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Theories of Translation

and

their Applications to the Teaching of

English/Arabic-Arabic/English Translating

by

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Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Ph.D. in the
Department of Arabic, Faculty of Arts, University of
Glasgow

1991

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To my wife Noura,
Whose encouragement and support have been particularly inspiring.

To my son Bashshar,
Who has been great comfort in times of distress.

To the memory of my father,
to my mother, Whose sacrifices, love, and patience made this possible.

To my dear brothers and sisters.
Acknowledgements

I am very grateful to my supervisor Professor J.N. Mattock who has painstakingly read, discussed, checked, and edited this dissertation as well as for his kind support and encouragement. I am also grateful to my supervisor Dr. James Montgomery who has read, discussed, and commented on this study, thus contributing to its validity.

Many thanks go to all my friends and colleagues from Aleppo University and from other Syrian Universities for their invaluable suggestions and for answering the questionnaire. Thanks also go to the Ministry of Higher Education in Syria and Aleppo University for financial support.

Last but not least, a special note of gratitude and indebtedness goes to Miss Avril MacGregor, Office For International Programmes, for her unforgettable, boundless support.
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Abstract:

The vital role which English continues to play in international communications and the growing impact of the Arab Nation on world affairs have created a demand for English-Arabic/Arabic-English translators and interpreters. Consequently, this has prompted educational authorities in Arab Countries to set up translation and interpreting courses.

For the same purposes, translation and interpreting courses have been set up in Europe and the U.S.A the aim of which is to provide the market with translators able to deal with a variety of fields and interpreters able to operate at international conferences and international business negotiations.

The discipline of TT is still in its infancy. It is faced with practical and theoretical difficulties. The practicality of translation theory in TT has yet to be ascertained and its usefulness in providing insights towards solving translation problems has yet to be fully investigated.

In the Arab World, the problem of designing adequate translation courses remains. There have been a few attempts at designing undergraduate translation syllabuses at Arab universities, the prevailing characteristic of which is subjectivity. At the post-graduate level, the few courses available are of the 'do-it-yourself' type.

What is lacking is a translation course with a clear linguistic approach that combines translation theory and practice. This course must train students efficiently and must arm them with a good array of translation techniques and problem-solving strategies, as we badly need a systematisation of TT at our universities.

Reiss's (1978) model of TT and Wilss's approach (1977) to curricular planning of translation courses are inspiring.
linguistically-oriented translation syllabuses are also interesting, as they present an objective, scientific approach to TT.

From the context of Arabic/ English-English/ Arabic TT, Sa‘adeddin’s (1987) approach is motivating. Drawing on his experience as a teacher involved with the MSc course in English/ Arabic-Arabic/ English translation and interpreting at Heriot-Watt University, he has addressed some problematical areas in the teaching of Arabic/ English translating to Arab students. He has also been one of the major designers of the Post-Graduate Course in translating at Kuwait University.

This study will deal with several theoretical and practical aspects of the difficulties involved in the process of English/ Arabic-Arabic/ English translating and the pedagogical implications of these difficulties on the teaching of English/ Arabic-Arabic/ English translating.
Introduction:

The aim of this study is to present an outline of a translation syllabus at Syrian universities. It will start with a brief description of the bearing which translation studies have on language studies. In Chapter II we shall review existing classifications of theories of translating beginning with Nida's (1976) classification of theories of translating into: philological, linguistic, and sociolinguistic.

Next, we shall discuss in some detail Chau's (1984) classification of theories of translating into the Grammatical, the Cultural and Interpretive models and their methods, which is more specific, up-to-date, and more systematic than Nida's. The usefulness of each model and its methods in practical translating will be assessed and their pedagogic implications for the teaching of English/Arabic-Arabic/English translating will be gauged.

We shall also discuss the Text-Typological Model of translating, which can be described as eclectic, as it includes many insights from other existing models. It must be borne in mind that while there is an emphasis on the superiority of the Text Typological Model of translating, owing to its ability in providing objective and systematic translation techniques required in effective TT, the fact remains that all models are useful in different kinds of translating and in different teaching situations. Translation teachers, therefore, have to be selective in their approach. As Chau (1984: 120) puts it: 'practically all translation teaching is a mixture. The division is a matter of convenience, and thus necessarily artificial, idealistic and even simplistic.'

Chapter II starts with a brief summary of English language teaching in the Arab world, the Arab Translation Movement, the current situation of translation in Syria, and Arab translation studies. It next deals with specific issues of significance in TT
at Arab universities. It is believed that TT at Arab universities is in a deplorable state, due to the teachers' preoccupation with sentence-based approaches.

We shall discuss in some detail a few problematical areas that are expected to occur in the TT situation, such as connectivity, punctuation, paragraph organisation. These are text-related problematical areas rather than sentence/word related areas (e.g., lexis and syntax) which most existing courses at Arab universities subscribe to. It is in the areas of cohesion and coherence of texts, rather than in their grammar or vocabulary, that Arab students' translations most suffer from.

We shall also briefly discuss controversial issues in TT, such as the justification of formal training of translators, the level at which TT should start and other related issues, such as bilingualism, interpreting, linguistics, qualities of translators and translation teachers, teaching content, teaching of translation theories, and specialised translation teaching, which are subjects of great importance in recent debates.

For the purposes of this study, we shall review model translation syllabuses designed by Wilss, Keiser, Reiss, Coveney, and Horn, which are representative of translating and interpreting courses in the West. We shall also look into the contents of the courses in English/Arabic translation and interpreting in the U.K. (e.g., Bath University, Heriot-Watt University). Our aim is to select useful components shared by these model syllabuses with a view to designing our eclectic translation course.

Chapter III starts with a distinction between literary and technical/scientific translating. This distinction hinges on the notion of register, which has been adopted by translators and course designers as the theoretical principle underlying the classification of translations and course materials. The chapter analyses Halliday and other's (1964) notion of register represented by the use dimension, which consists of three
variables: field, tenor, and mode.

While the notion of register is a good classificatory device, some believe that it is arbitrary and inconsistent. The classification according to the traditional theory of register is adopted for pedagogical purposes, since there is no clear-cut distinction between different subject-matters.

If we go back to the question of separating scientific and literary translations as practised by the proponents of the notion of register, we find that it is difficult to determine, because many texts contain admixtures of both scientific, literary, and other subject-matters.

We shall discuss some views put forward by Crystal and Davy and Widdowson in opposition to the notion of register. As an alternative to the notion of register, we shall discuss different classifications according to the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions of language presented by Halliday (1979, 1985).

Text typology presents another useful classificatory device. Texts, therefore, are expository, argumentative, and instructional which, in turn, have more delicate sub-classifications (see, for example 1.8 above). It might be instructive to note that what applies to the classifications according to register applies to those according to text types. Expository texts may include arguments and vice versa. An editorial may contain exposition as well as argumentation.

For the purposes of this study, we shall combine register and text type in one theory, producing a more elaborate classification of texts.

Chapter IV deals with the analysis of data. It will start with a questionnaire undertaken with the help of some 30 Syrian students doing post-graduate studies in the U.K. 21 questions were put concerning the degree of the satisfaction of these
students with the translation courses at Syrian universities, the difficulties they faced as undergraduates, the overall objectives of these courses, and other relevant areas which might lead to the improvement of these courses.

We shall discuss the content of the proposed syllabus, which consists of a Basic Stage, an Intermediate Stage, and an Advanced Stage. In the Basic Stage of the course, emphasis will be placed on building and consolidating the students' linguistic competence. The course content basically includes the following components: contrastive linguistics, translation theory, grammar, composition, linguistics, and lexicography.

The translation theory component will include teaching the Grammatical, the Cultural, and the Interpretive Models of translating. It will also include teaching translation techniques and procedures and discussing theoretical issues in translating such as translatability, equivalence, and units of translating.

Another component is Cultural studies. It will be included in the Basic and the Intermediate stages of the course. It will deal with important issues in translating, such as the relation between language and culture and ways of bridging cultural gaps between nations. The component will also include the following topics: discussions of the socio-economic, legal, and political systems of the languages concerned, philosophical and religious thinking, daily life and customs, colour terms, figurative speech, proverbs and epigrams, cultural distance, etc.

At the Advanced Stage (in the third and fourth years) Translation Assessment will be introduced as an integral part of the course. For the purposes of this study, early models of translation assessment will be reviewed and recent models, such as House's (1976) and Sager's (1983) will be discussed, pointing out modes of evaluation and types of error highlighted in these studies. The aim is to arrive at an eclectic model of translation quality assessment and to devise an adequate classification of errors.
For the same purposes, an assessment of two published translations will be undertaken: one of *The Struggle For Syria*, by Patrick Seale; the other of *Animal Farm*, by George Orwell. An Assessment will also be carried out on news reports taken from various newspapers and magazines, such as The Times, The Guardian, The Observer, The Independent, The Financial Times, The Economist, The New Statesman, and Time.

Chapter V consists in summary and recommendations. An outline of the proposed syllabus will be drawn, mentioning the numbers of credit hours each course component will be allocated.
List of Abbreviations

AF: Animal Farm
ALESCO: The Arab League Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation
ALT: Alternative
CL: Contrastive Linguistics
DE: The Dynamic Equivalence Method
ELT: English Language Teaching
ES: The Ethnographical Semantic Method
ESP: English for specific purposes
FLT: Foreign Language Teaching
L: Citation Line number
L1: First Language (The Native Language)
L2: Second Language (The Foreign Language)
LSP: Language for Specific Purposes
NR: News Report
P: Citation Page Number
SS: The Struggle For Syria
SL: Source Language
SLT: Source Language Text
SVO: Subject-Verb-Object
TA: Target Language Audience
TD: Translation Difficulty
T/ I: Translating and Interpreting
TL: Target Language
TLT: Target Language Text
TT: Translation Teaching
VSO: Verb-Subject-Object
Chapter One:

1.1. Terminology:
The word 'translation' has been used to refer to one of these categories:

a. Translation as the actual process of decoding the SLT and encoding the TLT.
b. Translation as the end-product, texts resulting from the process of decoding the SLT and encoding the TLT.
c. Translation as a useful technique in foreign language teaching. It is often referred to as 'the Grammar Translation Approach'.
d. Translation as an academic field, an interdisciplinary field which spans other disciplines such as linguistics, semiotics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, logic, psycholinguistics, and communication theory.

This field has been called 'Translation Studies' (Lefevere 1978, de Beaugrande 1978, Bassnett-McGuire 1980), 'the Science of Translation' (Nida 1964; Nida and Taber 1969), and 'Translation Science' (Wilss 1982). It is also referred to as 'Applied Translation Studies' (Hartmann 1981) which includes inter alia translation pedagogy and translation criticism. For the purposes of this dissertation the following terms will be adopted to function in the contexts assigned to them below:

- The term 'Translation' will be used throughout this study as far as possible to refer to the end-product, texts resulting from the actual process. It may also be used in such combinations as 'translation teaching', 'translation theory', 'translation studies', 'translation assessment', 'translation class', 'translation teacher', 'translation test', and 'translation texts'.

- The term 'Translating' will be used exclusively to refer to the process of decoding and encoding messages from a SL into a TL and vice versa. Its use is confined to rendering written messages as opposed to interpreting, which is concerned with oral messages.

- Translation Assessment is the academic and professional criticism and evaluation of translations.

- Translation Studies is the 'discipline which concerns itself
with the problems raised by the production and description of translation' (Lefevere: 1978: 234).

1.2 Language Studies:
With developments in linguistics early this century, following Ferdinand de Saussure's dichotomies: langue/ parole, signified/ signifier, syntagmatic/ paradigmatic, and synchronic/ diachronic, extensive research was undertaken with the aim of describing language empirically. The prevailing view was in favour of establishing an autonomous discipline, where language phenomena could be investigated and studied by means of rigorous procedures and methods, similar to those used in science.

Since the Forties, the craft of translation has been increasingly influenced by new emerging disciplines such as sociology, ethnography, psychology, and communication theory. However, old controversies concerning whether translation is an art or a science, whether translation should be literal or free, or 'whether any translation can give an adequate rendering of the form and content of the original text' (Despatie 1967: 22) have continued to be the subject of heated debates.

It was not until the Sixties that translating gathered momentum, gaining invaluable insights from Text Linguistics. This point will be dealt with in other parts of this dissertation, particularly when we discuss the Text Linguistic Method of translating. (C.f. section 1.8 below)

1.3 Language Studies and Translation Studies
It is axiomatic to say that language studies are closely interrelated with translation studies. L. G. Kelly (1979: 34) puts forward the claim that 'to each stream of language theory, there corresponds a theory of translation.' This is crystal clear given that every development in linguistic theory is usually followed by developments in translation studies, though this process is not commensurate.

Moreover, all linguistic schools or trends have devoted part of
their work to translation problems, attempting to devise 
translating procedures from different perspectives. Later trends 
in linguistics have laid emphasis on the need to set up a theory of 
translating armed with rigorous methods that the translator 
could employ to arrive at precise and more systematic results. 
(de Beaugrande 1978; de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981; Wilss 

The mutual influence between language and translation has been 
highlighted by linguists and translation theorists. J. Catford, for 
example, in the preface to his *A Linguistic Theory of Translation* 
articulates the proposition 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 language. It must, in other words, draw 
> upon a theory of language - a general linguistic theory. 
> (1965: vii)

Robert de Beaugrande, a prominent text linguist, was disappointed 
with early linguistic theories after de Saussure because they 
devoted themselves to aspects of language system *langue*, 
excluding most aspects of actual language use *parole*. He also 
expressed dissatisfaction with the vast contributions on 
translating, due to the fact that contributors did not have a good 
foundation in linguistics:

> ...but if we undertake to read through a representative 
> portion of available material, we notice that many 
> contributions have not in fact materially advanced the 
> foundation and development of a systematic theory for 
> the discipline of translation studies. The discussion 
> has been carried on to a large extent by contributors 
> lacking extensive exposure to language theory. (1978: 7)

A further instance of the relevance of language studies to 
translation studies is the fact that most translation theorists 
are linguists. For example, famous linguists such as Catford,
Nida, de Beaugrande, and Hartmann have applied current linguistic theories to the activity of translation, thus producing new translation theories based on linguistic theories.

J. Catford (1965) was influenced by Halliday's grammatical rank scale. Improving Halliday's distinction of language levels by introducing the distinction of the language substance (e.g. the phonic and the graphic), Catford presented a 'rank-bound' translation, i.e. a translation confined to a single rank, such as morpheme, word, or phrase. On the basis of the four levels of language, Catford proposed four types of translation: the phonological, the graphological, the grammatical, and the lexical. Indeed, he devoted three chapters of his book to the definitions and applications of these types. According to Hartmann:

It was this very idea of multi-level hierarchical structure which some linguists thought relevant to our understanding of translation. John Catford used a refinement of Michael Halliday's grammatical 'rank-scale' to underline the hypothesis that translating equivalence depends on the availability of formal correspondences between linguistic items of different structural levels and ranks. (1980: 53-54)

It might be useful to add that Catford was also influenced, to a great extent, by the famous anthropologist J. R. Firth in as far as 'situation substance' and 'contextual meaning' are concerned.

Eugene Nida, on the other hand, used Chomsky's transformational generative grammar in translating. He claimed that generative grammar was the most effective way to deal with translation problems, provided that such a grammar made full use of transformations. His approach to translation can be summarized as follows:

a) to reduce the source text to its structurally simplest and most semantically evident kernels;
b) to transfer the meaning from source language to receptor language on a structurally simple level; and
c) to generate the stylistically and semantically
In fact, he devised a back-transformation model, consisting of the procedures of analysis, deep-structure transfer, and restructuring, identifying model kernel sentences as the transitional stage between SL and TL structures to explain the process of translating.

The contributions to translating from Text Linguistics are immense and effective. De Beaugrande proposes the following as necessary components for a theory of poetic translating based on Text Linguistics:

a) the relevant language unit for translating is not the individual word or the single sentence, but rather the text...
b) translating should not be studied as a comparing and contrasting of two texts, but as a process of interaction between author, translator, and reader as the translator;
c) the interesting factors are therefore not text features themselves, but underlying strategies of language use as manifested in text features;
d) the strategies must be seen in relation to the context of communicating: the use of poetic language in texts represents a special context;
e) the act of translating is guided by several sets of strategies which respond to the directives within the text. One set accounts for the systematic differences between the two languages involved. A second set depends on the type of language use found in an individual text. A third set applies to systematic instructions for selecting equivalent items within their relevant contexts (1978: 13).

One major issue in text linguistics is the role of context in translating. By understanding context, text linguists can work out the strategies by means of which the translator analyses and reconstructs the SLT systematically. Another equally important
issue is text type. Text linguists set up text types each of which requires a different method of translating. They also highlight the importance of 'cohesive ties', 'structure', 'texture', 'intertextuality', etc. which can be considered useful and necessary, especially in the initial stages of reading and analysis. (C.f. 1.8: 35)

1.4. Theories of Translating:
Though there have been many serious attempts to arrive at a unified theory of translating, linguists and translation theorists are still in doubt about such a possibility. The idea of formulating a reliable theory is of a great significance, since it would systematize the methods and procedures of translating. Drawing on other theorists' experience, S. Chau summarises the situation:

> It can be misleading to talk about 'translation theories' as such, as if there are properly developed theoretical models or entities carefully considered by practitioners...one is repeatedly reminded that there are, after all, no significant translation theories. The very existence, possibility, and value of translation theories have been thrown into doubt. (1984b: 94)

It might be useful to refer briefly to different views on this matter put forward by linguists and translation theorists. Catford (1965: 20) argues that 'the theory of translation is concerned with a certain type of relation between languages and is consequently a branch of Comparative Linguistics'. Thus translating is defined as 'the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language TL.' (ibid.)

With this in mind, Catford distinguishes between different types of translation equivalence, i.e. textual equivalence and formal correspondence. Influenced by Halliday, Catford would naturally be concerned with translation equivalence as an empirical phenomenon. In other words, he is interested in formal correspondence. Unlike textual equivalence whose preciseness
depends on the intuition of 'a competent bilingual informant or translator', formal correspondence, on the other hand, is:

...any TL category (unit, class, structure, element of structure, etc.) which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the same 'place in the 'economy' of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL. (ibid.: 27)

Nida's theory of translating consists of the three procedures of analysis, deep structure transfer, and restructuring. His refined theory (1969) includes one more stage, namely testing. Analysis consists essentially in back-transformation to a near-kernel level. In this stage, the SLT must be read and studied carefully, and meaning must be extracted. Nida devises several stages of analysis, though in practice they overlap. They are: (1) lexicogrammatical features of the immediate units, (2) discourse context, (3) communicative context, (4) cultural context of the SL, and (5) the cultural context of the receptor language.

After analysing the SLT into its basic kernels, the result of the analysis is transferred into the TL. This stage is not as simple as it seems to be. In actual practice, the transfer of messages from the SL into the TL takes place at various sub-surface levels depending on the extent to which the two languages under consideration have corresponding semantic and grammatical structures. In fact, in the stage of transfer, the translator continually fluctuates between the stage of analysis and that of restructuring. That is to say there is no clear-cut division between these stages in the actual process of translating.

Preserving the meaning of the SL message is of top priority to the translator. Nida underlines this point by saying that transfer is not merely the transference of individual, disconnected kernels, but occurs at a point where these kernels are connected into meaningful series:

This means that we must modify slightly our diagram,
so that after having analyzed the basic components into their simplest relationships within kernels, we 'back up' to the point where these kernels are carefully and properly related to each other. (Nida and Taber 1969)

Restructuring the message involves adjustments at different levels: grammatical and semantic. In this stage, the translator should pay attention to the divergences of the two languages in terms of voice, word classes, connectors, etc. For instance, the Arabic sentence structure favours the use of the active more than the passive. That is why we more often render the active Arabic sentence into the passive when translating into English. Other adjustments are required in terms of language varieties or styles. Metaphorical expressions and idioms must also be modified to fit in with the TL culture.

The final stage in the process of translating is testing. It includes accuracy of rendering, readability, stylistic equivalence, etc. But in Nida's view, it is dynamic equivalence rather than verbal correspondence which should be the focus of attention.

The length of the translation compared to the original is also important. According to Nida (1969: 163), 'there is a tendency for all good translations to be somewhat longer than the originals.' Cultural and linguistic redundancies are ascribed by Nida to the desire of the translators to include all information stated in the original communication.

Nida applied certain methods to test ease of comprehension, predictability and readability. One such method is the Cloze technique where the degree of predictability, i.e. to guess the right word in the appropriate context, and readability of texts are measured, a concept derived from information theory. Nida also suggested other practical tests such as: reaction to alternatives, explaining the contents, reading the text aloud, and the publication of sample material, all of which proved to be very helpful and easy to apply.

Nida concludes that the ultimate criterion in distinguishing good
translations from bad translations is dynamic equivalence. In translations which use the Dynamic Equivalence Method, on the one hand, the form is structured to preserve the same meaning by deploying different syntax and lexicon. In bad translations which use formal correspondence, on the other hand, the form is preserved by sticking to the same word classes and word order while the meaning is lost or distorted. Bad translations also result from using techniques like paraphrase by addition, deletion, or skewing of the message.

So far I have been discussing different theoretical views on translating. The real issue at hand is whether these individual views can form a unified theory of translation. Newmark claims that translation theory is a label, a framework of principles:

> It is neither a theory nor a science, but the body of knowledge that we have and have still to acquire about the process of translating...Its main concern is to determine appropriate translation methods for the widest possible range of texts or text categories. (1981: 19)

Newmark makes a distinction between translation theory and contrastive linguistics. To him, any comparing and contrasting of two languages, such as Catford's example about grammatical differences between languages in number and gender, may help the student to translate but does not contribute to translation theory.

Ian Mason (1982) further explains that the difference between translation theory and contrastive linguistics boils down to the difference between langue and parole:

> The text containing the message to be translated is an instance of parole. Consequently, theoretical equivalence at the level of langue is not necessarily relevant to the process of translating. The focus is on the text rather on the language. (1982: 20)
Mason, however, does not believe in ruling out the benefit of contrastive linguistics completely. It can be useful at certain levels: 'at the level of langue, certain generalisations may be made which are sufficiently powerful to support rules of translation.' He illustrates this by explaining that certain losses and gains of information in the process of translation are due to the absence or presence of gender, definiteness and indefiniteness, and difference in number between the SL and the TL. This can be compensated for with the assistance of contrastive linguistics, which demonstrates 'the obligatory loss of information in translation involved in the non-isomorphic grammatical categories of two languages'. (ibid.)

Having discussed different translation theorists' views on theories of translation, I would like to proceed to the value of translation theory in actual practice, an important topic of debate in recent research. The point that there are sceptics who doubt the practical value of translation theory is supported by the fact that people who are practising translation as a profession have not appreciated the importance of translation theory, though there is a common belief that translation theory can serve, at least in the preliminary stage of analysis, as a guide to translation practice.

No doubt the theory of translating is flourishing and its impact on the practice of translating is acquiring weight. However, there are some translation theorists who believe that the impact of translation theory is inadequate. Vilen Kommissarov, for example, suggests the following reasons for such inadequacy:

First of all, few translators have a clear idea of what it has accomplished. Publications on translation theory are too varied, and their findings are not easy to fit into a consistent pattern. Moreover, in order to fully grasp theoretical principles the reader must have a good command of specific terminology, which many translators do not. Then it should be noted that theoretical findings are not always directly applicable... Many principles describing the basic
linguistic mechanism of translation cannot be directly applied to the work of the human translator. True, these are often used as a basis for practical recommendations, but the latter will not be fully understood by the translator in the field unless he is aware of the underlying theoretical basis. (1985: 208)

But if we give the matter some thought we realize that theory and practice are complementary. They are the two sides of the same coin. The translator, while practising his skill, is aware of certain theoretical strategies which can help him in solving problems. In fact, theory provides him with alternatives leaving him to make the decision. The problem with translation theory is that it has to meet the great demands which are made of it, i.e. greater involvement in the actual process of translating. But to tell the translator how to translate is not the task of translation theory, as Kommissarov asserts:

Translation theory is not supposed to provide the translator with ready-made solutions of his problems. Theory is no substitute for proper thinking or decision-making. It may narrow the choice or provide a point of departure for the translator's consideration, but it cannot guarantee the successful outcome of the translating process. Theoretical recommendations are always of a more general nature. They are formulated to assist the translator in his work, but final success depends on whether they are properly and successfully applied by the translator in each particular case. (ibid.: 208-9)

Whatever the case may be, the theory of translating is still expanding and its contributions to translating cannot be denied.

1.5. Classification of Theories of Translating:
Nida (1976) classifies theories of translating into three main categories:
1- Philological
2- Linguistic
3- Sociolinguistic
These will be discussed in turn below.

1.5.1 Philological Theories of translating:
Philological theories of translating (also called 'pre-linguistic) evolved before the development of modern linguistics, approximately before the Second World War. They were formulated at a time when philology was the discipline that shouldered the responsibility of studying language. Philological theories of translation focus primarily on literary texts taking no interest in other fields such as science and technology, commerce, and law.

Philological theories of translating deal with the problem of the equivalence of literary texts by comparing and contrasting the SL and the TL. They also focus on the literary quality, i.e. the form of the text and its stylistic features and rhetorical devices. One of the major preoccupations of philological theories of translating is the discussion of literary works of high quality such as Shakespeare's works.

Another major issue in philological theories of translating is the problem of equivalence of literary genres between the SL and the TL. The question whether poetry should be translated as poetry or prose or whether an epic in the SL should be rendered as such in the TL was one of the main obsessions of such theories. One can safely include here all the old controversies on translation, e.g. whether translation is an art or a science, whether it should concentrate on the form or the content of the message, and the aims of translation. In fact, traditional rules and directives for translators were on a philological basis.

Nida lists a number of works as representative of philological theories of translation. Savory's The Art of Translation (1957) falls under this category. Other works which are philologically-oriented are Belloc's (1931), Cary and Jumpelt's Quality in Translation (1963), and Brower's On Translation (1966) to mention but a few. Nida also regards most articles published in Babel as philological in perspective. Newmark (1981: 4) lists a
number of earlier writings on translation, from St. Jerome (400), by way of Luther (1530), Dryden (1684), Tytler (1790), Novalis (1798), Goethe (1813), Schleiermacher (1813), Humboldt (1816), Schopenhauer (1851), Arnold ([1865] 1928), Nietzsche (1882), Croce (1922), Benjamin (1923), and Belloc (1924), ending with Ortega y Gasset (1937).

1.5.2 Linguistic Theories of Translating:
According to Nida:

Linguistic theories of translation are based on a comparison of linguistic structures of source and receptor texts rather than on a comparison of literary genres and stylistic features. (1976: 69)

These theories developed as a result of the great development in modern linguistic theories, and the tendency to study language scientifically. The findings of these linguistic theories were applied to other related areas such as language teaching and translating. However, little benefit came out of these theories, since they were confined to the study of idealized constructions, with meaning left out of account.

Later, when meaning was reinstated by linguists and anthropologists such as Bloomfield, Malinowski, and Firth, all aspects of meaning were investigated, and new insights about the nature of meaning were provided. Thus, linguists and translation theorists were motivated to propose that translation theory 'is mainly an aspect of semantics; all questions of semantics relate to translation theory'. (Newmark: 1981: 5)

One major difference between linguistic theories of translating and philological theories of translating is that linguistic theories are descriptive rather than prescriptive. They demonstrate how people translate rather than how they should translate. This does not imply that all linguistic theories are the same, or there would be one standard theory only. They differ in terms of focus or perspective. According to Nida:
The principal differences between various linguistic theories (or semi-theories) of translation lie in the extent to which the focus is on surface structures or corresponding deep structures. Theories based on surface-structure comparisons involve the use of more-or-less elaborate sets of rules for matching roughly corresponding structures. (1976)


1.5.3 Sociolinguistic Theories of Translating:
Sociolinguistic theories of translating emerged out of the dissatisfaction with linguistic theories of translating, and the growing interest in communication. Such interest resulted from the work of anthropologists who recognized the role of text recipients in the process of translating. Those changes are demonstrated in Nida (1964).

Generally speaking, some linguistic theories of translating have demonstrated sociolinguistic influences by referring to the context of communication. For example, though Catford's theory of translating (1965) is primarily linguistic and related to surface structure equivalence, it moves in the direction of the context of situation in its emphasis on the differences between dialects and registers.

Sociolinguistic theories of translating relate linguistic structures to a higher level where they can be viewed in terms of their function in communication. When discussing a text, the sociolinguist is concerned particularly with its author, its historical background, the circumstances involved in its
production, and the history of its interpretation, for such elements figure in the social setting of communication.

Nida and Taber (1969), for example, have pointed out that the old focus on the form of the message in translating has shifted to the receptors, i.e. the readers. Therefore, it is the reader's response to the translated message that determines the correctness of that message. They set the average reader as the only criterion for measuring correctness in translating. Correctness, in their view, is not only the possibility of understanding the message by readers but rather the impossibility of misunderstanding it.

In their *The Theory and Practice of Translation* (1969: 127), Nida and Taber are fully aware of certain social factors such as age, sex, educational levels, occupation, social class, and religious affiliation. Such factors affect linguistic variation and need to be accounted for in translating. Drawing on Martin Joos's distinction of different styles, Nida and Taber produce a similar list which comprises the following: technical, formal, informal, casual, and intimate.

Formal style, for example, is designed for a relatively wider audience than that of technical style. Technical style, on the other hand, is used among specialists; hence it is intended for a restricted audience, because it utilizes complicated vocabulary and complex grammatical constructions. Therefore, when translating, one should be aware of the fact that there are several styles at work which must be rendered into the TL.

In observing different styles in translating, the translator is achieving a near dynamic equivalence. Accordingly, 'lyric poetry should sound like poetry and not like an essay; letters should sound like letters and not like some technical treatise on theology.' (Nida and Taber 1969:129)

Similarly, to measure this dynamic equivalence, in Nida and Taber's view:
We can only rightly compare the equivalence of response, rather than the degree of agreement between the original source and the later receptors, for we cannot presume that the source was writing for this 'unknown audience' or that the monolingual receptors in the second language have enough background to understand the setting of the original communication. (ibid: 23)

This will be dealt with in detail when we discuss the Dynamic Equivalence Method in translating (see 1.6.2.2 below).

One difference between sociolinguistic theories of translating and linguistic ones is that in sociolinguistic theories langue, the language system, is as important as parole, the actual use of language. Like linguistic theories of translating, sociolinguistic theories are descriptive. 'The response of the receptors must be in terms of the actual response to similar types of texts, and in terms of what might be regarded as judicial or legal norms.' (Nida 1976: 77)

Nida lists the following works as representative: Nida (1964), Catford (1965), Nida and Taber (1969), Neubert (1968), Thieberger (1972), and Fourquet (1972).

Nida concludes that such classification of theories of translating does not exist in actual practice. The translator selects the theory and method of translating that he regards most appropriate to the kind and type of text he is dealing with. This does not imply that he cannot change to other theories or methods if that is necessary. For a prospective theory of translating, Nida (ibid.: 78) believes it should be primarily sociolinguistic 'because translating always involves communication within the context of interpersonal relations'. Such a comprehensive theory will be reliable, and will be able to deal with all the factors that are involved in and influence the nature of translating.

It might be useful to mention that Nida's classification of theories of translating is general, since the labels he has adopted
to describe these theories cover many theories. For example, linguistic theories subsume all theories which focus on both deep and surface structures. The majority of modern linguistic theories have a communicative dimension (e.g. Catford). By the same token, sociolinguistic theories have a bearing on linguistic theories.

1.6 Models of Translating:
I shall now discuss Chau's classification of theories of translating, which can be considered more specific, up-to-date, and more systematic than Nida's. Chau prefers the word 'model' to theory. In doing so, he actually subscribes to Crystal's definition of the term as:

> A detailed and systematic analogy constructed in order to visualize some aspects or function of language that is not directly observable, and whose significance might otherwise be missed. In other words, it is intermediate between the very general concept of 'theory' and the highly specific concept of 'hypothesis'.

(1971: 114)

According to Chau, the methods included in each model are meant to be 'specific means of application of a particular model, based on particular views or attitudes to the process of translating' (1984b:120). Unlike the three models, these methods are in no way exhaustive, as their description in this study is used to illustrate the scope and nature of the models.

While Chau proposes this classification of theories of translating, he accepts that such a classification is 'a matter of convenience, and thus necessarily artificial, idealistic, and even simplistic'. He illustrates this point by referring to a real teaching situation. It might be the rule that teachers in real teaching situations choose one of the models or methods and subscribe to it to the exclusion of other models or methods. For him, this is wrong and the teacher must make use of all the models and methods in different situations.
A cursory look at the curricula of the existing translation courses bears witness to this. Though it is better to vary the methods of translating by making use of all models, since 'all translation teaching is a mixture', the fact has proved to be the opposite. Every translation teacher applies one of these methods which he is disposed to, demonstrating its advantages in providing solutions to translation problems with little or no reference to other methods.

1.6.1 The Grammatical Model of Translating:

This approach to translating and translation teaching is based on translation theories which regard translating as solely a linguistic operation. The distinctive feature of this model is its association of translating with grammatical transfer. Within such a perspective, language is viewed as grammar, and translating is no more than substituting the grammar and vocabulary of one language for the grammar and vocabulary of another.

Along these lines, translating has been defined as 'the replacement of SL grammar and lexis by equivalent TL grammar and lexis' (Catford 1965: 22). Underlying this attitude is the assumption that language is an objective code with a fixed structure.

According to Chau, this approach to translating is anti-mentalistic in focusing on grammatical structure, while leaving meaning out of account. The task of translating is considered a symbol-to-symbol transformation. Linguistic signs, therefore, are supposed to be essentially objective, allowing for a one-to-one unidimensional matching of codes.

When translating, one is operating at the level of langue rather than parole. The unit of translating is either the word or the sentence. The Grammatical Model, therefore, yields a literal translation with cultural differences between the two languages ignored. In terms of translation teaching, contrastive grammar is
the sole method adopted in this model.

Chau distinguishes two methods of translation based on the Grammatical Model:
1- The Traditional Grammar Method
2- The Formal Linguistic Method

1.6.1.i. The Traditional Grammar Method;
According to Chau, this method is basically an adaptation of a method of foreign language teaching which is a direct application of 'Traditional Grammar'. According to Despatie, the underlying theory of such a method reigned till the beginning of the Twentieth Century and:

...postulated the identity of the human mind, the universality of the forms of thought and knowledge. It is assumed that we all had the same thinking about the universe, for example about time and space, and that the idea of grammar was to see how these universal notions were classified in a particular language. It also assumed that there existed a 'model' grammar, the exemplary set of categories to classify the forms and the task of the grammarian was to find the meanings, in his language, corresponding to those forms and categories. (1967: 26-27)

This method is prescriptive since it takes Greek grammar, studied directly or indirectly through its Latin adaptations, as its model. According to this view, 'translating is the search for the correct TL equivalent lexicon/sentence via grammar.' (Chau 1984b: 122)

As far as translation teaching is concerned, this method is popular and practical with beginners who know very little about translating. It is easy for these students, whose mastery of the foreign language is inadequate, to study the parts of speech of that language and try to replace them by equivalents in their own language. For them, word-for-word translating or rather the
substitution of one part of speech by its equivalent in the TL may be the one and only method of translating.

Though it is the responsibility of the translation teacher to highlight similarities and differences of parts of speech and sentence patterns between different languages, some translation teachers believe that the task lies primarily within the scope of language courses and not translation courses. In the context of English/Arabic translating, I believe it is essential to demonstrate to students differences of grammatical categories between Arabic and English. Arabic verbs cannot necessarily be translated into equivalent verbs in English. For example, the verb *ghadiba* can best be rendered by an adjective preceded by the verb 'to be' as 'was angry'.

Similarly, differences between English and Arabic in terms of definiteness and indefiniteness, number and gender must be illustrated. Methods of compensating for the loss due to these differences should be provided. As mentioned earlier, this kind of instruction has been restricted to the scope of contrastive grammar, which is a common denominator in both methods of the Grammatical Model.

In foreign language teaching, the Grammar-Translation Approach was long criticised for being out of fashion. Yet, it has recently had its credibility restored. In translation teaching, the Traditional Grammar Method continues to be used on a large scale especially in the teaching of beginners. According to Chau (1984b:126), 'Traditional Grammar TT never dies. It fulfills a need in the training process.'

**1.6.1.ii The Formal Linguistic Method:**

This method of translating has evolved with the development in structural linguistics in the Sixties. That is why the theory it underlies is considered scientific as opposed to the pre-scientific Traditional Grammar Method. Although both methods are equally static in outlook in so far as they examine *langue* and exclude *parole*, the Formal Linguistic Method overshadows its
counterpart in that it is descriptive rather than prescriptive. While Traditional Grammar subjectively defines classes and assigns rules for language based on meaning, Formal Grammar does so objectively based on the structural analysis of phonology, morphology, and syntax.

In the light of this new approach the focus of attention has been laid on the arbitrary nature of grammatical forms in relation to their meanings. The old belief in the universality of the meanings of parts of speech in different languages has been utterly rejected. The new trend holds that there is no exact equivalence between languages.

With the help of anthropologists, new insights have been gained from the study of language in relation to culture. Incompatibilities have been highlighted, especially among languages belonging to different language groups or origins. Accordingly:

It was found out that each language expressed not only a different classification of reality. Each one reflected, or even imposed upon the speaker, a different way of analyzing experience. Finally, each language, as part of a particular culture, could be understood only in its cultural setting. (Despatie 1967:32)

Thus, much attention was devoted to the highlighting of structural differences between languages in terms of gender, number, cohesive devices, etc. (For a detailed account of these differences, see Despatie 1967: 32-36; see also Catford 1965). In other words, Formal Linguists have discovered that the traditional classification of parts of speech was inadequate to account for the diversity of word classes in various languages. These new discoveries were seen by many linguists as having added new difficulties to translating.

In terms of translation teaching, many translation teachers are obsessed with grammar so much that contrastive grammar is the
only method of translation teaching. Their sole aim in translating is the replacement of the SL structure by the TL structure paying no attention to the possibility that the reader may not understand the translation, owing to the difference between the world-views expressed in the translation and those of the social system which he belongs to. (C.f. Nida 1964, Nida and Taber 1969, Catford 1965, and Chau 1983;1984a,b)

Catford’s A Linguistic Theory of Translation may be regarded as a representative of the Formal Linguistic Method. In giving priority to formal correspondence over textual translation equivalence, Catford advocates a rank-bound translation based on formal linguistic units. He makes this quite clear when he defines total translation as 'the replacement of SL grammar and lexis by equivalent TL grammar and lexis with consequential replacement of SL phonology/ graphology.' (1965: 19)

Though Catford’s approach to translating is primarily Formal Linguistic in focussing on formal aspects of language, it can be said to have touched upon and even overlapped with other models like the Cultural and the Interpretive. In discussing the relativity of colour terms in different languages, Catford is actually dealing with meaning, which falls within the scope of the Cultural Model. On the same score, when he discusses contextual meaning and features of situation-substance such as stress, intonation and focus, he is also studying context which is related to the Interpretive Model in general, and to the Text Analysis Method in particular.

Formal Linguistic translation teachers accept Bloomfield’s postulate that although 'forms cannot be separated from their meanings...we must start from forms and not from meanings' (Bloomfield 1933, quoted in Despatie 1967: 62). In line with this, what these teachers actually produce is a kind of literal translation with pragmatic and semiotic contextual values unaccounted for.

In fact, both methods of the Grammatical Model have proved
ineffective in translating proverbs, since they only take care of the literal meaning.

1.6.2 The Cultural Model:
This approach to translating and translation teaching is based on the theory of language which defines meaning in terms of its cultural fields and contexts. According to this view, language is culture; translating is describing and explaining the world view of one people to another. Underlying this view is the hypothesis of 'language relativity' put forward by Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf early this century.

Such a hypothesis postulates that every language not only provides a means of communication for its speakers but also imposes on them a different vision of the world, a different way of analysing experience. In this way, language determines the way its speakers look at the world and the way they express their own thoughts. It follows from this that any form of intercultural communication is difficult if not impossible. Sapir makes this quite clear:

No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds not merely the same world with different labels attached. (Sapir 1956: 69, cited in Chau 1984b:136)

However, such a strong view is not unanimously held. Other proponents of the cultural view of language, while subscribing to Sapir's opinion that languages differ enormously, regard translating as a possible task if it is carried out between cultures rather than between languages. Casagrande develops the argument further:

The attitudes and values, the experience and tradition of a people inevitably become involved in the freight of meaning carried by a language. In effect, one does not translate LANGUAGES, one translates CULTURES.(1954:338, original emphasis)
Accordingly, translating is an intercultural operation which poses many serious problems to the translator. These problems are the product of the many cultural differences between the two languages concerned. They stem from differences in the ecological, social, political, ideological, and religious aspects of the lives of both cultures.

Chau (1984a, b) distinguishes between two methods of the Cultural Model:
1- The Ethnographical Semantic Method ES
2- The Dynamic Equivalence Method DE

1.6.2.i The Ethnographical Semantic Method:
Unlike grammarians, especially Formal ones, who avoid meaning, Ethnographical Semanticists face it directly. They are convinced that the meaning of words according to the traditional classification of parts of speech is inadequate. For them, such a classification is superficial, arbitrary, and language-bound. They believe that 'meaning' is culture-bound and cannot be separated from language itself.

Proponents of the ES are 'particularists', who take the strong view of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of 'language relativity', which postulates that there is little in common between languages. The conclusion which can be reached from this is that cultural gaps among languages are inevitable and are not always bridgeable. However, some theorists believe that though there is a problem when translating across cultures, the cultural gaps can be narrowed and experiences can be matched to a certain extent.

Other proponents of the ES take a more liberal stand by saying that there is no problem of cultural gaps in translating at all. According to Casagrande:

In spite of the various difficulties standing in the way of translation..., the fact remains that information is effectively communicated across language barriers-
intentions of speakers expressed in one language ARE capable of being expressed in another language so that they are comprehended and appreciated. If there is a loss of information in this process of switching codes, it must be remembered that much information is also lost in messages transmitted between members of the same speech community, particularly if they belong to different sub-cultures of status groups. (ibid.: 338-9, original emphasis)

Aware of the difficulties involved in intercultural translating, Ethnographical Semanticists devised various techniques such as componential analysis of meaning. Componential analysis is a way to assess the meanings of individual words. It can help the translator by providing him with insights into the distinctive features that underlie the contrasts between apparently equivalent terms in two languages.

In terms of translation teaching, Ethnographical Semantic translating teachers concentrate on contrasts between various cultures, demonstrating to the students how different people conceptualise and dissect the world differently. The students are trained to attain the maximum degree of sensitivity to the culture-bound elements inherent in each lexical item. Comparisons of kinship systems and colour terms in different languages are also common semantic exercises. The students are taught how different languages dissect the spectrum differently.

As far as colour terms are concerned, some languages do not have words to express a certain colour term in another language. For example, Ewe, an African language, does not have a specific term for the colour 'yellow'. Native speakers of that language, therefore, tend to make up a compound such as 'ripe-leave' to denote that colour.

