمى} بالمتن
 لانها لوجعاً لوجعاً من العيانات المصنوعة اعدت
 من معادن عالم اطواد، تملك العيانات كائنات زواجاً
 غير انه صنع من معدن، وهذا الزحاج المعدني
 ليتم مزيجاً من القعة والمدة التي لا تضاهي
 فخر الحتمية، ان تملك العيانات التي يطلق عليها
 زحاج الذهب - الفرق بين آهيد النحاس
 العاديين واعداد لؤلؤ اطواد.

فالزحاج بالنسبة لغالبية الناس عبارة عن مادة
 تنزاهة صنعت من الرمال، اما بالنسبة للعلماء
 فالزحاج مادة هادئة دوناً زخام داخل، لنسق
 ذراته.

كان الانسان بطبيعته مادياً ومنذ بداية
 حياته الذوق كان يستوي على كل ما حوله ليسع منه
 أذواقه والله بما يقطن ويخت ويطلق ليسع بها طمته
 وعندما قام بذلك كانه فهدر قليل عن خامته كل مله من
 ريشة نة الأضغها أئونة الطمته ولم يكن في حاجة الى أن
 يعرف خالعه

أشأننا عندما نتوكل بجمع شئ ما من لاشه فاننا نعلم
 اننا صنع هذا الشئ أما قبل ذلك فلا نعلم شئ من المادة الخارج
 لأن المادة المصنوع منها قد أوفت بالفرض

ويوضح لنا هذا العدد الهائل من المواد التي حولنا
 اليوم بان الماوله والنظاقد آديا دورها على أكل وجوه
 ولكن هذا بالطبع لم يكن يرضى العلماء في القرن الماضي
 تطويبه ميداناً فيع فر علم المواد الذي يعل الشرح خواصه
 ترتيب المواد ايسيه هذا الترتيب تته المجرى وهذا
 يكون لهذا البحث جانبا علميا

ونظما أن جمع العلماء في عهد محمد كاليومنا
 التقنيه (كالشمع) في الامم الافن ليس هو الذي شمع حول
 خواصه ترتيب الامم وتطمينتها فر علم المواد هو في الحقيقه
 لم يكن العلم هو الذي أجتذب العلماء بل أعكس البشريه
 الذين أن تطاعوا أستطال لهذا البحث بل ان خواصه جديده
 المادة هو الذي أمتدح

وقد كان الزجاج نحو واحد المراد التمام بقيمت عليه
 الجرح، فهو صلب جداً. رغم ذلك يمكن تشكيله بسهولة
 وانضموا لنا يعمدون في مجال؟ ختبار مرة في عماله التجن
 خامسة الكسوفية، فان الطريقة المتعددة لبعده غير
 قابل للأشياء الصلبة قد طورت في العشرينات من هذا
 القرن، وهو يعتقد على سببه وتقدمه الى الياف تحكي وكان
 دعمه بسواد أخرى، وقد عرف من العهد طريقة مختلفة لتكامل
 الزجاج هو على عكس من حفته من أشكال العينات الزجاجية
 أعدت في معامل علوم المراد وكانت قد صقلت وكانها
 مصنوعة من معدن له تركيبه من الصلاب والمرونة لا
 يتصلبان، والحقيقة أن هذه المعينات والتي تسمى
 زجاج توضع لنا الفارق بين نظرة الناس العاديين
 ونظرة العلماء المراد، ينسبه اعظم الناس يسمون
 الزجاج مادة تتألف من نوع من الرمل، أعقاب النسب
 للعلماء فان الزجاج ماصو، الامداد بملبه غير مرتبة
 الذرات في شكل الاخلت.