The ES Method operates on the level of langue. It confines itself to the level of the word and the sentence as the units of examination and of translating.
1.6.2.ii The Dynamic Equivalence Method:
For a long time, this method has been known by different designations or labels, which may not be identical in content. For instance, this method has been known as 'the Principle of Equivalent Effect' (Koller 1972). It has also been known as 'Communicative Translation' (Newmark 1981), and as 'Cultural Translation (Catford 1965), etc. It can also be considered a modern and a refined version of the old notion of 'free' or 'idiomatic' translation, as opposed to word-for-word translating. Newmark advocates the paramountcy of this method:

Werner Koller has rightly pointed out that the principle that the translator should produce the same effect on his readers as the SL author produced on the original readers (first stated, I believe, by P. Caur in 1896 and usually referred to as the principle of similar or equivalent response or effect, or, by E.A. Nida, as the principle of Dynamic equivalence) is becoming generally superordinate, both in translation theory and practice, to the principle of primacy of form and primacy of content. The principle of equivalent-effect is the one basic-guideline in translation...(1981: 132)

The major difference between this method and the ES is that while Ethnographical Semanticists are 'particularists', who view languages as having very little in common, the proponents of the DE method are 'universalists' who believe that languages have much in common and 'anything that can be said in one language can be said in another, unless the form is an essential element of the message'. (Nida and Taber 1969:1)

According to this method, the end-product is not another message, but the closest natural equivalent. Instead of concentrating on cultural contrasts and on comparative ethnography, this method focuses on reader's response. The TLT should evoke an equivalent response on the TL reader as did the SLT on its reader. In fact, DE translating emphasizes the purpose of communication.
Unlike the ES method which operates on the level of **langue**, DE operates on the level of **parole**. This makes it much more welcomed by linguists and theorists than its counterpart, as it regards the recipients as part of the translating process. As in the ES Method, the word and the sentence are also regarded as the units of examination. Equivalence, therefore, is often sought at the level of sentences and lexical items.

Since Nida's (1964) distinction between dynamic equivalence and formal correspondence, the emphasis of DE has been on the liberation of form, though the DE Method relies equally on adjustments of content as well.

The Cultural Model of translating differs from the Grammatical one in that it concerns itself with the semantic aspects of language defined in cultural terms rather than with the syntactic aspects of the languages concerned. Thus, the role of the translator is to substitute one cultural system for another. This is incompatible with the role of the translator in the Grammatical Model, which is tantamount to the substitution of one linguistic code for another.

Finally, it must be pointed out that the Cultural Model, the DE Method in particular, pays attention to context, though to the cultural context only. In this way, it converges with the Interpretive Model, the Text Analysis Method in particular. For example, in Arabic there are no such unspecific kinship terms as the English 'cousin', 'uncle', 'aunt'.

When translating the word 'cousin' into Arabic, we have to determine the exact blood relationship between the two persons in question so as to arrive at the precise rendering. The translator has to select the appropriate word, by depending necessarily on the proper context, from the eight possible translations of the word 'cousin'. (See Ch. IV for more details)

**1.6.3 The Interpretive Model:**
With the emergence of text linguistics in the Seventies, the preoccupation with morphemes, words, or isolated sentences as units for studying language has been abandoned and claims for an alternative above-the-sentence unit, 'text', as the proper unit of examination have been upheld. Also at the same time, there has been a major shift of interest in modern linguistics towards expanding the emphasis from the level of langue to that of parole. According to Chau:

The emphasis on parole has become all the more obvious with the vigorous development of text linguistics since around 1970. Within its boundary, various research areas, including text typology, text grammar, text theory, and text analysis, have attracted a great amount of enthusiasm. (1984b:112)

Bassnett-McGuire (1980: 79) sums up the characteristic features of this new trend in linguistics:

1- the text is regarded as the relevant unit for examination;
2- meaning is studied in relation to co-text and context;
3- efforts are made to discover recurrent patterns of structure common among texts of the same type;
4- the place of the reader, as a producer rather than the consumer of the text, is re-evaluated.

Being based on Text-Linguistics, the Interpretive Model of translating shares the same characteristics (Lefevere 1980:154-56; de Beaugrande 1978: 7):

1- unlike the Grammatical and the Cultural Models, the Interpretive Model operates on the level of text. Translating is basically a text to text operation, rather than an interlingual or intercultural operation.

2- the Interpretive Model rejects the view inherent in the
Grammatical Model that translating means decoding and encoding. The task of the translator is not to match the SL text code with that of the TL code but to interpret the SLT, i.e. to reconstruct its meaning first then to convey it to the reader of the TL.

Nida points out the difficulty, or rather the impossibility, of divorcing text interpretation from translating when he says:

> All translators somehow interpret the Bible. The so-called objective, scientific translation does not exist. We all have to recognize that the moment we try to understand what the author wanted to say, we begin to interpret the message. (Nida 1968, quoted in Chau 1984b: 144)

Thus the translator is seen once and for all as a text interpreter who not only reconstructs the text but also recreates its past. According to Steiner:

> A text is embedded in specific historical time; it has what linguists call a diachronic structure. To read fully is to restore all that one can of the immediacies of values and intent in which speech actually occurs. (1975: 24)

Such emphasis on the role of the translator as reader is in line with recent developments in the field of semiotics. The reader is viewed not so much as a consumer of the text but as a producer. He uses all his previous experience and knowledge of previous texts to interpret the text at hand;

3- the third feature of the Interpretive Model is its emphasis on studying meaning in relation to co-text and context;

4- the fourth feature of the Interpretive Model is the classification of texts into different text types, an operation considered quite useful in translating. Many classifications have eventually emerged differing from each other in terms of focus. These classifications will be dealt with when we discuss the
Text Typological Model in translating. (See section 1.7 below)

It might be useful to note that not all proponents of the Interpretive Model agree on the second characteristic of the model described above, i.e. the reader is seen as a producer of the text. They mainly disagree on how the reader can fulfill his role as a text producer. Chau (1984a, b) identifies two prevalent contemporary views within this model:

1- The Text Analysis Method
2- The Hermeneutic Method

1.6.3.1 The Text Analysis Method:
This method is based on Text Linguistic Theories, and also makes use of insights derived from other adjacent disciplines such as pragmantics, semiotics, sociolinguistics, literary criticism, stylistics, rhetoric, and communication theory. Its very existence hinges on the assumption that context has a major role in text interpretation. By carefully analysing the co-text, the translator will be able to arrive at a full reading of the text and, eventually, be able to recreate the original situation.

The Text Analysis Method emphasizes the study of meaning in relation to co-text and context. Proponents of the Text Analysis Method maintain that words as such cannot be translated and that context is paramount in translating. Newmark (1973: 9) emphasizes this role of context in translating saying that 'Context is the overriding factor in all translations, and has primacy over any rule, theory, or primary meaning.'

The importance of context for the study of meaning was for a long time overlooked by Formal Linguists who laid more emphasis on studying forms. It was not until the Fifties that the significance of context was highlighted by J. Firth, who developed his own theory by modifying Malinowski's conception of the 'context of situation'. Later, Neubert and other translation theorists (e.g. Kade and Jager et al) were the first to emphasize the pragmatic element of context in translating.
Apart from context, a full grasp of the meaning of a text cannot be achieved without reference to co-text, i.e. the linguistic context. The Text Analysis Method pays as much attention to this point as it does to context. Just as one has to treat the text as a whole as a unit of translating, one cannot translate isolated words or sentences unless they are part of a complete discourse which is, in turn, embedded in a more general context of situation. Through the study of co-text, context can be recreated and a full reading of the text can be obtained.

The most important feature of this method, which distinguishes it from all the previous methods, is that it regards the text rather than the words or individual sentences as the unit of examination. Like every reader, the translator takes into consideration the whole communicative event.

The Text Analysis Method utilises a variety of adjacent disciplines for analysing the SLT such as comparative grammar, comparative ethnology, sociology, stylistics, literary criticism, and semiotics.

It is believed by many contemporary translation theorists that Text Linguistics is a reliable aid for the translator as it assists him in interpretation. De Beaugrande (1978), for example, hypothesizes the setting of a Text Linguistic translating model and draws a general outline of such a model. This model will lay emphasis on text as the relevant unit of translating.

A Text Linguistic Model of translating will also pay attention to all factors of communication, and sees translating as a process of interaction between author, translator, and TLT reader in a real-life situation. The primary concern of Text Linguistic Theories of Translating is the establishment of strategies which facilitate the job of the translator by systematising the methods and the procedures of translating. As mentioned earlier, Text Linguistic Translation Theorists classify different text types, each of which has its own distinctive features and, accordingly,
its different methods of translating.

In terms of translation teaching, the students are trained to be sensitive to language use, to background 'clue hunting', and writing in different styles and different text types. Neubert (1968, 1980) for example, classified texts according to their translatability and discussed the relevance of text types to the process of translating.

Classifying text types has attracted a great deal of attention and zest and has been regarded as the most relevant of all areas of Text Linguistics to translation studies. Many classifications have eventually emerged differing from each other in terms of orientation. These classifications will be dealt with when we discuss the Text Typological Model in translating (see 1.7 below).

The major disadvantage of the Text Analysis Method, however, is its reliance on the notion of 'register' in classifying texts. Register theory has for a long time been used for that purpose. It has proved to be inadequate for two reasons:

Firstly, the analysis of text samples according to Register Theory was based on such loosely defined notions as 'field' or subject matter, 'mode' or the channel of communication (spoken or written), and 'tenor' the degree of formality.

Secondly, the analysis was inadequate because it mainly used quantitative techniques. The Text Analyst makes a quantitative analysis of the selected samples by counting the various lexicogrammatical features to reach conclusions. Applying these word-counts will result in statements like the following: 'this text has a high frequency of passive verbs, its field is science; scientific texts, therefore, are characterised by a high occurrence of passive verbs.' (For a detailed account of the Notion of Register, see chapter III below)

To sum up, the Text Analysis Method, though more sophisticated and more helpful to students than the Grammatical and the
Cultural Models, is inadequate because it relies on indiscriminate selections of samples as well as on quantitative analysis.

1.6.3.ii The Hermeneutic Method:
Unlike all the translation methods discussed so far, the Hermeneutic Method is not based on current trends in linguistics or other related disciplines. Rather, it is associated with a predominantly German School of Philosophy, namely: 'Existential Hermeneutics.' This school has recently flourished as a result of Martin Heidegger's conception of 'Philosophical' or 'Existential' Hermeneutics. Another philosopher, Hans-Georg Gadamer, has considered the influence of Hermeneutics on translating.

While all the other methods are 'epistemic', the Hermeneutic Method is 'ontological' in that the interpretation of the SLT is conducted on a metaphysical plane. To the proponents of this method, interpretation is not merely recreating the 'meaning' hidden in the texts, as Text Analysts do. The text, instead of being an 'object', is a 'co-subject' with which the translator as interpreter 'falls into a dialogue to create new meanings' (Chau 1983: 131; 1984b: 150). Thus, the idea of 'objective' understanding, which is upheld by Text Analysts, is rejected and the possibility of a uniquely definitive reading is ruled out.

While Text Linguists deny Hermeneutics the status of a theory, undermining the usefulness of its insights especially in TT, some of them do believe that Hermeneutics is closely related to the activity of translating, as Wilss points out:

Hermeneutics is linked to translating: Interpreting the source text is one of the translator's primary tasks, and it is important for translators to understand the problems of understanding and interpreting. (1982; 77)

One of the essential elements of ontological understanding, ignored by the scientific approach, is historicality. The translator assumes an interactive role which consists in mediating past meaning into the present situation. Gadamer
calls this 'bridging of temporal and spatial gulfs the fusion of the interpreter's and the author's horizons' in which the text and the interpreter remain in tension but 'continually grow together to make something of living value, without either being explicitly distinguished from the other'. (Gadamer 1975: 273, quoted in Chau 1984b: 152)

There are many insights that a translator can gain from Hermeneutics. Chau (1984b:74-6) lists the following:

   a) there is no truly 'objective' understanding;
   b) prejudices' are unavoidable and can be positive;
   c) there is no final or definitive reading;
   d) the interpreter cannot but change the meaning of the SL;
   e) no translation can represent its source text fully;
   f) understanding is not always explicable.

Useful as they are, these insights constitute a real obstacle to any translation teaching course, as they imply the non-existence of any systematic procedures of handling translating.

According to this method, meaning is defined in terms of 'intersubjective recreation' where the 'historical situation' of the interpreter plays a significant role. In this respect, one can conclude that no two interpretations of the same text by the same reader is the same. Gadamer (1976: xxiv) rules out the possibility of 'a definitive, canonical interpretation.'

Proponents of the Hermeneutic Method believe that Hermeneutics is complementary to other methods of translating. While accepting the fact that insights derived from other methods are useful, they hold that they are inadequate as they are not interpretation. A translation must be an interpretation, which is the ultimate aim of Hermeneutics, as Gadamer puts it:

   Every translation is... ipso facto interpretation, indeed we can say it is the consummation of the interpretation the translator has put upon the work he is faced with. (1960: 360, quoted in Chau 1984b: 152)
George Steiner's *After Babel: Aspects of Language and Translation* (1975) is a typical case of the Hermeneutic Method.

Teaching according to the Hermeneutic Method is described by Chau (1984a: 155) as 'less systematic and less readily digestible than the other methods'. Student-beginners often find this method disappointing. These students need very direct and systematic methods to help them to translate.

In terms of actual teaching according to this method, the students are trained to criticize texts and to recreate them. This is a hard task for both students and teachers, since there is no single fixed criterion for measuring the reconstructed meaning of the SLT, and consequently no way to know whether that particular rendering echoes the original.

Though the Hermeneutic Method is difficult to adopt in the teaching of translating, especially in the teaching of beginners, the fact that it supersedes all the previous methods in accounting for context cannot be denied. It pays attention not only to the cultural and the pragmatic context, but also to the reader's 'emotional' context, i.e. his interaction with and reaction to the SLT. It is this reaction of the reader at the time and place of the reading that determines the reconstruction of the meaning of the text. This is a subjective process where no final reading is definitive, and no fixed context can be identified. The result of this subjectivity is a kind of free translating which, according to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 216), 'may cause the SL text to disintegrate and disappear altogether.'

Though the Hermeneutic Method fails to account for co-text adequately, its insights are, however, useful to a certain extent in highlighting the intimate relationship between certain elements of context and some textual features. Such elements involve the field of lexis, when the translator is faced with a situation where he has to respond to the context and, therefore,
has to choose lexical items which best suit the situation.

To illustrate the point under discussion, I would like to bring in a translation of a news report on the assassination of Mrs Gandhi into English. The translator of the Arabic text detects a great deal of sympathy and emotional involvement of the author of the SLT. That is why he opts for words which convey a feeling of great sorrow and an atmosphere of bereavement, such as the word fuji‘a in the sentence fuji‘at al-Hind. The translator is successful in choosing the word 'bewailed', since this word not only captures the feeling of the author and presumably of the whole people of India, but also evokes the same feelings in the readers of the TLT. (C.f. Appendices)

The translator has made use of a word already known to the reader in the same context, thus utilizing a whole range of cultural values related to the notion of death and its effect on people. Like the author, the translator also evokes in the reader the history of the word 'bewail', thus relating the reader's experience to other similar experiences in previous texts dealing with the same theme. This brings the Hermeneutic Method quite close to the Text Typological Model in accounting for the semiotic dimension of context (c.f. 1.7 below).

1.7 Assessment of the Models:
From the above discussion of the three models of translating one can conclude that none of these models is adequate to be adopted on its own as a model of translating and translation teaching. The Grammatical Model is inadequate due to its emphasis on form while meaning is totally forgotten. As a consequence of this, isolated sentences or rather individual words are translated out of context.

The Cultural Model improves on the Grammatical Model by paying attention to meaning and by accounting for context. This improvement, however, is limited, since the Cultural Model accounts for the cultural context only. The Interpretive Model surpasses both previous models in accounting for context. Yet,
its adequacy is impaired by differences in view among its two methods.

While the Text Analysis Method, on the one hand, is scientific and quantitative in approach, the Hermeneutic Method, on the other hand, is somewhat subjective and unsystematic. This makes the Text Analysis Method more feasible to adopt in translation teaching, since it employs systematic strategies and procedures.

In a real teaching situation, it is not realistic for translation teachers to adopt only one single model and teach nothing but the areas it encompasses. In fact, translation teachers have to be selective in their approach. They ought to make use of all the models and their subsumed methods. As Chau (1984b:120) puts it: 'Practically all TT is a mixture. The division is a matter of convenience, and thus necessarily artificial, idealistic and even simplistic.'

It is, perhaps, the need for a translation teaching model that accounts more adequately for contextual meaning and makes use of insights from all the models mentioned above, which has prompted the emergence of the model below.

1.8 The Text Typological Model:
Like the Text Analysis Method, this model is based on Text Linguistics and, indeed, represents the latest developments in that school. It also incorporates concepts and makes use of insights from other adjacent areas including, among others, discourse analysis, pragmatics, semiotics, text grammar, and contrastive textology.

Chau (1984b) does not consider Text Typology as a separate model, but rather as a feature of the Interpretive Model. Other translation theorists, however, have recognised the outstanding significance of this model in translating. Wilss (1982:180), for instance, contemplates the promising nature of 'a text linguistic approach, i.e. the attempt to develop transfer guidelines for specific types.'
As mentioned earlier (section 1.6.3.1), devising different classifications of text types has been one of the focal areas in Text Linguistics which has attracted a great deal of enthusiasm. As a result, this approach is to be considered not merely as a sub-area of Text Linguistics; it can, in effect, stand on its own as a reliable and fully-fledged model of translating.

The distinctive feature of the Text Typological Model is its view of a text as an actual representation of a certain text type, i.e. it can be considered as a token of that text type. It also takes text analysis as a preliminary step to translating. The teacher should introduce students to a number of basic notions such as structure, texture, and context. By learning how to take the text to pieces, the students will be able to reconstruct its context and to relate context to structure and texture.

Structure refers to how a text is organised. This kind of organisation is hierarchical: a text is composed of paragraphs, paragraphs of sentences, and sentences of smaller units such as clauses, phrases, and words. Texture is the way various elements of a discourse hang together to form bigger chunks of language. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2): 'A text has texture, and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text... the texture is provided by the cohesive relation.'

The cohesive elements present in the text signal to the reader that a certain element in that text is dependent on another, and has to be interpreted in relation to it. Of course, understanding structure and texture is very useful for students, as it enables them to achieve an objective reading of the SLT. As a result, the students will be able to preserve the SL text type by finding the closest equivalence in the TL, with the least possible modifications to the SLT.

Underlying the feasibility of the notions discussed above is the hypothesis which posits that it is the structure of text (determined by the context) which motivates the deployment of
the various devices of texture and, therefore, plays the major role in assigning the text to one of the known text types. It follows from this that training the students in different text types is indispensable in a text-typologically-oriented translating syllabus.

The students must be trained to take any text to pieces referring, in the meantime, to the function of each text segment, in Van Dijk's own words (1972; 1977), 'Micro-structure' and 'Macro-structure', within the whole act of communication (e.g. thesis, supporting idea, opposition, conclusion). This can be made easier by increasing the students' awareness of the existence of certain clues within the text which mark text opening, opposition, and conclusion (e.g. connectors, adversatives, references).

Having analysed the text, the students are asked to translate some problematic areas which crop up during the analysis. Another pedagogical aid, which can be of much help to students is that translating procedures are given step by step and solutions to problematical areas are given systematically in the form of strategies. In this way, the students can easily recall these strategies and apply them in similar cases.

In generic terms, we can define text type as any set of texts which share common characteristics in terms of lexis, grammar, structure, and function. This set of texts is supposedly amenable to the same methods of analysis. According to de Beaugrande and Dressler:

A "text type" is a set of heuristics for producing, predicting, and processing textual occurrences and hence acts as a prominent determiner of efficiency, and effectiveness and appropriateness. (1981: 186)

Siegfried J. Schmidt (1978: 58) spells out some general problems involved in the setting of typologies. One important point which a text theory should attempt to elucidate is whether the rules for text production and text analysis it has formulated are applicable
to all types of texts or only to a few types. To Schmidt, this issue primarily touches on the methodology which each theory adopts.

Schmidt proposes two approaches to setting up text types: the first approach is inductive or empirical. The linguist starts with taking observable texts as his point of departure. With the help of a consistent text theory, the linguist will retrospectively use his own intuitions about the classification of texts in order to process, reconstruct, predict, and produce concrete and virtual textual occurrences. The second approach is deductive. It begins with a given text theory which will allow for a certain theoretically possible and ideally realised text typology. This typology, then, will have to be examined and correlated with actual text instances.

The earliest classification of text types dates back as far as St. Jerome. In his pioneering efforts to highlight the aspect of interdependence between the text type and the transfer method, St. Jerome identified two basic principles of translating methods:

1. literal translating which is the only procedure that the translator should adhere to when translating the Bible;
2. sense-oriented translating: a principle which the translator should adhere to when translating secular texts. (See Wilss 1982 for more details.)

The first among modern translation theorists to recognize the role of and to deal with existing de facto text types in translating was Neubert (1968). He devised a classification of text types on the basis of their 'translatability'. He set up a 'translatability' parameter, ranging from relative untranslatability (text type 1) via partial translatability (text type 2) to optimal translatability (text types 3,4). Accordingly, Neubert identified four categories of translation related text types:

1- exclusively SL-oriented texts, for example in the field of area studies (landeskunde);
2- primarily SL-oriented texts, for example literary texts (text types 1. and 2. correspond roughly to House's class of "overt translation"; 1977);
3- SL-and TL-oriented texts, for example LSP texts;
4- primarily or exclusively TL-oriented texts, for example, texts intended for propaganda abroad (this text type corresponds roughly to House's class of "covert translation"; 1977) (Wilss 1982: 114)

Other classifications of text type have been put forward. Reiss (1969, 1971, 1976, 1981) has devised a tripartite classification of texts. Her classification is 'function-centred' as opposed to 'content-centred'. Reiss (1976,1981) underlines the importance of the identification of text type and text variety when translating. Influenced by Buhler's three functions of the linguistic sign, Reiss distinguishes three text types:

1- **Informative:** A text involved in the communication of content (e.g. scientific report, news reports, The expressing of opinions without aiming at provoking argument or evaluation, etc.);

2- **Expressive:** A text the aim of which is the communication of artistically organized content (e.g. literary works);

3- **Operative:** A text the aim of which is the communication of content with a persuasive character (e.g. advertisement, political speeches, editorials).

Reiss also recognises other text types which she calls 'mixed forms'. For example, there are operative texts, say sales promotions with elements of poetic writing, such as an advertisement in the form of a poem. According to Reiss, identifying the text type is very important in translating as it, more often than not, determines the function of the text and the intention of the text producer as well as determining the general method of translating.

Text types can be identified by the frequency of words and
phrases of evaluation, the frequency of rhetorical devices, and the system of linkage used (e.g. connectors, parallelisms). Next follows the identification of text variety, which is defined by Reiss as:

Super-individual acts of speech or writing which are linked to recurrent action of communication and in which particular patterns of language and structure have developed because of their recurrence in similar communication constellations. (1981: 126)

Text variety is, therefore, responsible for the deployment of elements of structure and texture. In Reiss's own words, 'text variety demands consideration for language and text structure conventions' (ibid.).

Another classification has been proposed by de Beaugrande (1978, 1980) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). They classified text types according to their contribution to human interaction. They point out the fact that while it is very difficult to arrive at a strict categorisation, it is possible to identify dominances. Accordingly, they identify three text types: the descriptive, the narrative, and the argumentative.

One major drawback of de Beaugrande and Dressler's classification is assigning to literary and poetic texts the full status of proper text types, whereas they are discourses. The problem is partly resolved when they admit that the above classification is inadequate, since 'literary texts also contain various constellations of description, narration, and argumentation (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981: 185).

These Text Linguists also realize the great need for other distinguishing criteria, since the current types they have already produced are general and diffuse:

Even this modest beginning for a typology is far from straightforward. The sets of texts and their
characteristics remain fuzzy. Constellations of functions in varying degrees of dominance can be highly intricate...but the type can hardly provide absolute borderlines between its members and non-members, any more than the notion of "text" can do. The conditions of communicating are simply too diverse to allow such a rigorous categorization. (ibid.: 186, original emphasis)

Werlich (1976) develops a more elaborate classification, distinguishing five types of text:

1- Description: is the type of textual communication in which the encoder more or less selectively deals with factual phenomena in space;

2- Narration: is the type of textual communication in which the encoder more or less selectively deals with factual and/or conceptual phenomena in time;

3- Exposition: is the type of textual communication which the encoder chooses for presenting either constituent elements which can be synthesized into a composite concept (manifested in a 'term' or a mental construct (manifested in a 'text'), or those constituent elements into which concepts or mental constructs of phenomena can be analysed;

4- Argumentation: is the type of textual communication in which the encoder proposes relations between concepts of phenomena. The encoder makes his propositions in explicit or implicit opposition to deviant or alternative propositions;

5- Instruction: is the type of textual communication in which the encoder tells himself (in sender-directed instruction) or others (in receiver-directed instruction) what to do. He uses linguistic communication in order to plan the future behaviour of himself or others. (Werlich 1976: 39-40).

Werlich's classification has inspired many linguists, translation theorists, and those interested in text types. Zydatiss (1983),
for example, subscribes to Werlich's five text types. He analyses a German instructive text and compares it with its published English translation, demonstrating the application of text typology to translating and its implications for translation pedagogy at a higher level.

Hatim (1984) has also drawn on Werlich's text type classification, presenting a text typology along similar lines. With description and narration subsumed under the major heading 'exposition', text types accordingly are reduced to three major types:

1. **Expository texts:**
   a. Descriptive: is used to describe objects and relations in space,
   b. Narrative: is used to narrate events,
   c. Conceptual: is used to analyse and synthesize concepts;

2. **Argumentative texts:** are used to evaluate events, entities or concepts with the aim of making a case or putting forward a point of view and, consequently, to influence future behaviour. Argumentative texts can be subclassified into:
   a. Overt argumentation: an example of this could be the counter-argumentative 'letter to the editor',
   b. Covert argumentation: an example of this can be the implicit argument in an editorial or what is called 'the thesis cited to be opposed' or the case-making propaganda tract;

3. **Instructional texts:** aim at planning and directing future behaviour of the addressees. It is sub-divided into:
   a. Instruction with option: as in advertising,
   b. Instruction without option: as in treaties, contracts, and legal documents.

According to the Text Typological Model, how to translate is primarily a function of the text to be translated. The ultimate aim of the translator is to achieve an objective reading of the SLT and to produce an identical TLT, preserving the SL text type.
In doing so, the translator can be said to have achieved a functional equivalence.

Equivalence is a moot question and has already been discussed by linguists and translation theorists. We have seen in section 1.4 the distinction made by Catford between formal correspondence and textual equivalence and Nida's distinction between verbal correspondence and dynamic equivalence. We have also seen how DE has established itself as a recognized method of translating under the Cultural Model (c.f. 1.6.2 above).

From a Text Linguistic point of view, the equivalence of a translation with its original is no longer an approximation in terms of structure, i.e. in grammar and lexis but, as de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 216) put it, 'can only be an equivalence in the experience of the participants.' To achieve this goal, the translator must not impose his own experience on the TLT. On the contrary, in de Beaugrande and Dressler's own words:

The translator must strive to convey the same kind of experience with the same kind of language material, and to expand, reduce, or modify textual components only as far as necessary to minimize a divergence of experience. (1981: 217)

Zydatiss's argument concerning the concept of equivalence goes along similar lines. Drawing on the functions of language, he emphasizes the role of the reader in translating. He proposes that 'translated discourse has to be reader-oriented to achieve its communicative goals.' (1983: 221). The duty of the translator, in his view, is to achieve 'functional equivalence.' He must be aware of the 'likely target language norms as regards the pragmatic-functional layout of specified text form variants' (ibid.).

In order to establish 'functional equivalence' the translator may need to alter the structure of the text so that it will conform to
the TL norms. Thus, it will meet one of the requirements of translation, 'appropriateness', one of the seven standards of 'textuality' according to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981).

So far I have been discussing Text Typological views on equivalence. We can conclude from the discussion of de Beaugrande and Dressler's 'equivalence of participants' and Zydatiss's 'functional equivalence' that both concepts, in essence, echo the DE Method of the Cultural Model in emphasizing the principle of equivalence in reader's response. The Text Typological Model view of equivalence, however, is more systematic and more explicit.

It might be useful to mention that though the Text Typological Model of Translating permits the modification of the structure, it does so without taking the freedom of changing it completely as the Hermeneutic Method does. On the contrary, it allows the text structure to be 'modified' only as far as necessary to achieve the appropriate equivalence.

By seeking 'appropriateness' as a solid criterion for establishing equivalence between the SLT and the TLT, the Text Typological Model clearly rejects the proposition articulated by the proponents of the Grammatical Model who view translating as a mere matching of codes, and Catford's argument in this regard is no longer valid. According to de Beaugrande and Dressler:

> Whether or not the elements in the goal language text occupy the same position in their virtual systems as do the elements of the original in theirs, is a secondary matter, often leading to irresolvable and unnecessary conflicts. (1981: 217, original emphasis)

To round up this discussion, I conclude that the Text Typological Model of translating is a great improvement on all the other models discussed so far. It pays attention to contextual meaning in text interpretation and highlights the importance of the
contextual variables in the deployment of the elements of structure and texture.

In my opinion, the Text Typological Model may be an appropriate approach to the teaching of translating. Due to its eclectic nature in incorporating insights from other models and as a result of its ability to provide systematic guidelines about the process of translating, this model can be considered, from a pedagogical point of view, the most effective and promising of all. To test the feasibility of the teaching of translating according to these models, an outline for a translating syllabus at Syrian universities will be proposed, demonstrating its requirements and advantages (see Chapters IV and V below).
Chapter Two:
The need to translate scientific and technical books, essays, manuals, and academic papers from English and other European languages into Arabic has sharply increased in the last few decades. In recent years there has been a great demand for translation in the Arab World, particularly in the fields of international relations, economics, and science and technology.

2.1. The Importance of Translating in the Arab World:
The importance of translating for transferring Western technology and scientific advances into the Arab World has been emphasized. Recent studies have shown very clearly that the second greatest need for learning a foreign language is for translating purposes.

Arab scholars feel that there is a great shortage of translations into and out of Arabic in all fields. They feel an even greater need for translating Arabic literature into English and other languages. According to Kharma:

".. only a very small fraction of the very rich Arab heritage has actually been translated into modern languages, and it is one of our basic duties to start doing that on a systematic basis. (1983: 222)"

It is a generally accepted view that the need for good translations in the Arab World is not satisfactorily catered for. The translations actually produced do not fairly represent the kinds of translating most needed. The need for translations in the Arab world is being catered for in the following ways:

a) translations made by self-employed individual translators, free-lancers, or sworn-translators, who supply translations of different kinds: documents, contracts, business letters, etc;

b) translations supplied by private translation companies which cater for the bulk of business and supply legal translations required by contractors, lawyers, etc;
c) translations made by private publishers who are mainly involved in academic and literary translating. An example of this is the Tlas Translating and Publishing House. The quality of translations varies from one publisher to another;

d) translations made by translating divisions in government ministries of culture, justice, defence, in university foreign language departments and other bodies, such as newspapers, and private firms, all of which bear the greatest burden in translating serious and academic materials;

Reference should be made to the translations provided by military research centres, which are devoted particularly to the translating of technical and scientific books and articles. That is why they are strict in the selection of translators and materials for translating, and the end-products are usually of a very high quality.

e) translations supplied by big regional or international organizations such as ALESCO, which also supply high quality translations.

While admitting the need for translations in various fields such as information and trade, Kharma emphasizes a greater, yet more pressing need for other kinds of translations. He regrets the great deficiency in translations which deal with the more serious material to be translated, namely, books and serious articles in periodicals and journals. Another regrettable thing is that there is a near dearth of scientific and technical translations, whereas there is a surplus of translations in the literary and humanistic areas.

This situation can best be remedied by the process of Arabisation. Indeed, most Arab Countries are striving towards the Arabisation of all disciplines in university education. Syria, unquestionably, can be considered a forerunner in that field.
2.2. English Language Teaching in the Arab World:

It is axiomatic that the teaching of English in the Arab World has assumed, in Widdowson's words:

...the crucial auxiliary role of producing the means for furthering specialist education, and here it has become plain that a knowledge of how a language functions in communication does not follow from a knowledge of sentences. (1979: 90)

English in Syria is one of the two foreign languages taught at school; the other is French. It is taught at the preparatory level at the rate of five hours a week. Though much effort has been exerted over the past two decades to improve the quality of the syllabuses, the situation has not substantially changed.

Unlike other Arab countries such as the Lebanon and Jordan where teaching a foreign language starts at a relatively early age, i.e. at the primary school, foreign language teaching in Syria starts only at the preparatory level, i.e. at the age of 12. People coming from the secondary school to university departments do not have the ability to follow courses taught in English.

As far as English Language teaching in Kuwait is concerned, the situation does not seem to be at all different, as Kharma explains:

Since a foreign language, English in our case, has been taught for instrumental rather than integrative purposes, and mainly to help the student pursue his university or semi-university studies, the standard achieved at the end of the secondary stage was too inadequate to serve the purpose. (1983: 224)

To bridge the gap between the standards achieved at secondary school and the standards demanded by a university English syllabus, English language centres have been set up for the specific purpose of preparing new students joining the university by training them further in the English language. Mention should
be made of the language centres at Arab universities in Syria, Kuwait, and in other Arab countries. For the same purpose, a number of language colleges, public as well as private, have been set up to provide language teaching, in addition to private tuition and self-instruction.

The Language Advisory Centre at Aleppo University serves a similar role and provides intensive English courses for a large variety of students and is also open to academic and administrative staff at the university.

The competence of first year students in Standard Arabic is also inadequate. Students joining English departments receive little tuition in Arabic (two hours a week); this is insufficient to improve their level to any great extent (c.f. Kharma 1983). Very recently, Arabic has been introduced at Syrian universities for students of language departments as well as other departments.

2.3. The Translation Movement at present:
In the first half of the Nineteenth Century, the Arabs found that they had been left far behind other nations in almost every field. In other words, they were on the receiving end of what other nations were producing.

Confronted with a situation where the process of development happens at a high speed, whereby multitudes of inventions are made in response to the demands of Western industrial societies, the Arabs have struggled to integrate them into their societies. They have realised that the only way for propagating what has been achieved is by translating them into Arabic. Only in this way could they catch up with modern advances, and satisfy the needs of modern Arab societies.

In modern times, the importance of translating has been self-evident. More international organisations have emerged, and international and regional movements have been set up. With the enormous achievements in the fields of science and technology,
the necessity for exchanging information between countries of the world has gained momentum. International cooperation has been promoted; so have diplomatic and cultural relations. Cultural and geographical distances between countries have been minimised, as a result of developments in communication systems.

Recently, translating as a creative intellectual activity has been revived at the hands of a group of Arab intellectuals who are motivated by a curiosity for translating interesting books- their achievements have been particularly inspiring. Translating, on a substantial scale, started in Egypt, Syria, Lebanon and Jordan, spreading later to all Arab countries.

Another element that has added momentum to the activity of translating is the Arabisation of education, which has made it possible for the teaching of most disciplines to be conducted in Arabic. This has required as a corollary the translating of great numbers of books dealing with various subjects.

Under foreign influence, English and French were introduced as the languages of higher education. This slowed down the process of Arabisation, because the medium of teaching in all subjects was either English or French. Since there was no urgent need for translating text-books, only a few scientific books and periodicals were translated from these languages into Arabic. This situation has continued in most Arab countries except in Syria, where education since World War I has been conducted in Arabic in all disciplines and at all levels.

2.3.1 Characteristics of the Movement:
The term 'Translation Movement' refers to a dynamic process concerned primarily with translating literary and scientific works written in English and other European languages into Arabic. It emerged at the beginning of the 19th Century and made a large contribution to the modern Arab awakening. It was boosted by intellectuals who were motivated by their own literary and cultural inclinations.
Furthermore, the Translation Movement flourished due to the emergence of private publishing companies. Later, government departments undertook translating and supplied good translations.

The question is whether the Translation Movement has fulfilled its role in propagating intellectual and scientific knowledge, consequently contributing to the development of the Arab World.

To reach approximate results for what the Translation Movement in the Arab World has achieved, I will use the data of a survey conducted by the Arab League Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (ALESCO). According to the survey, the number of translations made in Arab countries between 1970-1980, i.e. within eleven years, is 2840, distributed disproportionately, as shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of Books translated into Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>1758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 2840
From the table cited above we can arrive at the following findings:
1- there are big differences in the numbers of translations made from one country to another. Egypt comes first with 62% of translations, followed by Syria with 17%, Iraq 9%, and Lebanon 5.4%;

2-the second finding is that the total number of translations is very small in comparison with either the population or their intellectual needs.

As for the distribution of the subject-matter of the translations made, the survey indicates the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject-matter</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General knowledge</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theology</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistics</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Sciences</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Sciences</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature</td>
<td>1022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History and Geography</td>
<td>315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2840</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(See, for example, Al-Khouri 1988, pp.62-66)

In the light of the above-mentioned survey and the relevant documents and tables, one can outline three main characteristics of the Arab Translation Movement:

1- The first characteristic of the movement is that there is an imbalance between need and production. Many books have been translated for entertainment only. Some of these books were translated because of the attention they received in the West and
because of the success they met there. Though they mainly deal with the Western style of living, these books are useful in supplying Arabic with literary and cultural masterpieces produced in other languages.

These translations have familiarised Arab readers and writers with works written in foreign languages. There is hardly a modern Arab writer who has not been directly or indirectly influenced by studies, books, and articles translated from English or other European languages.

The major disadvantage of the Translation Movement is that translations are made on an individual basis. That is what has made a collective Arab plan for translation desperately needed. According to Kharma:

Qualitatively, there is no master-plan either on the national or regional level which governs or even guides translation activities according to the various fields where the country's need is greatest. (1983: 223)

To remedy the situation, a plan should be formulated to restore the balance of the need in relation to the production as follows:

a) it should take into consideration the needs of people of different ages, sexes, inclinations, specialisations, and environments;
b) it should survey these needs in Arab societies;
c) it should set up criteria for regulating the selection of books to be translated.

It is usually the case that the books to be translated are selected by educated amateurs who aspire to produce something of a high cultural value. Their criteria for selecting books to be translated are taste and personal disposition. Publishers also select books for translating according to the readers' interest in particular books as well as the material profit they are going to make.

2- The second characteristic of the Translation Movement is that
there is no equilibrium in the selection of subject-matter. The table above shows that translations of books on theoretical and applied sciences are rare. They do not exceed 18% of the total number. The translations of literary books form the largest share amounting to 40% approximately. Translations of history and geography books are about 20%. The remaining percentage is distributed among other subject-matters.

3- The third characteristic is that the Translation Movement has not attracted equal attention in all Arab countries. Attention and time devoted to translation fluctuate variably from one country to another. More important is the fact that the Translation Movement in the Arab World as a whole is less productive than movements in other countries.

2.3.2. Development of the Movement:
Since 1981, ALESCO has conducted a series of studies on the subject of translating and ways of promoting it. These studies have addressed the following issues:

1- coordination and planning: the most important achievement is the formulation of the National Plan of Translation;

2- training of translators and the foundation of the Arab College for Translation;

3- the establishment of the Arab Centre for Arabisation, Translating, and Publishing.

Instead of providing samples of successful translations, ALESCO has attempted to set up national institutions, corresponding to the level of every individual Arab country in the field of translating. Progress in each country is measured by the number of government bodies and private publishing companies that undertake translating as well as compiling encyclopedias, and dictionaries.

A) The National Plan for Translation:
This plan, which was approved by the Executive Council of ALESCO in 1982, has demonstrated the current situation of translating in the Arab World. It has explained the features of future work: its starting point, objectives, stages, and means of implementing them by ALESCO and individual Arab States.
In mid-November 1979, ALESCO's Cultural Administration called for a meeting in Tunisia for the purpose of formulating an Arab National Plan for Translation, in response to a previous resolution passed in this respect by the Executive Council of the Organisation in mid July. The discussion focussed on three points:

1- information on the status of translating and translators in Arab countries;
2- criteria for the selection of good books for translating;
3- general framework of the Arab National Plan for Translating.

Indeed, formulating a plan for translating is an important step. The success of the plan depends on a set of criteria for selecting books to be translated. The criteria must include some issues of top priority, such as translating literary masterpieces, ancient and modern, transferring Western technology, acquainting people with Arabic literary traditions, serving national causes such as the Palestinian Cause, propagating popular culture, and enhancing children's cultural education.

The Plan has urged Arab States to take the following necessary steps:

1- to support government institutions of translating as well as private publishing companies and to help countries which do not have a sufficient number of these institutions;
2- to formulate a translation plan at the country level, taking into account existing needs and available means to satisfy them, and taking the necessary measures to organise and promote the translation movement in each country;
3- to contact and cooperate with similar institutions affiliated to ALESCO in other Arab countries, and other international organisations.

The plan has also defined a few interesting issues in translating which Arab organisations have to deal with seriously, such as the selection of books for translating, the quality of translations, the
training of translators, the setting up of translators' associations, and the distribution of translated books to the readers.

It might be useful to mention that ALESCO plays the role of documentation, guidance, observation of the position of translating and translators in the Arab countries, and the publication of directories.

b) The Arab College for Translating: ALESCO has conducted a study on how to set up a translating college, the underlying aim of which is to train Arab translators and interpreters for the kind of work required in Arab, Islamic, and international organisations.

The college, an educational, scientific institution allocated in Algeria, will admit graduates from all Arab countries. The period of study in the college is two years leading to an M.A.

c) The Arab Centre for Arabisation, Translating, and Publishing: For a long time now, Arab countries have recognised the need for establishing an Arab centre for Arabisation. The centre will help in the Arabisation of education, particularly higher education, by means of providing the necessary methodology, reference-books, research, and studies in Arabic.

Furthermore, the centre will be concerned with transferring Arabic literary and intellectual works, ancient and modern, into foreign languages, in order to acquaint foreign readers with good works written by Arab intellectuals and men of letters. The centre started in the first half of 1988.

2.3.3. Translating in Syria:
For a variety of reasons, Syria has placed a great emphasis on languages and translating. The Arabic Language Academy in Damascus, formerly the Arab Scientific Academy, has made considerable contributions in the field of translating through publishing translations of major works in its well-known journal, which is distributed throughout the Arab World.
Other institutions have played a similar role in disseminating translated books, such as ʕIlās Publishing Company, al-Yaqażah al-ʕArabiyyah Publishing House, and the Translation and Publishing Unit of the Armed Forces' Department of Training. These institutions have published classical and contemporary books in various fields.

The importance of translating in Syria is also highlighted by the publication of the journal of 'Foreign literatures' by the Arab Writers' Union in Damascus, and the establishment of the Translators' Association- 28 members were on its register in 1988 (c.f. Hamwi 1988: 246). The number of translators on the register is expected to rise, given the large number of Syrian translators who have not joined the association's panel. Moreover, the increasing impact of translating on all aspects of life has led to the foundation of the Military College of Foreign Languages.

2.4. Arab Translating Studies:
A lot of research has been written on translating, though only a small fraction deals with the problems and the methodology of studying translating. Most publications are no more than studies based on an impressionistic, subjective approach, rather than on a scientific objective approach.

Indeed, the majority of the Arab books written on the subject are disappointing. They are for the most part translations of the major European publications on translation theory. Arab writers often include their translations of some chapters of these books supplying their own comments and a few Arabic texts to exemplify linguistic and cultural problems involved in the translating of English and other European languages into Arabic and vice versa.

Shuraym's Minhajiyyat al-Tarjamah al-Tatbiqiyah (1982) is no exception. It is based on Mounin's Les Problèmes Théoriques de la Traduction (1963). In his introduction, Shuraym aims to introduce the Arab reader for the first time to an applied linguistic
approach. He applies this approach to extracts from his French translation of *September Birds*, a novel by the Lebanese novelist Emily Naṣrallah.

Shuraym starts the book with a glossary of Arabic/French/Arabic linguistic terms to acquaint the Arab reader with linguistic terminology. The book deals with essential topics of translating, such as translating and structuralism, translating and the dictionary, translating and criticism, and translating and stylistics.

The chapter on 'translating and the dictionary' occupies a central place in the book, because understanding the terminology of the SLT and the search for TLT equivalents is of paramount importance in translating. Since correspondence in formal features does not necessarily mean correspondence in meaning, and as long as a specific term does not signal a certain meaning unless it occurs in a certain context, it is very desirable to have a dictionary of context.

Of course the linguistic context is not enough since it only refers to the linguistic environment. Besides context, the translator must pay attention to situation, the broader environment surrounding it, as well as referring to other elements which influence it.

Shuraym provides a few pedagogical tips, dealing with some problematical areas in translating. One area is cliches. In practice, SLT cliches should be rendered by TLT cliches; this is the case with loan-words, epigrams, and proverbs, which should be dealt with in the same way as we deal with cliches, trying as far as possible to find a close TL equivalent.

When it is difficult to find a TL equivalent of a certain SL cliche, Shuraym recommends translating literally, warning translators against changing live figures of speech into cliches or dead expressions. Though the translating of metaphorical expressions poses a lot of problems, the translator should be faithful to the
style of the SL when rendering these metaphorical expressions.

Some Arab writers advocate the translating of major reference-books on the science of translating in the West into Arabic. Abboud (1988), for example, regrets that valuable studies, such as Levy's *Die Literarische Übersetzung. Theorie einer Kunstdgattung* (1969) has not been translated into Arabic. He is of the opinion that the science of translating has developed enormously in the past two decades, making important breakthroughs in the fields of translation theory, translation criticism, and applied translation. He advocates this by saying:

> If we wish the translation movement in our country to develop and contribute effectively to the cultural renaissance we are seeking, it is necessary to translate or, at least, to summarize the basic foreign sources dealing with the science of translating, as a preliminary step towards developing an Arab science of translating, which takes as its starting point the problems of translating in the sphere of Arabic. (Abboud 1988:178, my translation)

Another book that deals with the subject of translating is Hasan's *Fannu al-Tarjamah fi al-Adab al-ʿArabi* (1966). This book appears to be the first Arabic book published on the problems of translating since the contribution of the Arabs in the Abbasid Era. F.A. Muḥammad (1986) considers the book of special importance, since it does not only cover the opinions of contemporary authors, but also includes contributions from medieval Arabs on the art of translating.

Before the publication of Hasan's book, there were brief views published on the conditions and methods of transfer. They were more hints and brief views than detailed studies, such as al-Jāḥiş's clever hints in *Kitāb al-Hayawān*, al-Ṣafadi's hints reported by al-ʿĀmilī in *al-Kashkul*, and al-Zayyāt's hints in the introduction to his French translation of *Moonlight and other stories*. Some hints were also published in various journals such as Şarrūf's article in *al-Muqtaṭaf* entitled 'Taʾrīquna fi al-Taʾrīb'.
Other hints appeared in an early article by al-Maqdisī, a professor of Arabic Literature at the American University of Beirut, which was also published in al-Muqtaṭaf. Hints also appeared in Filastin's Qādāyā al-Fikr fi al-Adab al-Muṣṣir. Others written by Adham, al-‘Aqqād, and Yunus appeared in the journals Qāfilat al-Zayt, al-Majmaʿ al-‘Arabī, and al-Risālah respectively. (See, for instance, Anonymous, Al- Maqāl al-Adabī 1988, no.202, 203, pp.179-188)

Hāsan divides his book into sixteen chapters, each of which deals with an important issue in translation. They include the following topics:
- Translating and Arabisation
- A comparison between Şarrūf's views on translating and that of al-Jāhiẓ
- The art of translating: a comparison between Al-Jāhiẓ and al-Maqdisī
- Modern and contemporary views on the conditions of translating
- Translating between ambiguity and clarity of expression
- Loss and gain in translating
- Whether translating should be full or abbreviated
- Why do we translate
- What should we translate
- Poetic translating
- Translating the Bible
- Different translations of the Qurān
- The translator's aides: (e.g. bilingual and monolingual dictionaries, general and specialized)
- Selection of expressions
- The transcription of foreign names in Arabic
- Samples of different translations of 'Umar Khayyām's Rubā’iyyāt.

Though Hāsan's book was criticised by Muḥammad (1986), it has had a special importance because it relies on the practical experience of translators, and the adoption of a chronological
order of translation studies in Arabic literature, past and present. Hasan deals with translation problems from an artist's point of view. The method he adopts is unique in translating literary works, which is another advantage over his predecessors whose translations are mainly in the fields of sciences and philosophy, apart from, for example, Ibn al-Muqaffa.

The advantage lies in the fact that the translator perceives the same emotional experience of the writer or the poet, thus expressing it faithfully and truly. Hasan describes the way he translates in the following:

I translate the foreign text literally into Arabic, following its original word order. Then I go back and adapt it to proper Arabic style, advancing and postponing (elements), without actually adding or leaving out. Then I go back again and load the text with the spirit and emotions of the author, using appropriate expressions, and equivalent figures of speech, and keeping to the original arrangement. I finish with these three stages only when I am completely certain that had the author written his story or poem in Arabic, he would not have done it otherwise. (Anonymous, Al-Mawqif al-Adabi, 1988: p.184, my translation)

Hasan believes that fidelity in translating is the most important quality which the translator should aspire to. He should not add, omit, or summarise; on the contrary, he should render the text in full. The author thinks that doing more than one translation of the same book is useful. Though many writers consider it useless repetition, this activity in Arabic should be encouraged, provided that those who work in that field are competent. Translators should not worry about doing as many translations of the same work as possible because European translators did not shy away from doing so at the time of the Renaissance. Such a process will stimulate competition and invite criticism, which will in the long run promote the Translation Movement into the production of top-quality translations.
Drawing on the practical experience of translators, Ḥasan's book is distinguished for its pioneering approach of diagnosing translating problems in Arabic. The book's subjective, experimental feature is demonstrated by its organisation, and by examples of the author's own translations of prose and poetry, to illustrate theoretical and practical problems which occur in translating.

A third Arabic book on translation is F.A. Muḥammad's ʿIlmu al-Tarjamah: Madkhal Lughawi (1986). It deals with translating problems from a linguistic point of view. Muḥammad divides his book into three chapters. He reviews two previous publications on translating. The first is Ḥasan's (1966). The second is ʿĀbd al-Ḥafeż's ʿIlmu al-Tarjamah (1983). He underlines the importance of Ḥasan's book, since it does not restrict itself to modern views alone, but expands historically to subsume the art of translating of the medieval Arabs, particularly under the Abbasids. Muḥammad says:

It is worth mentioning that the book [Ḥasan's] adopts a criterion approach in dealing with translation. This approach consists in making known the results of practical experience of translators, so that they will serve as guidelines, helping the translator in his practical work. The results discussed in the book are based on artistic, aesthetic principles of translation. (ibid.:180, my translation)

Muḥammad points out that Ḥasan's principles are in agreement with those of Savory (1957), who builds on the practical experience and viewpoints of European translators, devising a set of rules and criteria that the translator should observe. (C.f. Savory 1957; see also 4.3.1 below)

From Muḥammad's point of view, Savory and Ḥasan's criteria are contradictory. On the one hand, they stem from a subjective approach, a direct result of the translator's practical experience. On the other hand, they deal with only one side of the very complex process of translating, i.e. the practical aspect.


\textbf{Abd al-\ Häfez's Ilmu al-Tarjamah} adopts the same approach in looking at translation as a set of rules and recommendations. However, he is criticised for not paying due attention to what happens in the translating process itself, methods of dealing with the SL during the process, and the effect of language and text type on that process. Furthermore, translating is neither explanation nor interpretation, but an operation in which a system of signs in one language is substituted by another in a different language according to certain objective controls.

In the first chapter, the author discusses the development of translating in Europe, demonstrating translating procedures adopted by famous translators. It makes a connection between the development of translating and schools of thought which prevailed in Europe at different periods. Indeed, these were the very schools which determined the basic concepts of literary works and the cultural climate in different European countries.

Throughout the development of translating, theoretical principles have come in the form of criteria and methods which may guide the translator while translating, or evaluating finished products. Muhammad displays how, due to its diversity, translating has been included within the scope of linguistics.

This situation has necessitated the search for new theoretical, methodological techniques, updating old methods of translating. It has also necessitated the avoidance of subjective factors, which may change translating into something other than faithful rendering.

Muhammad concludes that translation studies have become an autonomous scientific discipline, serving the activities of translators, by means of its theoretical concepts. Its underlying principles have become the subject of scientific research at the educational institutions of translator training.

Translating has made use of linguistics which has made
contributions in setting up the rules that govern relations between languages, and discovering elements of similarities and differences between them. The effect of linguistics has been extended to the defining of the types of translating in the light of the diversity of linguistic communication and the functional potential of languages.

Translating interacts with the various branches of linguistics. On the one hand, it is related to general linguistics: syntax, semantics, and morphology. On the other hand, it interacts with stylistics, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics. It has also become an important source for language studies in such fields as comparative studies, bilingualism, and second language teaching.

The second chapter deals with the science of translating and the central issues related to the translating process as communication between two languages in which a translator plays two roles:

Firstly, the role of the receiver of the SLT. Secondly, the role of the sender of the SLT. The author discusses in detail what the translator does, demonstrating the units of translating that the translator must find TL equivalents for, and emphasizing the various kinds of meaning which the translator may encounter in the initial stage of understanding the SLT. Other aspects which the translator should pay attention to are: idiomatic expressions, proverbs, epigrams.

Muḥammad studies the role of the translator as a sender of the SLT into the TL, which lies at the centre of the translating process, and the influence of the text type on the translator’s selection of certain translating strategies. The author explains the process of restructuring the SLT in the TL, theoretical principles adopted, methods of reproducing the SLT in the TL, and what is considered as loss and gain in translating that results from linguistic, cultural, and ecological differences between the SL and the TL.
In the third chapter, the author makes a distinction between the concepts of correspondence and equivalence, which are important criteria guiding the translator and the critic in translating and evaluating translations.

F. A. Muḥammad's book is unique, as it paves the way to similar in-depth studies on translating, theoretical and applied. One related area is the comparative study of a specific pair of languages, for the purpose of discovering divergences and convergences between units and levels of linguistic expression in both languages.

Arab translation studies require the listing of translation equivalents, the kinds of units which express cultural and ecological aspects, and the potential and means of Arabic for expressing syntactic, semantic and pragmatic meanings of other languages. Indeed, Muḥammad's book contributes to Arab translation studies to that very end.

In addition to the books we have discussed so far, others have been published by ALESCO, to review the current state of affairs in translation. One of these books is Dirāsāt ʿan Waqiʿ al-Tarjamah fi al-Ālam al-ʿArabi which has been written by a group of authors, and published in Tunisia in two parts. The publication of this book, which is the outcome of the concerted effort of specialised experts on the subject, has been a prerequisite for the formulation of the National Plan of Translation.

The first part of the book was published in 1985, and included seven surveys on the current situation of translation in Jordan, Tunisia, Algeria, the Sudan, Syria, Iraq, and Libya. The second part was published in 1987, comprising ten surveys of translation in the United Arab Emirates, Bahrain, Saudi Arabia, Palestine, Kuwait, the Lebanon, Egypt, Morocco, North Yemen, and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.

Another book of a similar kind is Al-Khittah al-Qawmiyyah li-al-
Tarjamah, published in Tunisia in 1985, which includes the text of the National Plan of Translation. It aims to outline the major aspects which would promote literary, scientific, and other kinds of translation in the Arab World on the basis of close cooperation between Arab countries and ALESCO. As Dr Šābir, the Director General of ALESCO, points out:

The Translation Movement in the Arab World emerged a century and a half ago, and passed through several stages. It provided the Arab reader with many works in all fields of knowledge. However, the movement so far has failed to meet the needs of Arab society in progress and contemporaneity. It has, therefore, been necessary to formulate a plan to move forward in this field. Thus, the effort has been towards an integrated national action. Al-Khittah al-Qawmiyyah li-al-Tarjamah is one aspect of the effort in that direction. (ibid.: 189, my translation)

2.5. Translation Teaching at Arab Universities:
Since the great majority of translators are graduates of English departments at Arab universities, let us have a cursory glance at the kind of translation teaching these departments provide. The overall aim is to find out to what extent these syllabuses help the students to have a better command of English and Arabic and improve their translation competence. The aim is also to find whether it is possible to produce well trained translators in these departments.

Syllabuses given at Arab universities are more often than not criticised for being cram courses. They are 'overcrowded with literature (and more recently with theoretical linguistics) courses, and..little attention has been paid to language or translation.' (Kharma 1983: 225)

There have been efforts to improve existing syllabuses. Unfortunately, such courses are narrowly restricted to the acquisition of a mechanical competence in translating. The traditional subject-matter orientation, methods of teaching,
testing, and grading are still adopted there.

The translation component at the undergraduate level does not achieve any qualitative results. It usually constitutes part of a systematic course in English language and literature, as is the case in the Department of English at Aleppo University. It is exercised at the rate of four hours a week. That is why it remains unrealistic to talk about proper translation training at the undergraduate level.

In most cases, the training of translators is left for postgraduate courses (e.g. the Postgraduate Diploma in translating at Aleppo University, and the Postgraduate courses at other Arab universities, such as the M.A. course at Kuwait University). Besides a few hours in interpreting, the traditional translation exercise constitutes the one and only component of such courses.

It can be said that most theories taught in postgraduate courses, if any at all, are philological in orientation concentrating on literary and legal texts most of the time. Students are given basic rules of translation. Linguistic theories of translation are also taught in these courses. Along with Savory and Catford, Nida seems to have a special place in the hearts of translation teachers.

After successfully completing the course, some graduates work as private sworn-translators; other graduates work with big international firms, and travel agencies; and others work in government offices, libraries, and research centers.

As a rule, undergraduate translation training in the Arab World is not expected to bring students up to the level where they can be classified as translators, owing to the students' low standards in English, and the lack of qualified teachers. This is compensated by intensive post-graduate courses which provide advanced training for a number of selected graduates with high grades.

Some Arab universities have attempted to raise the standard of
the students' linguistic competence by providing additional language courses. Since bad translations are made by translators incompetent both in language and translating, Kuwait University has worked out a way to improve the quality of the translation syllabus. The university has designed a translation syllabus 35% of which is language courses, in addition to an intensive one-term English course of 15 hours a week. Success in this preliminary course is a pre-condition to enrolment in the English Department. (C.f. Kharma 1983)

A cursory look at the translation syllabuses in English departments at Arab universities shows how ad hoc the materials, testing, and grading systems of these syllabuses are. Existing syllabuses are facing difficulties due to the lack of qualified translation teachers, the absence of systematic teaching methods, the lack of proper text-books and the insufficient time devoted to these syllabuses. The grading system explains everything: 50% for meaning and 50% for grammaticality (c.f. Saadeddin 1987).

Furthermore, translation teachers in these syllabuses more often than not devote much time to lexical features, reducing the translation class to a mere dictation of drills of words and cliches. Text-books are mere collections of texts selected from different sources, i.e newspapers, journals, books, etc. They are sometimes prefaced by practical tips and pieces of advice to students and prospective translators on how to translate.

Translation classes are reduced to the mere contrasting of grammatical structures and lexis in two language systems. The unit of translating is the word or the sentence. This has a damaging effect on the students who may think that translating is a word-for-word operation, where words and grammatical structures can be substituted, paradigmatically and syntagmatically, by others in a foreign language.

But translating is not a mere replacement of words and phrases joined together by connectors to form larger chunks of language.
Rather, translating is a textual operation which requires the interaction of a text producer with a text receiver. For such an interaction to be successful, or rather to take place, a translator is indispensable to mediate between the text producer and the text receiver, and to clearly communicate the intended message to the TL receiver, taking into account the text conventions that are recognizable to the TL audience. 'Translating, after all, is a text-based activity, not a sentence-based one- unless the sentence itself meets the requirements of textuality.' (Dressler 1972, cited in Sa'adeddin 1987: 139)

Sentence-based TT is damaging, though it may be quite useful in training beginners. However, translating words and isolated sentences may be taken by students to suggest that there is a one-to-one correspondence between words and sentences which are interchangeable without reference to their wider contexts.

In sum, teaching of translating to Arab students is in a deplorable state, owing to the teachers' preoccupation with sentence-based approaches, focusing only on grammar and lexis. This results from the fact that teachers have lost sight of the text as an experiential object, thus ignoring pragmatic, semiotic and other extra-linguistic factors essential to the interpretation and analysis of the SL, for the purpose of finding appropriate TL equivalents.

It goes without saying that TT at Arab universities is in its infancy. It is faced with many difficulties. Some TT writers have attempted to diagnose certain problematical areas, which might be useful in the classroom situation, devising certain strategies towards their solution. Some of these writers put forward recommendations and solutions which may serve as a good foundation for a TT programme at Arab universities.

A. Sa'adeddin is one of a few Arab TT writers who have talked about problems facing TT at Arab universities. Drawing on his experience as a teacher involved with the MSc Course in English/
Arabic-Arabic/ English translation at Heriot-Watt University, he has addressed some problematical areas in the teaching of Arabic/ English translating to Arab students. He was one of the major designers of the M.A. Course in translating at Kuwait University.

In his interesting article entitled 'Target-World Experiential Matching: The Case of Arabic/ English Translating', A. Sa'adeddīn (1987) argues that teaching Arabic/ English translating to 'Arab literates' entails, among other things, teaching the experiential functions of language in their social contexts. This includes:

a) the communal 'ideational function' of language (Halliday 1971; see also 3.4 below).
b) the text strategies most common to the language communities;
c) how to communicate the SLT to the target audience.

2.6 Some problematical Areas in Teaching Arabic/ English-English/ Arabic Translating:

Teaching Arab students to produce adequate English translations of original Arabic texts has for a long time been considered a very difficult task, if not impossible. This has been attributed by Sa'adeddīn to the following factors:

1- a complex of irreconcilable contrasts between Arabic and English with regard to logic in the popular sense (Kaplan 1966: 3);
2- the overuse of wa as a sentence connector (Yorkey 1974: 14);
3- the often lamented absence of proper punctuation as far as written Arabic is concerned. (For a more detailed account, see Sa'adeddīn 1987).

In that article, Sa'adeddīn criticises the common approach to the teaching of Arabic/ English translating, because it is sentence-dominated, prescriptive, and proscriptive. He blames translation teachers at Arab universities for adopting philological theories of translating by focusing on formal, aesthetic features of the message. He criticises the teachers even more for selecting vague terms to describe and assess translations such as language beauty, literary excellence, original flavor, and idiomaticalness.
Sa'adeddin recommends that the teacher of translation should follow a few steps, before he asks his students to translate:

i) getting them to read and appreciate the text for its experiential value- something which emerges from envisaging the text as it is experienced by the audience for which it is originally intended;

ii) imparting to them an awareness of the similarities and differences between the languages in question, and the devices available to each for the production and reproduction of these experiences;

iii) getting them to analyse the communicative components of the SL, and to synthesize them in line with the experiential expectation of the TL audience.

However, I disagree with Sa'adeddin when he misquotes Kaplan saying that Written Arabic is 'a language which lacks logic in the Western popular sense', an overstatement which has never been articulated by Kaplan. (See, for example, Sa'adeddin 1986: 183)

From a pedagogical point of view, Sa'adeddin has mentioned a few problematical areas that crop up now and again in the classroom as well as in actual translating. By defining problems, teachers and TT writers will be able to devise certain strategies and techniques, arming their students with practical skills to surmount problems. In Sa'adeddin's view, it is by highlighting the concept of experiential equivalence in the classroom that the students will learn about translating problems and how to handle them properly.

In other words, by making use of cultural theories of translating, the students will learn that there are cultural gaps between languages and that the task of the translator is to narrow these gaps. This is achieved, according to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:216), by producing an 'equivalence in the experience of the participants' rather than producing parallel linguistic structures.

This kind of equivalence, according to Sa'adeddin, can only be achieved 'by realizing and as far as possible neutralising the
elements of contrast between the source textual world and the expectations of the TA, unless those contrasts are intended by the author of the SLT'. (1987: 140)

2.6.1. **Connectivity:**

One problematical area which is not adequately covered in the teaching of Arabic/English translating to native Arab students is connectivity. Connectors have a major role in binding semantic units and sentences together. They externalise basic logical relations: cause, result, and time, thus taking on a variety of functions such as tracing the development of an argument, relating a sequence of events, marking an opposition, and signalling a conclusion.

One problem results from the students' unawareness of the differences in function between Arabic and English connectors. By illustrating the difference in connectivity systems between Arabic and English, the teacher will make the students aware of the different ways those connectors are used in both languages, and whether there are equivalent connectors.

Translation teachers, therefore, should draw the students' attention to the functions of connectors in Arabic texts, and the appropriate translation of these connectors into English. It might be useful to do a contrastive study of the Arabic connector *wa* and its English counterpart 'and'.

*Wa* is a connector which connects sentences of equal weight. It may be compatible with its English counterpart 'and' in most contexts. The important thing about *wa* is that it nearly marks the beginning of almost every Arabic sentence or paragraph. When every sentence/paragraph-initial *wa* is rendered literally into 'and', a trap most Arab students fall into, this creates a lack of coherence and cohesion in the students' essays and composition. According to Cantarino:

*Wa* is the most generally used conjunctive particle. It connects sentences without implying any closer, more
logical relationship. In the case of the English connector 'and', the semantic implications are determined by the order of the clauses and the semantic content of the clauses it joins (1975, vol. III, 11).

It might be instructive to mention that in English it is the logical, semantic relationship between sentences and propositions that creates cohesion. When translating from English, such implicit relations must necessarily be made explicit in Arabic. It is when there is no English connector to link two sentences, the second of which is meant to give more details or to explicate the first, that problems are created for Arab students.

The Arabic structure tends to favour the frequent use of wa in place of the zero connector in English. That is why Arab students more often than not produce disintegrated texts which lack cohesion, because they make literal translations of the English texts, leaving out necessary connectors. By the same token, replacing each sentence-initial wa by 'and' when translating into English, will result in an awkward piece of writing, with a style more like that of dialogues and informal letters than of academic writing.

While connectivity in English is implicit, i.e. conjunction is assumed unless otherwise specified, Arabic relies heavily on the use of explicit connectors, where every sentence has to be linked with the following and preceding sentences. Cohesion in English texts is maintained by means of the logical relations which bind sentences and propositions together.

It might be instructive to point out that the inter-utterance wa satisfies many of the functions of the full stop and the colon. It also keeps the rhythmic flow of Arabic texts. According to Sa'adeddin:

Both wa and the full stop communicate similar information to the receiver, in so far as they activate in the minds of native receivers the concept of
terminating a *jumla*, that is a complete unit of sense. Thus each is associated to a degree with the concept of utterance termination. However, in addition the Arabic *wa* progressively activates in the minds of native Arabic text-users the expectation of a new, yet related, unit of sense. (1987:144)

In the classroom situation, Saadeddin recommends the following procedure, which he has found very effective in surmounting the difficulties arising from the contrast between Arabic and English in respect of connectivity:

(i) read the text and appreciate its experiential validity;
(ii) delete all Western punctuation marks;
(iii) read the text in terms of units of sense, and introduce a slash (/) before each and every inter-utterance */wa/* and */fa/*, and at the beginning of each */wa/-initiated and each */fa/-initiated unit of sense;
(iv) read the text aloud and mark how the end of each unit of sense is demarcated by the deletion of the segment or syllable that indicates the case of the final-word form; also notice how the intonational quality of the intra-utterance */wa/*s and */fa/*s differs from that of the inter-utterance ones: the latter are almost always weak syllables initiating a 'tone group';
(v) delete all text-forming */wa/*s and */fa/*s bearing in mind that some */fa/*s must be retained if, contextually, they have functions other than text-forming, i.e. sequential or consequential functions;
(vi) perform sentential experiential matching and introduce English punctuation markers, as appropriate. (ibid.:148)

Saadeddin argues that the reason why Arabic utilises explicit connectors boils down to the deliberate selection made by the Arabs of a certain linkage system which stems from 'the very linguistic personality of that community.' Saadeddin supports
his argument by saying:

The Arabic linkage system symbolizes junction by means of lexical items which explicitly transmit the coherence of the text to native Arabic speakers, who perceive the import of the items so intuitively that they seldom think of them. (ibid.: 143)

2.6. 2. Punctuation:

A second problematical area in English/Arabic translation, which is not unrelated to connectivity, is punctuation. As there are differences between English and Arabic connectivity, there are also differences concerning punctuation systems in both languages. Kharma (1985) states that 'all classical Arabic writings' are devoid of punctuation.' Western linguists have also accused Arabic of having no proper punctuation at all.

Unfortunately, the previous misconceptions about Arabic have been adopted and publicised by Arab teachers of translation, teachers of English as a second language, and linguists. Yorkey supports Sa'adeddīn's argument by saying:

Teachers at the American University of Beirut refer to the 'wa-wa method of writing because of the Arabic wa 'and', which is exceedingly used as a sentence connector. (1974:142)

Measuring Arabic by European yardsticks, by adopting 'the explicitly marked Western punctuation system,' will impose some changes on Arabic texts, causing a loss in their experiential validity. The English punctuation system differs from that of Arabic. Indeed, each fulfills in the language a different function. According to Whitehall, 'the most important purpose of modern English punctuation is to make grammar graphic. By contrast,'the most important purpose of the Arabic linkage system is to make the well-formed speech of the Arabs graphic'. (1959: 214, cited in Sa'adeddīn 1987: 143)
In fact, the above observations concerning connectivity and punctuation systems in Arabic and English have great implications for the teaching of composition and Arabic/English translating to Arab students.

2.6.3. Paragraph Organisation:
A third problematical area in Arabic/English translating is the difference in paragraph organisation. Kaplan (1966: 3) remarks that although many foreign students are proficient in the structures of English, they cannot write well-organised essays. Their composition is considered by their instructors to lack cohesion. This problem can be surmounted, provided that students are given awareness of the reasons underlying their errors.

The problem of bad organisation may be attributed to the syntactic and semantic choices made by students as a result of the interference of the native language. This is partly due to the fact that paragraph organisation in English tends to be quite different from that of Arabic and other Semitic languages. It is also due to students' use of a style which does not correspond to English conventions. Arab students' style of writing is characterised by the use of long sentences, and the different use of 'and'. Their essays and reports will strike the English reader as repetitious and diffuse.

Kaplan (1966:6;1976: 16) explains that paragraph development in Arabic is based on a complex series of parallel constructions, typical of all Semitic languages. Parallelism in English is best demonstrated by reference to the King James version of the Old Testament. The following is an example which illustrates parallelism:

His descendants will be mighty in the land

and

the generation of the upright will be blessed. (Cited in Kaplan 1966: 7)
To cite a second example, a literal translation of a line from Tāha Husain's *The Stream of Days* goes like this: 'Women in the villages of Egypt do not like silence and are not inclined towards it', rather than: 'women in Egypt tend to be talkative.' (See, for example, Dudley-Evans and Swales 1980)

In Kaplan's point of view, parallelism does not confine itself to single sentences, but expands to form the core of paragraphs in some Arabic writing, which may strike the English reader as archaic or awkward, and may be a hinderance to understanding and communication. According to him:

...it appears that Arabic has the linguistic capacity for much more of syntactic parallelism than English has, and it has been demonstrated that Arabic speakers writing in English tend to produce a "Euphuistic" prose which is receptively unacceptable to native English speakers. (It also appears to be the case that translation from contemporary Arabic into English displays similar characteristics.) (Kaplan 1976: 16)

Another relevant observation is that whereas Arabic has more syntactic markers for coordination than English has- and this may also be true for all Semitic languages- it has fewer markers for subordination, subordination being the criteria for measuring maturity of style in English. Teaching paragraph structure to students of English/Arabic translating is, therefore, of a great importance. That is why Kaplan advocates that 'contrastive rhetoric must be taught in the same sense that contrastive grammar is presently taught. (C.f. ibid.)

It might be useful to note that the paragraph of serious expository prose in English tends to be a logical rather than a typographical unit.

2.6.4. Argumentation in Arabic and English:
It has been argued that Arabic employs different methods of argumentation from those employed by English and other European languages (Kaplan 1966; 1976, Dudley-Evans and
Swales 1980). If we take one theme and try to see how Arabic and English develop it, we come to realise that the approach adopted in English is something like the exposition of a situation, followed by evidence, and substantiation.

The Arabic version of the same content may begin with two topic sentences which may be loosely connected through syllogisms. Some parts of the evidence may sound repetitious, though a clear picture of the situation emerges from both versions and one cannot consider one to be superior to the other.

Recently, Hātim (1989: 28) has proposed that Arabic favours more direct forms of argumentation or 'through argumentation' than that of the English 'counter-argumentative' mode. He has the reservation, however, that while this observation awaits further research and a more definitive statistical statement, 'our own research into the matter indicates a predilection in Arabic for what we have referred to as 'through argumentation'. At least in present-day rhetorical practice, the general tendency in Arabic seems to favour a situation in which the arguer's own views are foregrounded with the opponent's position left very much in the background.

But following this tentative proposition, Hātim immediately goes on to say that it is wrong to assume that the counter-argumentative mode is completely alien to Arabic, citing Ibn Qudāma, a Fourteenth Century Arab rhetorician, who believes that 'in effective argumentation, the argument builds on initial premises which are accepted by the opponent.' (Ibn Qudāma 1982 edition, cited in Ḥātim 1989: 29)

This tendency of the Arabic language of favouring direct argumentation has been attributed to deep-rooted socio-cultural factors, having to do with distance (detachment or involvement) and the nature of the ensuing relationship between addresser and addressee. Accordingly, Arabic seems to encourage the tendency that arguers have to take for granted audience endorsement of the
views put forward later.

In a bid to make a useful distinction between the basic types of sentences in Arabic, Hätim claims that the use of the verbal and the nominal in Arabic is determined by text structure (text compositional plan) which is in turn determined by text context. Drawing on Theme/Rheme theory within a text-type perspective, he argues that the use of the verbal sentence in Arabic is appropriate to expository texts (e.g. narration, description, etc.) while the nominal is compatible with the argumentative type, especially counter-argumentation, in Hätim's terms, 'thesis cited to be opposed.'

For such a strong claim to be expounded, a large corpus of texts will be required, rather than the small number of texts which Hätim rather subjectively and carefully selected. In fact, there is no such neat distinction between the nominal and the verbal, and the choice between them has been optional, depending on the intuition of native speakers.

Some grammarians have attempted to distinguish between them. Beeston's (1970) and Wright's (1974) distinctions which Hätim quotes to prove his case lend the least support to his argument. Tammam Hassān (1979), a modern Arab linguist, has recently proposed that the difference between the nominal and the verbal boils down to time; the nominal sentence in Arabic lacks the time factor.

There are other differences between Arabic and English in terms of the tense system, voice: passive or active, definiteness or indefiniteness, emphasis, the use of relative clauses, and other differences.

Mention should be made of the difference between Arabic and English in text processing. As far as text strategies in both cultures are concerned, two recommendations emerge, which are important in the teaching of translating:

1- to impart to students awareness of the differences
between languages with regard to their text strategies;

2- to stress the fact that communication subsumes sharing
drawn from common experience, actual or literary, and bringing
new knowledge to the receiver, built on that shared knowledge.

What is needed, in Sa'adeddin's point of view, is a kind of
translation teaching wherein text syntax, text semantics, and
text pragmatics are integrated in a unified whole that trains
students of translating in contrastive experiential language
usage.

2.7. Controversial Issues in Translation Teaching:
According to Keith (1989:66) there has always been a certain
disagreement over whether translators:
a) are born rather than made;
b) can be trained in educational institutions or on the job.
The number of people who subscribe to the belief that translators
should be 'trained in the school of life' is probably still quite
large.

Keith also stresses the importance of the local situation in
determining the type of syllabus to be designed. According to
him:

Any discussion of what elements can be included in
institutional training needs to take into consideration
the particular circumstances of the country concerned.
(1989: 68)

Chau (1984: 29) summarises current controversial areas that
most TT writers and designers are interested in:
1- the justification of the training of translators in an
institutional context (at a college, university, firm, publishing
company, government department);
2- the level at which TT should take place: secondary school,
undergraduate, post-graduate;
3- the objectives of such a training;
4- the language competence of candidates (prospective
translators, bilinguals, etc.);
5- translation into the native language or into the foreign language;
6- qualifications of translators/ interpreters.

A number of books has been written on the subject and specialized journals have been published addressing the important issues of translating teaching. The tendency in these works is to compare and contrast texts in different languages and to propose solutions. They more often than not concentrate on specific language pairs.

The discipline of TT is still in its early stages; so is its representation in books, articles, and conferences. It has yet to address serious problems involved, which crop up in the process between a specific language pair. The practicality of translation theory in TT is yet to be ascertained, and its assumed usefulness in providing insights towards solving problems is yet to be fully investigated. First, we shall discuss a few controversial areas relevant to translating and translation teaching, which are the subjects of heated debate.

2.7.1. Formal Training of Translators:
According to Keith (1989: 67): 'Even if some practising translators still harbour some scepticism about the usefulness of training programmes, very few of them actually express their views formally.' Pilley (1962) was one of the last to do so. Since then most discussion has centred on the question of how to train translators rather than whether to do so.

Indeed, as soon as we look into the literature of translation, we realize that the majority of translators have never followed any translation or interpreting training. According to Citroen:

After all, the majority of the translators active at present have never had a direct schooling for the trade they ply, nor have they ever felt a need for it. Some have been educated as linguists, others are persons who have learned languages abroad, many are gifted people
who managed to master the required skills in their own ways. (1966: 140)

But Citroen goes on to argue in favour of formal training:

..if we give the matter some thought, there seems little difficulty in choosing between, on the one hand, a training at a qualified school where student translators and interpreters are enabled to acquire, in a few years time, the exact basic information they need for the satisfactory pursuit of their chosen profession, and on the other hand, the many largely unguided study required by their elders to reach a satisfactory standard of competence with no way to check whether such a standard has actually been achieved. (ibid.:140)

He also argues for a specialised training of translators. According to him:

the growing demand for specialized translators by science, industry, and certain international organizations, however, cannot be disregarded and hence, at least a part of the annual crop of translation students showing aptitude should be enabled to receive a specialized training. (C.f.ibid.:143)

Citroen points out that the demand for translators is a fact. Some of the newer schools of translators are actually introducing Engineering into their programmes. There seems no reason why this trend should not continue. There can be no stronger support for institutionalised translating teaching than this.

One important issue, as Chau (1984b: 31) points out, is what TT is expected to do. 'As many translation educators realize, it is not that students can actually be taught how to translate, but at least they can be guided to understand the principles of good translating...'

There are only a few articles published in opposition to formal
training of translators. C. Schmitt's 'The Self-Taught Translator' (1966) is one of these publications. Schmitt argues that it is unnecessary for the translator to follow any formal training. It is so often that people who object to translator training claim that translating is a skill which can not be acquired. In other words, either a person has got it or has not.

Some of the opponents of formal training take the view, that teaching translation skills is like training somebody how to drive. You give the learner basic instructions, and after a short while leave him alone to work it out for himself. After all, he may or may not be able to drive. The issue is whether he will make a good driver or not. The learning process continues after the formal instruction has ceased.

Those writers who object to TT claim that translating is an art which cannot be systematically taught. According to them, the activity of translating requires an innate ability plus experience, which are the major qualifications of the translator. It takes real inborn aptitude to become a good translator (Citroen 1966:139, Schmitt 1966: 123). Nida joins forces with Schmitt saying that 'translators are born not made' (1981:401)

It goes without saying that translating/Interpreting as a profession has gained enormously from development in the linguistic sciences, and, consequently, has been widely recognised. However, only a few will argue nowadays that inborn qualities are not essential for a professional translator or interpreter. The attitude of most translators and TT writers is that while a great deal of inherent qualities are essential for a translator, translators/interpreters need a certain degree of training in order to perfect their performance.

There is a consensus among TT writers on the matter of translators and interpreters training and that the university is the best place for training translators. (Jorden 1979: 2; Gerver and Sinaiko 1978)
2.7.2. The Level at Which TT Should Start:
While most translators and translation teachers agree that TT should take place at an undergraduate level, some think that it 'can be taught at different levels of the education hierarchy: pre-tertiary, undergraduate, and post-graduate' (Chau 1984: 44). Some others demand that TT should be restricted to the postgraduate level.

2.7.3 TT and Bilingualism:
Bilingualism, the perfect mastery of two languages, does not necessarily entail the production of good translators. Many translation teachers still believe that one of the major aims of TT is to improve the linguistic competence of the students, bringing them to near bilinguals. According to Butzkamm:

...a person who is fluent in the oral and written use of two languages is not necessarily an effective translator. This reservation is in line with the hypothesis discussed by bilingual research according to which somebody who disposes of a coordinate bilingual is less qualified for translation than somebody who belongs to the groups of compound bilinguals, i.e., who is only imperfectly bilingual. (Butzkamm 1973, cited in Chau 1984b)

Some TT writers still uphold the view that bilingualism is the ultimate and idealistic aim of Translating/interpreting teaching programmes. For example, in debating the issue of the academic training of translators, Howder and Cramer find that one member of the panel, George Strunz, advocates the idea that a translator must be fully bilingual and that he must begin his study of foreign languages early in life, while not claiming that knowledge of foreign languages in itself makes one a translator any more than the knowledge of English makes one a writer (see, for example, Howder and others (1973:5).

The hypothesis is irrelevant for TT, because the majority of the student population in schools of translating and
interpreting belong to the compound group, with a more powerful native language and a less powerful foreign language.

Bilingualism can be a hindrance rather than a help. According to Healy (1978:54), 'all natural bilinguals are not translators', and coordinate bilinguals ('true' bilinguals with two native languages) may actually have to work harder to become competent translators than compound bilinguals - people who learn L2 later in life. (See also Wilss 1982:114; Napthine 1983: 21)

2.7.4. Translating into the Foreign Language:
There is a tendency among teachers and TT writers to discourage any translation into the foreign language. This idea has a bearing on bilingual research (c.f 2.7.3 above). The natural domination of the native tongue over the foreign language means that normally a translator is better qualified for L2/ L1 translation rather than the other way. ESP texts are the exception rather than the rule.

Translation practice from the native language into the foreign one can be undertaken in translation programmes only for pedagogical purposes. Some TT writers are against the idea of teaching students to translate into the foreign language. David Gold (1969: 107) is of the opinion that 'it is hard enough to train someone to translate or interpret well into his primary tongue, and no effort should therefore be made to accomplish the virtually impossible.' D. V. Abbe supports Gold's argument:

Dr Arthur Cooper used to note that in his diplomatic experience the Foreign Service would frequently be called on to translate from a foreign language into English, but NEVER from English into a foreign language. This is doubtless an exaggeration, but experience shows that, even in countries where the teaching of foreign languages reaches a high level of competence, commercial translation, for instance of operating instructions on machines, is not even 50 percent efficient (there is only one near-perfect English-language diplomatic propaganda sheet in London).
Official bodies accept that translation into their own languages are less than perfect: they train their people precisely to check and then correct accordingly. To strive for anything else is perfectionism. (1970: 40-41, original emphasis)

But is it really impossible to translate into L2?. Before jumping to conclusions we have to look at the huge number of works translated into foreign languages. Had translation into L2 been impossible, we would not have been familiar with masterpieces of world literature. Chau (1984b), while saying that 'it is generally considered impossible to make a good job of translating into L2, has the reservation that 'translators in real life have to do this at times, especially if their L1 is not a widely used one.'

It is the policy of the International Federation of Translators (FIT) and its member organizations to insist on T/I into L1 only. Employers of translators also stick to the principle of translating into the native language only. However, for reasons of limited resources, especially in countries where the language combinations are restricted to only two languages, this principle cannot be strictly observed. In my opinion, the whole matter boils down to market considerations and what might be looked at as a potential danger of competition from prospective translators.

While emphasizing the need to differentiate between two competence directions for translating into and out of the mother tongue, Wilss (1982: 182) admits that many translation schools, in order to provide the market with optimally qualified graduates, are compelled to offer two-way translation classes and require examination papers in both directions.

One drawback of professional translating into the foreign language is that it may flood the market with cheap and low-quality translations (Tinsely 1973:p3). For the sake of precision, and in order to keep up the flow of top-quality translation, translators are advised against translating into the foreign language.
2.7.5 Translating and Interpreting:
Writers usually distinguish between two kinds of bilingual communication: translating and interpreting. Translating is an indirect act of communication between sender and receiver. Such is the case in technical/scientific and other kinds of written translating, where the translator has only the written text at his disposal. The missing contact between sender and receiver makes the translator's task more difficult, because the possibility of inquiring about the conditions and circumstances of the communication act is lost. This will deprive the translator from an important source of information loaded in para-linguistic features, which, in the case of interpreting, may lead to a better understanding of the SLT.

Thus, in the typical case of translating, we have a complex kind of communication event. To be able to translate successfully, the translator has to analyze the content of the SLT and to know what field of knowledge it belongs to. Not knowing the subject matter and the overall context of the message may lead to misunderstanding of the intended message. The task of the translator is fully to understand the shades of meanings and their functions in the SLT.

Interpreting takes place between two persons who do not speak the same language and an interpreter who mediates between them. In this kind of interlingual communication, there is direct contact between the participants and the interpreter. There is also cooperation between them, because part of the information is passed between the addressee and the addressee in the form of gestures, signs, and intonation.

There is a disagreement among TI writers as to whether the activities of translating and interpreting are similar, and whether they can be included in joint T/I programmes. Some TT writers believe that translating and interpreting are different, and therefore should be taught in separate courses.
The conditions under which interpreters and translators work are different. Though translators have to meet deadlines, they do not have to work under the same pressure which interpreters usually experience. Translators' work is subjected to scrutiny from checkers and revisors, while interpreters' work is usually free from such a scrutiny.

Though the major difference between translating and interpreting boils down to the medium of communication: speech for interpreting and writing for translating, the fact remains that these two activities are not interchangeable. As Keith (1989: 65) puts it,' although the ultimate aim of the interpreter is the same as that of a translator, the skills required and processing problems involved are different.'