وقد كان يراد ان يوضح ما يدعى بطبيقتي ، وفلاحة منقذ بلادي ان وضع
 يد علي ما جعله في كلامه ابي ادوات . يتبع برز اذ ينقطع وينتفا
 ركيد ويزال طريقه خزان الحياة . وعند تياره بذلك يكون
 لديه فوجاً بيضاء منه سيب ان كل شخص له تقاطع من وضع
 خاص به ، والتمسك بتلك من حياض ابي معرفتها .
 انه فقط عند ما تصنع الحياض عند الماشي ، وهذا انزل على شدة
 انه من شياء لاله اربا بعد الحداث . وقبل كل ذلك من اذ
 الكلام في الخطا منقذ تفرقة بالفرقة .
 ان نظام الحواد السائت الليم يسببه اذ ان المداولة والفا قد
 اجبت بلاء حسنة من حكمه العلاء بالوج لم يكن تار احسنه على
 رقة طنة وان الفوت الاحتمل وانع في علم طواف والذين تسمى
 عنه شجع للشيء التي احدثتها نظريات التمازج عند مشي
 الجوع (الكيروسكوب) تخصيات الحواد .
 وهذه المدونة لها جانب العلم ، حيث اجتمع العلاء في مشي
 كالغير نيا للتكامل جيا كالاتشيم من لشهر الكافين لتسبح عنه آخر
 اعماله من علم الحواد ولم تكن مجرد المعرفة من التي اجتمعت بل
 كانت حنيفة ان الباصتيم قد ابدوا انه من حكمه استقام
 تلك المدونة لبناء خاصية جديدة في الصلابة .
 واعدت الحواد التي طمنا على بوجه لنزاج .
 فالزجاج مادة مندية الصلابة ويملكه تشكيلها بسهولة
 كثيرة .

تتبع جميع العلماء للبحث عن طرق استنتاج نتائج واهراز او كمن
عاطلية للكسر.

لكن الفريضة باعتبارية لتزويد الزجاج منه تطورت من بعض نبات
وهي ان تصعب من لغير (وهي مادة مكونة من الياقوت) والتي تستطيع
تحفظ مواد اخرى .

ولكن هناك اختراع آخر يطرح به قبل مؤسسة الكالاشين
بحارة على هيئة من العنيت . اطلع صغيرة على كل صيد في صقلية
ثم ابتداءه في معامل علم المواد .

هذه العنيت كانت عبارة عن زجاج ولكنها كانت مصنوعة من
معادن وهذا الزجاج العنيت يريدنا بتكبير لها من لينة ولبوننة
عالم يجعل هناك عقل الحام .

فهيئة ستمت هذه العنيت زجاج تبهره بصنع الاختلاف
سبع طريقة تفكير الانسان العادي وطريقه تفكير العالم من علم
المواد ، فعند اغلب الناس الزجاج ستفان ومصنع من
الرمال ، وعند العلماء الزجاج هو مادة صلبة ليسه لها
نظام واهلا لتظيم ذراته .

F

من معهود كآيتش ن ، تم عزمه لمبرية قذافة نه نكل
 هفنه من حنات حنرة قم اعراضان صانله علم لمارة
 و كانت هذه لم حنات عبارة بمه ز حاجي ، الكزي تم مشروحه
 لمعه من وعزودة نركيه قومي و ذو عرويه حيث لاشه اخر كمانوطا
 ولج تيقو . التذلل لم غياي لتي حية ز جابا تصفه لاف لافان
 بين طر صم تفكير بيشن اوماييه في طرمه تفكير للافان
 لم و اوماييه للافان بيشن بيشن حاجي شفافا سر و صفا
 حده لبريل اما بالنسبة لله اذ قامه لبحاج ماره بمليه
 وليه بي نعلم و اذ ليه لترويه نوزاكي

كتاب البينام نادياً دائماً كمنه البداية كتابه بركه بأحواله
 استقاله على هدية أدواته والدة من طريقه يقطع مضيقه ويحطونه
 رديته طريقه خلافاً للحياة ومنها وضع ذلك فزوم القليل من كيفية اسم
 تلك كل واحدة فقال منعت وموتة خاصة لم يكن في حاجته
 لأنه فقط عنها تصنع من له من نعلم تماماً ما كانت من التكوين
 أما قبل ذلك بنام المادة والخالأ كانت تنفي الفرض ومبين لنا الفرض
 المراد في المراد التي تسيطرنا اليوم بنوام المادة والخالأ آذن
 على آكله وهو بالطبع لم يكن العلماء راضين بذلك فقط قاموا
 من الترميم الماضي بطلو يرصد اسم تسبع في علم المواد والناس
 استرجع ما يسيبه ترتيب المراد لخواص المادة المبرر كما لهذا العلم جانبه
 العلم أيضاً فنجد اجتماع العلماء في مراد لا يفهمنا من هذه الحقيقة
 التمر الماضي لروية مادة في حال علم المراد لم يكن العلم فقط هو
 الذي حينهم بل كانت حقيقة اسم الباهترين الذين يارسيات العلم
 استعمال ذلك العلم لتباد خواص المادة البنية