However, as far as T/ l teaching is concerned, they are not completely distinct disciplines. Translating and interpreting are more often than not taught in the same programmes to the same students (see Coveney 1971). The commonly-held view is that translating should precede interpreting. In this way, it may lay a solid terminological foundation, thus facilitating linguistic skills useful for interpreting. Some people feel that there is a bias inherent in this view which implies that interpreting is superior to translating. This does not overshadow the fact that the activities of translating and interpreting complement each other, and can be included in one TT programme.

2.7.6. Qualities of Translators and Translation Teachers:
There is disagreement over the requirements of prospective translators. One such requirement is the ability of SL and TL writing and speaking. While most TT writers believe that it is important for translators to master both the mother tongue and the foreign language, some believe that mastering the languages is not enough.

Al-Jāḥiẓ (died 255 /868) believes that the translator must be conversant with all fields of knowledge. According to him:
The expression of the translator in his translation will be commensurate with his familiarity with the subject matter. He must be extremely knowledgeable concerning both the SL and TL. In fact, he should have an equivalent knowledge of these. (1969, vol.1: 76)

As branches of sciences and technology are expanding rapidly, it becomes impossible to train translators in these specialised areas, because adequate specialist knowledge may take many years to master.

Some writers consider indispensable the 'general knowledge' of the major fields of daily human interest, be they political, economic, or scientific, for without them comprehension and self-expression are hardly conceivable. Keiser (1978:12-13) believes 'that the success of TT depends to a large extent on the students' previous education and training.'

Translators are expected to have good command of at least two languages. American Universities and some European schools of translating and interpreting make the mastery of two foreign language an essential prerequisite for those who want to work as translators and interpreters. Some American translating courses ask for a third language, a minority one, as an elective subject.

Discussing the qualifications of a potential translator, Nida (1981:401-2) expresses his agreement with TT specialists, pointing out that 'it is extremely difficult to test in advance what a person's potential as a translator may be', despite the various tests available. However, it is possible to predict with great accuracy what a trainee's future success is likely to be on the basis of a few week's participation in a training programme.

Although many writers have discussed TT and the prerequisites of good translators, the proposed terms such as 'talent', 'intelligence', and 'creative imagination' are too vague to form a clear description of how they can be acquired.
There is disagreement over the qualifications of the translation teacher. But there are a few points which most TT writers agree upon regarding the requirements of the translation teacher. He should be a professional translator. Keiser (1978:13) criticises 'quite a number of schools pretending to train interpreters where there is not one conference interpreter among the faculty, and where most if not all teachers have never been in an international conference let alone seen interpreters at work.' In addition to their vocational skills, experienced translators should show proof of a definite skill for teaching.

Wilss lists five qualifications required from the translation teacher:

1- a comprehensive transfer competence;
2- an awareness of SL/TL surface divergences;
3- an interest in TT problems;
4- the ability to adapt learning theories to the field of TT;
5- the ability to develop translational achievement tests for controlling the translational learning progress. (1982:183)

This list, however, does not include any new qualities.

2.7.7. Teaching content:
The majority of the works on TT recommend what to teach and sometimes how. Syllabus brochures provide an outline of what is to be taught. However, there are differences among course designers as to what to teach in a translation course, how, and the proportion of each component. This may be attributed to different theoretical approaches adopted by each course designer, the needs and restrictions of the local market, and the aims of the course.

Reiss devises two didactic principles which govern the order of the teaching content:

a) progress from the general to the particular, which implies
that establishment of competence must start before training in performance. Students must be equipped with a basic knowledge of the complex factors of interlingual communication before they undertake practical translating.

b) progress from the easy to the difficult. This principle must be borne in mind both for the order of types of text selected to be taught, and in respect of the degree of difficulty within these types of text.

2.7. 8 ELT in T/ I Courses:
One controversy among translation course designers concerns the teaching of language in T/ I programmes. Some translation teachers and writers believe that there is no place for language teaching in a translation course. Keiser is one of those TT writers who argue against any language teaching in translation teaching. He criticizes existing translation courses, which are usually transformed into language courses. It is irrelevant and sometimes detrimental to ideal advanced translation courses to include language teaching, as he points out:

The success of advanced translation courses is often jeopardized by the simple fact that many students are not up to the required standards of language proficiency on the one hand and of general education on the other. Translation classes thus become a mere exercise in language, not translating, just plain language, or they degenerate into terminology workshops of a very basic nature — in both cases a time consuming exercise in exasperation for the teacher and frustration for the student. (1969: 3)

Students, therefore, should have a good mastery of foreign languages before joining a translation/interpreting course. To avoid cramming the syllabus with language components, Keiser proposes a pre-test to assess the standard of the student before being admitted to the course. If the student fails the test, he will be excluded from joining the course. Of course, one of the aims of the translation course is that the student will improve his/her language competence, but it is important to note that it
is not the primary aim of T/I courses to impart linguistic competence to students.

However, this is not the case in reality. Language teaching occupies a considerable proportions of many T/I courses. According to Chau (1984b:57), 'T/I is sometimes taught well before proficiency in two languages can be reasonably expected, often in countries where FLT is uncommon. Thus TT runs parallel to second language teaching.'

In the Arab World, particularly in Syria, ELT starts at a relatively late age (i.e. the preparatory school). It is, therefore, idealistic, perhaps impossible, to envisage the feasibility of a proper TT at the secondary level or even at the undergraduate level without complementary language teaching. The reason is that only a few students will have a good command of the foreign language by the time they join the university.

Syllabus designers have, therefore, paid a lot of attention to language training in translation courses. For example, in his syllabus design of the translation course at Saarbrücken, W. Wilss devotes the first two semesters for intensive training in the foreign language.

A cursory glance at the contents of translation courses on both sides of the Atlantic indicates that language training is essential to T/I courses. On a theoretical level, there are translation teachers/TT writers who believe that language instruction (in the form of contrastive grammar, for example) is an indispensable component of TT. According to C.R.B. Perkins, TT is mainly about the lexical and syntactical problems that arise in translation:

It is the teacher's task to point out systematically where common patterns of equivalence differ, so that the student learns to be wary of mother tongue interference...he should illustrate a priori these differing patterns of equivalence by means of clear
Nida proposes the inclusion of L1 training in translation courses:

One way of encouraging a deeper appreciation of one's own languages is to teach people to write or translate for different audiences or different levels. This requires a conscious manipulation of the forms of language, and frequently this can be assisted by some practical orientation in the so-called generative-transformational grammar. (1979: 213).

L1 training in TT takes the form of training in style and text criticism, and is therefore different from the lexically and syntactically oriented L2 training.

2.7.9. The Place of Linguistics in T/ I Programmes:
The inclusion of Linguistics in T/I courses is still controversial. Some TT writers object to its inclusion on the grounds that students should only be given the practical training as well as the tools of the trade. According to Hendrickx:

Students should be taught how to use languages rather than be given information about them. They should be given the instructions and the training that will allow them to practise their craft properly, rather than that required for the theoretical and scientific study of the language. (1975: 102)

Though there is an anti-linguistics feeling, many translation teachers and writers, however, would agree that Linguistics has a relevant contribution to make to the general practice of translation. It is not surprising, therefore, to hear a contemporary TT writer regretting that 'a fundamental subject, which is unfortunately not taught in most if not all schools for translators and interpreters is Linguistics' (Anonymous).

Since the development of text linguistics in the Sixties, the
prevalent view has been that translating can gain insights from Linguistics. It is a fact that linguistics has started to make itself heard in modern syllabuses in translating and interpreting (see, for example, Coveney's (1983: 4) outline of the M.A. Course in Arabic/English Translation and Interpreting at Bath University; see also Napthine (1983: 22-23).

2.7.10 Teaching Translation Theory:
Another controversial issue is whether theories of translation should be included in a translation/interpreting course. Keiser proposes the introduction of theories of translation as an important component of the syllabus. Translation theory is given in the form of short exposes (15 to 20 minutes) dealing with a vast range of subjects including 'literal versus free translating', 'the limits of translating', etc. 'These briefs would not necessarily be given in a pre-established order but as and when practical problems arise or whenever questions put by students warrant a more thorough examination.' (1969: 5)

Wilss, a devout supporter of theory, proposes teaching theory under the heading of 'science of translation', which constitutes the fourth component of his curriculum. In his 'Curricular Planning', Wilss explains that such a component aims to impart to students knowledge of the processes involved in translating and interpreting. The science of translation classes are organised in such a way as to concentrate on the discussion of translation problems related to a specific language pair.

The fact is that translation theory and linguistic theory are deeply entrenched in TT programmes. They have proved to be useful for translators, and their insights are promising in helping translators solve translation problems. Most undergraduate and postgraduate T/I courses in the U.S.A include theoretical components such as Contrastive Grammar and Translation Theory as integral parts. This has been confirmed in recent studies (Chau 1984b, Napthine 1983, Wilss 1982).
Most of T/I courses nowadays include theory. The fact remains that T/I programmes are far from being theoretical. Some TT writers think that training of translators and interpreters should comprise both theory and practice. Frerk (1963: 365-66) is of the opinion that there should be two periods of training: theoretical training at school and another period of practical training in the translation department of a large organisation.

Thus we can conclude that theory is indispensable to practice and vice versa. As theory without practice is dead so, too, is practice without continuous direction and stimulation from theory. As translation studies become more and more sophisticated, and the application of the insights of modern linguistic theories is on the increase, translation theory is establishing itself in T/I programmes, as has been reported in recent surveys on TT (see, for instance, Napthine 1983).

2.7.11. Purely Theoretical Courses:
Some TT writers have argued for the inclusion of translation theory in T/I training programmes. Writers such as Keiser, Reiss, and Wilss included translation theory in their T/I syllabuses, thus combining practical skills with theory. However, there are few writers who have thought that it is desirable to have courses in translation theory (see, for instance, Gold 1975:107, Fawcett 1981: 144)

Fawcett, for example, has found that it is desirable to teach translation theory in a special curriculum. He has presented a modified version of Koller's account, which he has considered to be succinct and reasonably comprehensive. It contains the following:
- applied translation theory; preparation of text-books and hand-books;
- specific translation theory: application of the results of general theory to specific language pairs and text types;
Fawcett considers this list incomplete: it needs to be supplemented by the following topics:
- history of translation theory and practice, translation rules, specific forms of translating (intralingual, intersemiotic, transcription, etc.), special modes of translating (dubbing, interpreting), machine translating, translation quality assessment, and contributory disciplines.

Fawcett proposes his own curriculum content, which should comprise the following topics:

**Topic I - History of Theory and Practice:**
- reviewing the major schools of translating throughout history;
- evaluating the possibility of achieving a coherent description and conceptual framework for the history of translation;
- demonstrating awareness of the culture-bound nature of translating by:
  1. identifying the cultural pressures involved in a particular translation;
  2. identifying the different treatments that might have been given to particular texts in different periods;
  3. enumerating the cultural factors which influence modern translation theory.

**Topic II Models of Translating:**
Models of translating includes:
- reviewing the major models of the process and evaluate their usefulness;
- identifying the model which seems to have governed translations;
- demonstrating how different models would handle a particular translation;
- reviewing psychological/sociological theories related to translator/receptor, showing how they might influence the translation of a particular text.
Topic III Text Linguistics:
This includes:
- major theories of text typology;
- major features of a given text type;
- identifying translating techniques appropriate to text type in a given translation.

Fawcett reviews the history of translation theory, which deals with the subject from different approaches. Smith (1958), Brower (1959) and Arrowsmith and Shattuck (1964) have little or nothing to contribute to TT. A more unified approach is found in Catford (1965) and Wilss (1978), both of whom structure their books on central issues in translation theory.

Catford's contribution to the teaching of translating remains limited, as he concentrates more on definitions of types of translation, problems of translatability, and the discussion of special kinds of translation. Another review of the history of translation theory is found in Nida and Taber (1969) and Levy (1969) all of whom discuss each phase of the translating in turn.

A third history of translation theory is provided by Savory (1957), Jumpelt (1961) and Reiss (1971, 1976), where translating techniques and problems are considered according to text type. Finally, we have the approach adopted by Kloepfer (1979), who looks at translation strategy throughout history, and Kelly (1979), who analyzes the way in which major translation concepts have been handled at various periods (1981:145-46).

Having presented a review of the major publications on translation theory, Fawcett concludes by assessing the two main approaches. The historical approach, fascinating though it may be to the expert, is likely to be exasperating for most students, while the text type approach, though it may fit in with the structuring of translation classes, involves too much repetition.

2.7.12. Specialised Translating Training:
It is axiomatic that a translation course can never provide training in all the subjects and all the fields of knowledge that a translator may need to be familiar with. This view is upheld by Citroen who thinks that each translation school differentiates its course from those of other schools by giving the kind of syllabus which suits its character. While no detailed study of any particular subject is provided, students can be equipped with a basic knowledge of a few broad fields such as Science, Technology, Law and Economy. (C.f. Citroen1966: 143-144)

Other TT writers, and G. Strunz is one of them, think that the knowledge of technical and specialised subjects is subservient to knowledge of foreign languages. M. Howder and W. B. Cramer (1973:5) observe that 'Mr. Strunz has found that knowledge of the technical subjects will come later, with experience'.

Whereas every TT writer agrees that some kind of specialisation is useful, there are some writers who believe that there must be a certain level of technical competence beyond which any increase will not improve the quality of the translated material.

In providing the students with specialised training, course designers aim to help the students surmount the difficulties of technical registers and ideas distinctive of a specific subject matter, especially when the students have only received language teaching. (See, for example, Longely 1978: 49)

Citroen argues for a specialised training for translators. According to him:

The growing demand for specialized translators by science, industry, and certain international organizations, however, cannot be disregarded and, hence, at least a part of the annual crop of translation students showing aptitude should be enabled to receive a specialized training... the demand for translators is a fact. Some of the newer schools of translators are actually introducing engineering into their programmes. There seems no reason why this trend should not
Field-oriented translation teaching has also been advocated by Hendricks:

The teaching of languages and of translation should be supplemented by a "general" education covering a wide range of subjects such as economics, politics, law, technology. This again should be complemented by some kind of specialization, e.g., in electronics, medicine, commerce, agriculture, chemistry, the fine arts. Whether this specialization should take place before, during or after the actual tuition period remains an open question, since conditions may vary quite considerably as regards both the available facilities for language study and the nature of the demand for translation. (1975:102)

Anne Napthine (1983:21-24) believes that the translator should be trained in specialised language as well as in linguistics, and that those should have a place in a TT syllabus. Indeed, modern TT syllabuses have already combined language teaching and specialised areas; as is the case with the typical four-year courses in Western Europe.

In describing her syllabus, Reiss (1976) stresses the importance of the subject matter, as one of the essential competence areas that the translator must have. This competence can be acquired through the study of a specialised discipline. Reiss provides such a component in the first stage of her syllabus by including the study of specialised areas alongside cultural studies of the foreign language and documentation. Indeed, the basic three-stage course is followed by a developed stage, where specialisation for a particular career is catered for.

Citroen (1966a:141-142) points out that 'of the three pillars of translation', a good knowledge of the source and the target languages and of the subject matter, the emphasis has shifted from the linguistic competence of the translator in both SL and
TL to the knowledge of the subject matter. This is particularly so in scientific and technical translating.

In view of the enormous diversification of human knowledge, it would obviously not be possible for one translator to be thoroughly conversant in all subject-matters. Hence specialisation is becoming an absolute prerequisite of the translator. Citroen recommends that translators work in teams. Faced with more diverse specialised areas, technical/scientific translators will have to cooperate in the future if they want to avoid the difficulty involved in translating complicated texts, and if they want to avoid loss of time.

It goes without saying that every translation school tries to impart some knowledge of as many subjects as possible to their students. But it must be noted that no school or translation course can offer translating in all specialised subjects, because it is difficult to determine the need of the market as well as the career-orientation of the students. However, every school concentrates on a few specialised subjects.

How far should specialisation go? Translation courses in the future must provide student translators with a basic knowledge of broad fields such as theoretical and applied sciences (e.g. Medicine, Pharmacy, etc.), Technology, and Social Sciences. Specialisation in narrower fields should be left to on the job training.

Citroen makes a few important suggestions. Translation schools in the future should conduct a survey of the market to cover the areas in which translators are most needed. On the basis of the collected data it would be possible to decide the number of translators to be trained in various fields, as well as to make sure that these fields fit in with the student-translators' own talents.

In other words, TT writers feel that prospective translators should have a good background in various fields of the social and
physical sciences and the humanities. S. Horn (1966: 149) feels that, at least, the following subjects should be included in the curriculum: Politics, History, Philosophy, Economics; International Law and International Relations, the Arts, Physical Sciences, and Technology (e.g. Engineering). He emphasizes the importance of informing the student how to react when he encounters a highly specialised text.

However, Horn's proposition to include these subject-matters is over-ambitious and impractical, since mastering all of them may take more than one life-time.

2.7.13. On the Job Training:
Most T/I courses do their best to train students, and prepare them in theory and practice for the kind of job they are expected to undertake once they have successfully completed the course. Students are also advised to seek employment with a company, an international organization, or a government department before working as free-lance translators. Napthine agrees that after completing their courses, the students should have 'a probationary period' in an international organization (1983: 25).

For some TT writers, it is essential to have practical 'on-the-job training'. Frerk is of the opinion that practical TT training, which he regrets is still ignored, should be of top priority in any TT programme. He points out that no provisions exist for a formal system of practical training, and that the occupation of the translator is not yet approved as a recognized profession. He argues for practical training, and calls upon graduates to follow a practical training or apprenticeship, or a period of work under supervision.

On the job training will bring the translation profession up to the level of other theoretical professions such as Law and Medicine. According to him:

For practically every other profession it is laid down that the theoretical training received at the
universities or specialized technical colleges must be followed by a formal apprenticeship, traineeship or articulated clerkship, or by a period of practical work under supervision. Such provisions apply, for instance, to the legal profession, to doctors, dentists, dispensing chemists and pharmacists, to many classes of engineers and architects, to teachers, and in some countries even to certain commercial occupations. Yet, translators are not called upon as a matter of principle to undergo practical training under the guidance of experienced qualified translators and/or revisers following theoretical training. (1963:365)

For Frerk, junior translators should follow practical training, for at least one year, in the translation department of a large organisation, where they can complement their theoretical training under the supervision of experienced translators and interpreters. Practical training, therefore, should be an integral part of translation/interpreting courses.

2.8. Model Syllabuses:

Only a few serious attempts have been made to set up effective translation courses. These courses differ in their degree of difficulty, duration, and subject-matter orientation. (A full account of the history of Translation Teaching can be found in Wilss 1982:128)

Apart from individual attempts to design systematic courses there has been no concerted effort to work out a framework for a systematic TT, at least in the modern sense of the word. This is due to the fact that until a few decades ago there was no pressing need systematically to address the practicality of setting up didactic and methodological procedures of communicatively-oriented TT. The urgent demand for systematically trained translators and interpreters made itself felt only after the end of World War II.

The fact that systematic TT procedures started late in linguistic research, apart from the natural lag between applied
research and theoretical and descriptive research, is blamed on
the idea that systematic TT, unlike FLT, has no historical
dimension. Wilss substantiates this by pointing out that of the
three schools of translating and interpreting at the West
German Universities of Mainz, Saarbrücken and Heidelberg, Mainz
and Saarbrücken were founded after the war in 1947 and 1948
respectively. The one at Heidelberg was founded earlier, in
1932.

For the purposes of this study, we shall discuss model
syllabuses designed by Wilss, Keiser, Reiss, Coveney, and Horn
respectively, which may be considered representative of
translating/interpreting courses in the West. The aim is to
identify the common characteristics shared by these courses
and to demonstrate their advantages and disadvantages. Another
aim is to discover the important components that have been
omitted from the existing translation courses in Arab countries,
particularly in Syria. Later, we shall draw on these model
curricula in designing our eclectic translation course.

2.8.1. Wilss's Model:
In his instructive article entitled 'Curricular Planning', Wolfram
Wilss presents a concise description of the course in
translating and interpreting as designed by the Saarbrücken
school. The course is subdivided into two successive period-
research:
1- a four- semester basic course.
2- a four-semester main course.

The basic course is organised as a general course. It is planned
in such a way as to enable optimal elasticity between different
courses, (e.g. teacher training, interpreting), without great loss
of time. It includes two foreign languages (L2 and L3), other
than the mother tongue. The course consists of the following
components:
1- Language training: the first two semesters are devoted to
intensive language classes in L2 and L3 'because our beginners'
mastery of their foreign languages is not adequate for us to
start training right away.' (Wilss 1977:119). Different techniques of foreign language teaching such as the audio-lingual and the audio-visual are employed, especially when students start from scratch.

Translation teaching is postponed until the third semester. This is to prevent any confusion between proper translating and foreign language learning purposes, such as remedial teaching of grammar or vocabulary. Foreign language teaching is particularly intensive in the language in which the beginners have only a rudimentary competence, reducing the gap in competence level between L2 and L3 as quickly as possible, and creating a good foundation for the main course in both languages.

2- Translation Exercises: starting from the third semester, translation classes are given in both directions. In this phase, all translation classes are taught within the scope of general language, whereas in the main stage, general language and specialized language are taught side by side. The criterion is that each technical text, 'specialised' in Wilss's terminology, contains elements of common language and not the other way round.

3- The third component of this phase is called 'Area Studies'. This is meant to be a selective programme consisting of lectures and discussions on a number of topics which provide the students with a critical understanding of the problems of current social issues, political institutions, laws, administrations, economies, etc., of the relevant countries.

Wilss believes that the Area-Studies programme is effective, as it is half way between an exhaustive encyclopedic approach, and a narrow specialised course.

4- The fourth component is called 'the science of translation.' The aim of such a component is to impart to students knowledge of the processes involved in translating and interpreting,
explaining that translating, rather than being a linguistic operation, is a mental one in the psycholinguistic sense. It consists of two phases:

a- a recognition phase in which the translator analyzes the original text with regard to its communicative intention;

b- a reverbalization phase in which the translator tries to reproduce the original text with the means and sign combinations that are available to the TL.

The science of translation classes are organised in such a way as to concentrate on the discussion of translation problems related to a specific language-pair. The direction is from the foreign language to the native language and back.

5-Native-language course component: mastery of the native language can only be achieved by means of steady instruction aimed at a continuous qualitative and quantitative enlargement of the native language inventory.

The main stage is intended as a problem-oriented expansion and deepening of the linguistic, translational, regional and translation-scientific knowledge and abilities of students. It consists of the following components:

1- Translation Exercises: emphasis is on the systematic teaching of translating which now includes both general and technical language texts. Students are acquainted with a broad spectrum of texts with various degrees of technicality and stylistic variations. They are taught that:

a- various types of text require different translation strategies;

b- various types of text require different techniques of SLT segmentation;

c- various types of text require different translation equivalence criteria.

2- Non-Linguistic complementary subject: existing programmes are unsatisfactory because they do not sufficiently cater for the specific needs of the student-translator/ interpreter. They are
generally geared to students of various specialisations, such as Sociology, Psychology, Law, and Applied Mathematics. This implies that the students of each speciality need their own programme. However, with a combined effort among all departments, possibly from different faculties, tailor-made courses can be developed in various fields of technology for all students.

Next come technical 'expert-language' classes. Students have to choose any field fully represented in the university (e.g. international law, political science, industrial management). These classes have proved disappointing. Students find them difficult and impractical because all translation classes are conducted by teachers who have little knowledge of the specialist field, in collaboration with a member of staff of the respective faculty who only has a rudimentary knowledge of languages.

Wilss criticises existing components in specialised TT because they are not well-organised. Above all, one must have a certain degree of competence in a specialised field before one attempts to translate expert-language material in that field.

3- The Science of Translation: this is represented by an advanced seminar which is focused on translation problems of a specific language-pair (e.g. the classification and translation of English participles into German) rather than focusing on general theoretical issues in translation. Towards the end of the course, the students are required to write dissertations, the subjects of which are closely connected with the topics discussed in the advanced seminar. Results have didactic implications for the course by providing the necessary feedback.

In later publications on translation training, Wilss focuses on translation difficulty as a key criterion in planning translation courses. Indeed, he considers (TD) as a preliminary stage prior
to translating. It is the first domain of applied translation studies, which also comprises: translation teaching, error analysis, and translation criticism. (TD), in Wilss's words, is 'the linguistic description and explanation of interlingual (TD).'

Of course, Wilss's approach to (TD) discusses in some detail all the stages of the process and the possibilities of each aspect. As far as the teaching of translation is concerned, the four domains already mentioned aim to improve the students' prospective and retrospective transfer competence and therefore to make them better when undertaking a practical assignment.

For Wilss, (TD) is of a great importance as its investigation plays a major role especially in the case of texts, involving a high degree of semantic, syntactic, or stylistic complexity. According to Wilss, the concept of TD can be developed in at least four possible directions:

1- Transfer-specific TD, covering the two directions: native tongue-foreign language and vice versa,
2- Transfer-specific TD, distinguishing two levels, one for beginners and one for advanced translators,
3- Text-type specific TD, covering at least the three particularly transfer-relevant areas, LSP translation, Literary translation, and Bible translation,
4- Single-text-specific TD motivated by the semantically and/ or syntactically complicated manner of expression of the SL author (1982:161).

Wilss works out a hierarchical classification of the students' level on the basis of translation difficulty. In this respect, he distinguishes three translational competence levels: a beginner's level, an intermediate level after two study years, and an advanced level, represented by students preparing for their final examinations. Drawing on this categorisation, course designers will find good grounds for organising small, homogeneous groups of students, belonging to the different classes of beginners, intermediate, and advanced translation learners.
Texts to be taught in each class are characterised with a certain degree of semantic, syntactic and stylistic (TD), the good handling of which promotes more confidence in handling future translations. A further consequence is the transfer to the next stage. The criterion determining such expansion of translational competence is observed through the process of trial and error.

2.8.2. Keiser's Syllabus:
In his paper entitled 'A Syllabus for Advanced Translation Courses', Walter Keiser outlines the essential components of an advanced translation course which should enable the successful students to cope with the tasks and responsibilities of professional translating. He criticises existing translation programmes because they do not prepare the student for the kind of practical job he has to undertake in a competitive translation market.

Keiser also criticises existing translation courses that are tantamount to language courses. To avoid cramming the syllabus with language components, Keiser proposes a pre-test to assess the standard of the student before he is admitted to the course. If the student fails the test, he will be excluded from the course. Results are to be assessed by a team, who will agree before-hand on the nature of the test and the criteria of grading, thus guaranteeing an objective method of admitting students to the course.

This test is one of the main components of Keiser's proposed syllabus. It includes two texts to be translated within 3-4 hours. They cover different fields and text-types. Keiser recommends that these texts should be difficult in order to find out how the students react when confronted with practical translation problems. The use of dictionaries is allowed at this preliminary stage.

Criteria for the Test:
Given that the course is designed for advanced students, Keiser's high standards are justifiable. Otherwise, his requirements are
idealistic and unrealistic. One of Keiser's requirements is language proficiency. The students should have no language problems at all and their comprehension of the source language should be near perfect. Any serious problems concerning the student's mastery of both the native and foreign languages excludes him from the course. The determining factors by which the student's performance is judged are twofold:

First, the faithful rendering of the content and type of the SLT. Second, the sufficiency of the student's general background. Any problem in this regard minimises his chance of joining the course.

The Syllabus:
The syllabus consists of two parts. It covers one academic year with a total of 45 lessons of 75 minutes. This extended lesson is better than the ordinary 45-minute-lesson which is not enough to combine teaching theory and practice or even to translate a real representative text. Keiser puts restrictions on the number of students in each class, which should not exceed 15.

Part I
This comprises the following components:
- Work on texts: Texts are selected according to difficulty, subject-matter, and type of language. The first criterion for selecting texts seems to echo both Reiss's and Wilss's demands that translation difficulty (TD) is the major criterion for selecting and ordering the teaching content. The material includes various subject-matters such as Economics, Politics, Architecture, Law, Religion, Science.

The texts to be translated should be selected from present-day documents and publications, so as to make the student acquainted with the kind of subjects he will encounter when he works as a professional translator. Though Keiser has certain reservations against specialisation in this course, it is useful for students to handle specialised texts.

Part II
This covers the following:
- Theory of Translation: literal versus free translation, the limits of translation, and bibliography;
- History of translation: the role played by translation in history, the importance of translation at particular periods, and bibliography;
- Great translators: their achievements, techniques, and bibliography;
- The translator at work:
  a) The mental processes involved in translating:
    1- Comprehension, which consists of the initial stages of proper reading, analysis, understanding, concentration and assimilation;
    2- Transposition, which is a rough translation where fidelity to the substance rather than to the form is most important;
    3- Final recreation, which is the final choice in respect of style, type, and rhythm of language;
  b) The techniques and material work involved in translating:
    - Techniques of reading, terminology research, rough translation (first draft), final transposition: typing, dictating, recording, transcription, revising, correcting, proof-reading, and final editing.
  c) The translator's aides: these include dictionaries, general and specialised, encyclopedias, monographs, and others. There are also human aides represented in team work: colleagues, experts and advisers, revisers, proof-readers, etc.

Keiser discusses the translator's working conditions, including the status of the translator, whether free-lance or employed, his relations with clients and publishers, and refers briefly to the translator's responsibilities, possible legal action, and the question of copyright.

Keiser underlines the importance of setting up translation services, professional organisations, and government agencies to provide quality translations, observing rules of professional conduct, rates, and legal protection.
Grading, Tests, and Examinations:
According to Keiser, the students' performance is assessed according to the following criteria:
- participation in class exercises;
- quality of translations prepared at home;
- marks obtained in written examinations;
- results of interim examinations.

The criteria for grading, in Keiser's point of view, should be faithful rendering, variety of expression, proper rendering of style and rhythm of the SL, and presentation of the written work. Finally, Keiser asserts that this kind of syllabus can only be taught by experienced translators who, 'in addition to their vocational skill, show proof of a definite skill for teaching.' He believes that if the above requirements are met, and admission to the advanced course is adequately controlled, there will be a fair chance of success for this syllabus.

2.8.3. Coveney's Model:
According to Coveney, there are a few translating teaching programmes in the U.K. at the post-graduate level, such as the courses administered in the universities of Bath, Kent, Bradford, Heriot-Watt, and Salford. There are also some undergraduate translation courses. (See A. Napthine (1983:21)

In his article entitled 'The Training of Translators/Interpreters in the U.K., Coveney regrets that there are no independent schools for translating in the U.K. equivalent to those schools found in other European cities such as Saarbrücken and Geneva, which are independent, though attached to larger faculties.

Post-graduate translating and interpreting programmes are designed to provide training for graduates in modern languages who wish to prepare themselves for careers as general, industrial and conference interpreters, and technical and commercial translators. These types of employment are generally included under the technical heading 'career linguists'.
Highly qualified translators and interpreters are also needed to work as conference interpreters with international organisations. To obtain a post in an organisation such as the U.N. one requires good qualifications as well as recommendations from approved and reputed institutions.

The only British University which offers undergraduate translating and interpreting courses is Heriot-Watt University in Edinburgh (Napthine 1983, Coveney 1983, Keith 1989). It provides the nearest training in translation and interpreting to that provided by schools in the continent. Students select two languages out of four; French, German, Russian, and Spanish, to be studied in the four-year course.

The aim of the course is the mastery of the contemporary spoken and written language in a number of fields and the development of translating and interpreting skills. The course also aims at acquainting the students with the modern background of the countries whose languages are being studied, in addition to familiarising them with the structures and functions of international organisations. The four-year syllabus is equally divided into four parts. The syllabus in the first year includes the following:
Language studies in two languages, courses in the modern history of the two countries, an elective subject, such as Accountancy, Business, Law, and Industrial relations.

In the second year, there are the following course components:
Language studies in two languages, European studies, Linguistics, elective subject.
The third year comprises the following:
Five-month period of study abroad in both language areas, and attachment to departments of translating and interpreting in certain European Universities or other approved institutions.
In the fourth year, the course includes: language studies in both languages, and international organisations and Economies.
Coveney outlines the Bath University Post-graduate Diploma in Language Studies. This course has been designed to prepare a small number of carefully selected university graduates for work in international organisations by giving them an intensive course in the techniques of interpreting, translating and précis-writing. The aim of the course is to bring these students up to the standard required by international organisations.

Before any actual translating or interpreting is attempted, a thorough knowledge of the two languages and cultures is given. Such a knowledge can be acquired in a modern languages course of the traditional type, where considerable emphasis may be placed on the study of the literatures of the languages concerned.

From the start, the post-graduate course has been oriented towards the requirements of the United Nations Organisation. Entrance to the course is granted after passing a pre-test, which consists of an interview and practical language tests in two languages (entry to the original course was restricted to candidates offering a combination of either French or Spanish). The test includes extempore translation and summarisation. It provides a rough idea of the candidates' language ability.

The course consists of the following components: Documentary translating, interpreting (simultaneous and consecutive), conference précis writing, and Area Studies: International economics, International Politics, and aspects of science and technology.

According to Coveney, knowledge of languages is not sufficient. The student should have a good knowledge of international affairs, some knowledge of the current economic problems as well as knowledge of recent advances in science and technology. That is why post-graduate students at Bath University usually follow courses in international economics, international politics, and some aspects of science and technology.
2.8.4 Horn's Model:
A college curriculum for training of translators and interpreters -
in the U.S.A. is proposed by Horn (1966). This four-year-course is
perfectly typical of the undergraduate courses designed in the U.S.A. The
course takes in high school students, who obtain high grades in
languages. It comprises four main stages. It is based on the
assumption that a translator/ interpreter should have a thorough
training in his source language as well as in the foreign
languages. The course, which is divided into eight semesters,
consists of four main stages, with two semesters every year.

First Year:
In the first semester students study the following components:
Modern Literature I (A language), Advanced Composition in A
language, Style and Composition (B language) and intensive basic
training in (C language) as well as some other selected lessons
taken from subjects such as Politics, World History, and
Philosophy.

In the second semester, there are courses in Modern Literature (A
language), Advanced Composition (A language) Style and
Composition (B language), intensive basic training in C language
as well as other components in other areas such as International
organisations, World History, and History of Philosophy.

Second Year:
In the first semester, students are taught the following:
Classical Literature (A language), Translation Practice from B
language into A language of general and historical texts, Area
Studies (A language), Modern Literature (B language), Advanced
Composition (B language), intensive advanced training in C
language and topics in English on the principles of economics and
international law.

In the second semester, the students are given the following:
Classical Literature, translation practice from B language into A
language of political, educational, socio-linguistic texts, Area Studies (language A), Modern Literature (language B), Advanced Composition (B language), intensive advanced training in C language, as well as lessons taught in English on the principles of economics and international relations.

Third Year:
In the first semester, there is translation practice from B into A languages of economic and conference texts, which include debates, resolutions, and treaties. There are also courses in Classical Literature (B language), translation practice from A into B languages of general and historical texts, Area Studies (B language), Style and Composition (C language), and lessons in Linguistics, introduction to Physical Sciences, Technology, and Arts (in English).

The second semester includes: translation practice from B into A languages of conference and economic texts, Classical Literature, translation from A into B languages of political, educational, sociological texts, Area Studies (B language), Style and Composition (C language), together with lessons in Linguistics (language and culture), Physical Sciences and Technology conducted in English.

Fourth Year:
In the first semester there is translation practice from B into A, from C into A, and from A into B languages, of a variety of subject matters: of scientific/ technological, administrative and legal, commercial, economic, and conference texts. There are also lessons in précis-writing and abstracting from B into A languages, Modern Literature (C language) and Linguistics conducted in English.

In the second semester, there is intensive practice in translation from B into A, from C into A, from A into B languages, of literary and scientific/ technological, commercial, administrative and legal and conference texts, and commercial and scientific technological texts respectively. There are also lessons in
précis-writing and abstracting from B into A languages, oral interpretation of business negotiations from and into A and B languages, Modern Literature (C language) and Linguistics in English.

Students have to submit a thesis in the final year. There are examinations at the end of every semester, but particularly in the fourth year, which also includes a comprehensive oral examination covering literature and oral studies taken in the candidate's languages. Successful candidates who wish to obtain a B.Sc. in interpreting have to study for an additional year, after passing an oral entrance test.

While outlining his course, Horn admits that it may not be possible to apply without modifications. Use must be made of existing courses, particularly in the subject matter, and necessary changes have to be made over a number of years. Another important point to be considered is that schools have to restrict the number of languages they wish to include in their programme.

2.8.5 Katherina Reiss's Model:
Reiss's model syllabus is by far the most elaborate of all. In her useful paper entitled 'How to Teach Translation: Problems and Perspectives', Reiss criticises existing translating courses for lacking systematic methods of teaching. It is by adopting systematic methods that the efficiency of translation training can be improved, and consequently translating can be transformed into a better discipline than being, in John Lyons' terms, 'predominantly a matter of the intuition of bi-lingual speakers.' (1972)

At the outset, Reiss makes a distinction between translating and other academic disciplines. Unlike other disciplines which can clearly be outlined, and whose teaching aims can be precisely formulated, scientifically-based translating has not yet defined its own. Its general aim at present is to enable people to translate. She quotes I.A. Richards, who sees translating as 'a
complex process, and therefore, involves extremely complex teaching and learning aims."

According to Reiss, a translation course may comprise a wide range of subjects which at first sight seem to have little in common. This is why one cannot take any other discipline as a model when attempting to formulate a scientific theory of translation teaching.

Reiss outlines the framework of a model consisting of three stages, which can be extended systematically. This framework is based on the three stages of general teaching theory, namely; preparation, development, and independent application. The course also hinges on the four areas of competence essential for translators: SL competence, TL competence, subject-matter competence, and translational competence.

Reiss is a strong supporter of systematic translation teaching. To her, translation skills can be taught only if we can identify the level of students for whom the course is geared, and what their learning aims are: in Reiss's words, 'the target group and its learning motivation.' (1976: 330)

Reiss plans a course for students who have completed high school, and now wish to follow a comprehensive, scientifically-based course in translating. The course qualifies them to work as translators/interpreters with international organisations as well as in the public sector (e.g. publishing, etc).

Working with different organisations also requires knowledge of different subject-matters, and, consequently, requires different learning aims or motivations. The content of the course should, therefore, be modified to suit these aims. This may involve changing the content slightly by offering specialised subject-matters, or even putting emphasis on one particular teaching method rather than another. The question is how the existing teaching methods are for every field of knowledge.
Teaching and learning aims come first. Next come the implications of these aims for the teaching content. Finally comes the ordering of materials to be taught followed by the teaching materials which are appropriate for the accomplishment of the teaching and learning aims.

The TLT usually gives some clues to the conceptual content of the SLT and insights about its communicative function. As for the formal composition of the SLT, the validity of Reiss's proposition is thrown into doubt. It may be true as far as most European languages are concerned. But when it comes to language pairs as distinct as English and Arabic, the case is quite different. (C.f. 2.6.1; 2.6.3 above)

Reiss draws upon communication theory to illustrate her attitude to the relationship between the teaching content and learning and teaching aims. The question is what kind of materials are to be taught in translation courses?

While considering the four competence areas mentioned above as essential for translators, Reiss underlines the primacy of translational competence, putting the onus on course planners and teachers to build up and develop the students' translational competence and to make it their ultimate teaching and learning aim.

It is only through translational competence that transferring texts from one language into another becomes possible. Indeed, it is the acquisition of this competence by students that denotes the success of translation syllabuses, since it implies that teaching aims are fulfilled.

Highlighting translation competence does not mean underestimating other competence areas. In fact, translational competence encapsulates all the other three competence areas in the source-language, target language, subject matter, and is built upon them. Reiss regrets that the standard of linguistic competence among the students is generally inadequate, while the
subject competence in some fields has to be acquired from scratch.

To improve the students' linguistic competence, Reiss suggests broadening the students' SL and TL linguistic competence. In her opinion, a student should be able to express himself, in spoken as well as in written modes, in both the SL and the TL before attempting to translate. But Reiss points out:

If, however, the student is to be enabled, at a later stage, to make a translation subject to linguistic and literary controls, linguistic competence purely as a more or less unconscious, active and passive, command of the language is not sufficient. (C.f. ibid.: 332)

This fact echoes other writers who postulate that bilingualism, the mastery of two languages, does not necessarily make good translators. (c.f.2.7.3)

Reiss outlines a plan of a practical course. It consists of two stages:
First stage:
The major teaching aim at the first stage is to bring the students to a complex understanding of the text. To fulfill this aim, the author introduces the following course components:
- introduction to the study of word content and linguistic fields (e.g., lexicology, etc.);
- grammar instruction with introduction to theories of grammar such as contrastive grammar, and dependence grammar;
- receptive and productive stylistic training (in source and target languages);
- introduction to general, comparative, and historical linguistics, especially in so far as they enable the student to make a relevant analysis of syntactic and semantic relationships;
- introduction to communication science and textual science (text-linguistics, text-typology, text-pragmatics), the aim of which is to impart to the students the important issues in these disciplines.
Moreover, Text-Linguistics, in its recently developed form, is proving itself to be the linguistic discipline which is capable of handling translation problems since it takes as its point of departure text as the product of performance. 'Since translation is exclusively concerned with products of performance, text-linguistics in this respect is considered paramount to systematic linguistics'. (C.f. ibid.: 334)

To broaden the teaching content of the syllabus in the first stage, Reiss includes the development of the third competence, i.e. subject competence. This does not mean that the teaching content will deal with texts in all subject-matters.

For these purposes, Reiss regards as essential the study of the foreign-language culture in the context of a specialised area or discipline. This should be done by means of examples. This means that only sections of cultural study or only one specialised subject are treated at one time, acquainting the student with aides that will enable him to acquire other specialised areas for himself.

When the students attain basic linguistic skills, they start acquiring translational competence. The students 'must be taught, both in theory and practice, conscious appropriate, and purposeful ways of handling a source-language text which is to be translated into a target language' (ibid.: 335). The students must also be acquainted with existing theories of translation.

At a later stage, teaching should concentrate on structural, stylistic and pragmatic similarities and differences between a specific language pair. The students must also be taught translating techniques and methods.

Second Stage:
The teaching aim at this stage is 'enabling the student to grasp the theoretical principles of translational techniques' (ibid.:335). It includes:
- lexicology;
- introduction to contrastive grammar and comparative stylistics with reference to a specific language-pair;
- introduction to psycho, socio, and pragma-linguistics;
- introduction to the history and theory of translation with reference to the functions of translating, translating methods and translating techniques related to the basic and specialised forms of translation.

Third Stage:
The third stage of the syllabus is independent application. This course component is indispensable for every translation course. The teaching aim of this stage is to improve the student's translational performance; the application of the knowledge of translational techniques and strategies to concrete texts. In other words, the teaching aim is to enable the student to translate. The imparting of translating techniques must be followed by supplementary exercises to demonstrate how these methods work in practice. The teaching content of this stage comprises:
- comparison of translations as source of insight into translational performance;
- translation criticism (as introductory practice in the objective judgement of one's own and others' translational performance);
- translation practice, which aims at the achievement of independent translational performance.

These stages are similar to Wilss's Basic Stage of the syllabus (c.f. 2.8.1 above).

There is also an advanced stage which caters for specialised areas and particular careers. The teaching content of this advanced stage is suited to a vast variety of careers in different fields, such as scientific translating, literary translating, advertisement translating, translation checking and editing, highly-specialised translating, and translation pedagogy.
As mentioned in 2.7.7 above, the order of the teaching content appears in a series of strictly chronological stages. The didactic principles which govern them are: progress from the general to the particular, and progress from the easy to the difficult. The former implies establishment of competence before training in performance.

In other words, the students must be equipped with the basic knowledge of the complex factors involved in translating before actually attempting any practical translating. In practical translating, which is indispensable for all stages, but more intensive in the third stage, selections of all types of text of varying degrees of difficulty are translated.

According to Reiss, the model provides starting points for the demonstration of how the training of qualified translators can be included within a comprehensive programme of higher education. As for the question regarding appropriate learning and teaching materials and methods, Reiss considers this to be the main problem for any translating teaching programme, as she asserts:

..since with general and language-pair related translation science in its present state, there is no adequate, scientifically-sure knowledge available which could be directly put into practice in translation teaching. There is a lack of suitable, tested teaching and drill material, which means that for the time being the effectiveness of translating teaching depends largely upon the extent to which the teacher is able pedagogically to systematize and fruitfully shape it. This will depend upon his initiative, his interests, and his acquaintance with the available results of translation science. (ibid.: 337 )

When a wide variety of teaching materials has been selected, the teaching methods, then, need to be tested with reference to individual items of the teaching content. Reiss admits that precise statements can only be made as far as the teaching materials and methods of the first stage of learning are concerned.
Reiss recommends the compilation of a source of teaching material in the form of a collection of texts related to a specific pair of language. These texts should be original and meaningfully graded according to text-type and the degree of difficulty, with one or, if possible, even several translations.

Reiss seems to agree with Wilss in regarding difficulty as a reliable criterion for designing translation courses. The investigation of translation difficulty, in Wilss's point of view, is particularly significant in connection with the transfer of texts with a high degree of syntactic, semantic, or stylistic complexity.

While Reiss suggests using translation difficulty as a criterion for ordering the teaching content into several stages, Wilss considers (TD) as a preliminary stage prior to translating. (For a more detailed account of TD, see section 2.8.1. above; see also Wilss 1982).

So far we have been discussing important model syllabuses designed by Wilss, Keiser, Coveney, Horn, and Reiss. As I have already suggested, important points of these syllabuses will be our guidelines, which we will depend on in setting up our eclectic model syllabus for the teaching of English/Arabic translating at Arab universities. This will be discussed in Chapters IV and V below.

Reference should also be made to the postgraduate courses in English/Arabic translating and interpreting at Heriot-Watt University, Bath University, Salford University, Birkbeck College, University College in London, and other British universities. These courses have assumed importance in recent years, being the only places which offer good training for translators and interpreters.

Another reason for the success of these courses is the increasing
demand for skilled and well-qualified translators and translation teachers in the Arab World, and the absence of good translation courses there. Though they maintain a good teaching position by offering training in translating, they have recently suffered from the emergence of competitive translating programmes in Arab countries. However, their contribution in providing the market with good translators, interpreters, and translation teachers is considerable.

Courses in English/Arabic translating and interpreting aim at improving the students’ translating/interpreting skills as well as perfecting their linguistic competence and fluency in two languages, in both the written and spoken modes. They also try to sensitise the students to stylistic nuances encountered in texts to be translated. Mention should be made of the Bath University Postgraduate Diploma in language studies which is typical of postgraduate translating/interpreting programmes in the U.K. Coveney (1984) sums up the content of the Postgraduate programmes for Arabic speakers introduced at the University of Bath in October 1980:

The MA course in Translation and Linguistics for Arabic speakers is a one-year course designed to develop a high standard of competence in the students' ability to translate from and into English and Arabic in their principal written varieties; it also aims to deepen the students' understanding of the structure and operation of language in general and of English and Arabic in particular, as well as to broaden their knowledge of linguistic variation in order to increase their sensitivity to translational equivalence between the two languages. (1984)

The syllabus includes translation from and into Arabic of material of an economic, legal, political, scientific and technical nature; uses of the computer; English Linguistics; Contrastive Linguistics; Language Variation; and a research project. The programme has evoked a considerable response from the Arab world and students from most Arab countries have attended the
The content of the M.Sc. course in Arabic/English Translation and Interpreting at Heriot-Watt University does not differ much from that at Bath University. Its full-time, 12-month Postgraduate course is designed to equip native speakers of Arabic with specialised translating/interpreting skills. The course includes the following elements:

- Practical translation into and from Arabic; a variety of texts and fields; on-site translation;
- Bilateral and Consecutive Interpreting (note-taking, simulated conferences);
- English language work (consolidation and development of existing competence, to provide a sound basis for other elements of the course);
- Text analysis and translation theory (development of an analytical approach to text interpretation and of a conceptual framework for practical translation work);
- Ancillary Skills (revision, editing, summarising and abstracting);
- Documentation and Hardware (familiarisation with the 'tools of trade': modern systems of information retrieval, term banks, and technological aids to the practitioner, e.g. word processors);
- Socio-culture of the Arabic and English speaking worlds (politics, institutions, international organizations, etc).

In addition, students are required to undertake a project. This normally involves practical work in an area covered during the course. Candidates recommended by the examiners to proceed to an M.Sc. are required to extend their project work in a direction approved by their supervisors.
Chapter Three

3.1 Notional Division:

Professional translators, translation teachers, and TT writers tend to classify translations according to subject matter, such as literary translating or legal translating. Course designers also organise their translation courses according to similar classificatory devices. Thus, translating courses contain political, literary, legal and scientific ingredients. Such a practice hinges on the notion of register and is intended for pedagogical purposes only.

Though the line drawn between technical/scientific translating on the one hand and literary translating on the other is arbitrary, most professional translators agree on classifying translations under these categories. According to Citroen:

> Although there seems to be a tacit agreement among all those concerned with translations to subdivide them into two groups, viz. literary and technical/scientific translation, there is actually no valid reason to do so, because there is no question of two well-defined, completely different classes of translation. It is even common knowledge that this subdivision, and especially the names by which the groups are distinguished, are actually incorrect, but no one has ever found another practical subdivision, and so this practice continues everywhere, and the myth persists. (1965:181)

To determine the validity of such a division, let us first compare these two basic kinds of translations:

3.1.1 Scientific/Technical Translating:

Jumpelt gives the following definition:

> Scientific and technical translations therefore are here understood to mean texts relating to the natural sciences and their applications in industry, engineering,
medicine, and agriculture. This delimitation must be emphasized since other forms of translation, dealing with administrative subjects, social sciences, and international affairs, have at times been included in this heading. No conclusive evidence, however, is presently available to support the view that these modes would be necessarily subject to similar factors as science translations. (Cited in Citroen1967: 42)

Exponents of literary translating have typically valued it higher than technical/scientific translating, and considered it the principal form of translating worthy of attention. They believe that scientific translating is much easier than literary translating because, as Citroen points out, 'technical translation is a relatively simple procedure for which not much more than the knowledge of terminology of a particular subject is required.' (C.f. ibid.: 42)

Though the scientific translator pays more attention to the content of the scientific text he is translating than to its form, his translation requires more than the knowledge of the subject matter and the specialised technical vocabulary. According to Holmstrom:

As nobody can properly translate what he does not understand, technical translating requires background knowledge and ability to reason about the special subject matter as well as familiarity with the language translated from and ability to write well in the language translated into. Understanding and being able to reason about the subject matter to be translated cannot be replaced by dictionaries. These, however, are valuable aids...(cited in Citroen1967, p.43)

Indeed, these qualities are the prerequisites for good translating in general. However, it is commonly believed that the aesthetic value in a scientific/technical work is sometimes sacrificed in favour of the pragmatic ends these translations have to serve. This echoes the view held by many literary translators who believe that technical translation has very
little to do with language. This may be true for a small percentage of technical translations, but it is wrong to think that it is the rule rather than the exception.

3.1.2 Literary Translating:
Under this heading we can include all translations of literature whether it be prose, poetry, novels or drama. Citroen argues that the group referred to as 'literary translation' is nothing but a heterogeneous assortment of texts, usually published in a book form. Such publications require a high degree of artistry and talent from those who translate them into another language.

To distinguish between technical/scientific and literary translating we have to look at the similarities and differences between them. First, literary translating concentrates more on content, while the form is less important. Savory is of opinion that the accuracy of the translating and the lucidity of expression, which are considered exclusive to literary translating, also apply to technical/scientific translating. According to him:

All readers want the same lucidity of expression, and in addition to verbal accuracy this, and this only, is the ideal that the translator must set before himself. All these commentaries on translation which have asserted that translation should have all the ease of the original composition, that it should give no clues to the language from which it is translated, or that a comparison between the original and the translation should provide no evidence as to which was which, should be accepted without hesitation as wholly applicable to the translation of science. (cited in Citroen 1967: p.45)

Similarly, there are many literary works in which law, sport, and biology, for example, play a major role and which cannot be translated without exact factual knowledge. The translator of
these works must have a good knowledge of the subject of the text he is translating. This view is expounded by Italiaander, who points out that 'persons without any knowledge of navigation should not translate a book or a play dealing with navigation' (ibid.: p.45)

The category 'literary translation' includes fiction, poetry, plays, essays and the like. Their number is relatively small in comparison with the other texts, which are believed to belong to the same category, the bulk of which consists of novels of all classes of merit or demerit, thrillers, best sellers, books on travel, history, adventure, textbooks, etc. 'Then there is the wide and ever expanding field of science fiction and popular science books, which in fairness should be reckoned to belong to the province of scientific translation, if there were logic in the classification'. (C.f. ibid.: p.42)

For Citroen, the only common denominator among the translators of these works can be this: they all work for publishers. All other translators, who do not belong to this category and do not work for publishers, mainly free-lance and self-employed translators, are called scientific translators.

While scientific translating has to be accurate in that the information which it imparts to the reader should be as true and exact as the information in the original, literary translating conveys information but it concentrates more on the aesthetic value of the work of art. The literary translator, therefore, can depart from the original text. He is more at liberty than the scientific translator so long as his deviation does not distort the intended message. The distinction of technical/ scientific and literary translating has a strong bearing on the notion of register.

3.2 The Notion of Register:
Catford highlights the idea of language variation and the existence of different varieties in language, calling for some
classificatory device:

The concept of a 'whole language' is so vast and heterogeneous that it is not operationally useful for many linguistic purposes, descriptive, comparative, and pedagogical. It is, therefore, desirable to have a framework of categories for the classification of 'sub-languages' or varieties within a total languages. (1965: 83)

Halliday et al (1964) see language variation in terms of two dimensions:

a- According to users, the people who use the language.
b- According to use, the different purposes to which the language is put.

a) The User Dimension:
A primary manifestation of language variety according to user is to be found in dialect. This includes all kinds of language varieties used by native speakers such as idiolects, accents, etc. One important point is that a native speaker may possess more than one dialect, using them in different situations. Another is that, in Britain, choice of a dialect is closely related to the choice of register in a way that is unique among the language communities of the world.

Within the same dialect we can distinguish different language varieties even in the speech of individual native speakers belonging to the same language community. One such variety of language is individuality or personal style. This demonstrates itself clearly in the use of certain grammatical structures, pronunciation, fillers, stress patterns, and various vocabulary items favoured by a particular native speaker. The term 'idiolect' is the linguistic label of such a variety.

Expressions like 'as a matter of fact', can serve as a distinction between one speaker and another. The term dialect is used to
refer to the relationships of language habits with the speaker's place on the following dimensions: individuality, time, place, social class, and speech community.

Of course, there are different kinds of dialects:

1- Historical dialects: According to Caroll and Gregory:

Terms like Old English, Middle English, Elizabethan English and Modern English recognize that language varies along the dimension of time and the appropriate situational category in this instance is user's temporal provenance (place in time), and the related set of linguistic features constitutes a temporal dialect. (1978: 5)

Following this, Caroll and Gregory, however, admit that 'language forms a continuum in time so that when we look back at a given period it is not possible to determine precisely when one temporal dialect begins and another ends. (ibid.:14)

2- Geographical dialects: these are distinguished by place or region such as English English, Scottish English, American English. A clear example of geographical dialect is the use of the word 'tea' to mean 'dinner' in Scotland and in some dialects of the northern parts of England. The expression 'going the messages' is another example. By the same token, The term 'fall' is a feature of American English, meaning 'autumn'.

3- Social dialects: these reflect the relationship between the language users and their social class. Examples of social dialects are: Upper class English, Upper Middle class English, and Lower Middle class English.

4- Standard dialects vs. non-standard dialects: standard English corresponds to Abercrombie's conception of 'the universal form' of a language, i.e. that set of semantic, grammatical, lexical, and phonological patterns which enables certain users of English throughout the English speaking world to communicate intelligibly with each other. (Abercrombie1955:11, cited in Gregory and Caroll 1978: 6)
For the purposes of this study, we shall concentrate on the use dimension in general and the notion of register in particular.

b) The Use Dimension:
Within the dimension of language use, appropriate syntax and vocabulary items are chosen carefully to suit a particular context because, as Wallace (1981: 268) points out, 'a use of language implies a process of conscious selection from the verbal repertoire of speech community. In the *Linguistic Sciences And Language Teaching*, Halliday *et al.* (1964) articulate the proposition that 'language varies as its function varies, it differs in different situations. The name given to a variety of language distinguished according to use is 'register' (1964:p.87).

It goes without saying that people use language differently in different situations. That is why we need a notion for systematically classifying the different varieties that people use. According to Halliday *et al.*:

> The category of register is needed when we want to account for what people do with their language. When we observe language varieties in various contexts, we feel differences in the types of language selected as appropriate to different types of situations. (1964: 88)

Different language varieties can be distinguished according to syntax and lexis. Halliday goes on to say:

> It is by their formal properties that registers are defined. If two samples of language activity from what, on non-linguistic grounds, could be considered different situation-types show no differences in grammar or lexis, they are assigned to one and the same register. (ibid.: 89)

3.2.1 Halliday's Early Notion of Register:
The context of situation as put forward by Halliday et al. (1964) has three aspects: field, mode, and tenor. Halliday may be criticised for making no attempt to list the elements of the context of situation beyond these rather broad categories. The problem is that Halliday's definitions of these are rather vague, and the elements of situation that he attributes to each have varied over the years.

a) **Field of Discourse:** This is the consequence of the user's 'purposive role': what his language is about, what experience he is verbalising, what is going on through language. This includes, of course, topic or subject matter. Field of discourse, accordingly, plays a major role in classifying texts. Thus we have a number of possible texts in relation to weather, health, news, etc. Technical and non-technical types of English are also cases of variation according to field. Later, Halliday modifies his concept of 'field' to include the activities of the language users in 'an institutional setting', as he points out:

Field refers to the institutional setting in which a piece of language occurs, and embraces not only the subject-matter in hand but the whole activity of the speaker or participant in a setting [we might add: 'and of the other participants']... (Halliday 1978, 33)

b) **Mode of Discourse:** This refers to the medium of communication: speech or writing, though we can identify more delicate situations such as those between texts written to be spoken or read in a hurry (e.g. news reports) and texts 'written to be read with the help of specialists' such as legal documents, treaties. Halliday redefines his concept of 'mode' of discourse as follows:

Mode refers to the channel of communication adopted: not only the choice between spoken and written medium, but much more detailed choices [we might add: 'and other choices relating to the role of language in the situation']... (ibid.: 33)
c) **Tenor of Discourse**: is the relationship between addressers and addressees. It is the interaction between participants in language events according to their social statuses, sexes, roles, age, etc. Thus we have language variation based on different degrees of interaction between members of the same language community, ranging from extreme formality to extreme informality. Later, Halliday gives the following definitions of 'tenor':

> Tenor...refers to the relationship between the participants... not merely variation in formality... but... such questions as the permanence or otherwise of the relationship and the degree of emotional charge in it. (ibid.: 33)

What interests us about Halliday's early notion of register is that it was later modified in favour of communication and the appropriateness of the participants' different speech events in different situations.

There is an overlap between the two major varieties of language: register and dialect. Though there are differences between them, the line separating them from each other is not clear-cut. Rather, in terms of Bernestine's codes, there is a kind of 'division of labour': different members of a certain community have different social roles- so certain registers demand certain dialects (e.g. bureaucratic register: standard dialect) and different social groups may tend to have different conceptions of the meanings that are exchanged in particular situations.

The above-mentioned distinction between literary and technical/ scientific translating leans heavily on the notion of register. It is assumed that this notion has great implications for translating. According to Gregory and Carroll:

> There has been a growing awareness that translation is not just a matter of item-to-item equivalence, or
The notion of register is useful and practical in helping translators and translation course designers to classify their materials. Also, the underlying theoretical basis for the organisation of most courses in ESP and translation courses (though this is not always made explicit) is traceable to the concept of register.

It would, therefore seem to be an appropriate point of departure for the theoretical part of our study to consider the validity of this concept.

### 3.3 A Critique of the Concept of Register:

#### Crystal and Davy's Criticism:

According to Crystal and Davy, there are doubts concerning the works of stylistic analysis, which aim at identifying, describing, and classifying categories of language. One reason for this is that 'the categories which have been set to account for the features, or sets of features, in the language data are frequently inconsistently used, are incomplete, and usually have no adequate formal basis.' Within register (Crystal and Davy's 'province'), all situations may fall under one major heading: communication. They conclude that 'it is futile to continue sub-classifying situations when there are insufficient linguistic formal differences to warrant further analysis. (See, for example, Crystal and Davy 1969: 60-66)

Crystal and Davy criticize the work of Halliday et al which postulates:

...that there is a one-for-one correlation between linguistic features and situation, or that the language can be predicted from the situation and the situation from the language with the same degree of certainty.
Mention should be made of the fact that extreme cases of register differentiation occur in those cases referred to as 'restricted languages', registers used for special purposes such as the International language of aviation and air travel, languages of games, weather reports, and recipes.

Halliday et al are also criticised for the confusion resulting from the use of such terms as 'restricted language', 'norms' or 'normal', 'discourse', 'standard', and 'situation'. The misunderstanding arises from the fact that often a word is used in both an everyday and a specialist sense, without the difference being made explicit.

As for the matter of correlation between a situation and its linguistic features, Crystal and Davy argue that 'it is impossible to make reliable predictions about any but a small number of features. The reason for this is that 'the majority of linguistic features in English have little or no predictive power, that is, they are ambiguous indications of the situational variables in the extra-linguistic contexts in which they are used'. (C.f. ibid.: 62)

They totally reject the idea of correlation between language and situation:

...it would be a mistake to assume that it always exists, and to talk rigidly in terms of 'one language-one situation'. It is more meaningful instead to talk of ranges of appropriateness and acceptability of various uses of language to given situations. (ibid.: p. 63)

Crystal and Davy propose to look at this matter as a scale ranging from extreme predictability to extreme unpredictability, referring to restricted language varieties such as the language of knitting patterns and certain kinds of weather-forecasting, which are highly predictable.
In view of the fact that there are great differences in the nature of the situational variables involved in these uses of English, Crystal and Davy postulate that:

> It is inconsistent, unrealistic, and confusing to obscure these differences by grouping everything under the same heading, as well as an unnecessary trivialisation of what is a potentially useful concept. (c.f ibid.: 61)

This criticism of incompleteness is readily illustrated by the fact that central theoretical variables of contexts (e.g. pragmatics and semiotics) have been ignored and that there are many aspects of the way in which English is used which no one has tried to account for, and which cannot be handled adequately by such categories as register, tenor, field, mode, and so on in any of their current senses.

**Register vs. Province**

Crystal and Davy (1969: 71) introduced the term 'province' to refer to a language variation which is 'defined with reference to the kind of professional activity being engaged in'. This description converges in a way with Halliday's 'field', with a further qualification. It lacks any reference to the participants involved in the situation and does not mention their social status and their relationship to each other. Examples of province are the language of public worship, advertising, science, law, etc.

There is a controversy among linguists over whether the term 'field' is to be understood to mean subject-matter, denoting the use of a distinctive vocabulary. Whereas Halliday (1978:33) believes that the subject-matter is an aspect of the field of discourse, Crystal and Davy view it as one factor among many which contribute to a province's definition. Another distinguishing factor between 'register' and 'province' is that the former has a predictive power, unlike the latter 'province', which has a predictive power 'only in a minority of extremely
specialist situations.

The notion of register has been found inconsistent. This criticism results from the fact that the term has been applied to situationally distinctive variables of language. The language of newspaper headlines, church services, sports commentaries, popular songs, and advertising amongst others, have all been referred to in Halliday et al as registers.

Widdowson's Criticism:
Widdowson, himself a Hallidayan in orientation, joins forces with Crystal and Davy in criticising the traditional notion of register introduced by Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens (1964). According to Widdowson:

> It is the more important to realize, therefore, that as it stands, it can tell us nothing whatever about scientific discourse, or about any other kind of discourse for that matter. What it does is to describe the indexical features of different ways in which a language system is manifested, but it tells us nothing about how the language system is realized as communicative activity. (1979: 55)

The notion of register has also been criticised because its proponents usually adopt the following procedures:
1- the delimiting of a sample of language for analysis using loosely defined notions such as 'field', 'tenor' and 'mode';
2- the analysing of the samples using quantitative analysis or word counts, i.e. the frequency of the passives denotes the language of science.

Widdowson questions the validity of the underlying assumption of Halliday's observation. 'Since language in general varies in accordance with the functions it is required to fulfill, then it follows that a language in particular must consist of different and distinct varieties. Furthermore, these varieties are defined in terms of their linguistic characteristics as subcodes of a particular language.' (Widdowson: 1979: 22)
Widdowson suggests that the whole argument upon which the notion of register is based rests on a double fallacy. He explains that such a notion mistakenly presumes the existence of distinct and vastly exclusive varieties of a language (e.g., English). For Widdowson, there is a confusion of terms in the existing linguistic research between *language* and *a language* and between *form* and *function*.

He admits that there is variation in language rather than separate varieties of language (which should not be confused with varieties). The existence of such varieties in the same language is a moot question. The second part of Widdowson's argument boils down to the following: 'different functions need not be matched by a difference in linguistic forms.' (c.f. ibid.: 22)

From the Hallidayan view of language variation, language teachers who are engaged in preparing materials for students of science and technology and other specialist areas have thought that their task does not go far beyond the selection and presentation of the lexical and syntactic features which frequently occur in passages of English on science and technology and other specialist areas which may be of interest to their students. Though instrumental these materials are for the students in that they can fulfill some language needs, they do not cater for other needs which have to do with the communicative function of language.

To fulfill these needs, according to Widdowson, we need a different theoretical approach to language variation. Drawing upon the communicative functions of language, Widdowson makes a distinction between *text* and *discourse*. He proposes a different way of looking at language variation, not in terms of the notion of register, but in terms of discourse theory. Consequently, the matter of language variation should be looked at in this new light:
We should think of 'scientific English' not as a kind of text, that is to say as a variety of English defined in terms of its formal properties, but as a kind of discourse, that is to say a way of using English to realize universal notions associated with scientific inquiry. These notions have to do with the concept and procedures of particular branches as disciplines and which are expressed non-verbally in the same way, whichever languages are used in the verbal parts of the discourse. (C.f. ibid.:27)

For Widdowson, there seems to be a universal underlying structure to different areas of scientific discourse which is neutral in respect of the different languages used to realise it, and that this underlying structure seems to be made overt through non-verbal modes of communicating.

Widdowson concludes that scientific English relating to a particular discipline is not described formally as a type of text distinguishable from other 'registers' or 'varieties' in terms of its linguistic properties, but as the realisation of a type of discourse which is defined in functional terms and distinguishable from other uses of language in general in terms of what concepts and procedures are communicated.

In arguing about the English use in scientific communication, the teacher should not present the language in isolation from what the students already know. Rather he should present it as an aspect of 'field', something with which they are already familiar. For Widdowson, the teacher should present a scientific subject (e.g. Chemistry) as the language of science where the lexical items used do not rule out the possibility of using them in other areas. Nor does it mean that the English which is learnt will be exclusively restricted to the use of Chemistry.

According to Widdowson, there are different types of text, e.g. scientific English and its various subdivisions, which are represented as distinct registers. This approach can only
describe subdivisions of scientific discourse as types of text. The occurrence of the universal present tense and the passive voice, as well as the frequency of scientific lexical items such as 'sulfur', 'oxygen', 'ignited,' might define these parts of text as belonging to the register of science.

Widdowson suggests that the language of science in English exhibits a relatively high proportion of certain syntactic features and lexical items and relatively lower proportion of others.

Widdowson gives an example from written scientific discourse in English. The aim is to discover how far these situation variables constrain the selection of particular textual features. For this purpose, Widdowson selects samples from these styles: expositional, instructional, journalistic; each of which deals with three fields: Physics, Engineering and Economics. Here there is confusion. To define instructional, expositional, and journalistic as 'style' is fallacious.

Halliday et al use the word 'style' to refer to the relations among the participants. They suggest a primary distinction into colloquial and polite (or formal, which is sometimes used in place of the latter), is here avoided because of its technical sense in description). This dimension is unlikely ever to yield clearly defined, and distinct registers. It is best treated as a cline, and various more delicate cuts have been suggested with categories such as 'casual', 'intimate', and 'deferential'. But until we know about how the formal properties of language vary with style, such categories are arbitrary and provisional.

Widdowson confuses Halliday's style (tenor) with other general denotations of the term (e.g. individuality, uniqueness or distinctive way of writing as Shakespeare's).

Widdowson proposes a new approach, textualisation. In this approach, he suggests that there is correlation between tense
and aspect and the degree of generality. He talks about this idea with reference to the works of Lackstrom, Seliker, and Trimble (1970, 1972) in which they discuss these features as ways in which the rhetorical activity of generalization in scientific discourse is textualised in English.

Lackstrom et al, for example, suggest that the choice of the present, present perfect and the past tense in scientific discourse depends upon how many instances of the processes the author knows of. If he knows that such a process does always happen, he uses the simple present. If he has knowledge of a few cases, he will use the present perfect. If he knows of only one case, the past tense will be used (Lackstrom et al 1970:109, cited in Widdowson 1979)

Another way of classifying language variation is by language functions.

3.4 Functions of Language:
The fact that people do different things with their languages has led anthropologists and linguists to devise different classifications of these functions. This, as Halliday puts it, 'represents a general characterization of semantic functions of the meaning potential of the language system.' (1971: 332)

A classification put forward by Malinowski, an anthropologist, divides the functions of language into two categories: pragmatic and magical. The pragmatic function is concerned with the practical uses of languages, and is subclassified into active and non-active. The magical is concerned with the ritual or the magical uses of language that are associated with a culture's ceremonial or religious activities.

Karl Buhler's classification (1934) is quite different. He makes a distinction between expressive, conative, and representational functions of language. The expressive is oriented towards the speaker, the conative is oriented towards the addressee, and the representational is oriented towards the rest of reality.
Roman Jakobson (1960) adopted Buhler's classification, adding three more functions: the poetic, the transactional, and the metalinguistic. While the poetic function is oriented towards the message, the transactional function is oriented towards the channel, with the metalinguistic function oriented towards the code.

Desmond Morris (1967) proposed another classification of language functions. It consisted of 'information talking', 'mood talking', 'exploratory talking', and 'grooming talking'. The first is the cooperative exchange of information. The second is similar to Buhler's expressive function. The third was defined as 'talking for talking's sake (aesthetic, play function). The fourth is the meaningless, polite chatter of social occasions, which can be likened to Malinowski's 'phatic communion.'

A functional approach sees language as man's way of indirectly meeting his needs and Halliday, as the exponent of this approach, argues that the child first uses language motivated by these very needs. Halliday (1975) postulates six basic functions of language: the instrumental, the regulatory, the interactional, the personal, the heuristic and the imaginative.

Through the instrumental function the child gets things done; through the expressive (personal) function, the child expresses his own uniqueness; the heuristic function is the 'tell-me-why' function of language through which the child finds about the world; and through the imaginative function, the child plays 'let's pretend' and creates an environment of his own.

As the child matures, some of these functions coalesce into the pragmatic (or actional) function and the mathetic (or learning) function, and one other function is added, the informative or more exactly the representational function. In the adult, these functions are reorganized to form the interpersonal, the textual and ideational (subdivided into the experiential and the logical) function.
There is a considerable similarity among these different classifications. For Halliday (1985: p.13) 'function equals use: the concept of function is synonymous with that of use.' He goes on to say that 'function will be interpreted not just as the use of language but as a fundamental property of language itself, something that is basic to the evolution of the semantic system.'

The functions of language can, accordingly, be identified as the functional components of the semantic system of a language:
1- Ideational
2- Interpersonal
3- Textual

1- The Ideational Function:
According to Halliday, language, in the first place, serves for the expression of content: it is representational or ideational. It is through this function that the speaker or writer embodies in language his experience of the phenomena of the real world; and this includes his experience of the internal world of his own consciousness: his reactions, cognitions and perceptions, and also his linguistic acts of speaking and understanding. It is, in turn, subdivided into:

a- Experiential: in serving function, language lends structure to the speaker's experience and helps him determine his way of looking at things. The speaker can see through and around the settings of his semantic system; but, in doing that, he is seeing reality in a new light.

b- Logical: this is the second component of ideational meaning which, while it has some relation to experience, is organised in language in a way which marks it off as distinct. This is the expression of certain fundamental logical relations utilised by language users to bind texts together such as coordination, apposition, and the like. The notion of coordination, for example, as in knives, forks, and spoons, can be derived from an
aspect of the speaker's experience; but this and other such relations are realised through the medium of a particular type of structural mechanism (the linear recursion) which takes them, linguistically, out of the domain of experience to form functionally neutral, 'logical' components in the total spectrum of meaning.

2- The Interpersonal Function:
In the second place, language serves what we may call an interpersonal function. Here, the speaker is using language as the means of his own intrusion into the speech event: the expression of his comments, his attitudes, and evaluations, and also of the relationship that he sets up between himself and the listener- in particular, the communication role that he adopts, of informing, questioning, greeting, persuading, and the like.

The interpersonal function thus subsumes both of Buhler's expressive and conative functions, which are not in fact distinct in the linguistic system. Halliday gives the following examples: 'I do not know' (expressive) and 'you tell me' (conative) which are combined in a single semantic feature, that of a question, typically expressed in the grammar by an interrogative; the interrogative being both expressive and conative at the same time.

The set of communication rules is unique among social relations in that it is brought into being and maintained solely through language. But the interpersonal element in language extends beyond what might be thought of as its rhetorical functions. In a wider context, language is required to serve in the establishment and maintenance of all human relationships; it is the means whereby social groups are integrated and the individual is identified and reinforced.

3- The Textual Function:
This is the third function, which is in turn instrumental to the other two, whereby language is enabled to meet the demands that are made of it. It is called the textual function by Halliday,
'since it is concerned with the creation of text. It is a function internal to language, and for this reason is not usually taken into account where the objects of investigation are extrinsic'. (ibid.: pp.332-34)

There is a correlation between the three aspects of the context of situation and the functions of language. Field of discourse seems to be related mostly to the ideational function of language, personal and functional tenors to the inter-personal, and mode to the textual. (See, Gregory and Carrol's (1978) diagram on register and the functions of language, pp.27-28)

3.5 Text Typology:
Text typology, which has been discussed in some detail in Chapter I, is another tenable method of classifying text on the basis of the functions of language. Accordingly, we have expository, argumentative, and instructional texts (on the sub-classifications of those text-types, see, for example, 1.8)

Having discussed various ways of classifying language instances and categorizing course materials in terms of register and functions of language, we can conclude that, whatever the case may be, the notion of register is a useful classificatory device. Translators and course designers plan their syllabuses on the basis of this notion.

In view of the criticisms levelled at the notion of register, we shall rely on another method of text classification: text typology. In our opinion, the notion of register and text typology complement each other. We shall make use of these two linguistic approaches in one unified theory, by drawing a matrix which involves the three variables of the context of situation (field, tenor, mode) played off against the three text types (expository, argumentative, instructional). In this way, the matrix will provide us with a large variety of texts.

The matrix will be of a great help regarding our proposed
syllabus, though it must be noted that some of these varieties probably do not exist (e.g. informal legal instructional text). Consider the following diagram:

**A. Register**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Legal</th>
<th>Political</th>
<th>Scientific</th>
<th>Literary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tenor</td>
<td>Frozen</td>
<td>Semi-Formal</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**B. Text type**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expository</th>
<th>Argumentative</th>
<th>Instructional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Overt</td>
<td>With option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>Letters to the editor</td>
<td>Advertisement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual</td>
<td></td>
<td>A legal document or a treaty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Mainly written
- Written to be read in a hurry
- Written to be read carefully
- Carefully
Chapter Four:
In Chapter II we highlighted some controversial issues in TT in general. We have discussed different views on the teaching of English/Arabic-Arabic/English translating in the Arab World, demonstrating some problematical areas which crop up in the classroom situation. We have also reviewed some model syllabuses at European and American universities, outlining their teaching contents with a view to setting up an eclectic translation syllabus at Syrian universities.

To support our views on the teaching of translating at Arab universities in general and Syrian universities in particular, we have conducted a questionnaire among 30 Syrian postgraduates, which will, along with assessing of translations, form the practical aspect of this study.

Before discussing the findings of the questionnaire let us list the following conclusions elicited from the model syllabuses discussed in Chapter II:

1- it is difficult to design a course that will satisfy all the needs of the market. This will require a survey of the market;
2- any translation course must make use of existing courses;
3- any course in translation and interpreting at Arab universities must make use of the local situation of translating there and of the specific problems faced in teaching of English-Arabic translating.

4.1 The Questionnaire:
For the purposes of this study, a questionnaire was sent to some 30 Syrian students, 28 of whom are doing post-graduate studies in English language or literature at various British uni-
versities. All the students have received undergraduate translating teaching at Syrian universities. Only two students have received formal training in translating at the post-graduate level in the U.K. 21 questions were asked concerning the degree of satisfaction among these students with the kind of translation teaching offered at Syrian universities.

Questions were put in such a way that answers might be brief. Some questions were of the 'multiple-choice' type so that the students could answer them quickly by ticking what they considered to be the appropriate answer. Other questions needed more time from the students, asking for details. Some selected samples of the answers can be found in the appendices.

When asked what they thought of the translation courses at their universities back home, 12 students said they were satisfactory, 4 said they were adequate, and 14 said they were inadequate. On the question of what the students had enjoyed most in the translation class, 18 students said practical translation in class, 8 said translation assignments, 8 said vocabulary drills, and only 4 said dictionary checking.

Concerning the benefits they had gained from the translation class, 12 students said that they had not gained much at the undergraduate level, 5 other students said that their vocabulary and practice in both languages had improved, 4 said that they had improved their translation skills at the post-graduate level, 5 said that they had learned from their teachers and colleagues, and 4 said that translating was good as an exercise for further practice in language structures.
Asked about the difficulties they had faced as first year students, 9 said that they had had problems with tenses and prepositions, 8 students said that the problem was lack of knowledge of vocabulary, idioms, and appropriate register; 5 said that they had had problems resulting from the different syntactic structures of English and Arabic; 3 said that they had problems distinguishing between text-types; 4 said that they had found difficulty with the application of a given theory and in finding the exact equivalence; and 1 student said that he did not remember.

Concerning what a translation class should do, 8 students answered that it should make one’s English and Arabic better, 7 said that it should give theory and practice, 5 said that it should improve translation competence, 4 said that it should improve language and communicative skills, 3 said that it depended on the students’ objectives of learning, 2 others said that it should provide students with a variety of knowledge, and one could not decide what a translation class should offer.

As to the question as to whether it was possible to get good results out of the translation class at the undergraduate level, 13 students said yes, 13 said no, and 3 did not give an answer.

When asked about the disadvantages of translation teaching at the undergraduate level, 9 students said that they did not have any proper translation teaching at their secondary school and did not have previous experience in translating; 5 said that it presupposed that the students’ language standard was high, which was not the case; 5 said that the large number of students in the translation class hampered the adoption and application of good teaching methods, because only a
few students could participate in the translation exercise; 5 said that there were insufficient text-books; 3 said that the time devoted to translating was not sufficient—the students were given only four hours per week; 2 said that there was no specialization—3rd and 4th year students doing a course in English language and literature should be able to specialise in translating only; and 1 student said that she did not know.

When asked about main obstacles to good translation teaching, the majority of the students answering the questionnaire said that the students' low standard in English was the main obstacle. The inadequacy of teachers' qualifications was another equally important obstacle. 4 students said that one obstacle was the lack of a text-book for translating, and 3 others said the lack of planning was the main obstacle.

As for the question as to whether the examination system was adequate, 14 students answered 'yes' while 16 answered 'no', owing to the kind of texts selected for translation in examinations. Those who answered 'yes' qualified their answers as follows: 8 students said the examination system was adequate in permitting the use of dictionaries; the remaining 4 said 'yes' for the kind of examination questions selected.

Asked whether the time allocated for the translation class was sufficient, 18 students answered 'no' while 12 answered 'yes'. Those students who answered 'no' expressed disappointment that the 60-minutes class was not sufficient to combine theory and practice.

As for the question as to whether it was justifiable to
include translating in a general course in English language and literature, 14 students answered 'yes', 8 students answered 'no', and the rest suggested that students who would opt for translating should choose between doing translating, language and linguistics, or literature in their third year, i.e. a two-year specialisation. However, the majority of the students agreed that it was desirable that translating should be learnt in an independent course at the undergraduate level, with a follow-up course at the post-graduate level.

As for the question as to whether it was possible to include interpreting and on-sight translating in translation courses, 24 students answered 'yes', provided that it was at the post-graduate level or in a specialised undergraduate course in translating. Only 4 students answered 'no'.

As for the question of the translation text-book published recently for some Syrian universities, 16 students said it was unsatisfactory, 4 said it was satisfactory to a certain extent, and 10 said that they had never had one. Asked whether it was necessary for both students and teachers to have such a text-book, 19 answered 'no', 5 answered 'yes', and 6 said it was desirable but not necessary.

As for the question whether the material to be translated in class should be selected and prepared before-hand or on the spot, 15 answered that materials should be selected in both ways, 10 others said they should be prepared before-hand, and 5 answered that they should be selected on the spot.

As for the question as to what subjects they considered suitable to be selected and translated in class, 10 students mentioned all subjects without exception, 5 answered that a large variety of subjects was preferable, 8 other students
mentioned news reports and literature, and 7 others said that anything which dealt with everyday events of some interest to students was potential material for selection.

When asked whether students should be familiar with the texts to be translated in examination, 20 students said they were against the idea that the students should be examined on texts that they had already translated in class, because this might lead them to memorise these texts and their performance would no longer be creative. 5 other students said that students should be familiar with the text to be translated in the exam and the other 5 said that only part of the examination should be familiar to the students.

As for the question as to whether rigid requirements were necessary from the students who wanted to join the translation course, 16 students said that there should be an entrance test, while 14 said that students should have scored high grades in both English and Arabic in their secondary school. Some students demanded that both conditions should be fulfilled before the student was admitted to the course, with some others making the reservation that while these prerequisites might be necessary to guarantee a good selection of students to the course, this should not be always the case, because some students who could not meet the required conditions for admission might make good progress during the course.

When asked for their opinion of what were the qualities of good translation teachers, the majority of the students said that they:
- should have a good command of both English and Arabic;
- should have a good cultural background;
should be acquainted with theories of translating;
should introduce students to many different varieties of texts;
should vary the ways in which they translated;
should have, at least, two years experience in translating and interpreting;
should have good formal qualifications in English/Arabic translating and interpreting.

The final question put to the students was to suggest points, which would be of importance for translating courses, but which were not mentioned in the questionnaire. The students suggested the following:
- the number of hours allocated to translating should be increased;
- more facilities for simultaneous translating should be provided;
- a variety of references on theories of translating should be made available in libraries;
- the number of home assignments should be more, and longer texts should be given for translation;
- translation theory should be taught in class;
- more translation exercises should be provided in class;
- the involvement of more students in the translation class should be encouraged;
- practical translation jobs should be introduced, i.e. the students should be encouraged to make professional translations of a limited scope, by cooperating with newspapers, the Arab Encyclopedia, broadcasting stations, and ministries of education and tourism.

It must be noted that the answers to this question considerably overlapped and, as in the case of the first two questions,
most respondents selected two or three answers at the same time.

The majority of the students answering the questionnaire expressed their dissatisfaction with the translation courses at their universities for the following reasons:
1- teachers' qualifications were not adequate;
2- translation text-books prepared at some Syrian universities were unsatisfactory;
3- the 60 minute class was not sufficient;
4- language laboratories and the necessary equipment for interpreting were lacking;
6- there was little practice and less theory;
7- exams did not fairly represent the students' standards.

While the students blamed the failure of translation teaching on teachers and course designers, other factors outside the teachers' control, contributed to the poor performance of the students and courses standards. These factors are:
1- the students' language standards were low. This may be attributed to ineffective language teaching given in preparatory and secondary schools;
2- there were shortages of qualified staff;
3- translation, as a course component, was not given sufficient time and preparation to achieve the desired results.

It is generally believed that the English Language has had a predictable decline in secondary schools in the Arab World. Secondary school leavers will only have a certain degree of linguistic as opposed to communicative competence, but that is largely the case of EFL and FL teaching the world over. (Swales 1984: 11)
In my opinion, the first priority in the training of beginners is to consolidate their language skills in the native and foreign languages, enabling them to acquire the basic principles of translating. The students' communicative competence must be supported by contrastive grammar.

Though there has been some disagreement over the use of Contrastive Linguistics in translating courses, CL, as Emery remarks, 'can play a useful workaday role in providing guidelines for the trainee translator working between particular languages but for a more general "background for problem solving" he must look to translation theory.' (1987:62)

4.2. The Overall Objectives of the Syllabus:
Taking into account the findings of the questionnaire and important points drawn from the model curricula mentioned in Chapter II, we propose the following objectives for the teaching of translating at our universities:
1- to consolidate the students' linguistic competence in both English and Arabic;
2- to develop the students' translation skills by giving them assignments to practice translation regularly. This will, in the long run, prepare them for the kind of work they are expected to do when they graduate;
3- to impart to the students transfer techniques, which can be acquired in the forms of strategies;
4- to acquaint the students with the tools of the trade and the rules of professional conduct;
5- to deepen the students' awareness of the importance of both the SL and the TL cultures and languages while translating—different cultures may not share identical experiences, but the gap between them can be bridged or, at least, narrowed;
6- to impart to students theoretical knowledge underlying the process of translating;
7- to present the students with parallel texts. Parallel texts 'form a group of background texts with which translations strive...to compete.' (Neubert 1980);
8- to encourage the students to work in teams.

4.3. The Proposed Syllabus:
We propose a three-stage course:
1- A one-year Basic Stage for beginners
2- A two-year Intermediate Stage
3- A one-year Advanced Stage

The basic course is divided into two semesters. The first deals with contrastive grammar of English and Arabic. Emphasis would be placed on those areas which pose translating problems. It is our main concern in this study to pinpoint few essential components which must be taught in the Basic Stage. We shall also address other areas which may be introduced in translating courses, especially intermediate and advanced stages

4.3.1 The Basic Stage:
Teaching English/Arabic translation necessitates bringing the students' linguistic competence up to the standard at which they can handle the structures of both English and Arabic. This view is met with opposition by some course designers who resent the idea of including language courses in translation courses (see Keiser's Model in 2.6.)