كتاب الزجاج إحدى المواد التي تماموا بمراسلة من وصلب جيداً
 ورغم ذلك يمكن تشيئة بسهولة واضحة وتنجيداً للعلم لمت
 الماداة للاختيار قوته بينا يزيلهم نزلته الأسر
 اسم الطريقة المتداولة لاجل الزجاج تاسياً طوبوت من العترييات
 من هذا الترميم وهي تعتمد على حبه إلى ألياف متت يكتنه دعم
 مواد آفرون دون عرض المراد كانت حاله طريقة مختلفة وهي
 على هيئة صقفة من المعينات المسقولة تم إعادتها في معامل

Ca 2

علم المواد وقد كانت هذه المعينات من المعدن يتم تركيبه من

اللازمية والمرونة لا يتفاهما في

والصحة. علم هذه المعينات التي تسن زجاجاً بين الفاردين

نظره انفس العاديين والعلل. بتأم المواد

مالمزاج بعض المعظم الناصر العاديين مادة مائة مائة

عن الروان انبالسبة للعلل فمر مادة صلبة يدوم ترتيب

داخل لسقا ذراتها

والزجاج، يقاوم إلى بعد حدوثه فيجب أن تتألف
 بسوره ووالله.

وقد اشجع العلماء إلى البحث عن الطرق للاستفادة هذا
 القوي في حين القاصر منه أو تجنبة وهو مال الإنكار
 والطريقة المعتادة لتقوية الزجاج المطبوخ من العشرينات
 وهو أسما إلى أنسجة التي تستطيع أن تقوى مواد أخرى
 كانت هناك صابون مختلفة وعروضه من الواحد
 الطينيات في عدد قليل من البلورات اللاصقة التي طورت
 في معامل العلوم الطبية، كانت هذه البلورات زجاجية
 ولكن كانت عرضة من الطعن ويقدم هذا الطعن
 الزجاجي بتدريته القوي والطوية وإشبه آخر يستطيع
 مجاراته.

والحقيقة أن البلورات التي كسبت بالزجاج، أظهرت
 الاختلافات ما بين تفكير الناس العاديين وتفكير
 العلماء حول المادة، بالنسبة لبعض الناس فإن الزجاج
 صنف وهو صنع من الرمل، ولكن للعلماء طائر الزجاج
 مادة صلبة ليس لها ارتفاع داخلي معين لترتيب
 ذراته.

كيف تعالج التلؤلؤ أو التواء الصغير

- تعاليم الاستعمال

قبل الاستعمال الأول ، إنزع وجزر ، ثم إرضي الحافة البيضاء منه أسنوب الدواء
الآتول

- استعمال منه وأهمه في اليوم

١- يرضي وحين سالتول منه واجده كل ليلة عليك بوضع التواء الصغير آخر

٢- التلؤلؤ يرضي القدم ، لأجل تفتت الشفاء (القدم) المطرون . فسه المطرون

أنت تستر منه العلاج ارضي إنهم عشر أسبوعاً وذلك العقادوة البرح

لذلك يرضي عليك استعماله باستمرار .