Grammatical differences between English and Arabic must be demonstrated. Practical translating should be postponed to a later stage. Instead, the students should be given short sen-
tences in English and Arabic. It is preferable that students should be taught different ways of rendering, for instance, conditional sentences into English.

They should be given awareness of the semantic, stylistic, and rhetorical nuances of the different renderings of a given Arabic sentence. Differences in formality, register, acceptability, and appropriateness of an utterance in a particular situation should also be highlighted. Look at the following examples:

'Have a safe journey'
'I wish you a safe journey'
'Safety be with you'

Though they mean the same, these three options may be used in English on different occasions, depending on the degree of formality of the relationship between addressee and addressee, and on whether the act of wishing is uttered orally or written in a letter.

The use of 'would' and 'should' and their translation may provide another topic for discussion. Tenses, articles, relative pronouns are potential problematic areas and may form the core of a systematic syllabus.

When translating from English into Arabic, there are two categories of problems that are expected to confront students. The first category occurs in the lower ranks of the linguistic hierarchy, such as the word, the phrase, and below-the-sentence levels. It includes verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, adverbials. The second category occurs in the higher levels: on the sentence and above the sentence levels.
Since Arabic structure is of a non-Indo-European VSO type, it is taken for granted that any attempt at achieving a literal translation of the grammatical categories of English, with an Indo-European SVO structure, will result in a distorted translation. That is why equivalence between English and Arabic at the lower level is considered impossible.

In this study, we are concerned more with the second category: above the sentence level. It deals with the way English and Arabic arrange information, favouring different methods of laying emphasis on certain elements and of establishing cohesion. It is this level which is the focus of interest in this study, as it is the level that the advanced Arab student finds most problematical. It is also a meeting point for the objectives of two disciplines: teaching of translating and teaching of composition (see, for instance, Holes 1984). This does not underestimate the first category, the lower level, as they are closely interrelated.

In this section, we shall demonstrate some ways of handling English/Arabic translation and how to handle problems occurring at this level.

4.3.1.1. Contrastive Linguistics:
At The Word level:
1- Verbs: auxiliary verbs, such as 'to be', and 'to have' are rendered by lexical verbs. Look at the following example:
NR, T.G.L52: 'The Islamic debate is also about the relative importance of the public and private sectors of Iran's economy'. (The Economist, February 16, 1985)
TL: 
'Is' is replaced by wayadur = turns on. Another example is the following:
NR, T.K,L8: 'In a build-up of activity this weekend, there were reports that the American Under-Secretary of State Lawrence Eagleberger is having last-minute consultations today in Jerusalem with the Israeli prime minister.'

وفي غمرة الاستعدادات المتزايدة مع نهاية هذا الأسبوع ترددت تقارير تفيد بأن وكيل وزارة الخارجية الأمريكية لورنس ايجل بيرغر يقوم باجراء مشاراته الأخيرة في القدس مع رئيس الوزراء الإسرائيلي اسحق شامير.

'There were reports' is replaced by taraddadat taga- rīr='reports circulated.'

2-Nouns/ Noun Phrases:
Noun structures should be modified. Nouns which refer to names of locations should lexically be made explicit, such as in the following examples:

NR, T.L,L95: 'One Israeli air raid in the summer narrowly failed to hit an enormous quantity of new weapons stored in a hillside near the Mieh Mieh Camp above Sidon.' (The Times, November 20, 1986)

وقد قبضت واحدة من الغارات الجوية التي قامت بها إسرائيل في الصيف الماضي في ضرب كمية ضخمة من الأسلحة الجديدة المخزنة في تلة قرب مخيم المية الواقع شمال مدينة صيدا.

Above Sidon: al-īwāqī' šamāl madīnat Ṣeydā = situated north of the city of Sidon.

NR, T.L, L40: 'But a final battle has still to be fought...before Mr Arafat dare come back to the land he departed in such ignominy after the siege of Tripoli 1983' (The Times, November 20, 1986)

غير أن هناك معركة نهائيّة يتوجب على رجال عرفات خوضها قبل أن ينجؤوا عرفات على العودة إلى البلد التي طرد منها بعد حصار مدينة طرابلس في عام 1982.

madīnat Tarābulus = the city of Tripoli.

Some items of recent invention have no standard equivalents
in Arabic, such as ‘word-processor’ and ‘computer’. For example, one rendering of ‘word-processor’ is جهاز معاِلة الكلمات  ‘an apparatus for dealing with words’, which is inadequate. The English word ‘computer’ has, at least, three translations: 
الحساب الآلي  the mechanical calculator, حساب  calculator, and الحاسوب الإلكتروني the electronic calculator, beside the transliteration of the word in Arabic as الكمبيوتر.

3- Adjectives/ Adjective Phrases:
Adjectives need to be disambiguated, such as in the following example:
‘One Israeli air raid’: الارصاد الجوية  ‘an air raid carried out by Israel. (C.f. T.L, L95 mentioned above, page 162).
Compounds must be made explicit by expansion, such as in text T.S below:
NR, T.M, L 73: ‘Some of these bundles are pinned down by defects in the superconducting material.’ (The Economist, June 17, 1989)
TL:
و يقوم بتثبيت بعض تلك الأحمال في المادة عالية الفئة على التوصيل
‘Super-conducting material’: المادة عالية السعة الالكترونية  material with high ability to conduct.

4- Prepositions:
The semantic relations indicated by prepositions in English should be made explicit when translated into Arabic, such as the following example:
NR, T. S, L6: ‘In an interview with the Sunday Times last week he suggested that Mikhail Gorbachev’s economic and social reforms were not going to work.’ (The Times, March 1, 1987)
فقد قال في مقابلة اجرته مع صحيفة الصناديق تأثير في الارضي الماضي ان الاصلاحات الاقتصادية والاجتماعية التي يقوم بها الزعيم السوفيتي ميخائيل جورباتشوف لن تنجح. (الشرق الأوسط)
'In an interview with': fī muqablat ajratha maṣahū = in an interview which...conducted with him.

Let us consider other examples:

NR, T.N, L15: 'Only a political solution, he said, could lead to the release of missing foreigners because 'a military operation by us could lead to their deaths.' (The Times, February 27, 1987)

كما قال أن الحل السياسي هو الذي يمكن ان يؤدي إلى إطلاق سراح الأجانب المفقودين لأن 'مهمة عسكرية

TL:

'To us': nāqūmu bihā = which we carry out.

NR, T.B, L1: 'The 350 people in west Beirut's Chatila camp who have voluntarily stopped eating so that their rations can go to the wounded and nursing mothers were joined yesterday by about 50 teenagers.' (The Independent, February 17, 1987)

توقف ثلاثة وخمسون شخصاً يعيشون في مخيم شاتيلا في بيروت الغربي عن الطعام بصورة طوعية كليًا

TL:

'In': yaṭiṣaḥūna fī = living in

5– Adverbs/Adverbial Phrases:

Though morphological means exist in Arabic for expressing adverbs of manner, Arabic has a tendency to expand adverbs into nouns or adverb phrases. An example of this is the adverb 'voluntarily' in the previous example. It may be rendered in three ways:

as biṣūrah tawṣīyyah = in a voluntarily manner or tawṣīyyātān/ tawṣan = voluntarily, thus adhering to the same grammatical category of English.

To cite another example:

NR, T.F,L:70 'We just want to make sure our people inside the camps in Lebanon are adequately protected.'

TL:
'Are adequately protected': 

Are adequately protected.

Another example:

Officially, the staple condemnations of resurgence of a Palestinian state within the Lebanese state are uttered here and there.

Only:

Good Arabic style favours turning 'only' into the emphatic negative 

Fegat:

Fegat occurs more frequently with numbers and money. Consider the following example:

This also applies to some adjectives, and determiners such as 'little', 'few', 'exclusive'.

Consider the following example, taken from an expository news report:

As a result, he [King Hussain] felt there was little purpose in taking up an invitation to visit the U.S.A. for talks with President Reagan.' (The Financial Times, February 18, 1987)
'Only' occurs in various types of texts, such as expository argumentative, and instructional ones, though it is more frequent in argumentation and evaluative texts. Look at this example:

**Article 92 (The Vienna Convention)**

**Nationality of Ships**

T.Q, L39: Ships shall sail under the flag of one state only and, save in exceptional cases expressly provided for in international treaties or in this Convention, shall be subject to its exclusive jurisdiction on the high seas.

6- Participles:

Participles are not used in the same way in Arabic and English. While English favours the use of present participles to join sentences together, Arabic favours a more explicit way of joining sentences by means of connectors. Making a literal translation of English participles will yield a clumsy translation, as in the following example:

AF, p.5, L:3 'With the ring of light from his lantern dancing from side to side, he lurched across the yard, kicking off his boots at the back door, drew himself a glass of beer.'

TL: ...ضْنِابِيأ، عَنَةَةُ الْبَابِ وَمَسْكَا بِالْكَهْسُ الْأَخَرُ مِنَ الْمَعْطَةِ

The translator must be aware of the grammatical differences between Arabic and English. He should choose a better grammatical means of rendering the participle. We suggest an alternative:

TL: ...فَمِنْ هَذَا عِندَ الْبَابِ الخَلْفِيِّ ثُمَّ سَكِبَ لَنفَيْسِ كَأْسَ أَخَيْرَةً مِنَ الْبِيْرَةِ
b- At the Sentence level:

1- Voice

Passive structures are not favoured in Arabic especially when the agent is specified. One reason is that translating English passives into Arabic may lead to translating the preposition 'by' as min gibel, which is stylistically cumbersome. That is why we often replace passives in English by active structures in Arabic. Consider the following examples:

NR, T.O, L5: 'The SLA, a 2,000-strong militia consisting largely of Lebanese Christians, was established by Israel to police the narrow "Security Zone" it has set up north of its border with Lebanon.' (The Economist, January 24, 1987)

TL: وقد أسس جيش لبنان الجنوبي من قبل إسرائيل وهو عبارة عن ميليشيا توانها 2000 مقاتل معظمهم من اللبنانيين المسيحيين، وذلك بهدف حراسة المنطقة الآمنة الضيقة التي رسمتها شمال حدودها مع لبنان.

ALT: وكانت إسرائيل قد أسست جيش لبنان الجنوبي، وهو عبارة عن ميليشيا قوامها 2000 مقاتل معظمهم من اللبنانيين الموسويين، وذلك بهدف حراسة المنطقة الآمنة الضيقة التي رسمتها شمال حدودها مع لبنان.

NR, T.C, L65: The alleged link was also denied by Mr. Carl Greshman, president of the national Endowment for Democracy, the private fund set up in 1983 to help democratic forces around the world. (The Times, February 17, 1982)


Agentless passives are rendered in various ways, usually with the help of verbs like tamma or jarā. In the following example, the passive can be alternatively retained in Arabic because the implied agent (s) are represented in another way:

SL: An agreement between the U.S.A and the Soviet Union has been concluded in order to eliminate short and medium-range nuclear missiles in Europe.
Arabic, in general, is characterised by a less frequent use of agentive and agentless passives than English. That is why students are recommended to change the passive into the active when translating from English into Arabic.

2- Tenses:
Arabic is generally considered to have two tenses: the Perfect, which is used for actions completed at the time to which reference is made and the Imperfect, which is used for actions which are not completed. The Imperative is thought of as a modification of the Imperfect. Although there are means of expressing continuous tenses, the past perfect, or the future if the speaker wishes to state these explicitly, there is not the precision that English tenses can convey.

Arab students have problems with the correct use of continuous forms, the past perfect, and the past. (see, for example, Dudley-Evans and Swales (1980:91). It is useful, therefore, for students to be given instruction in the way English and Arabic tenses work. By imparting to the students awareness of the distinction between Arabic and English in terms of, tenses, word order, parts of speech, paragraphing, and punctuation, the students will have invaluable grounding.

Our syllabus has been designed, with the following points taken into consideration:
1- the course is designed to train students who are supposedly of the same standard;
2- the course is a full-time one, spreading over four years;
3- the course attempts to provide training for a typical class, with the following characteristics:

a) students who have completed their secondary school education, and have a reasonable command of Arabic and English,
b) the course will provide general teaching in translating. Though some specialised texts may be given at the advanced stage, specialisation in translation teaching is outside the scope of the course,
c) with the exception of a few hours of interpreting, which may be done in the language laboratory, teaching will be given in class.

C- At the Text Level:
1- Marked/ Unmarked:
it is generally accepted that every language has its own methods of placing emphasis on certain elements in the text, marking them for particular purposes. Arabic has different ways of placing emphasis from those used in English. It displays a sentence order of Verb-Subject-Object rather than Subject-Verb-Object- word order is one of the main factors that distinguish one language structure from another.

For instance, the English unmarked structure permits putting adverbs and adverbial clauses in a front position, which is not the case in Arabic. This can be illustrated by the following example:
SS, p2,L3: 'In the name of Arab Unity, both Egypt and Iraq sought to impose on their fellow Arab States rival patterns of relations.'
A literal translation of this example, keeping the SL word order, results in this marked rendering:
An unmarked version may be the following:

Crystal defines Marked/ Unmarked in the following terms:

'Unmarked is a term used in linguistics to refer to a property of language which is more neutral, common, or general than a corresponding property, which is said to be marked' (1985: 188).

The dichotomy Marked/ Unmarked can be best explained in terms of word order. A literal translation of the following sentence shows how the translator is not successful because he keeps the order of the SLT:

SS, p2, L25: 'The Palestinian issue apart, little remains of inter-Arab politics of the period if one abstracts the tireless Hashimite solicitude and yearning for Syria.'

An unmarked rendering of the above sentence in Arabic is the following:

However, Arabic sometimes marks adverbials for special purposes. Consider the following example:

NR, T. T: 'For the American Presidents, the Middle East usually comes down in the end to a question of timing: sweat now or sweat later? It never goes away' (The Economist, February 23, 1985).

 بالنسبة للرؤساء الأميركيين، تتلخص القضية في الشرق الأوسط في النهاية بسؤال يتعلق بالتقويم: هل نتعمل الآن أم نتعمل فيما بعد؟ ولا ينتهي السؤال أبداً (الشرق الأوسط).
In this translation, marking of adverbial is justified to draw attention to the common attitude of American Presidents.

The fronting of adverbial clauses in Arabic legal texts sometimes seems forced or influenced by 'translation'. According to Emery (1989:3), 'one of the characteristics of legal English sentences is that they are, almost without exception, complex, typically consisting of adverbial conditional, concessive, or purpose clauses.' Such clauses abound in legal Arabic texts. Consider the following examples:

For the purposes of this Agreement

لإ أن يتم جلاء القوات البريطانية عن الأردن تظل هذه القوات متمتعة بـ

TL: Until their evacuation from Jordan is complete, the British forces shall continue to enjoy...

(Mansoor 1965, vol. II: 118)

2- Cohesion:

It is believed that one of the most widespread problems that advanced Arab students of English face is the difficulty of writing in a coherent and cohesive way (Dudley-Evans and Swales 1980). Another widespread problem is English punctuation (Holes 1984: 234).

Williams (1984:118) believes that Halliday and Hasan's definition of cohesion in terms of cohesive ties between sentences is not adequate for Arabic, and that punctuation has only recently been adopted in Arabic.

While Halliday and Hasan define text cohesion in terms of the cohesive ties existing between sentences, they admit that 'it is the underlying semantic relation... that actually has the cohesive power' rather than the particular cohesive marker.
Arabic makes use of different means for maintaining cohesion. Arabic texts also display more explicit cohesive devices than their equivalent English counterparts.

In terms of cohesion, English legal texts exhibit what Crystal and Davy call 'self-contained units which convey all the sense that has to be conveyed at any particular point and do not need to be linked either to what follows or what has gone before.' Crystal and Davy maintain that almost 'the only formal linkage to be found between the long and sufficient sentences is the repetition of lexical items' (1969: 201-202).

3- Formal parallelism:
Arabic texts exhibit the same type of lexical cohesion outlined above. It also uses formal and structural parallelism on a substantial scale. Consider the following example:

SS, p1, L14: As Western guiding strings were severed, stresses and strains between and within Arab states assumed unexpected importance; as western influence waned, so local problems of leadership and of the political organization of the Arab family loomed larger.

Arabic legal texts exhibit the same feature, as demonstrated in the following declaration, T. J, L13:

TL: 'I declare and undertake that, in the event of my violating this undertaking, in letter or in spirit, I am under obligation
to pay to the company, six months' salary in damages, as agreed upon beforehand and I consider myself completely responsible towards the company in the case of my breaching this undertaking.' (my translation)

The underlined adverbial clauses in the Arabic text are parallel structures. The writer creates a balance through repetition and lexical cohesion. The translator keeps the parallelism of the SL, producing a literal translation which is appropriate for legal texts. He also keeps the lexical cohesion of the SL. Mukhālafah and ikhlās, which are synonyms, are rendered as 'violating' and 'breaching' respectively.

Repetition is also used in English, but as Holes (1984: 236) observes, it is simply that formal repetition, per se, is 'a much more marked stylistic feature (in the sense of linguistic marking) in academic registers of English than it is in Academic Arabic, and so its frequent use in an English text jars on the reader.' English legal texts, however, are considered to be less repetitious, and hardly resort to lexical cohesion owing to one factor: ellipsis of a 'cataphoric' type not permitted in Arabic. (See, for example, Emery 1989)

Arabic tends to repeat the referent where English uses ellipsis, such as in the following example:

NR, T.D, L34: 'I had been told that the Americans would do anything in their power to prevent the supply of arms to Iran and thus the continuation of the (Gulf war)'. (The Financial Times, February 18, 1987).

Arabic texts tend to be more overtly cohesive in terms of
connectors than their equivalent English counterparts. Of the many cohesive markers and devices discussed in Halliday and Hasan 1976, we are only concerned with two: reference and lexical cohesion.

4- Reference:
Reference is of two types: exophoric and endophoric. Exophoric reference can only be recovered from outside the text, i.e. from the situation. Endophoric relationships are proforms whose interpretation lies within the text. They are of two kinds: anaphoric and cataphoric. Anaphoric reference can be interpreted by looking backward in the text; cataphoric relationships can be interpreted by looking forward. An example of anaphora can be seen in the following text:

SS, p1,L19: 'Syria lies at the centre of these cross-currents: it is a mirror of rival interests on an international scale.'

TL: تقع سوريا... وهي مرآة...
In this example, 'it' refers back to 'Syria' and can be interpreted accordingly. This kind of reference does not pose any problems in English/Arabic translation. It is in the cataphoric reference that problems arise. Consider the following example:

SS, p3,L39: 'In addition to the claims I have made for her, Syria is also a particularly good observation post...'

A literal translation of the English text exhibiting the same cataphoric reference is this:

TL: بالإضافة إلى مانعته و ادعيته لها، فإن سوريا تعتبر مركز مراقبة جيد وبشكل خاص

An alternative unmarked version in Arabic is suggested:

ALT: و تعتبر سوريية بالإضافة إلى مانعته و ادعيته لها مركز مراقبة...
While the cataphoric reference shown above is idiomatic and more favoured in English, since it leads to less repetition, it is not permitted in Arabic. However, Cataphoric reference has started to be used in journalese, such as the following example taken from a Times editorial:

NR, T.E,L91: *In his interview with The Times this week, Mr Peres pointed to the growth of self-government on the West Bank, the emergence of more Arab mayors and the decrease of violence there since Mrs Thatcher's visit to Jerusalem eight months ago*. (The Times, January 22, 1987)

TL: وفي مقابلة مع التأثير هذا الأسبوع اشار بيريز الى نمو الحكم الذاتي في الضفة الغربية... (الشرق الأوسط)

5- Theme/ Rheme:
In our discussion of 'Marked/ Unmarked' we have mentioned that this dichotomy has a bearing on given/ new theory. According to Brown and Yule (1983: 126), 'it has been observed that, in English, new information is characteristically introduced by indefinite expressions.'

In ordering elements, English starts with the least important elements, usually adverbs and adverbials of time, placing important and more salient information towards the end. Arabic starts with more important information leaving least important information to the end. On the phonological plane, English, however, has the added advantage of marking new information by means of stress.

Syntactically, one way of placing emphasis in English is by using the cleft sentence, such as the following example:

SS, p4,L2: *It was Syria that elected the first communist deputy in the Arab world*.

TL: إنتخبت أول نائب شيوعي في العالم العربي
Theme is the first element in a sentence, 'the left-most constituent of the sentence' (Brown and Yule 1983: 126), 'the starting point of the utterance or the 'point of departure' (Halliday 1967: 212). Rheme refers to what follows the theme. In fact, there is confusion about the terminology and the use of terminology. The definition of theme in the Hallidayan sense has been found inadequate for the treatment of Arabic.

Williams (1984: 121) ascribes this to the 'very simple reason that Arabic most of the time displays a sentence order of Verb-Subject-Object rather than Subject-Verb-Object and because Arabic has a freer word order than English.'

Depending on a modified version of Halliday's definition of theme/rheme, Williams arrives at the following conclusions:

i. written Arabic tends to repeat the theme in successive clauses more frequently than English even when it is grammatically possible to omit it. Such repetition, which involves repetition of lexical strings, might have a syntactic function;

ii. in written Arabic the theme of a clause tends to have the same referent as the theme or rhyme of the previous clause. This may compensate for the fact that Arabic makes less use than English of discourse adjuncts and punctuation.

4.3.1.11 Translation Theory as an important component of the translation course:

By discussing the three models of translating: the Grammatical, the Cultural, and the Interpretive, the teacher of translating is actually imparting to students basic transfer techniques from which they may choose what is appropriate for a
particular text.

1- Transfer techniques:
Having introduced the students to a large variety of text types and forms at the first stage and especially during the second stage, the teacher should vary the way he teaches regularly, whilst at the same time retaining a consistent course with reference to the course goals. The teacher should also be systematic in his methods of teaching, translating, and presenting materials.

By introducing various text-forms for translating, the teacher aims to sensitize his students to stylistic differences, motivating them to vary the way they translate according to the type of text they are handling. For a long time now there has been a controversy over whether it is better to translate literally or to produce a free rendering of the SLT, provided that the essence of the SL message remains intact. (For more details on this and other controversies, see Ch. II above)

While exponents of literal translating argue for the importance of conveying both the form and the content of the ST, supporters of free translating argue for conveying the essence of the SLT, ignoring the stylistic or aesthetic value of the form, which is particularly significant in the translation of literary works.

In fact, these are two polarised viewpoints. The teacher should try to reconcile them in such a way that the student should translate as literally as possible and as freely as the structure, the idiom, the cliches, or the collocation requires.

In order to obtain better insights into translation techniques,
it might be useful at this point to review the transfer procedures proposed by the representatives of the stylistique comparée approach, Vinay and Darbelnet (1958). They made the first systematic attempt to draw up a well-ordered set of transfer procedures and to devise a comprehensive classification of translation procedures including both literal and non-literal translation.

They developed a framework for describing translation procedures, basing their views on the assumption that the translation process manifests itself as a series of linguistically comprehensible techniques. They supported their views by evidence from English/French and German/French translations, and concluded that all translation procedures could be included under seven techniques, at least, as far as these two language pairs are concerned. These techniques are: borrowing, calque, literal translating, transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation. The first three fall into the category 'literal translating', while the remaining four fall into 'free translating'.

1- Borrowing: this involves borrowing SL vocabulary items and their compounds, incorporating them as they are in the TL without any change in their meaning or general grammatical status. Examples of borrowings abound in Arabic, such as taxi, freezer, bus, train, radio, video, computer, starter, motor.

2- Calque or loan translating is a kind of literal translating that involves taking one compound in the SL, analysing it into its constituent parts and, then, carrying their individual meanings into the TLT. An example of calque is the English 'guest worker', which corresponds to the German compound
'Gast/ arbeiter'. It is transferred into English by dividing it into its constituent parts, conveying the meanings of both words.

3- Literal translating is a method of replacing the syntactic structures of a SL, normally at the clause or sentence level, by corresponding syntactic structures in the TL in terms of the number of words and type of parts of speech. Though the attention devoted to non-literal translating procedures is more than that devoted to literal translating, literal translating is 'rather powerful, at least in certain sorts of texts, for example LSP texts' (Wilss 1982: 100).

4- Transposition consists in rendering the elements of a SLT by equivalent elements in the TLT that do not correspond syntactically with the original. This transfer procedure involves changing the parts of speech in the SLT, such as in the following example:
   SL: 
   A literal translation of بكم زيادة الإنتاج is: 'productivity can be increased'. A more idiomatic version in English is:
   TL: 'Increased productivity is possible'

5- Modulation: involves shifts in meaning as in rendering a positive SL sentence by a negative TL sentence. For example, the French example:
   SL: 'l'hôtel est plein'
   can be rendered into English as:
   TL: 'No vacancies', which can be rendered in Arabic by either لاتوجد شواعر - كامل العدد or kamil al-fadad
6- Equivalence is the replacement of a SL situation by a communicatively comparable TL situation. The aim of the translator is to produce as nearly as possible the same effect on the TL reader as the effect which was produced on the SL readers (Newmark 1981:10). The Dynamic Equivalence is most effective in rendering proverbs, epigrams, and other cultural expressions (for a more detailed account, see Chapter I, The Cultural Model). For example, the rendering of the following English proverb may pose problems to students:
SL: 'One man's meat is another man's poison'
A literal translation may lead to the following misleading version:
TL1: 
إن لحم شخص ما هو سم شخص آخر

This rendering is vague. When we put this proverb in its appropriate, social context, it may be stylistically and functionally comparable to the following Arabic proverb:
TL:
مصائب قوم عند قوم فوائد
= 'one people's misfortunes are another people's profits.'

7- Adaptation is a textual compensation for the socio-cultural differences between the SL and the TL. Elements of meaning missed in the translation can be compensated by using footnotes and additional TL vocabulary items. For example, the use of the plural marker kum in Arabic in a formal situation when addressing somebody who is higher in position than the addresser. When translating into English, we have to take the first opportunity to add something to the meaning, perhaps at a later stage, by introducing polite formulas, such as 'sir, 'your excellency', 'your lordship', or by slightly increasing the formality of the style.
Vinay and Darblenets classification of translation procedures was considered vague: devising a system of categorisation for procedures in the domain of non-literal translating posed problems of definition and subcategorisation. The typology of these procedures was studied and criticized. According to Clas (1971), the three literal translating procedures are to be regarded as special cases of translating. He concluded that only modulation, equivalence, and adaptation are true translation techniques, because they deal with meaning, excluding transposition on the grounds that it deals only with formal shifts of expressions.

Though Bausch (1968) attempted a new classification, eliminating many inconsistencies resulting from the definition of transposition, there remained the problem of making a clear distinction between literal translating and transposition. The sixth translation procedure, equivalence, is redundant and confusing, since it is the aim of every translation to achieve equivalence by whatever translation strategy or procedure available.

There are also reservations regarding the use of the vague term adaptation, since it refers to a general state of affairs, guiding every non-literal translation process and establishing the correspondence between SL and TL according to the given contextual and situational conditions of communication in each case. (For a more detailed treatment of translation procedures, see Wilss 1982: 96-111; Pinchuk 1977)

Having acquainted the students with translation procedures the teacher must adopt the right techniques for the translation of his materials. He must select his materials according to text type theory and register theory (see Ch.III above). For
instance, expository news reports and summaries require us to operate at the phrase level and sometimes at the clause level. In argumentative texts (e.g. editorials), we can move up to a higher level, such as that of the sentence or the text in order to render the evaluative structure of the SLT.

In instructional texts (e.g. legal documents, treaties) the translator operates on the word level to retain the dignified, frozen style of the SL document. In the case of cliches, collocations, proverbs and epigrams, however, the translator may move up to higher levels, i.e to the sentence or the text level, to find a near TL equivalent of the SL culture-specific term or proverb. This can be best achieved by applying the Dynamic Equivalence Method of translating (see, for example, the Cultural Model Ch.I above).

2- Implications of the Three Models for TT:
Teaching translating according to the Grammatical Model will demonstrate translating as an interlingual operation whereby a text in one language (SL) is replaced by a text in another language (TL) - translating as a kind of code-switching. The teacher must concentrate on parts of speech in English and Arabic, highlighting areas of match and mismatch.

Teaching according to the Grammatical Model also involves comparing and contrasting grammatical structures of English and Arabic. Methods include contrastive grammar techniques of translating and lexicon acquisition. For example, the teacher chooses a particular grammatical area which is regarded as problematical, and demonstrates to students how to surmount it when translating from English into Arabic and vice versa.
One grammatical area which is problematical in translating is tense. A contrastive study of how English tenses work and potential problems resulting from translating them into Arabic, similar to the one undertaken earlier in this chapter, is of great importance. We refer briefly to a few topics that the teacher can discuss in class:

1- the translation of the continuous tenses into Arabic;
2- the translation of the perfect tenses into Arabic;
3- the distinction between the past and the present perfect in English;
4- the translation of the simple present;
5- discussion of the various ways of expressing the future tense in English:
   - the use of 'will' and 'shall',
   - the use of 'Going to + infinitive,
   - the use of the present continuous tense;
6- the different translations of 'would' and 'should';
7- the translation of English passives into Arabic and vice versa;
8- the translation of connectors into English and Arabic and vice versa;
9- the translation of English parenthesis into Arabic;
10- the Translation of adverbs and adverbials into Arabic;
11- the Translation of articles in Arabic and English;
12- the Translation of relative clauses in Arabic and English;
13- the Translation of pronouns in English and Arabic;
14- punctuation in Arabic and English;
15- the Translation of modal verbs into Arabic.

These areas are listed as examples only, since grammatical problems in translating from English into Arabic are numerous. If taught systematically, these topics provide a good
foundation for the teaching of translating. The students are exposed to typical translation problems and appropriate translating techniques. The result is the accumulation of a set of problem-solving methods or strategies, which the students will have at their disposal once they have completed the course.

Since the Grammatical Model concentrates on the syntagmatic and paradigmatic features of the message, it produces a word-for-word translation. Though it is often criticised for ignoring some aspects of the message, word-for-word translating is effective in translating instructional texts, such as legal documents and treaties. When translating these texts, the translator must stick to the letter of the message, retaining its formal and sometimes frozen style. He should move up to the phrase and the clause level only if the idiom or the collocation requires him to do so.

Teaching according to the Cultural Model is more useful than according to the Grammatical Model. Its Methods are very effective in handling translation problems of a culture-specific kind, such as proverbs, and epigrams. The aim of the translator is to express in the TLT world what has been already expressed in the SLT world, bridging cultural gaps as far as possible. A translation according to this model will be far from literal, as it concentrates not on isolated words and phrases but on the cultural context of words and concepts. Consider the following translation of this English proverbial expression:

'The pot calls the kettle black' (Smith 1935: 360)

A literal translation is:
Putting this proverb in its cultural setting and retaining its function as admonitory, leads to the following rendering:

The kettle reproached the kitchen spoon. "Thou blackee," he said, "thou idle babbler." (Burckhardt 1875: 435)

In translation teaching according to the Cultural Model, the teacher must emphasize the importance of both the SL and the TL cultures. Cultural aspects, such as kinship terms and colour terms, are highlighted, with the aim of finding equivalence. The teacher of translation, while underlining that different languages dissect the world differently, must make the student aware of the possibility of bridging the difference in experience between two cultures.

The cultural context of each word in the text must be looked at carefully, because it is in their specific culture that the precise meanings of words crystallise. For example, the English word 'cousin', which has no gender, has eight different translations in Arabic, which has a more elaborate system of kinship terms, depending on the exact blood relationship:

- Ibn amm: father’s brother’s son; ibn khāl: mother’s brother’s son; ibn ‘ammah: father’s sister’s son; ibn khālah: mother’s sister’s son; bint ‘amm: father’s brother’s daughter; bint khāl: mother’s brother’s daughter; bint ‘ammah: father’s sister’s daughter; bint khālah: mother’s sister’s daughter.

Translation teaching according to the Interpretive Model, especially the Text Analysis method, is more effective than
that according to the previous models. Though the Hermeneu-
tic Method is considered the least teachable of all, since it
regards translating as interpretation and recreation, it is a
sophisticated method, since the interpretation of text comes
first prior to analysis and restructuring. It is difficult to
adopt as a method of teaching for beginners, as it leads to
free translation and the recreation of completely new texts.

The Text Analysis Method, on the other hand, is more effec-
tive to adopt, since it provides systematic teaching stages.
It is recommended because teaching depends on certain con-
cepts, such as context and co-text. The task of the translator
is to reconstruct the context of the text he wants to trans-
late, starting with reading and understanding the text, ana-
lysing it into its major constituents and propositions.

By analysing the context of the text, i.e. the environment in
which it occurs, and its co-text, i.e. its linguistic environ-
ment, the translator will determine the overall meaning of
the SLT. The translator analyzes the text, relying on certain
formal markers which serve as clues, such as conjunctions
and reference. This method also preserves the style of the
SLT and its degree of formality.

Translation teaching according to the Text Linguistic Model is
the most effective. It is an eclectic model which draws on
all previous models, laying a solid foundation for TT. In addi-
tion to concentrating on context as a key term for under-
standing the meaning of texts, this method also highlights the
importance of formal clues, such as conjunctions, in analysing
the text. The translator is guided by such clues as connectors
and anaphora which enable him to understand and analyse the
text correctly.
The major characteristic of this model is that it takes the text rather than the word or the sentence as the unit of translating. Translations made according to the model are idiomatic, concentrating on the meaning of the SLT, without ignoring its formal characteristics.

Exponents of this model highlight concepts like cohesion, coherence, intentionality, situationality, appropriateness, and intertextuality as the standards of textuality. (See de Beau-grande and Dressler 1981). The translation process is divided into the following stages:
- Reading
- Understanding
- Analysis
- Reconstructing the context
- Decision-making
- Restructuring
- Editing and revision
- Assessment
(For a more detailed account see Reiss 1981; Wilss 1982; House 1977, 1982)

Other interesting areas for discussion are the following:
- Literal and free translation;
- Translation equivalence: dynamic and formal;
- Untranslatability;
- Techniques used by translators;
- Translation procedures: adaptation, transposition, borrowing, word for word translation,
- Stages of translation.

4.3.1.11 The Cultural Component of the Course:
By including a cultural component in the course we aim to
develop bi-cultural competence in the context of translating. It has the following sub-targets:
a) to enable students to be aware of the cultural differences between societies and their implications for translating;
b) to enable the students to be aware of the relation between language and culture, and its implications for translating;
c) to provide the students with relevant information concerning the gaps in various aspects of the TL and SL cultures;
d) to provide the students with a knowledge of the various means of assessing and bridging cultural gaps.

The Cultural Content
Teaching culture includes the following topics:
1- the relation between language and culture: Introduction-language is determined by culture-language as manipulation of culture;
2- the L1 culture and history;
3- socio-economic and political systems: the British economic, political, and legal systems;
4- English and American literatures;
5- philosophical and religious thinking;
6- daily life and customs, ideas and attitudes;
7- colour terms;
8- figurative speech;
9- proverbs and epigrams;
10- geographical background;
11- cultural distance and approximation;
12- history and ecology;
13- world history.
Pedagogical division of the cultural content:

Thought and Language:
- the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis and translating;
- the cultural limits of translatability;
- a contrastive cultural study of (L1-L2) colour terms, kinship terms, etc.

Techniques of assessing cultural distance:
- componential analysis;
- hierarchical analysis;
- techniques of familiarising students with TL cultural elements
  - role playing.

Types of cultural correspondence in translating:
- Linguistic translation and cultural equivalence:
  (Formal vs. Dynamic equivalence)
- Cultural metaphors and the means of translating them

4.3.1.iv Translation Assessment:
In the third and the fourth year, when the teacher is fully satisfied that his students have improved their linguistic and translation competence, he may start introducing for the students criteria for assessing the quality of translations and encourage them to criticise their colleague's translations and their own translations.

Translation assessment requires concentrated effort from both the teacher and students. It has evolved from and as a reaction to error analysis. While error analysis is primarily concerned with classifying, describing and evaluating trans-
fer phenomena on the basis of the dichotomy 'wrong/right, translation assessment is concerned with making qualitative assessment of translation as a whole, as objectively as possible, taking into account both positive and negative factors'. (Wilss 1982: 216)

Thus, translation assessment has become more popular than error analysis. It occupies so important a position as a practice in translation in general and in translation pedagogy in particular that course designers and translation theorists, such as Reiss and Wilss, are calling for its inclusion in translation and interpreting syllabuses.

In fact, there are various objectives of evaluation, such as the assessment of the performance of the translator, the assessment of the faithfulness of the translation with regard to content and intention, and more importantly the assessment of a translation in terms of its appropriateness for its intended purpose.

At the outset, let us discuss some linguistic models of translation quality assessment put forward by House (1976) and Sager (1983) to see how their sets of criteria for assessing translations are different from those of earlier attempts.

Early studies have dealt with translation quality assessment in 'an anecdotal and largely subjective manner', adopting such criteria as faithfulness to the original, the retention of the SL flavour, local colour or spirit, and the pleasure of the reader. (House 1976, 1982: 5)

It is usually the case that criteria assigned to high quality translations are vague and sometimes contradictory. Consider
the following principles of translation listed by Savory:

1- A translation must give the words of the original
2- A translation must give the idea of the original
3- A translation should read like an original work
4- A translation should read like a translation
5- A translation should reflect the style of the original
6- A translation should possess the style of the translator
7- A translation should read as a contemporary of the original
8- A translation should read as a contemporary of the translator
9- A translation may add to or omit from the original
10- A translation may never add to or omit from the original
11- A translation of verse should be in prose
12- A translation of verse should be in verse (Savory 1957: 49)

Other theoretical and experimental studies attempt to measure translation quality by the response made on the readers. Though these studies are more advanced, since they are communicatively oriented, they do not differ much from the previous category as far as their attempts to produce general criteria, such as Nida’s three criteria, are concerned:
1- general efficiency of the communication process;
2- comprehension of intent;
3- equivalence of response. (Nida, 1964: 182)

These three criteria are closely related, since equivalence of response cannot be achieved without comprehension of content. This echoes Nida’s famous principle of ‘Dynamic equivalence of a translation’, where the manner in which the receptors of the TLT respond must be equivalent to the manner in which the receptors of SL respond to the SLT. (For a broader account of the Dynamic Equivalence Method, see the Cultural Model, CH1; see also Nida 1964: 159)
It may be useful to note that equivalence does not necessarily mean that the produced response is identical, owing to cultural, historical, and social differences between the SL and the TL. In any case, equivalence of response can never be empirically tested. Thus, arguing for equivalence of response seems as futile as the philologists' requirement of 'capturing the spirit of the original'.

Nida and Taber (1969: 173) propose three criteria for testing the quality of a translation:

1- the correctness with which the receptors understand the message of the original...;
2- the ease of comprehension;
3- the involvement a person's experiences as the result of the adequacy of the form of the translation.

Nida and Taber's practical tests of translations include, among other things:
1- the use of the Cloze technique, which assumes that ease of comprehension of a given text is related to its degree of predictability;
2- the reading aloud of a translation by several individuals before an audience.

Other experimental methods in which the ultimate criterion of translation quality is an observable, verifiable response, have been put forward by Miller and Beebe Centre (1958) and Macnamara (1967). The studies, however, suffer from the relativity of any judgment that lacks a norm against which the results of any response test may be measured. (For more details on these studies, see, for example, House 1982)

House (1976) criticises response-based studies on transla-
tion assessment for ignoring the SLT. In her view, the SLT is a pre-requisite for establishing the quality of a given translation, and this quality is measured as a basis for comparison with the TLT. 'A translation may be judged according to whether or not it is adequate vis-à-vis the 'normal' standard usage of native speakers in a given situational context.' She proposes to develop an objective method for determining the semantic, stylistic, functional, and pragmatic qualities of the SLT, and then to determine whether and to what extent the translation matches these characteristics.

Wilss (1974, 1982) suggests that the TLT should be judged according to a certain norm of usage in a language community. However, his argument is controversial, since it is unrealistic for the SLT, owing to the individual preferences of the translator. House considers Wilss's suggestions unsound:

the given situation in which the source text was written is, by definition, unique and therefore the notion of a "norm" existing in the source culture for a particular unique text is a somewhat optimistic one. Even more optimistic is the idea that there should exist a "norm" for this unique text inside the target culture. (House 1982: 21-22)

Koller (1974) proposes a linguistic model of translation quality assessment, consisting of the following stages: 1. SLT criticism with a view to transferability into the TL; 2. translation comparison in which the particular methods of translation used in the production of the given TLT are described; 3. evaluation of the translation, not according to vague, general criteria such as 'good' or 'highly intelligible', but according to 'adequate' or 'not adequate', given that text-specific features derived in I are measured against the native speaker's faculty for meta-linguistic judgments.
Reiss's model for translation assessment is useful, suggesting that determining the text type of the SLT is a precondition for measuring the quality of a translation. According to her, it is these text types which have to be kept equivalent in an adequate translation. The determination of the text type presupposes a careful analysis of the SLT (see, for example, Ch.1 on Reiss's classification of texts).

Reiss's model of translation assessment is general, since she does not demonstrate its practicality. Her model is programmatic only since it gives no indication of the precise method of establishing text function or text type. Reiss's approach to translation assessment needs to be further developed into a workable model.


Prior to designing her model of translation quality assessment, House (1976, 1982) underlines the importance of meaning in translating. Since the essence of translation lies in the preservation of meaning, House makes a distinction between the three aspects of meaning: the semantic, the pragmatic, and the textual.

The semantic or referential meaning is the representation of a certain word or utterance in the real world, i.e., referent, which is most readily accessible. The pragmatic meaning can be best demonstrated in the light of Austin (1962) and Searle's (1969) Speech Act Theory, which refers to the pragmatic meaning as the illocutionary force that an utterance may have, i.e., the particular use of an expression on a specific occasion.

This illocutionary force may be predicted from grammatical
features, e.g., word order, mood of the verb, stress, intonation, or the presence of performative verbs. It must be noted that in actual speech situations, only the context will make the pragmatic meaning of any utterance clear.

Pragmatic meaning has great implications for translating, since translating operates with units of language in use, i.e., utterances. It is the aim of translating to arrive at an equivalent of pragmatic meaning, because the primary task of translating is to convey the intention of the SLT. Thus, pragmatic meaning overrides semantic meaning (House 1982: 28).

Since translating is a textual phenomenon, the textual aspect of meaning is very important, because 'the SLT should be kept equivalent in the TLT' (Catford 1965; Gleason 1968; House 1976, 1982). Texts are usually constituted by the use of the following cohesive devices: pro-forms, substitutions, ellipsis, co-reference, anaphora, which should be taken into account if the meaning of the SLT is to be preserved.

Though, as Gleason (1968:40) points out, many of the crucial problems [of translation] lie in attaining connectivity between successive sentences while conveying the message, the textual aspect of meaning has been neglected.