٣- إنزع كل ليلة المنطقة المصابة بالفتنة

٤- أظفر القدم المنطقه المصابة بالفتنة من ماء دافئ لسه - ٣ وقاشر

٥- بللته ازل الفتنة القاسية منه مع التواء الصغير وذلك استعمال

جبر النفاذ أو بلوغ نظم تعليم الأظفار واستخدم قطا منه لأجل هذه الاستعماله

٦- تذكر إنزع عظام الزحاج ، واستعمل العصب القطر المنطقه المصابه

الزحاجه (انظر الرسم / السورده اعداد) . استخدم هذه قطرات مده صفة

٧- الدواء على المنطقه المصابة تارياً الجوان لكل قطرة أنت ترضي قبل وضع

القطره الثانيه . لإعذر ترضي نشر قطرات الدواء حول الجذ السهم

- أضع زيادة من الدواء المنشر على الجلو المحيط برضي إزالة بقعه بل

٨- أقلل الغطاء بأحكام

٩- إذا كانت المنطقه المصابه أسفل القدم ، حطها بشريط لاصق ، ومنه

الحامه انه يزيد الاتصال في الجزء النشط للتلؤلؤ مما يساعد على منع

العدوس من الانتشار (كما هو من انتشار العدوس في المنطقه) . وأرض

مكايه آخر للمنطقه المصابه لا تحتاج إلى التغطية

١٠- إنزعها كده أربع وعشرين ساعه ، ثم كرر العريته كل ليلة وذلك بعد

إزالة اللاصق

١١- تذكر انه هذه التواء الصغير أو التلؤلؤ قد تحتاج لبعض الوقت عن تحتن

تماماً ، ويجب ان ترضي على استمرار المعالجه

* تخير . ارض هذا الدواء مع الصب والفتن الحطاط

١٢- يجب عدم استمرار سالتول على الوجه

B

نفسه في التناول والجماد والنوا الصغير التي تصيب

أشياء استعماله
قلوبه استعماله خصوصا لمراروا وتخلصا منه هلته البيضاء

المتداخلة في بارورة اللاندر

الاستعمال مرة واحدة

استخدم استعمالا (الاستعمال) مرة واحدة أو لينة (بعضها على

التناول والحبات والنوا الصغير منه أهل تحسبه الفالبة الطلوة

قد يأخذ السلاح لا فتحة التي عشر أسبوعا طقارة لإصدار ضليلك

أه تصد خلال هذه الأوقات

أ. انفع الجزء الصابون كمية من ما ساهبه لادة رشفتين إلى ثلاثة

دوائه كل ليلة

ح. حبة شمسك مثل للفضة بنسبتك

* 20 أربابا أي حلة تسمى (الليلي) من طعم التناول والنوا الصغير

والجماد من نقطة (منه) كغير النوا أو بلوح تدريم لإطارة الحصى
المتخذ به فضضا لهذا الغرض فقط
~~المتخذ به لهذا الغرض فقط~~

ع. انفع من نوا الرخاخ مجرد ستحدا الماشر الملعقة

دافاه (انظر الدم الرضيب) وطهره ضد عطرات من الحصى

الطقة الصابون مع أخذ يصبه لإستبار ما به تسبح بكل قطرة أنه يحق

كيف تعالج التولول ووصف التواني صغيرة في الفم؟

بعلامات الاستعمال

١- يجب عليك ان تتخلص من حذر من العقاد الابيض لعقاروة
(بما للتول)

والاستعمال وفق يوجيأ:

٢- يجب عليك ان تستخدم (بالتول) مرة واحدة كل ايام لعلاج التولول
بمربع وقتاً تأخذ مدة العلاج اثنا عشر اسبوعاً طلبة الاذى
الضره لذلك يجب عليك ان تراغب على استخدام الدواء بانتباع
الخطوات التالية:

٣- اذ وقع الاعاكس المصابه من قديك في عار دافس كل ليلة
دقيقته او نطاة دعائهم.

٤- ثم قم بتثبيتها بشبك الماصه.

٥- اذ اكلت صاك اء اء صلب ناشئ من سطح التولول ثم
بأنزله بلطف يراعه وقعه من حجر الخفاف اولوع قدريم
اذا ظفرت نحصه لهذا الغرض.

٦- افترخ عقاد الزجاجه حذر واستخدم العضية المتصل بقعر العقاد

وانظر الاسم الرسمى ثم ضم بعضها قراءتم الساع على الاعاكس

المصابه بدتاكله من عقاد مثل مفرقة جبل التقديره افرد واحذر

تجنب ايضا انتشار الدواء حول الكلب الصليم الخفيف بالشفه المصابه

وانما انتشر الدواء الزاشر على الكلب لسليم مغلوب سيجد يوقعه من

العلقه الضمن.

٧- وبها اتفق الزجاجة باءا. اذا طالت المنطقه المصابه في اسفل الحنجره

الضم عليك ان تستعملها تضع عليه شريطاً لاصقاً لانه

ذلك يزيل امراض الملوناته النشئه وسياد التولول على

بماتت ر العبروس واذا كانت التولول في منقطه اخرى

فلا داعى لتخطيتها وحين ان تعلم الاجراء كراى ساعه.

وذلك يجب ازالة الرطبه اللاصقه في كل ليلة.

٨- تذكر باسم التولول بمعالج (١) وقد طويلا ليعتصم تماماً

مغلبك المراه به على العله.

٩- تذكر انقنا له وادعيه اسم العينيه وعند الغتبه المراه

لا ستعمل التولول تحت العوجه.

٥

كيفية معالجة ثآليل القدم وغيرها

تعليمات الاستعمال : قبل استخدام الدواء لأول مرة انزع

بمحر الحلقة البيضاء من راحة السلكترول واطرحها

استعمال الدواء مرة في اليوم

يجب ان تينشر السلكترول على الترتيلة لوغيرها

في كل ليلة ^{تحقق} معالجة بنجاح . ويمكن ان تستغرق

مدة المعالجة ^{المتوسطة} اثني عشرة اسبوع في حالة ثؤلولية

ثابتة ولذلك ينبغي عليك ان تدأب في المعالجة

١. انقع ^{في} كل ليلة المنطقة المصابة من مياه داخنة لمدة ٣٠-٢٠ دقائق

٢. نشفها بمنشفة خاصة لك

خاصة لهاذا الغرض

٣. ^{بهدوء} بنموية بلوح تدريم الاظافر او غيره لكن تزيل اى

جلد صلب وغير ثابت

٤. اختص الزجاجة بمحذر ^{مستجيلا} ~~الذي~~ الجهاز المرهروط داخل

الغطاء اضع قطرات قليلة من الصبغة ولا بد من ان

تنتظر حتى يتم تشف كل قطرة قبل تضع ^{قطرة} تالية احذر

الا تشار للصبغة على الجلد السالم المتجاور ويجب ان

تسمح اى مزيد من الصبغة على الجلد المتجاور بقطن طبي .

٥. امد الغطاء (شدة ٣٠)

٦. في حالة ان تدرن المنطقة المصابة عن وضع القدم غطها

زبلزقة . فذلك - زيد استئصال المكونات العلاجية و بسامد

في منع انتشار اى فيروس . اما المناطق الاخرى فليس / ضرورية

تغطيتها :

٧. اترك التزولة او غيرها لمدة ٣٠ ساعة ثم كرر عملية

الطاح في كل ليلة بعد ازلت ابقر بقية الازقة

٨. وتذكر ان اختفاء التزولة التام قد يخذ وقت طويل

فيجب ان تستمر في معالمتها .

تحذيرات :

احفظ الصبغة بعيد عن العيون و الانفحة

المخاطية .

لا تستخدم سلاكتول على الوجه .

E

كيف نغالبه تولىك لقدم؟

تعليمات الاستعمال :-
قبل البدء باستعمال الدواء لإحذر ما يلي الكلفه البيضاء
لغذاء ^{زجاجة} الدواء .

تطبيقه المداخلة مرة يومياً أو استعمال الدواء مرة يومياً .
يجب أنه نضعه نضعه في الكون على ~~السطح~~ ^{السطح} ~~تولىك~~ ^{تولىك} مرة
مرة في كل ليلة لكي تتحقق. لقد دأب في العلاج والذي قد يتراوح (أو)
الشيء كحد استوعاباً في الحالات المستعصية أو المبرحة) ولذا
فعلينا هنا مرة في العلاج .

أدع كل ليلة عليك أنه تنفع المناهضة له صاء دائم
وهو دقيقته (أو) ثلاث دقائق .

كما في ~~تصيح~~ جفنة تلك المناهضة بمنسفتك الخاصة ^{بني} عليك إزالة
الجلد الرطب المتقلقل (على سطح التلولك وذلك بواسطة حجر
الحنافه وهو دجاج كوكاني جنس ^{وكي} بالانمايب) أو بواسطة
لوح تدريم الأظافر ^{ويجوز} ~~تعمله~~ ^{تعمله} فنته لهذا (أخرى) .
ويجوز أن

وبعد ذلك عليك أن تملأ خفاء الذجاجة وعلبك يستحال القصب
المنظف الملقسه في الجهة الداخلية للظن ^{وهو} لوضيح قليل منه نقاب
الدواء في المنطقة المصارة وعلبك أنه تترك كل نقطة نجف قبل
أن تضيع الغيرة تليق وعلبك الكزر كي لا تسمى لذلك النفاط
أنه تصب الجلد السليم المحيط بالمنطقة المصارة وإذا ما
انشر خافز الدواء في الجلد السليم ~~يجب~~ ^{يجب} عليك أنه تسمى
بقطرة منه اللطيفة .