The concept of equivalence is taken as the fundamental criterion for measuring the adequacy of translations. House proposes a definition of translating based on the concept of equivalence. According to her, 'translation is the replacement of a text in the source language by a semantically and pragmatically equivalent text in the target language' (House 1982: 29-30; see also Wilss 1977).
According to House, Halliday's (1970a, b, 1971, 1973, 1975, 1985) ideational and interpersonal functions are comparable to the functions used by Ogden and Richard (1946), Buhler (1965), and Jakobson (1960) as a basic mode of language in use. Halliday's functional theory, however, differs from the previous approaches only as far as his textual function is concerned. It is this function that makes text construction easier.

Since it is possible to find different functions occurring in one text, it is obvious that most approaches to text function take the predominant language function in a text as the basis for determining text types. The probabilistic nature of text typology, however, does not precisely determine text functions, though text typology is useful in selecting, and classifying texts for analysis.

For the purposes of constructing a model for situational-functional SLT analysis and assessments of translation, House adapts Crystal and Davy's scheme of situational dimensions (1969) as follows:

A. Dimensions of language user: 1. Geographical origin
   2. Social class
   3. Time

B. Dimensions of language use: 1. Medium simple
   [complex]
   2. Participation simple
   [complex]
   3. Social Role Relationship
   4. Social attitude
   5. Province
   (House 1982:42)
These situational dimensions and their linguistic syntactic, lexical and textual correlates are considered to be the means by which the text's function is realised. House postulates that a TLT must not only match its SLT in function, but employ equivalent situational-dimensional means to achieve that function.

By using situational and linguistic dimensions for analysing the SLT, the translator obtains the textual norm against which the quality of the TLT can be measured. According to House's evaluation scheme, any TLT, in order to be adequate, has to fill the requirement of a dimensional and a functional match. It follows from this that any mismatch along the situational dimensions constitutes an error.

As far as the classification of errors is concerned, House suggests a typology of translation errors consisting of covertly erroneous and overtly erroneous translations. The former type includes mismatches along the situational dimensions; the latter comprises errors resulting from a mismatch of the denotative meaning of the SLT and the TLT elements.

Overt errors are divided into two categories. The first category includes cases where the denotative meaning of elements in the SLT has been changed by the translator. These are subdivided into: omissions, additions, substitutions consisting of either wrong selections or wrong combinations of elements. The second category of overt errors or breaches of the TL system is subdivided into: cases of ungrammaticality and cases of dubious acceptability or breaches of the 'norm of usage'.

While overt errors have traditionally been given attention,
covert errors have been neglected, since their investigation is not as easy as the investigation of the overt type. The final qualitative judgement of TLT, in House's view, consists of listing a statement of the mismatches of both types of errors and a statement of the resulting mismatch of each of the two functional components.

Sager (1983) argues that 'there are no absolute standards of translation quality but only more or less appropriate translations for the purpose for which they are intended.' He subscribes to text type translation theory, advocated by Reiss (1972; 1976, 1981) and Wilss (1982; 1987), which posits that different types of texts require different methods of translating.

While saying that most translations are modelled on text forms of the TL, Sager admits that there are also translations which do not match known forms of TLT, and which cannot therefore be compared to them. He also recognises that there is no standard translation of any such types of texts. He points out:

While there are established text types which we can identify and whose general characteristics can be described, there is not an ideal model of letter, scientific report or instruction; each organization develops its own variants according to the functions any such document has in the communication processes which represent or accompany its activities (1984: 332)

In terms of the criteria for evaluation, Sager makes a distinction between macro-evaluation which aims at assessing the value of the product and micro-evaluation which is aimed
at improving the product. Our main concern in this study is with the latter: micro-evaluation.

**Types of error:**
Sager makes a distinction between errors caused by inadequate knowledge of the vocabulary, orthography, morphology or syntax of the TL and those stemming from the misinterpretation and inadequate expression of the SLT. To Sager, errors of the second kind are more frequent than the first, and should be given the main concern. For the purposes of objectivity, precision, and consistency, Sager devises a grid for assessment, which must be carried out on two axes: the lexical and the syntactic. Accordingly, errors are classified as follows:

- Inversion )
- Omission }
- Addition } unless justified by the specification
- Deviation )
- Modification

With such a diverse fund of criteria, there will be a considerable variation in the result of assessment. This can only be balanced by taking the scores obtained by different assessors. Introducing this method which depends on the end-product user as the principal assessor is useful, though, as Sager admits, it is a subjective method and can only be objectified by comparing the time required for the reading of a translation and an original.

For the purposes of this study, we shall rely on House's and Sager's models in building our own models for translation
quality assessment. Accordingly, we propose the following categorisation of translation errors:

a- Lexical Errors
b- Syntactic Errors
c- Textual Deviation

This classification can be further subdivided, resulting in the following elaborate grid:

a.
1- Justified Lexical Addition
2- Unjustified Lexical Addition
3- Justified Lexical Omission
4- Unjustified Lexical Omission
5- Justified Lexical Reformulation
6- Unjustified Lexical Reformulation.

1- Justified Syntactical Addition
2- Unjustified Syntactical Addition
3- Justified Syntactical Omission
4- Unjustified Syntactic Omission
5- Justified Syntactic Reformulation
6- Unjustified Syntactic Reformulation

c- Textual Deviation

3. Analysis of Data:
The data for this study have been selected from various sources, such as newspapers and magazines (e.g. The Times, The Guardian, The Observer, The Independent, The Financial Times, The Economist, The New Statesman, and Time) and from literary and political books. Newspapers will provide us with the required newsreports and editorials, which are for the most part political. The translations of these newsreports and editorials appeared in the Arabic Newspapers, al-
The data selected are classified as follows:

**Non-literary:**
This group includes two genres:
1- Political, historical book: Patrick Seale’s *The Struggle For Syria*, translated into Arabic by Samir Fallahah and M. Abdeh.
2- Journalistic: news reports and editorials.

Mention should be made of the fact that, in some cases, the distinction, for instance, between political and economic within the same work does not hold, and hybrid classifications emerge. For instance, the political text is at the same time historical, because it deals with Syrian political affairs, and with events that occurred in the period between World War II and the Sixties. The same also applies to the classification of the literary works.

**Literary:**
1- *Animal Farm* by George Orwell, translated by Ra'd Abd al-Jalil Jawād, and a second anonymous translation.

**Modes of Evaluation:**
According to Sager, two aspects of evaluation exist:
1- A new text can be compared to the original, via a metalinguistic representation, relatively to other translations, as in examinations or absolutely to an ideal type;
2- A translation can be described, analysed and evaluated as if it were the result of a writing or a re-writing process.

Sager discusses the aspects of translation which affect eva-
uation and points out that in order to determine the criteria which are significant in the evaluation of translations we have to describe the substantial number of variables which affect the translation process, such as the text type and form of the SLT and the TLT.

For the purposes of this study, we propose two modes of evaluation:
A - Assessing a published translation: The Struggle For Syria
B - Comparison and assessment of two published translations of the same work: Animal Farm

Assessment of a translated work:
This includes the following preliminary steps:
 a) SLT analysis, which includes identifying the SLT intention, function, register, language quality;
 b) comparison of the SLT and the TLT;
 c) evaluation of the TLT in relation to the SLT;
 d) suggesting a better or improved alternative.

To demonstrate how a translated work should be assessed, we have conducted an assessment of a translation of the introduction and selected examples of The Struggle For Syria.

A - Assessing a published translation:
SS,p1,L14: As Western guiding strings were severed, stresses and strains between and within Arab states assumed unex- pected importance; as western influence waned, so local problems of leadership and of the political organization of the Arab family loomed larger.

12 فحص هذه المبادئ العربية الموجهة يعتبر التوتر بين الدول العربية وفي داخلها أهمية غير متوقعة إما أجل تضمن التوزيع المحلي لكل من القيادة والتنظيمات السياسية للأسرة العربية تزدادان: ظهورا
TL changes the past tense of the SL into the present, which changes the meaning. It translates the doublet 'stresses and strains' by a single term al-tawattur. As a set-piece in English, these two terms ought perhaps to be represented by an equivalent set-phrase in Arabic. TL represents 'as' with fa-hine. Another interpretation of 'as' is kullama. TL renders 'organization', which is in the singular, as tanzImat, which is in the plural. It may be translated as tanzim.

ALT:

SS, p1, L19: 'Syria lies at the centre of these cross-currents: it is as a mirror of rival interests on an international scale that she deserves special attention'.

TL fronts the adverbial, which is fairly unusual in Arabic, thus producing the wrong emphasis. TL does not render the metaphor 'it is as a mirror of' adequately, representing it with mir?at lil-ma?alih, mir?at being h?l. 'As' in the SL means 'being'. To preserve the metaphor of the SL, it might be better to supply a verb like ta'kusu in apposition to 'mirror', which renders it more explicitly.

ALT:

This reads like translationese. It is perhaps better to start with a verb. The addition of wa is grammatically incorrect.
ALT:
والحقيقة تبدو شؤون سورية الداخلية كأنها بدون معنى مالم ينظر إليها في ضوء سياق أعرق

SS, p1, l26: 'There are many reasons for this view: one is the strategic position of Syria, guarding the north-eastern approaches to Egypt.'

TL does not translate 'many'. It misrepresents 'approaches' with *memarrah*, which may be rendered as *medakhil*. It also misrepresents 'guard' with *tushrif* (التدريج). A better version goes like this:

ALT:
الشمالية الشرقية الوصلة إلى مصر

SS, p2, l1: 'Both the generator of political ideas and the focus of countless dreams and patriotic fantasies.'

TL does not translate 'both'. It is not quite accurate, since it misrepresents 'generator' and 'focus' with *manba* (ال.Promise) and *murtasa* (الفاوض), respectively, which do not convey the sense of the SLT. We suggest an alternative:

ALT:
وكان موئلاً للفكر السياسي ومركز اولاً للاحلام والتصورات الوطنية التي لا حصر لها

SS, p2, l16: 'Syria had only to move towards one or the other for this balance to be upset.'

TL:

Here, the translator is successful in relaying 'only' into the emphatic negative, which is more idiomatic in Arabic. However, he makes a syntactic mistake, changing the verb into an adjunct, thus deviating from the sense of the SL. The translator's version literally means 'according to the change of balance.' It may be better to use *batta* instead of *hash*. 
TL's use of the demonstratives *hādihi* and *tilka* leads to ambiguity. Some noun has, therefore, to be supplied in order to make the meaning explicit in Arabic:

**ALT:**

أما سورية فما عليها إلا أن تحرك نحو هذا الطرف أوراك حتى تقلب الميزان

**SS, p2, L17:** 'Inevitably, the pattern of her internal affairs came to bear the imprint of these contesting forces.'

**TL:**

لا ذلك فلا مفر من أن يحمل نسيق شؤونها الداخلية، بصمات هايتين الفتوت المنافستين

The representation of 'pattern' with *nesag* is not quite accurate. It would perhaps be better to translate it as *namat*:

**ALT:**

لا ذلك فلا مفر من أن يحمل نسيق شؤونها الداخلية بصمات هايتين الفتوت المنافستين

**SS, p2, L19:** 'Syrian politicians, factions, and pressure groups of all sorts pledged themselves to one or the other camp.'

**TL:**

وقد رهن السياسيون والزرور والجماعات المؤثرة الفعلة في سورية نفسها هاذا الجانب أو ذلك

TL is not quite accurate. It translates 'factions' as *al-zumal*. It would be better if we translated it as *ahzab*. TL adds unnecessary information in translating 'pressure groups' as *al-jamā'at al-mu'āṣirah al-faṣilah* = 'effective pressure groups'. TL does not translate 'of all sorts', which may be translated as *miin kaffat al-intimā'at*. 'Camp' is translated as *al-jāniib*, because the English metaphor cannot be rendered literally as *al-mufāskaar* in this context:

**ALT:**

وقد رهن السياسيون والأحزاب والجماعات المؤثرة من كافة الانتصارات في سورية نفسها هاذا الجانب أو ذلك

**SS, p2, L21:** 'Syria, as the prize in the contest for Arab primacy, held so central a position on the stage'.

**TL:**

١٤ ص. لقد تمثلت سورية خلال الصراع من أجل الفتوت العربي موقع هام جدا

TL does not translate 'the prize', which is part of the SL parenthesis. TL implies that Syria is involved in the conflict; SL means that Syria is only the 'prize' for the winner. The
representation of 'held a position' with *tamatta*fat bi mawqis* is not precise. It can be translated as *ihqallat*. We suggest an alternative:

**ALT:**

The rendering of 'to have an Arab policy' as *tahduf ilā siyāsatin Arabiyyah* does not fully represent the SLT. A verb like *wadah* 'to put' might be necessary to make the meaning clear. TL renders 'in the post-war years' as *fi fatrat mā bāđa al-ḥarb*. A possible alternative is:

**ALT:**

**TL:**

TL's representation of 'failing that, to prevent a rival' with *idhā fashilat fī manqī al-dawlāh al-munafisah* demonstrates that the translator has misunderstood the SLT. Another possibility is that something like *dhālikha* might have fallen out of the text.

One technique is to get rid of the parenthesis by translating it towards the end:

**ALT1:**
Another alternative is to start with the parenthesis 'failing that'.

ALT2:

The use of اَنْفَسَ is wrong. The translator has not understood the meaning of 'the Palestinian issue apart'. In rendering 'little', the translator might have used the emphatic negative قَلْلَتْ, which is more idiomatic in Arabic:

ALT:

yajmaكَحَذِيْحِيٍّ الْكَلَغَةِ is grammatically incorrect. 'Little' is rendered as لَامْسَيْوَ, which is more idiomatic than a literal rendering of 'little' as قَلْلَتِ.

ALT:

The contest is of special interest as it introduces the chief contributors to an ideological debate which continues today and in which the whole content of the Arab national movement, its political structure, international affiliations and social and economic programmes, seem at issue.
TL is not quite accurate, as it replaces SL's vocabulary items by words which deviate from the sense of SL. The representation of 'the whole content of the Arab national movement' by jamī' munāzafat al-harakah al-wataniyyah is a clear example of this. The use of āthi in TL is incorrect, as it comes after hadīthu. 'Programmes' is rendered as manāhij. It would perhaps be better to translate it as berāmiţ. The translator misrepresents 'seem at issue' with badat mutanāqishu fīhi. It may be rendered as mawdūţ al-niqāsh:

ALT:

SS, p2, L39: 'In addition to the claims I have made for her, Syria is also a particularly good observation post from which to view great power politics in the area.'

TL is not quite accurate. It starts with the nominal sentence initiator inna. It would perhaps be better to start with tuţebbar. TL is unnecessarily repetitious, translating 'the claims I have made for her' as ila mā nasabtuhu wa-d'd a'aytuhu lahā. It would perhaps be better to render it as al-iddīţaţ al-mansūbah ilayhā.

ALT:

SS, p3, L1: 'As she was the focus of rivalries between Arab states, so she was also the hinge on which the more grandiose set-pieces of diplomacy attempted by both the West and the Soviet Union turned.'
TL switches from the past tense of the SL into the present fa-hiya al-mihwar al-ladhi tadur ḥawl būḥu. The representation of 'set-pieces of diplomacy' with al-taharrukāt al-dīblerāsiyyah is not quite accurate. It would perhaps be better to translate as al-munāwarāt el-dīblerāsiyyah. 'Both' is not translated. 'Attempted' is rendered as yumārisuḥa. It may be translated as ḥāwela el-qiyāma biḥa.:.

ALT:

SS, p3, L4: 'It was to a very large extent on the plane of internal Syrian politics that were fought the decisive battles over the Baghdad Pact, the Eisenhower Doctrine, and Russia's bid to bring Syria within the Soviet sphere of influence in 1957.'

ALT1:

ALT2:
SS, p.3, L13: 'This is not to say that Syria only existed as a focal point for international rivalries.'

TL: ولا ينبغي أن تكون سوريّة لم تكن إلا ملقية للمستّانسات الدولية.

ALT: لا ينبغي أن سوريّة لم تكن إلا ملقية للمستانسات الدولية

SS, p.3, L10: 'Syria's internal politics were unusually complex and her indigenous contribution to the guiding ideas of Arab politics particularly rich.'

TL: فسّياستها الداخلية كانت جد معقدة، وساهمتها المحلية في الإفكار السياسية العربية الرائدة كانت غنية.

ALT: فسّياستها الداخلية معقدة للغاية كما كانت مساهمتها المحلية في رفع الإفكار السياسية العربية الرائدة غنية بشكل خاص.

SS, p.3, L19: 'Discord in Syria is exported to her neighbours and beyond, so that in the search for the causes of some grave international crisis the trail sometimes leads to Damascus.'

TL: يُنقل نزاع في سوريا إلى أنجحها وتعتبر بائعًا لكل الصراعات الدولية الخطيرة بحيث أن الطريق يقود إلى دمشق.

The translator changes the present tense of the SLT into the past. TL is repetitious, translating 'discord as al-khilâf wa-l-tanâfîr, where one term is sufficient. 'to her neighbours and
beyond' is rendered as ilā jīrānīhā al-aqrabīn wa ilā 1-abḍāqu, which is not quite precise. It may be translated as ilā jīrātīhā wa mā warā? jīrātīhā. TL also misplaces ahjz-an, 'sometimes', positioning it in the first section of the sentence, though it would perhaps be translated in the final section.

The translator renders 'crisis', which is singular, as azamāt, which is plural. 'Trail' is translated as tarīq. It might be better translated as ither.

The representation of 'could there be seen at work' with emilat fihā is not quite accurate. Rather, this might be translated as jārā tātīghā, and ḥunāḳ respectively. TL does not translate 'either':

SS, p3,L19: 'Many of the political principles and trends in the Arab world today either originated there or could there be seen at work with special clarity.'

TL does not translate 'today', which can be rendered fī yawminā hādha. The representation of 'could there be seen at work' with samilat fihā is not quite accurate. Rather, this might be translated as jārā tātīghā, and ḥunāḳ respectively. TL does not translate 'either':

ALT:

SS, p3,L22: 'For the Arabs, defeat in Palestine in 1948 was a harsh lesson in power politics: it was to affect all their subsequent behaviour and discredit overnight values and international relationships, as well as the men held responsible for the disaster'.

ALT:
TL:

Postpones the introductory adverbial 'for the Arabs' placing it in the main clause, while advancing 'defeat in Palestine'. 'Was to affect' is rendered as *wa kāne lā budde an tu?rahthir*, which means 'it was necessarily so'. But it is not so. The translator misunderstands 'overnight' rendering it as *al-sābiqah*. He also uses too many words for 'as well as', rendering it as *‘alā haddin siwā?in aydan*.

ALT:

The emergence of the army as the leading force in Syrian politics did not result, as it did later in Egypt, in the elimination of all civilian rivals.

TL:

The TLT represents 'did not result' with *lam yufdi*. It would perhaps be better to translate it as *lam yu?addi*. It also reproduces 'in the elimination of' as *ilā ‘azl*. It may be translated as *ilā ibkād*. TL does not translate 'later'.

ALT:

Uncertain of its powers, the army ruled alone only intermittently, so that in the years before the union with Egypt in 1958 Syria could boast a constellation of parties and a richness of political life.

TL:

The TLT is not quite accurate. It changes the past tense of the SL, 'could' into the present, *yastatT*. The representation of 'a constellation of parties' with *burj lil-ahzāb* is not the
right collocation. It would perhaps be better to translate it as bi-kathrat aḥzābīhā.

The country thereby provides a working model for the study of the interaction of forces and ideas of varied political complexion.

SS, p.3, L34: 'The country thereby provides a working model for the study of the interaction of forces and ideas of varied political complexion.'

ALT:

SS, p.3, L37: 'It is in Syria that the Post-War impotence of classic nationalist parties is most clearly demonstrated: outmoded by their own success against the mandatory power, they were incapable of diagnosing the problems posed by independence and were ousted by younger, more radical groups.'

ALT:
thus producing the wrong emphasis. It misrepresents ‘impotence’ with inhišāl, which may be rendered as saż. The representation of ‘outmoded’ with takhättāhā al-zaman deviates from the sense of the SL. ‘Were ousted’ is translated as khalafrathā, ‘succeeded by’, which is not the exact equivalent of the SL word.

ALT:

SS, p4, L2: 'It was Syria that elected the first communist deputy in the Arab World.'

The representation of 'elected' with darafūt does not reproduce the exact sense of the SLT. The emphasis resulting from the SLT's use of the cleft sentence is ignored. In order to preserve the emphasis of the SLT, inna may be used:

ALT:

SS, p4, L6: 'Finally, it was Syria that was to make the greatest single contribution of the period…'

The reference, here, is unclear. There is a need to repeat Sūriyyah. The deictic 'of the period' translated as fi hadhīhi is not quite accurate. It may be translated as tilk.

ALT:

SS, p4, L5: 'The slogan of neutralism was heard there long before Egypt took up the cry'

The representation of 'there' with ūnā is not quite precise. It would perhaps be better to translate it as hunūk. TL does not
translate 'long'. 'Took up the cry' is rendered as tarfa al-
\textit{sawt}. It could be translated as \textit{tatabann} = adopted'.

\textbf{ALT:}

\begin{quote}
\text{وقد سمع شعار الخيام هناك قبل أن تتبناه مصر بمدة طويلة}
\end{quote}

\textbf{SS, p4: 'That many Arabs share a common language and relig-
ion, common culture-patterns, institutions, historical memo-
ries and national aspirations has long been accepted.'}

\begin{quote}
\text{فإنها زمن طويل، بأن كثيرا من العرب يشتركون في لغة واحدة ودين واحد، وتفاعذ ثقافية،}
\end{quote}

\textbf{TL:}

\text{TL is not quite precise. The representation of 'patterns' with}
\textit{namūdāhij} is not quite appropriate in this context. It would
perhaps be better to translate it as \textit{amnāt}. \text{TL represents}
\textquote{institutions' with \textit{mağāhid}. It may be rendered as}
\textit{mu?assasāt}. \text{TL leaves out 'national aspiration' all together.}

\begin{quote}
\text{لم يعتبر من المسلمات بأن كثيرا من العرب يشتركون في لغة واحدة ودين واحد وتفاعذ ثقافية مشتركة}
\end{quote}

\textbf{TL:}

\begin{quote}
\text{SMS, p4, L11: 'But these factors by themselves did not trans-
form the drive for Arab unity into an effective force in mod-
ern politics.'}
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
\text{لكن هذه العوامل جميعها لم تخول بذاتها للسيرة نحو الوحدة العربية إلى قوة مؤثرة في السياسة}
\end{quote}

\textbf{TL:}

\text{TL's representation of 'the drive' with \textit{al-masīrah} does not
reproduce the sense of the SL. It would perhaps be better to}
\text{translate it as \textit{al-dāfi}.}

\textbf{ALT:}

\begin{quote}
\text{لا يمكن أن هذه العوامل بذاتها ليتحول الدافع في سبيل الوحدة العربية إلى قوة فعلية في السياسة الحالية}
\end{quote}

\textbf{SS, p4, L14: 'It was the Ba'ath, a political movement of Syrian}
origin, which was to forge this notion into a powerful politi-
cal instrument.'}

\begin{quote}
\text{لكن البحث المركبة السياسية ذات الدور rôle الداعم، هو الذي صار هذه الفكرة وحولها إلى أدلة سياسية}
\end{quote}
TL: TL adds unnecessary information in rendering 'forge this notion' as șahara hādhihi al-fikrah wa hawwalahā.

ALT: لكن البعث، المركة السياسية سورية الأصل، هو الحزب الذي صاغ هذه الفكرة.

SS, p4,L16: 'And, in alliance with 'Abd al-Nasir, was to bring about the Syro-Egyptian Union.'

TL: صنفافع، بالتحالف مع عبد الناصر، تنفيذ الوحدة السورية المصرية

TL is awkward, in giving two words with the same sense: an-jeza and tanfīd for 'bring about'.

ALT: فع operands بالتحالف مع عبد الناصر على قيام الوحدة السورية المصرية

SS, p4,L3: 'No single state, ruler, or party can claim to be its exclusive champion.'

TL: وليس لدولة أو زعيم أو حزب أن يدعي أنه بطلها للطلق

TL's representation of 'exclusive' with  muṭlaq does not produce the meaning of the SLT. It would perhaps be better to render it as munferidan bi-stithnā? al-škharīn.

ALT: وليس لآية دولة أو أي حاكم أو حزب حق الإدعاء بطلانها منفردا بالاستثناء الآخرين

SS, p20,L32: 'But when Pan-Arabism became Egypt's official policy in the early 1940s, it did so less out of deep-seated conviction than because of personal enmity between King Fa- rūq and Mustafa al-Nāḥūs.'

TL: وف القنة مصر القومية العربية سياسة رسمية عام 1940 بدأ دائما قناعتها العميقة الذي يقل أهمية عن دافع العداء الشخصي المستحكم بين الملك فاروق ومصطفى النحاس

TL does not translate 'but'. The representation of 'became' with tabannat is more interpretative than literal. It adds unnecessary information in al-mustahkim.

ALT: غير أنه عندما أصبحت القومية العربية سياسة مصر الرسمية في أوائل 1940 تبينها مصر لليس بدافع قناعتها الراسخة بها بل أكثر من نتيجة للعداء الشخصي بين الملك فاروق ومصطفى النحاس

SS, p21,L13: 'Wholehearted espousal of the Pan-Arab cause
and a bid for the title of 'Leader of the Arabs' seemed then to Nahhas a means of bolstering his position in the face of Fārūq's hostility.'

TL:  

TL's representation of 'wholehearted espousal' with ʿal-taʾyīd al-mutlaq is not quite accurate. It would perhaps be better to render it as ʿal-taʾyīd al-mukhlīṣ. TL's representation of 'in the face of Fārūq's hostility' with tī wajhi fāḍā Fārūq so far deviates from the sense of the SLT as to produce the opposite meaning of that intended by the SLT.

ALT:  

SS, p51, L12: 'He recalled that in 1946 he had discussed with the late Syrian Premier, Saʿdallah al-Jabiri, the possibility of close Iraqi-Syrian co-operation.'

TL:  

TL is repetitious in translating 'late' by two Arabic words: rāḥil and marhūm. The representation of 'the possibility of close Iraqi-Syrian cooperation' with ḫimkānīyyat taḡwun is not explicit enough. It might be better to make it more explicit, by adding qiyyām.

ALT:  

SS, p55, L3: 'At the full-dress meeting of the Syrian and Iraqi delegations (with Nuri in general's uniform with revolver belt) Nuri's tone tended to be patronizing.'
TL: Nuri's tone tended to be patronizing as laḥjet al-nasīr al-hāmi is not quite accurate. It may be translated as mālat laḥjet Nūrī ilā al-ta'ālī.

ALT:

SS, p55,L6: 'He wished to assure Za'im that in the event of a Zionist attack he could count on Iraqi help.'

TL: وهو يرغب في ظمانة الزعيم والتاكد له أنه يستطيع الاعتماد على المساعدة العراقية في حال هجوم صهيوني

ALT: 

SS, p55,L7: 'But, he soon added, if Za'im's aims were wider in scope than the receipt of military aid, Iraq wished to know in which direction this would lead them.'

TL: 

ALT: 

SS, p55,L18: 'Nuri then broached his favourite speculative theme. The world was changing fast; they were approaching a time when it might be possible to conclude not just a bilateral agreement between two countries but a defence pact em-
bracing most, if not all, the countries of the Near East.'

TL does not translate 'favourite'. The representation of it might be possible with qad yatimm fihi is not quite accurate. It would perhaps be better to translate it as yuhtamal. TL misrepresents 'not just..but' with lā.. faqat. It may be translated as lā.. fahešab.. bal.

ALT:

SS, p56,L6: 'The following day 'Azzam Pasha, The Arab League Secretary-general and Iraq's bête noire, flew to Damascus to complete the weaning of Za'īm away from the Hashimites.'

TL: does not quite accurate. It renders Iraq's bête noire as abghad al-nās li-Baghdād. It could be translated as abghad al-nās li-īl-‘Irāq. It also mistranslates 'flew' as waqala. It may be translated as tāra.

ALT:

SS,p56,L17: 'Arm in arm, the king and the colonel toured the royal plantations before an Egyptian Spitfire escort started Za'īm on his return flight.'

TL gives additional unnecessary information in al-īthnān. It changes the SLT's syntactic structure.
The representation of 'as' with اُلّا خِلَاف is not quite precise. It would perhaps be better to translate it as بَيْنَمَا. 'Darkly circumspect' is translated as غَمِیدة الْحَدَّار مَعْنَاهُم, which adds more information. It may be translated as شَدِید الْحَدَّار.

The representation of 'exchanges' as حَماْلَان does not give the full sense of SL. It may be translated into Arabic as مُرْسَالَان. The representation of 'explode' with ثُرُاث could deviates from the sense of SL. It may be translated as تَعِكَادَدِذ بِهِ. It also leaves 'British' out of the translation. TL translates 'union' as وَهْدَة. It would perhaps be better to translate it as إِتِّيْحَة. The representation of 'toiled sleeplessly' with امِیْلِ عَلَى كَالَال is not quite precise. The collocation is امِیْلِ عَلَى كَالَال اَو مَالَال.

TL is not quite precise. The representation of 'exchanges' as حَماْلَان does not give the full sense of SL. It may be translated into Arabic as مُرْسَالَان. The representation of 'explode' with ثُرُاث could deviates from the sense of SL. It may be translated as تَعِكَادَدِذ بِهِ. It also leaves 'British' out of the translation. TL translates 'union' as وَهْدَة. It would perhaps be better to translate it as إِتِّيْحَة. The representation of 'toiled sleeplessly' with امِیْلِ عَلَى كَالَال is not quite precise. The collocation is امِیْلِ عَلَى كَالَال اَو مَالَال.
The record shows that, confronted with a situation where prompt action might have produced a merger, Nuri dragged his feet, and Britain did nothing to encourage him.'

This is an interpretative reading of the SL. The representation of 'the record shows' with walākin mā duwwina'an al-fetrah layadullūy. TL adds Walākin. It would perhaps be better to translate it as tuzhiru al-sijillāt. Al-fetrah is also added. TL fails to reproduce the idiomatic expression 'dragged his feet', translating it as tasorrah fa bi-but?='he acted slowly'. The rendering of 'did nothing to encourage him' as tahuddu'hu al-?amal shay?in is not quite accurate. It may be translated as lam taqum bi-?ayyi shay?in li-tashjī'īn.

SS, p57,L25: 'Sa'āda's geographical determinism might be dismissed as an example of that 'half-baked' infatuation with general ideas characteristic of young intellectuals in countries remote from centres of civilization. His pseudo-science cannot have made many converts; few members of his party read his long and abstruse book.'

ALT:

The representation of 'Sa'āda's geographical determinism' with al-taḥḥīd al-juhrahī li-Sa'ādah is vague. TL may be clarified by inserting al-ladhi nādā bihi Sa'ādah. The rendering of 'converts' by taḥawwulāt deviates from the exact
sense of the SLT. It indicates that the translator does not understand the meaning of the word correctly. 'Converts' would perhaps be better translated as atbâk — 'followers'. TL translates 'few' as gîllah, instead of using the stylistically desirable mâqallî.

ALT: SS, p67,L26: 'But he relied less on argument than on organisation. What was attractive was the accent on youth, the rigid discipline, the Fascist conception of the role of the leader, as well as the simple thesis that 'natural Syria' was a great nation which had played, and would play once more, a great role in history.'

TL: The representation of 'accent' as lahjâh is a clear indication of the translator's literal-mindedness. He produces a distorted translation. 'Accent' may be translated as tar-kîz='emphasis'.

ALT: SS, p68,L26: 'It was an extreme right-wing movement, preaching a sinister philosophy of order, a synthesis of the interests of employers and employees, deliberately playing down the rights of the working class on the pretext that to acknowledge them would lead to anarchy.'

TL:
TL adds extra information with *aydan*. The representation of 'to acknowledge' with *muṣlaṭatihā* is quite inaccurate. It would perhaps be better translated as *al-īfīrāf biḥā*.

ALT:

SS, p68, L37: 'Later he petitioned the High Commissioner for a Syro-Lebanese union which led to renewed repression of the party by the authorities.'

TL is ambiguous because it does not start with the subject 'Ṣīdāqah'. The representation of 'led to renewed repression of the party' with *wa ḥādhā mā addā ilā tānkīl bi-lhizb jadīd* is awkward. *qibal min* may be a printing mistake of 'min qi-bal=*by'*. It is preferable to translate the English passive into the active in Arabic, especially when the agent is introduced with '*by'*.  

ALT:

SS, p68, L11: 'It stood for the abolition of *feudalism* and for the *organisation of the national economy on a basis of productivity*. But it opposed the growth of trade unions and the notion of class struggle.'

TL renders 'stood for' as *waqafa yuṭālib*, which is not quite accurate. It may be translated as *nāḍā bi*. TL adds unnecessary information like *aydan*. It also adds *qiyām* and *qudrah*.
The representation of 'trade unions' with al-ittihādāt al-tijārīyyah is a literal translation which does not reproduce the SLT's sense. It may be translated as ittihād niqābāt al-ummāl.

SS, p68, L16: 'Lebanese nationalists found its views on nationalism too broad, Arab nationalists found them too narrow; to the Mandatory it represented an organised threat to its authority; others found that it too closely resembled European Fascism.'

TL does not make the referent of he clear. It does not translate 'views', which may be rendered as ārā? The addition of the negative lā kamā is not quite accurate. Though it compares the attitudes of various parties, the negative lā is redundant. It may be replaced by baynāmā.

SS, p69, L32: 'Sa'āda's growing power and militancy were causing the government concern and it is possible, as the PPS alleges, that the authorities deliberately incited the Phalangists to launch an armed attack on their newspaper offices to destroy Sa'āda.'
published tracts'.

ALT:

SS, p73,L3: 'It came as close to an expression of a public judgement on the situation as the poverty of Syrian political thinking and institutions then allowed'

TL: 

TL renders 'judgement' as idānah. It may be translated as hukm. It also adds al-sūrī.

ALT:

B- Comparison and assessment of two published translations of the same work: George Orwell's *Animal Farm*.
AF, P.5,L1: Mr Jones, of the Manor Farm, had locked the hen-houses for the night.

TL1: ص7 مع حلول الظلام، أغلق السيد جونز حظيرة الدجاج
TL2: ص8 أغلق السيد جونز صاحب الزراعة، بيوت الدجاج في تلك الليلة

Part of the opening sentence, 'of the Manor Farm', has been left out. Furthermore, 'for the night' is not quite adequately rendered:

TL1: مع حلول الظلام

The second translation also has some difficulty with 'for the night', translating it as:

TL2: في تلك الليلة

To preserve the intention of this adverbial, it would perhaps be better translated as:

استعداداً لحمل الظلام

Hen-houses' has been mistakenly rendered as:

TL1: حظيرة الدجاج
TL2: بيوت الدجاج

The question here arises as to whether the plural 'hen-houses' in the SL should be faithfully translated in the TL. The plurals qinān/akhmām do not appear to be commonly used.

It would perhaps be better to translate it as:

خم/خنMAL الدجاج

The second translation gives a better rendering than the first, with one further qualification; that the order

السيد جونز، صاحب الزراعة

would perhaps be better reversed.

AF, p5,L2: 'But was too drunk to remember to shut the pop-holes.'
This reads like translationese. 'All' is not found in the SL. It implies that Mr Jones might have shut some of the pop-holes but not all of them. It is clear that in the SL Jones did not shut any of the pop-holes. TL2 deals with this better, apart from its use of \textit{al-abwāb}.

AF,p5,L3: With the ring of light from his lantern dancing from side to side, he lurched across the yard.

TL1: ومع تأرجح مصباحه إلى اليمين والشمال، خطر خطوات غير متساوية

TL2: وعاد متزنا... وتدب عليه تماشيا معه من جنب إلى جنب

TL1 is a literal translation of the SL, as it retains the syntactic order of the SL, placing the adverbial in front position. It would be better to start with the verb first in Arabic, leaving the adverbial to a later position, unless there is a good reason to do otherwise. The translator slightly changes the information of the SL in rendering 'from side to side' into the TL equivalent of 'from right to left'. Both versions ignore 'the ring of light'. A more comprehensive alternative version is suggested.

ALT: و دائرة الضوء المنبعثة من فانوسه تترافق من جنب إلى جنب

TL1: ص 7 خطط بخطوته غير متساوية

TL2: ص 8 وعاد متزنا عبر الساحة

TL1 has an awkward translation of 'lurch' which appears to derive from a dictionary explanation. TL2 deals with this more skilfully by its use of \textit{fātā}, and its indication of the direction of the lurching, unspecified in the SL.

ALT: ترتفع عبر الباباء

AF, p5,L5: \textit{kicking off his boots} at the back door, drew himself
a last glass of beer from the barrel in the scullery.

**TL1:**

ضاربا عنبة البالب و عمسكا بالكاس الاخير من المعة الذي تنارله من فوق البار.

**TL2:**

is a pedestrian, unimaginative rendering of the grammar of the SL, yielding a clumsy translation. Participles are not used in the same way in Arabic and English. In Arabic, it is more appropriate to use two sentences joined by connectors. **TL2** deals with this sentence in a better way, with a further qualification. It supplies a sort of dictionary explanation of 'scullery' as 'من برميل في غرفة الغسيل و حفظ الأطيات'.

**A better rendering of the final section may go like this:**

**ALT:**

ثم سكب لنفسه كأس أخيرا من البيرة من برميل في المطبخ.

**AF, p5, L8:** 'Where Mrs Jones was already snoring.'

**TL1:**

ص7 السيدة جونز تغط في نوم عميق صوت شخيرها مسموع من مسافة بعيدة.

**TL2:**

ص8 حيث كانت السيدة جونز مستغرفة في نومها.

**TL1** gives additional and unnecessary information. **TL2**, though an accurate translation, does not mention the 'snoring.'

**AF, p5, L10:** 'a stirring and a fluttering'

**TL1:**

حركة وجلبة

**TL2:**

الزفرة والحركة

Neither **TL1** or **TL2** is accurate.

**TL1** does not translate 'a fluttering'.

**TL2**, however, translates it fully with two further qualifications. It reverses the order of the terms into the SL equivalents of 'a fluttering and a stirring'. It also changes the
above-mentioned phrase from the indefinite into the definite. This may be better rendered as:

ALT:

AF, p5,L11: 'word had gone round during the day.'

TL1: ص٧ فقد انفق ومنذ الصباح

TL2: ص٨ فقد سرى كلام في الزرعة

An alternative for 

TL2 gives a better version.

AF, p5,L12: 'The prize Middle White boar.'

TL1: ص٧ الخنزير الأبيض السهين

TL2: ص٨ الخنزير الأبيض المتوسط صاحب المائزة

TL1 gives an inaccurate rendering of the SL. The representation of 'prize' with 

The use of 

in TL2 is vague, as it could also mean the
person who offers or owns the prize. We therefore suggest the following alternative:

ALT: الالتباس الهادئ على الجائزة من النوع البيض المتوسط

AF, p5, L16: 'As soon as Mr Jones was safely out of the way.
TL1 is an interpretative reading of the SL.'

TL1: حذراً يخلد السيد جونز لي النوم

TL2: بعد أن يتأكدوا أن السيد جونز هو بعيد عن المكان

TL1 is an interpretative reading of the SL. TL2 faithfully translates it, retaining the sense of the SL. However, the insertion of the personal pronoun here renders the sentence clumsy.

AF, p5, L17: '(so he was always called, though the name under which he had been exhibited was Willingdon Beauty)'

TL1: كما كان يدعى دائما يرغب في تسجيل نفسه بهذا الاسم

TL2: (هذا كان يطلق عليه، رغم أن الاسم الذي قدم به هو جمال ويلينغدون)

TL1 deviates from the sense of the SL completely, especially in the the second clause. TL2 gives a better translation with a further qualification. It translates 'beauty' ignoring the fact that it may be transliterated like any other proper name. It would perhaps be better transliterated as:

ALT: ويلينغدون بيوتي

AF, p5, L22: 'At one end of the big barn, on a sort of raised platform, Major was already ensconced on his bed of straw, under a lantern which hung from a beam...'

TL1: ص 7 جلس الزائد على حشوة من القش في زاوية مخزن الخيول تحت المصباح مباشرة
TL1's representation of 'at one end of the barn' with تَكَابِنُ al-makhzen al-ḥubūb and the representation of 'under a lantern which hung from a beam' with ثَمَثَة al-ṣībāḥ mubāsharatān are rather interpretative than literal. They deviate from the sense of the SL.

TL2 translates the sentence more successfully. It gives a word-for-word rendering of 'the big barn' as makhzen al-ḥubūb al-kabīr, though the adjective 'big' in this context does not necessarily imply that it is a barn that is big. It is a special kind of place in a farm.

AF, p5,L25: 'He was twelve years old and had lately grown rather stout.'

TL1: كَانَ يَبْلُغُ مِنَ الْعُمُرِ اثْنَاءِ عَامَّاٰ وَقَدْ بَدَأَ مُتَرَهَّل

TL2: كَانَ فِي الْثِّنَاءِ عَشْرَةَ مِنَ الْعُمُرِ وَقَدْ رَاحَ مُؤِخِرًا يَبْلُغُ بَعْضَاً مِّنَ الْقَوْمِ

TL1 gives a bad rendering of 'stout' as mutarahil, which means 'flabby'. TL2 renders the first clause of the SL more succinctly than TL1, but completely fails to represent the sense of the second clause. We suggest the following alternative

ALT:

AF, p5,L26: 'But he was still a majestic-looking pig, with a wise and benevolent appearance in spite of the fact that his tushes had never been cut.'

TL1:

لكَنَّهُ مَآيِزِهِ مُحْتَفَزُ بِالمَلَامِحِ الْمَلِكِيَّةِ لَلْحَزَنِ مَعَ مَظَاهرِ الْحَكَمَةِ وَالْكَرِيمَ وَإِنْيَابِهِ الَّذِيَ لمْ يَقْطَعْ إِبْدًا

TL2:

لكَنَّهُ مَا زَالْ يَحْفَظُ عَلَى جِلَالِ شَكْلِهِ الْحَزَنِيِّ، إِلَّا عَلَى مَظَاهرِ الْحَكِيمِ الطَّيِّبِ، رَمَيْنَ أَنْ نَابِيُهُ لمْ يَقْطَعْ إِبْدًا١٨٤٤
TL1 renders the meaning of the SL with one further qualification. It represents 'a majestic-looking pig' with *lil-khinzīr*. It also represents 'in spite of' with *wa*, a weak and inaccurate connector in this context.

TL2 gives a better alternative, though it coincides with TL1 in rendering 'a majestic-looking pig' as *ka-khinzīr*, 'as a pig'. This may be left out of the translation completely. The reason is that we already know he is a pig. TL1 translates 'with' as *ma'a*, while TL2 represents it with *bil-īdāfati ilā*, a far better interpretation of this subordinator. We suggest the following:

ALT1:

\[
\text{لكنه مازال جليلًا حكيمًا كريم المظهر رغم أن نابيه لم يقعوا أبداً}
\]

ALT2:

\[
\text{ذا مظهر حكيم كريم}
\]

ANF, p6, L3: 'The other animals began to arrive and make themselves comfortable after their different fashions.'