وبعد ذلك عليك أنه ~~تفعل~~ ^{تفعل} الزجاجة بأهكام .
إذا كانت المنطقة المصارة في أسفل القدم فعليك أنه تخفرت
بواسطة بشرط لا منه ذلك ~~ينبغي~~ ^{ينبغي} يعزز امتصاص المكدرات
أكية في حالة التلولك منسرين ^{انتشار} القيرور .
وماذا سكاره التلولك في منطقة أخرى خلا حاجة لتخفيفه .

F

كيف تعالج تؤلول القدم أو التشنج .

تعليمات للاستعمال :-

ارفع القدم والقر بالحلفه البيضاء معه زجاجة اللاكول سبل
بدو الاستعمال .

الاستعمال لمرة واحدة من اليوم .

يجب عليك استخدام اللاكول مرة واحدة كل ليلة

سه أجل ٣ لتؤللول القدم أو التشنج وذلك للوصول الى

نتيجة باهرة . وقد يستمر العلاج لمدة اسبوعين وذلك

لمقاومة والقضاء على الضرر فيجب عليك للدوا طبيه بالاستعمال .

١- بلل المنطقة المصابة بماء دافئ لمدة دقيقتين (ثلاث دقائق كل ليلة)

٢- جفف المنطقة تماماً بالمنشفه الخاصة بك .

٣- ~~جفف المنطقة~~

٣- حاول بلطف ازالة الجلا السيك الزائد من على التؤللول

٤- ~~او~~ التشنج وذلك بقطعه من زهر الخفاف أو بالوع ~~الخاص~~ بلطفنا

في تدريم و صنفرة الاظافر ويؤلمه مستخدماً مثل هذا الغرضه .

٤- ارض بحذر غطاء الزجاجة مستعملاً القطارة المتصلة بالغطاء

(انظر الى الصورة التوضيحية)

صنع بعضه القطرات من الصبغ حلل المنشفه للمصايبه وذلك

بهدر - فالتاكد من جفاف القطرة الأولى قبل وضع الأخرى .

كسب حذرًا هذه ذلك لتجنب انتشار السائل على الجلد الطبيعي سليم

الطبيعيه . اذا اردت سائل زالدحاول ازالته بقطعه تطيينه

صونيه .

٥ - زائد (أهلام) الفلج الخطار .

٦ - إذا كانت المنقضة للمصابه من بالجه القدم تم بتعطير بشرط

للصبر مما سيزيد من امصاص الجزر الفعال .

ومنه اجل التوليد ستاعد بمنع الفيروسات من الانتشار .

ويجب تغطية الاماكن العزلة المصابه .

٧ - ارتكاز لمدة ٤٤ ساعة ثم عاود العمليه كل ليلة وبعد كل مرة

ترويح ^{بها} الشرط اللازم .

٨ - تذكر بأنه التوليد يأخذ بعضه الوقت ليختصر تمامه

فوجب عليك المواظبه على العلاج .

تنبيرات :-

انبهه عن العميه وعن القشر الحماض .

لا يملك استعمال الكواكب ^{عليه} .

كيفية تعاليج التورم و تورم القدم و الحساسية

تعالجات الإستخدام

نمل أو نستاند، الدواء لأول مرة نترجم

المحلته البيضاء من قنينة التلكنول و ارسها.

استعماله مرة واحدة من اليوم

يجب أن تصم سلكنول في التورم او لتولول

القدم أو الحساسية مرة واحدة كل ليلة يكد العلاج

زاجحة من المكن أن تنطلي تعالجه من التورم

عشرة اسبوع للاقتراز المتأومة علاه أنه تستمير بالعلاج

انفع المساق من ماء دغرة نفة دميفنسي

من ثلاثة دقائق

جف تماما بمنشك خاصة

(٤) نزل بلطف من جلد نهد من سطح التورم او

تدلول الدم او الحساسية بمساعدة نفة أو نوح تدريم

ذخائر المستخدم لهذا الغرض نقتد.

انك باهتمام عطاء القنينة و باستخدام قنينة

منهم من الجزء الداخلي من الغطاء (الفرسي رسم بياني)

* منع بعض قطرات اندواء للمنفة نصابه واسمح
 لكل عفرة أنه تجت قبل أنه تضع القشرة الثانية والحل
 أنه تحسب سنار اندواء إلى الجلد التسلیم بحيث بالثلول
 ولا يد أنه تریل أي دواء فانه المنتشر إلى الجلد المحيط
 بالثلول بالتمص.

٥) امید نغاه بشده .

٦) إنه كانت المنطقة المطابة من باض القدم غطتها
 بلحونا، غندا يحسن امتصاص العقومات الفعليه و

نسبة إلى التاليل ميساهمى منع انتشار

النروس . و ليس من النهوس أنه تغض المناطق

الأقرب إلى مبها دواء .

٧) اثرها لمدة أربعة و عشرين ساعة ثم أعيد

نعمله كل ليلة بعد فرغ اللهاق أولاً

* ٨) و ادبر أنه روال مؤلولك أو جسانك منه يأخذ

مونت هوبلن و لابد أنه تستمير على العلاج .

تذيرات

لا تترك اندواء أنه ينتشر إلى العمود
 ولا اغتصيه المخاضيه و لهذا تستخدم سلا كندول على الوجه

كيف تمالج الثؤلول. شحرة وغيره. الرُّبْصَاءُ

تعليمات للاستعمال:
قبل استعمال ، انقلوا و لمزجوا الغائم الأبيض
من الزجاجة السلكترول .

استعمال مرة واحدة لكل يوم

ينبغي عليك أن تستخدموا مرة واحدة كل ليلة
للثؤلول وللؤلؤل ، للشحرة الصغيرة وللجذام .

الرمالج يطول من انتشار أسبوعياً يلغى اثره المقاومين ،

ولذلك يجب عليك ^{من تعبيرها} المحلات
كل ليلة أنقعوا ~~المحلات~~ متأثرة في الماء الساخن
بداقتين 4 إلى ثلاثة دقائق .

2- جففوا ~~المحلات~~ بالمنشفة .

3- حاول بلطف إزالة الجلد الميت الزائد من سطح

الثؤلول ، والشحرة الصغيرة من حجر الخفاف أو باللوح المنضج
في تدريم وصنارة لأظافر ويكون مستخدماً لكل هذا الفرش

* انزع ارفع بحذر غطاء الزجاجة مستعملاً القطارة المتصلة

بالغطاء (أنظر إلى الصورة التوضيحية) وضع بعض

القطرات من الصيغ ~~المحلات~~ المتأثرة من المحلات

المتأثرة بعد تأكد أن جفنته على قشرة قبل أن تفتح

القطرة الثانية : كونوا (حذروا) من الإلتصاق إلى الجلد

الطبيعي المحيط بالفرش . يجب عليك أن تسفروا

أية منضحة الفضلة المنتشرة على الجلد المحيط .
بالنظف المنضحة

الاتفاق/ التماسك .

5- ضعوا الحافظات الرجاجة مشدوداً .

6- إذا تكون الممّلات المتأثرة في أقصى القدم ،

نقلوا بالصوق . هذا يرفع جذب الجزرات المتحركة الفعلي

و للنسوء الضفير والحسأة يسامد يضح في صنع انتشار

محدث المرض . أما اسم الممّلات الأخرى لا يجب

أن تغطيها .

7- أتركوا ليمّة أربعة وعشرون ساعة و

أعيدوا عملته كل ليلة يديحه نقل أليه أي اللصوق .

8- تذكروا أن النسوء الضفير الحسأة قد تأخذ

وقتها قبل اختفاء الكامل لذلك ~~تظلمون بالهبر~~ تظلمون بالهبر

في مجالسكم .

التحذيرات

9-

تحسبوا وضع سلك الرين والظالمات والغشاء
المظلمين .

عدم استخدام سلاك تور بل الموجه الوجه .

كيفية تعالج ~~التواء~~ التواء العنق والنتوء الصغيرة والنتوء الفقد

- علامات الاستعمال

تسبب بداية الاستعمال انزعج كجلته البيضاء عند ارتداء قمم
تبريدتها بعد انزلها من قنينة الهواء الساخن

أو التواء

- الاستعمال مرة في اليوم فقط

يجب وضع اليد على النتوء ~~المنطقة~~ المنطقة بواحدة لكل
اليد. ومن اجل كونه العنق الناعم يولد ان يسهل
صدمة العلاج الر 12 ~~تقريباً~~ تقريباً نظراً لطبيعة الكرم
لذا يجب الهداية كمن العلاج

1- بلاض المنطقة المصابة لا يلبس جوارب خفيفة لمدة 2 الى 3 دمن

2- قم بتجفيف المنطقة جيداً

3- ~~عمل القصة المفصل بالغطاء وذلك بوضع حيز~~

~~وتسبب تعالج اليد على المنطقة المصابة~~

حتى انزعج بلاض المنطقة الفاسية من سطح النتوء الصغيرة

وذلك باستعمال حجر الحقائق او بلوغ تقويم الخطم

بعد فضاء لونه العراض

4- انزع غطاء الزجاجة ~~تحت~~ تحت

غطاء الرحلة (كأنظر الصورة) ووضع يدك تحت من اليد

على الجرد المصاب ويجب ترك اليد جرد تحت من اليد

الاضرى. احذر تجرد ونسج اليد فوق الخلد ان يحم

ويجب ازالة اي دوام زائد من الجرد الجوارب المنزوعة

المصابة بقطر طر

5- اخلق الغطاء باتمام

6- اذا طالت المنطقة المصابة واضر ادم قم بتفويدها

شريط لاصق ونزاع ~~تجرباً~~ تجريباً كجزء كمية

اللا متصباها من الجرد السطحي للتواء

7- كبر عليه السلام بعد ترك التذوق الشربة ~~التي~~
لمدة 24 ساعة.

8- يه أسرار العدايم لان هذا التبول في السنة
الصبر يحتاج لبعض الوقت حتى ينضم ~~الدم~~

كبر ~~الدم~~ في الدوام الصناعات الخارج
الاستعمل "سلا للبول" كل الوجوه.

الجبهة
لينة معالجة للبلل القدم والتهوية الجيدة

فلمات الاستعمال
بعد الاستعمال اذرع واحدا كلقة السيد من عمار جاهة كرواد

لا يستعمل مرة في اليوم
مرة كل ليلة منها كرواد في التبول، لتصفية البول حيث
استمر العلاج لمدة 2 اسبوع خاصة في الحالات
التي هي مغلقة الحماض.

1- بلل المنطقة المصابة في صباحها فخره لمدة 2-3 دقائق
كل ليلة

2- بعد ذلك يتم تبخيرا المنطقة المصابة بمسحوق كالماء
3- بعدها يتم بانارة الجلد المصاب المحل على ضوء الشمس
وذلك بواسطة حجر الخفاف او يواستعمل لادوية اخرى
الارطاف في موضع هذا الفرض

4- انزع عمار الزجاجة واسفل العوارض الملتصقة بالجزء
الداخلة ~~فهم~~ وضعه بعض البقار وبعده دم الرقيقة
حتى يجف الرقيقة و ~~يخرج~~ يخرج اشجار الدوار في فوق
الجلد ليس الاطراف بالملوحة و اذا استرب بعض
الدوار فتم على الفور بسببه يفرط جدا

5- افضل الخطا ما دام
6- اذا طابت المنطقة المصابة 9 اسطر القدم على ان تبخيرا
سريط ظهر لا سقا حتى يزيد من امصاص التبول
للذوار في حين انشأ الصبر و جيرا و اذا طالت التبول
فراية منقضية اخرى فلا حاجة لتعطيق

7- نوب إعادة استعمال الدواد كل 24 ساعة بعد إزالة الرطبة

8- علاج المداوية التي اكلها نظراً لسهولة لادوية التبول
قد تستفيد فترة طويلة حتى يتحسن - لا عتبه الحماض في
معدن احفظ الدواد في حياض اليرير و عمر الاعية الحماض في
ولا تفر سلا كذا في الوجه