TL1  ص7 بدات الحيوانات الأخرى بالانقراض والجلس في مخزون المأوى ملابسها المختلفة

TL2  ص1 لم قض فترة طويلة حتى بدات الحيوانات بالوصول واحذت أمكية مناسبة لها، كل حسب طريقة الخاصة

TL1 confuses the sense of 'fashion' with 'clothes, missing the right sense of the word as way of sitting or preferences.'

AF, p8, L9: let us face it

TL1:  ح11 إجابة هذا السؤال

TL2:  فلنواجه الحقيقة

TL1 translates this utterance literally ignoring its intention. TL2 retains the intention of the SL.

AF, p8, L9: 'Our lives are miserable, laborious, and short. We
are born, we are given just so much food as will keep the
breath in our bodies, and those of us who are capable of it are
forced to work to the last atom of our strength; and the very
instant that our usefulness has come to an end we are slaugh-
tered with hideous cruelty.'

Tl1 preserves the parallelism of the SL. It does not repro-
duce the idiom 'given just so much food as' correctly. Tl2
gives an idiomatic and a better rendering of SL than Tl1.
'Those of us who are capable of it', however, is not translat-
ed.

There is a case of implicit connectivity in English. This may
perhaps be explicitly rendered in Arabic. Leaving the connec-
tor out weakens the Arabic text. Qawi does not exactly form
an equivalent of 'capable of'. In this context, a verb derived
from the same Arabic root qawiyy may give that sense.

Tl1 gives an awkward rendering of the English prepositional
phrase 'at the very instant that' as fa?akah which is not quite
accurate. The representation of 'we are slaughtered' with
nus?a il? al-mas?alikh is not precise. Tl2 provides us with a
better way of retaining the sense of SL. It renders faithfully
the adverbial as wa hina tan?ah. A second alternative using
the construction m? k?da hatta is suggested:

AF, p8,L15: 'No animal in England knows the meaning of hap-
niness or leisure.'
TL1 renders 'leisure' imprecisely as al-marāh, whereas TL2 uses al-rāḥah which is closer to the sense of SL.

AF, p8, L17: 'The life of an animal is misery and slavery'

TL1: ص 8 ان حياة الحيوان مزينة وهي عبارة عن عبودية
TL2: ص 11 ان حياة الحيوان بؤس وعبودية

TL1 is not quite accurate, as it adds we hiya ʿibārah ʿan. TL2 is redundant in using riqq wa ḥubūdiyyah, which means the same.

ALT: أن حياة الحيوان بؤس وعبودية

AF: 'That is the plain truth.'

TL1: ص 9 هذه هي المحققة الغريبة
TL2: هذه هي المحققة بأمان عينها

TL1 misrepresents 'the plain truth' with al-haqīqah al-ṣāriyāh, an imprecise translation meaning 'the naked truth'. TL2's version is adequate, meaning 'the truth itself'.

AF, p8, L19: 'But is this simply part of the order of nature?'

TL1: ولكن هل هذه الوضعية وبسيط شديدة هي جزء من قانون الطبيعة (كذا)
TL2: لكن هل هذا بالفعل هو جزء من نظام الطبيعة؟

TL1 adds al-wadqīyya to provide for the exophoric reference 'this'. TL2 gives a better translation, though the use of bi-l-fitāl for 'simply' is not correct. Instead, TL1's bi-bāṣāṭah will do.

AF, p8, L21: 'Is it because this land of ours is so poor that it cannot afford a decent life to those who dwell upon it?'

TL1: هل السبب يكمن في ان الأرض التي نعيش عليها محدودة فقيرة? هل لأنها غير قادرة على توفير حياة كريمة لاولئك الذين يعيشون عليها?
TL2: 

TL1 reads like translationese. It splits SL up into two questions. TL2 deals with 'so poor that' in a better way. Surprisingly, neither of them resorts to joining the sentences by ilā *darajah* a commonly used way of rendering English sentences including 'so...that'.

AF, p8, L21: 'No comrades, a thousand times no!'

TL1: 

TL2: 

TL1 adds unnecessary information such as *bi-tta?kād* = 'certainly'. TL2 gives a better alternative.

AF, p8, L23: 'Its climate is good'

TL1: 

TL2: 

TL1 deviates from the sense of the SL. It misrepresents 'good' with *mīthāl* = 'ideal'. TL2 is a literal translation of SL.

AF, p8, L23: 'It is capable of affording food in abundance to an enormously greater number of animals than now inhabit it.'

TL1: 

TL2: 

TL1 is ambiguous in the use of *mīmmā* and the referent is not clear. It also gives imprecise equivalents of the SL words. 'Food in abundance' is misrepresented as *hayāt karīmā* TL2 gives a better rendering with one qualification. It does not translate 'now'.

AF, p8, L25: 'This single farm of ours would support a dozen horses, twenty cows, hundreds of sheep—and all of them liv—
ing in a comfort and a dignity that are now almost beyond our imagining.

TL1: ص 8 أن هذه المزعة التي تعيش فيها على سبيل المال يكمن أن تتجلب استعدادا كبيرة من القبيلة وعشرين بقرة و مناف الخراف جميعهم يمكن أن يعيشوا بشكل جيد ومرح و بكرامة. تلك التي تحلم بها.

TL2: ص 16 نمرزونا هذه تستطيع بمفردها إعالة إثني عشرة جوادة وعشرين بقرة، و الثبت من الأغنام - فتبتعد جميعها بحياة من الراحة والكرامة ما يفوق الخيال.

TL1 is quite inaccurate. It gives imprecise equivalents of the SL items. It does not translate 'single'. For instance, 'a dozen horses' is rendered as "اَتْدَحَكْبَيْرَةَ مِنْ‏الْخَيْبَل", 'a great number of horses'. It adds "بِشَكْلِجَبْلِيْعْنِيِدَ 'طَلِيْل', in translating 'in a comfort and a dignity'. TL1 does not translate 'now'. TL2 gives a better rendering with one further qualification. It does not translate 'our'.

AF, p8,L29: 'Why then, do we continue in this miserable condition?'.

TL1: ص 8 عليه فإذا نستمر في هذه الظروف المتزيرة.

TL2: ص 16 لما إذا الاستمرار في هذه الحياة التعيش

TL1 misrepresents 'why then' as 'أَلَّهِي'. It also gives the wrong word for 'condition' rendering it as 'مَدْرِيْعْنْاه‏. Wad' or hal may be suggested. TL2 is a straightforward translation of SL, apart from leaving 'we' out of the translation.

AF, p8,L30: 'Because nearly the whole of the produce of our labour is stolen from us by man'.

TL1: ص 8 لسبب ان معظم عملنا وانتاجنا يصرف من قبل الإنسان (كذا).

TL2: ص 18 والسبب في ذلك هو أن بني البشر يسرقون جميع منتج جهودنا تقريبا.

TL1 does not translate 'nearly'. It renders 'the whole' as 'مَذْيِم'. 'تاَرْبَان' may be used. TL1's representation of 'the
whole of the produce of our labour' with *muʿāzemāt* *we intājīna* is quite inaccurate. It reproduces 'stolen from us by' as *yusra‘ minnā min qibāl*.

**TL2 provides a better translation of the SL.**

**AF, p9,L2:** 'It is summed up in a single word: man.'

**TL1:**

**TL2:**

TL1 is an interpretative reading of the SL. It misrepresents 'summed up' with *takmūn*. It also adds *al-mushkilah*. TL2 is a literal translation and reproduces the full sense of the SL.

**AF, p9,L3:** 'Man is the only real enemy we have'

**TL1:** ص 18 الإنسان هو علمنا الحقيقي

**TL2:** ص 18 الإنسان هو علمنا الحقيقي الوحيد

TL1 leaves the word 'only' out. TL2 is a full translation of SL.

**TL1:** ابعدوا الإنسان من السوره، تفصول على الجوع إلى الأبد

**TL2:** ص 18 ابعدوا الإنسان فيبطل معه السبب الاساسي للجوع والعمل المرهق، بدون رجعة

TL1 is a full translation of SL, though the representation of 'from the scene' with *al-sūrah* is not accurate. TL2 does not translate it at all.
5- Classification of Errors:
In order to demonstrate the validity of our criteria for translation assessment, we shall discuss each category in some detail using as many examples from the data as possible to cover all the fields and situations which may, to a certain extent be identified, with texts selected to be translated in classes. However, it must be borne in mind that the data used in this study is limited in scope, and can in no way cover all subject matters, genres, and situations.

The complete texts from which examples are taken to illustrate each error category will appear in the appendices.

1- Justified Lexical Addition:
This category involves adding one or two words to the SLT sometimes for stylistic reasons, sometimes to make the meaning explicit. This case is best demonstrated if we look at translations from English into Arabic where implicit reference and connectivity are made more explicit. Another reason for this is that Arabic makes more use of collocation and cliches than English.

NR T.A, L14: `From where I was perched on top of the six-foot-high wall' (The Observer 7 December 1986)
TL: ومن المكان الذي كنت أرقب فيه. المرا سل، فوق السور الذي يبلغ ارتفاعه ستة أقدام

NR, T.B, L32: 'People come to the hospital everyday pleading for left-overs' (The Independent February 17 1987).
TL: كما أن الناس يأتون إلى المستشفى كل يوم يتوسلون للحصول على طعام ما تبقى من الطعام

NR, T.C, L1: 'White House computer records, acquired by the Tower Commission investigating the National Security Council's (NSC) role in the Iran affair, suggest that key officials
in the Reagan Administration were far more involved in the scandal than previously established' (The Times, February 17, 1987)

See also example SS, p1,L19, as mentioned on page 203 above.

As we have already mentioned in other parts of this study, it is necessary in Arabic to make explicit the implicit information inherent in the English examples. This is a case of necessary redundancy in Arabic which the students must observe.

2-Unjustified Lexical Addition:
Though it is sometimes necessary to add words in Arabic, this tendency is to be discouraged, especially when exaggerated. Examples of this abound in our data. In T.A above, the translator adds al-murāsil = 'the reporter', though it is unlikely that the reader will confuse the reporter with anybody else.

See also example SS, p2, L39: 'In addition to the claims I have made for her,
Syria is also a particularly good observation post from which to view great power politics in the area.

TL is unnecessarily repetitious, translating 'the claims I have made for her' as mā nasabtuhu wa-ddafaytuhu lahā. It would perhaps be better to render it as mā-nasabtuhu lahā.

ALT: وتعتبر سوريا أيضا مركز مراقبة جيد بشكل خاص بالإضافة إلى ما نسبته لها

SS, p3, L14. 'Discord in Syria is exported to her neighbours and beyond.'

TL uses a doublet where a single term is sufficient.

3- Justified Lexical Omission:
Here we deal with omission of lexical items for religious or political reasons and in certain situations where a particular SL item or items might cause embarrassment or offence, if translated into the TL. In certain cases, the reason for omission may be that the SL items are related to the SL culture and do not make any sense for the TL audience. This can be best demonstrated by the following examples:

NR, T.E, L144: 'That is why he would like Britain to nudge the King (an old friend) into the role of reluctant hero.' (The Times January 22 1987)

TL: ولهذا السبب يريد بريطانيا ان تفع الاردن للقيام بدور البطول (الناشئ)

NR, T.P L.49: 'What worried US analysts was that an overzealous, crazy or nervous Iranian or Iraqi might inadvertently attack an American ship.' (The Guardian, January 29, 1987)

ان مالائر قلق المحللين الامريكيين كان احتمال ان يقوم ايراني او عراقي مفرط في حماسة (الوعيبي)
This is an example of obligatory lexical omission for political reasons. T. H might sound unfamiliar if translated literally into Arabic:

**NR, T.H, L3:** 'Dynast, goddess-figure, warrior-queen, Mrs Ghandi defined and dominated the politics of her country for nearly two decades.' (The Economist, November 3, 1984)

**TL:**

لقد حددت الملكة... المحاربة السيدة أنديرا غاندي سياسات بلدها وسيطرت عليها أكثر من عقود من الزمن.

---

**4- Unjustified Lexical Omission:**

In this case, clear and meaningful SL words cannot be omitted with justification. These are either items or concepts for which the translator does not know equivalents, or they are left out through negligence. Thus Newmark (1974: 65): 'There has got to be something wrong somewhere.' Consider the following examples:

**NR, T.A, L.6:** 'Midnight in the western Sahara and the freezing desert wind does not distract wiry Polisario guerrillas from scrabbling in the sand for cigarette box-shaped antipersonnel mines' (The Observer, 7 December, 1986)

منتصف الليل في الصحراء الغربية، ولا تنفع رياح الصحراء الجليدية ثوار البوليساريو (الثوريين) من البحث في الرمال عن الاطفال المضادة للأشخاص (ذات شكل السجائر).

**TL:**

---

**NR, T.I, L.11B:** 'It acknowledged that the Muslim rebels were continuing to breach the unilateral ceasefire declared by Afghan and Soviet troops on January 15.' (The Times, 1 January, 1987)

واعترف بأن المقاتلين الإفغان مازالوا ينتهكون وقف إطلاق النار (النفرد) المعن من طرف القوات السوفياتية.

**TL:**

---
SS, p2, L21: 'Syria, as the prize in the contest for Arab primacy, held so central a position on the stage.'

TL: لاقعت سوريا خلال الصراع من أجل التفوّق العربي موقعها هام جداً

TL does not translate 'as the prize', which is part of the SL parenthesis. TL implies that Syria is involved in the conflict, which is far removed from the purport of the SL:

ALT: لقد احتلت سوريا موقعها هاماً نظراً لأكونها الفائزة في السباق على السيادة العربية

SS, p3, L19: 'Many of the political principles and trends in the Arab world today either originated there or could there be seen at work with special clarity.'

TL: ففي معظم المبادئ والسياسات في العالم العربي، ولدت فيها أو عملت فيها بوضوح خاص.

TL does not translate 'today', which might be rendered as في يومنا هذا.

ALT: فلكثر من السياسات في العالم العربي، ولدت فيها أو وقعت فيها بوضوح خاص

5- Justified Lexical Reformulation:
Lexical reformulation is adopted for cultural, institutional, political or religious reasons. It should be the last resort of the translator. According to Newmark (1976: 76), 'all translation rules are an attempt to circumvent the translator's last resort, paraphrase'. Here are some examples from our data to demonstrate justified lexical reformulation:

NR, T.A: 'How Sahara rebels tweak the devil's tail' (The Observer, 7 December, 1986)

TL: فوق السور الغربي مع البوليساريو

NR, T.G, L.1: 'The Iranian government finds it difficult to reconcile God and Mammon.' (The Economist, February 16, 1985)

TL: تجد الحكومة الإيرانية صعوبة في التوافق بين الدين والدينار
NR,T.B, L.39: 'Dr Cutting... admitted that her own weight was down to 95 pounds.' (The Independent, 17 February, 1987)

TL: و اعترفت الطبيبة... أن وزنها هي نصف كيلو و اصبح حوالي أربعة واربعين كيلوجراما

NR,T.R, L.39: '...neither medical workers nor journalists were to witness conditions.'

TL: كما لم يسمح للعمال الآگاثة أو المرضى أو الاطباء أو الصحفيين من مشاهدة....

In the first example cited above (T.A), it is clear that as a news report headline, it is normal to find differences in the conventions of typography between the SL and the TL headlines. However, the translator changes the meaning of the SLT owing to political reasons. The metaphor 'tweak the devil's tail' may be derogatory, and might be interpreted as a personal offence to the King of Morocco. That is why the translator opts for a direct and semantically different version by providing a substitution, meaning (Western Sahara: together with the Polisario on the Morroccan wall).

In T.G, the translator metaphorically renders 'God and Mammon' as al-dīn wa l-dunyā, because this collocation may sound strange in the TL culture.

In T.B the translator changes the unit of weight from the pound to the kilogram. In T.R, 'medical workers' which is implicit in English, is reformulated to avoid the implication of administrative workers in a hospital or researchers in laboratories.

6- Unjustified Lexical Reformulation:
These errors involve words and concepts which have been reformulated, though they have nothing to do with religious political, cultural constraints. Instead of being reformulated for no obvious reason, they ought to be rendered faithfully.
Our data is full of examples, representing this category. In T.A, the verb 'distract' is rendered as *yamna*-'prevent'. 'Wiry' is translated as *munhakīn*, which might be a misreading of 'weary'. It would perhaps be better to render it as *al-agwiyya*? (See T.A, L.6, as mentioned on p. 239 above)

In T.H, L5, 'nearly' is rendered by *akthar*='more than', which is not the right rendering. We suggest *tagīban*. C.f. p. 241 above)

In the SS, p1, L26, the translator misrepresents 'approaches' with *mamarrāt*, which may be rendered as *madākhiṭ*. It also misrepresents 'guard' with *tushrif ala*. (C.f. SS, p.1, as mentioned on page 204 above)

See also, SS, p2, L34; SS, p3, L4; SS, p3, L33; SS, p4, L2; SS, p68, L11; and SS, p67, L22, as mentioned on pages 203, p.205, 206, 207, 220, 219 above.

In the course of translating from English into Arabic and vice versa, syntactical errors or deviations from the SLT syntactical norms are bound to arise. These syntactical deviations are classified as follows:

1- Unjustified Syntactical Addition:
This category of errors results from the translator's poor command of the SL grammar and especially of the TL grammar. Though syntactic errors may not change the meaning of the SLT, they might lead to misunderstanding of the TLT. This is demonstrated by the insertion of an unnecessary pronoun, conjunction, or preposition. Consider the following examples:

SS, p1, L21: 'Indeed, her internal affairs are almost meaningless unless related to the wider context, first of her Arab
neighbours and then of other interested Powers.'

The addition of *we* is syntactically incorrect.

(See also AF, P5, L16, as mentioned on page 230 above)

2- Justified Syntactical Omission:
Due to the confusion in the distinction between justified syntactical omission and syntactical reformulation, we propose to include them under syntactical reformulation.

3- Unjustified Syntactical Omission:
NR, T.E, L.18: 'That is not his only objective, however, as he begins his first tour of European capitals since swapping jobs with Mr ...' (The Times, January 22, 1987)

In T.E, the translator omits 'however', although it adds emphasis to the SLT.

4- Justified Syntactical Reformulation:
This category, which is parallel to Vinay and Darbelnet's 'transposition', is not an error. It is how languages manipulate SL messages, moulding them according to their own syntactic structures. The substitution of the active for the passive is one manifestation of justified syntactical reformulation. (C.f.AF, p8, L30, as mentioned on page 236 above).

Justified syntactical reformulation is also demonstrated by changing the SLT's tense for a certain reason, such as in this example taken from a Times editorial:

NR, T.E, L.1: 'Israel's Prime Minister, Mr Shimon Peres, will be hoping for the improbable when he meets Mrs Thatcher ...' (The Times, January 22, 1987)
Here, the translator realizes that there is a time lag between the production of the English editorial and the appearance of its translation. The translation is made a few days after the appearance of the original. That is why he opts for the past tense.

5- Unjustified Syntactical Reformulation:

Consider the following examples:

NR, T.E, L.5: 'What he would like is an assurance that Britain might resume a more active role in the middle East …' (The Times 22 January 1987)

The translator is not successful in rendering the cleft-sentence into Arabic. This construction, which gives prominence and emphasis to certain elements, is translated as any normal, unmarked sentence. To preserve the original emphasis in Arabic, inna may be used. We suggest the following alternative:

TL: أن ما يرغب في الحصول عليه هو تأكيد بان بريطانيا قد تستأنف القيام بدور انشط في الشرق الأوسط

SS, p.1,L.16: 'As Western guiding strings were severed, stresses and strains between and within Arab states assumed unexpected importance; as western influence waned, so local problems of leadership and of the political organization of the Arab family loomed larger.'

TL switches from the past tense of the SLT to the present. The representation of ‘as’ with fahina is not quite accurate. We suggest an alternative:
ALT:
فحين انقطعت المبزوط الغربي الموجه انخز التوتر والتنافس أهمية غير متوقعة وكذلك عندما انحمر النفوذ الغربي

(See also, SS, p3,L31, as mentioned on page 212 above)

C. Textual Deviation:
Textual deviation occurs when the translator misunderstands the intention of the SLT writer. It also occurs when the translator uses a weak connector or an ambiguous reference. Consider the following examples:

AF, p5,L26: 'But he was still a majestic looking pig, with a wise and benovelent appearance in spite of the fact that his tushes had never been cut.'

TL: لكنه مازال محظوظاً بالملابس الملكية للخدميز مع مظاهر الحكم والكرم弱点ه التي لم تقطع أبداً

Here, TL represents 'in spite of' with wa, a weak and wrong connector. It would perhaps be better if we rendered it as raggma arna.

AF, p8,L23: 'It is capable of affording food in abundance to enormously greater number of animals than now inhabit it.'

TL: وهي قادرية على توفير حياة كريمة لعدد كبيرة من الحيوانات وأكثر من الما موجود حالياً

TL is ambiguous, because the translator uses mimma. Textual deviation also occurs when the translator renders the cataphoric reference literally, producing an ambiguous text, such as in text T.E below:

NR T.E, L91: 'In his interview with The Times this week, Mr Peres pointed to the growth of self-government on the West Bank,'

TL: وفي مقابلة مع التأييب هذا الأسبوع أشار بيريز إلى نمو الحكم الذاتي في الضفة الغربية،... 

As we have already pointed out in other parts of this study,
cataphoric reference, while stylistically favoured in English especially in journalese, is stylistically abnormal in Arabic, even though it is syntactically acceptable. A better rendering of T.E may start with the verb, as in the following alternative:

**ALT:**

Another reason for textual deviation is that Arabic tends to favour the repetition of the referent where English prefers ellipsis. Consider the following example:

NR, T.D, L33: 'I have been told that the Americans would do anything in their power to prevent the supply of arms to Iran and thus the continuation of the (Gulf war).'

It must be noted that while lexical (semantic) and syntactical errors affect the meaning of the message and, therefore, must be avoided, it is textual deviations that should be the focus of attention of both translators, teachers, and students.
Chapter Five:
5.1 Summary:
In this study, we have discussed some difficulties faced by translation courses at Arab universities and ways to overcome them, with a view to setting up an eclectic translation syllabus at Syrian universities. It must be noted that the syllabus is an idealised one and in no way prescriptive. As with all idealised courses, it can be implemented with some modifications, taking into account the current situation of translation teaching in the country concerned, the local market, and the course planners' objectives.

In Chapter One, we reviewed various classifications of theories of translating. We discussed in some detail Chau's classifications of theories of translating into the Grammatical, the Cultural, and the Interpretive models. We have also discussed the Text Typological model of translating, which has been popular since the Seventies. Though the importance of the Interpretive and the Text Typological Models have been underlined, the fact remains that all models are important. In TT, teachers should make use of all the models in different situations.

In the context of English/Arabic-Arabic/English translating, the Grammatical Model is appropriate for translating legal documents and treaties, which usually require literal translating. The Cultural Model is appropriate for translating proverbs and proverbial expressions, epigrams, and other culture-bound concepts, such as metaphors, kinship terms, and colour terms.

The Interpretive Model, especially the Text Analysis Method, prevails over the preceding models, as it makes the analysis of text the primary task of the translator prior to the
reconstruction of context. That is why Chau (1984) considers the Text Analysis Method the most teachable of all, due to its objective and scientific approach to translating. The Text Typological Model has paramountcy over all models, as it is an eclectic model that incorporates insights from other models. It might be instructive to reiterate Chau's proposition that all translation is a mixture. Translation teachers should be selective in the way they adopt translation models and techniques.

In Chapter Two, we have discussed the current situation of translation and translation teaching in the Arab world. We have also highlighted some problematical areas that may pose problems to Arab students. We have concentrated on textual aspects, since it is in these areas that problems may arise.

One area which is not adequately dealt with in research is connectivity. Connectors in English and Arabic are not assigned the same functions. It is believed that most Arab students, when writing essays, fall into the trap of translating literally from Arabic into English, producing essays that lack cohesion.

A clear case is the overuse of 'and' in the students' essays, which is a one-to-one substitution of wa. Another problem is that while the use of explicit connectors in English is less frequent, Arabic relies heavily on explicit connectors. In English, it is the logical, semantic relationship between sentences that creates cohesion.

Another problematical area is punctuation. It results from the differences in the language systems of English and Arabic. Paragraph organisation is another related area of contrast between Arabic and English. Whereas Arabic tolerates long sentences- paragraph development in Arabic is based on a complex series of parallel constructions- English favours the use of short sentences. Whereas English tends to favour syntactic subordination, Arabic favours syntactic coordination where each sentence should be linked by the following and the
Another area of contrast is argumentation. It has been posited that Arabic uses methods of argumentation different from those used in English. While English tends to develop, for example, a theme starting with an exposition of a situation followed by evidence and substantiation, Arabic may begin with two topic sentences which may be loosely connected and the evidence may sound repetitious. A clear picture of the situation emerges from both versions and one cannot consider one to be superior to the other.

We have discussed the claims that Arabic lacks counter-argumentation and that direct or through-argumentation is the only method of argumentation in Arabic. These claims are unfounded. Their proponents attempt to find justifications in the distinction of the nominal and the verbal clause structures in Arabic. Rather, the choice between the verbal and the nominal is optional and depends on the volition of the native speaker.

While the fundamental controversy over whether it is justifiable to have formal courses in translating remains the subject of heated debates, recent discussions have centred on how to teach translating, the level at which TT should start and other important theoretical issues relevant to translating, such as bilingualism, interpreting, language teaching, linguistics, translation theory, and specialised translation teaching.

We have discussed with some detail model syllabuses designed by Wilss, Keiser, Reiss, Coveney, and Horn. We have also looked into the contents of courses in English/Arabic-Arabic/English translating and interpreting in the U.K. Our aim has been to gain invaluable insights from these courses, with a view to setting our own syllabus at Syrian universities.

In Chapter Three, we embarked on a discussion of the notion of register, the basic principle underlying the classification of translations in general and TT materials in particular.
notion of register is a useful classificatory device. We pointed out, however, that while translators and course designers often tend to distinguish between scientific and literary translations and classify their course components according to register, this practice is not universally applicable and is valid only for pedagogical purposes.

The distinction between language varieties in terms of language use (field, mode, tenor) and language user (dialect) as presented by Halliday et al. (1964) has been criticised by Crystal and Davy (1969), who believe that it is inconsistent, unrealistic, and confusing. We have also discussed other critical views of the notion of register by Widdowson (1979) who believes that the whole argument upon which the notion of register is based rests on a double fallacy, because it presumes the existence of distinct varieties of language.

For Widdowson, there is variation in language rather than separate varieties of language. He makes it clear that the notion of register can tell us nothing whatever about scientific discourse, or about any other kind of discourse. What it does is to describe the frequency of some features in a sample of language (e.g., the frequency of the passive in the language of science.)

We have also discussed other methods of classifying language varieties according to the functions of language put forward by Malinowski, Buhler, Jakobson, Morris. Halliday (1975, 1978, 1985) identifies three language functions as: ideational, interpersonal, and textual: they provide a good basis for classifying texts.

Text typology presents us with a more elaborate classification of texts into: exposition, argumentation and instruction, which in turn have further subclassifications. For the purposes of this study, we have devised a method of elaborate classification on the basis of the notion of register and text typology. This results in a variety of text forms. Other devices of classifying
course materials are translation difficulty (TD) and length of texts, as proposed by Wilss and Reiss (see 2.7.1, 2.7.5).

In Chapter Four, we discussed in some detail our proposed syllabus. We undertook a questionnaire with the help of some 30 Syrian Post-Graduates. 21 questions were asked regarding the degree of satisfaction of these students with translation courses at their universities back home. The aim was to evaluate the TT situation, with a view to designing a systematic syllabus for teaching English/Arabic-Arabic/English at Syrian universities.

Having discussed the findings of the questionnaire, we discussed the overall objectives of our syllabus, taking into account the requirements of the course in admitting students. We pointed out that the course is divided into three stages: Basic, Intermediate, and Advanced.

The Basic stage of the syllabus is primarily concerned with improving and consolidating the students' linguistic competence. This can principally be achieved by introducing grammar, composition, and comprehension. The Basic stage is also designed to provide a good foundation in the similarities and differences which exist between English and Arabic. Hence, Contrastive Linguistics is of great importance at this stage. The analysis of data proceeded at three linguistic levels: the word, the sentence, and above the sentence. We discussed grammatical categories, such as verbs, nouns, adjectives, prepositions, adverbs, and participles, illustrating them by examples selected from books, and newspapers. We also discussed voice, tenses, and concepts like Marked/Unmarked, Theme/Rheme, and Cohesion, all of which are highly relevant to translating.

Translation Theory, the second component of the syllabus, discussed and the transfer techniques proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) were reviewed. It was proposed that the
Grammatical, the Cultural, The Interpretive, and the Text Typological Models should be taught, since they furnish students with a fund of translating techniques and strategies.

The Translation Theory component includes topics such as literal vs. free translating, limits of translatability, and equivalence.

The third component of the syllabus is the Cultural component, which highlights the importance of cultural knowledge in translating. It covers the discussion of the relation between language and culture, the study of the socio-economic, political, and legal systems of the countries concerned and other areas dealing with culture-bound concepts.

The Cultural Component of the course is to be taught over two years, while instruction in Contrastive Linguistics and Translation Theory will continue to be given over three years. The fourth component is Translation Assessment, which is to be introduced in the third and fourth years. It is a most important component which aims at the production of high quality translations.

We reviewed models of translation quality assessment and worked out a model for classifying translation errors. We also undertook a translation assessment experiment on two published translations: The Struggle For Syria and Animal Farm. A translation assessment was also undertaken on data selected from news reports.

It must be noted that practical translation exercises are included at all stages, while simultaneous interpreting and on-site translating are included at the advanced stage only.

5.2 Recommendations:
Drawing on our own and our colleagues' experience in TT and on their suggestions, and the findings of the questionnaire, we put forward the following recommendations:
1- The English Department should make certain requirements of the students who intend to join the course, such as high grades and an entrance test.
2- Before entering the course, students should have a reasonable degree of mastery of both English and Arabic.
3- Teaching staff's qualifications should be of an adequate standard.
4- Students should be acquainted with basic transfer procedures and techniques.
5- Students should be given basic lexicography, since knowledge of effective use of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries is one of the important assets of the translator.
6- Important linguistic notions which are relevant to translating, such as Marked/ Unmarked and Cohesion should be introduced in the course
7- Contrastive Linguistics should be introduced as a main component
8- Translation theory should be introduced as a main component.
9- The study of the cultures of the languages concerned, especially of socio-economic, legal, and political institutions, should be included in TT.
10- Translation Assessment should be introduced at a later stage.
11- Practical translating should be related to the other components of the course.
12- In the case of the courses in English language and literature, a two-year specialisation in translation is recommended.
13- Passages for translation may be selected from other course components (e.g. the novel).
14- Students should not be familiar with examination texts.
15- Students should be encouraged to work in groups.
16- Interpreting should be taught by experienced staff.
17- Texts to be translated should be classified according to text-types, difficulty and length and should not be beyond the students' linguistic competence.
18- Teaching of Arabic/ English translating should proceed on parallel lines with that of English/ Arabic translating.
19- Teachers should vary the way they teach translating, in order to sensitise the students to stylistic nuances.
20- Teachers should teach according to the translating model best appropriate for a particular situation.
21- In order to achieve maximal success and full participation of students, translation classes should not include more than 30 students.
22- the number of hours allocated to translating should be increased.
23- more facilities for simultaneous interpreting should be provided.
24- a variety of references on theories of translating should be made available in libraries.
25- the number of home assignments should be more, and longer texts should be given for translation at the Intermediate and the Advanced stages.
26- the involvement of more students in the translation class should be encouraged.
27- practical translation jobs should be introduced, i.e. the students should be encouraged to make professional translations of a limited scope, by cooperating with newspapers, the Arab Encyclopedia, broadcasting stations, and ministries of justice, information, etc.

Finally, the outline of the Syllabus will be set below, demonstrating the main components at every stage and the number of credit hours allocated.

5.3 The Outline of the Syllabus:

First Year:
First Semester
Discipline                                  Credit hours

- Translation Theory

2
- Comprehension 2
- Grammar 2
- English Literature 2
- Area Studies (the study of the British political system) 1
- Contrastive Grammar 2
- Translation Exercises from English into Arabic of short sentences 2
- Composition 1
- Basic lexicology 1
- Linguistics 2
- Cultural studies 1

Second Semester:

- Translation exercises from English into Arabic of short expository texts. 3
- Translation exercises from Arabic into English of short newsreports 3
- Translation theory: translation models 2
- Grammar 2
Second Year (Intermediate Stage)
First semester:

- Translation Theory 2
- Modern Literature 2
- Contrastive Grammar 2
- Translation from English into Arabic of historical and political texts 3
- Translation from Arabic into English of short political texts 3
- Grammar 2
- Arabic Grammar 2
- Linguistics 2
- Composition 2
Second semester:

- Translation Theory
- Modern Literature
- Contrastive Grammar

- Translation Exercises from English into Arabic of legal texts
- Translation from Arabic into English of general and legal texts
- Grammar
- Arabic Grammar
- Linguistics
- Area Studies

Third Year:

First semester:
- Translation theory

- Translation from English into Arabic of economic texts
- Translation from Arabic into English of economic texts 3
- Arabic Grammar 3
- Composition 2
- Text Linguistics 2
- Translation Assessment 2
- On-Sight Translation 2

Second semester:
- Translation Theory 1
- Translation from English into Arabic of scientific and technological texts 2
- Translation from English into Arabic of short argumentative texts (e.g. editorials, letters to the editor) 2
- Translation from Arabic into English of short scientific and technological texts 2
- Translation from English into Arabic of legal documents 2
- Arabic Grammar 2
- Composition 1
- Translation Assessment 2
Fourth Year (Advanced Stage)

First semester:
- Translation from English into Arabic of argumentative texts
  2
- Translation from Arabic into English of argumentative texts
  2
- Translation from Arabic into English of literary texts
  2
- Translation from English into Arabic of economic texts
  2
- Translation from English into Arabic of advertisements
  2
- On-Sight Translation
  2
- Translation Assessment
  2
- Simultaneous Interpreting
  2
- Composition
  2

Second semester:
- Translation from English into Arabic of literary texts
  2
- Translation from English into Arabic of scientific texts
- Translation from English into Arabic of economic texts
- Translation from Arabic into English of literary texts
- Translation from Arabic into English of scientific texts
- Translation from Arabic into English of economic texts
- Translation Assessment
- On-Sight Translation
- Text Linguistics
- Simultaneous interpreting

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How Sahara rebels tweak the devil's tail

SHYAM BHATIA, Africa Correspondent, takes an exclusive trip with Polisario guerrillas.

MIDNIGHT in the western Sahara and the freezing desert wind does not distract wiry Polisario guerrillas from scrabbling in the sand for cigarette-oox-shaped anti-personnel mines that guard the approaches to Morocco's 1,600-mile 'Maginot Line' slicing diagonally through disputed territory along the Algerian border.

From where I was perched on top of the six-foot-high wall, the nearest Moroccan army base was less than a mile away. 'Do not fear,' said Mohammed, the leader of our group. 'They go to sleep at night, they hide in their trenches.'

King Hassan of Morocco built his barrier of sand and rubble to prevent the Polisario from attacking his soldiers and garrison towns, but it is evident that his efforts have been only partially successful. The guerrillas refer derisively to the wall as the eighth wonder of the world and the tail of the devil.

The wall rises in the Moroccan town of Zag, due north-west from where Mark Thatcher lost his way during the trans-Sahara rally, and continues in zig-zag fashion along a south-western line until it reaches the Atlantic Ocean near Dakhla.

Its strategic objective is to protect southern Morocco as well as El Aeyun, the capital of the western Sahara, and the phosphate mines of Bou Craa from which Hassan earns millions of dollars every year in foreign exchange.

Since the wall was completed last year, Polisario attacks on Moroccan-held towns have virtually ceased, but in the process Hassan's 140,000-strong army has become a hostage to guerrilla tactics.

Against this army the Polisario has raised a force of 10,000 men who have been fighting for independence ever since Morocco annexed Western Sahara in 1976.

'It's true the wall has created some problems for our forces,' said Mohamed Abdel Aziz, the secretary-general of the Polisario, who agreed to be interviewed in a desert bunker near the border with Algeria. 'We are not used to such obstacles and we had to find new tactics. Our aim now is to bleed the enemy until he is forced to withdraw.'

To demonstrate first hand their new tactics, the Polisario took us on an amazing 2,000-mile trip by Land-Rover across the Sahara until we reached the Atlantic at a point about 50 miles south of Dakhla.

We travelled with four guerrillas in the back for four days and nights to reach the Atlantic coast, most of the time racing along desert tracks that run parallel to the wall and often within sight of it.

The four guerrillas travelling in the back of the Land Rover fed me with tins of spaghetti bolognese, while Observer photographer Roger Hutchings was allowed to share rice cooked with rabbit shot on the hoof. Camel milk, tasting like sharp, tangy yoghurt, was procured as often as possible from wandering shepherds.

At 2 p.m., still 100 miles inland from the Atlantic, guerrilla commander Mohammed stopped the Land Rover. 'Now we wait for an hour,' he said. 'Do you play chess?'

An hour later, after a game of chess and several pints of camel milk—procured from wandering shepherds as we drove—we set off for the wall on foot. This was a dry run for a more daring expedition later that night when we actually climbed the wall.

From our vantage point on top of a little hill of rocky waste, we could see Moroccan soldiers walking past a forest of radio aerials planted just behind the wall. 'They have radar, but they cannot see us,' said our guide. 'The radar does not work in this hilly area.'

Not a single shot was fired in our direction, although the Moroccans boast a formidable array of gadgetry to keep the Polisario at bay. Radar, heat and vibration detectors are supplemented with long-range artillery, machine-gun nests, tanks and fighter bombers that can be called upon to help in daytime attacks.

We climbed the wall itself just before midnight, approaching it single file, like would-be mountaineers. Halfway to the wall...
الصحراء الغربية فوق السور المغربي مع البوليساريو

قلم: شيمان باتانيا

منتصف الليل في الصحراء الغربية، لا تمنع رياح الصحراء الصوفية ضوئ البوليساريو المكشوف من البهجة في المجال على الأفق المضئة للكهف التي تشرد النور إلى خليفة `

نادرة، ألق محمد اللاجيء رؤف وقال: "الراكب، نحن نقتصر فقط على الساحل. هل تدبر النهار؟ وهي تجذب منا وتتحرك من طرف طائفة ثقيلة في السماء، وهي تهذي من الأحداث المطاردة بالربوع كيف تلمع عبر غيمة من هذين الاتصال بالربوع خلف السور تماماً. قالت نادرة:

"أن لديهم رادار، ولكنهم لا يستطيعون رؤيتنا. قال قادر.

ولم نصل يعدما بحثنا، وقد ناقت السور إقامة لجيش الربوع.

ولقد كنت راسياً واجيباً، وألق محمد اللاجيء رؤف وقال:

"هذا المكان شاهد لنا طائرياً من أول خطافنا، بعد تيذ ذلك، كان السور ينظر على الأفق. قالت نادرة، فكرت قادر من السور ما احتل الرجل:

"لا تحاكي. فانجد المغاربة لا يبعدون إلا 100 متر عننا.

أولمدة المغاربة

لم تتفتقت على المشهد. استدعت البوليساريو استراتيجية توقيتية وواسعة. فتأتى القاعدة بعد أن نبتذل الأنان لانكماش المرأة، كما قال لجنب سلطان،فئدها في بوليساريو. في كل حزام، ابتعد بالسواح، يلاحظ البوليساريو بناء الألغام، أو المر стороны. لن يشبع الجرح، لن يذهب الجرح. لن نستسلم في النهاية بعد أن نبتذل الأنان.

وقد عقدت هذه القوة المغربيه حرب البوليساريو قوة من شرارة الأفعى، وبعمر من الآجل، استغل من الحق احتلال الرebb

للمغرب. في عام 1982، объяعت dissertation البوليساريو

 وإلا بعدها، مثل في المنطقة المغربية. استمر البوليساريو

 في رحلة مهولة بالرغم من الحراسة tigerم من غير

المسار، ونما في سيطرة البوليساريو حتى تمكننا من اكتشاف جبناء، واستطعنا

الرحلة بصحة كبرى تأخرت أيام وليالي حتى وصلنا إلى

الأكببال آسيوية.

أحد 14 ديسمبر 1986

الصحراء الغربية
Palestinian factions sink differences in camp siege

From our Correspondent in Beirut

The 350 people in west Beirut's Chatila camp who have voluntarily stopped eating so that their rations can go to the wounded and nursing mothers, were joined yesterday by about 80 women.

Chris Giannou, the only doctor in the camp, said in a radio interview that he was already having to force some of those starving themselves to accept a glucose drip to stay alive. "But there is very little glucose left.

No food has been allowed into Chatila, which houses about 10,000 Palestinian refugees, since the siege by Amal militiamen was imposed nearly four months ago. Nothing has been allowed into the neighbouring Bourj al-Barajneh camp, which has a population of more than 20,000, since Iranian embassy officials delivered about 15 tons of dried milk and flour last week. In the big camp at Rashidiyeh in southern Lebanon, the blockade appears to have been lifted.

In Bourj al-Barajneh, Pauline Cutting, who runs the camp hospital with a Scottish nurse, told of the continuing food shortage. "People come to the hospital every day pleading for left-overs," she said. "But there are no left-overs."

Dr Cutting, who said she would not leave the camp as long as she was needed, admitted that her own weight was down to 92 pounds. She is 5ft 3in tall. There have been cases of the Palestinian girls who act as nurses in the one hospital in the camp fainting through weakness caused by malnutrition.

Dr Cutting said that 90 per cent of the people in the camp were civilians. Many dreamed of lorries loaded with food being sent in, or of getting out. "But there is a lot of solidarity among the camp's residents. They don't want to leave," she said.

One person who could take it no longer and escaped yesterday was Fahima Derban, a 35-year-old mother. "I had to come out because I could no longer face it. I have three children who I could no longer bear to hear crying every day from hunger."

Fahima said that before the "war" started there were divisions between the people in the camps, with some supporting Yasser Arafat and his "mainstream" PLO while others backed Syria or different factions. "Now the only division is a division of labour, with everyone co-operating to help each other," she said.

Everyone is united against Amal. All the men and boys at the camp are fighting, and the unmarried girls also help the guerrillas in the trenches, carrying the ammunition and looking after the wounded. The married women deal with the cooking - when there is anything to cook.

"Pro-Arafat, anti-Arafat, pro-Syria - everyone is now fighting together for one cause, and that is to defend the camp."

Syria has called for truces and for reconciliation - but it is also supplying the Amal fighters. Amal and Syria share the objective of preventing the Palestinians from rebuilding the military presence they lost in Lebanon in the wake of Israel's 1982 invasion.

Amal claims that to allow the Palestinians to regain power in Lebanon would enable them to stage attacks on Israel from south Lebanon, which in turn would bring renewed Israeli reprisals on Shia villages in south Lebanon.

"Amal will under no circumstances storm any of the refugee camps. Amal had no intention of storming any of the camps because to do so would cause a massacre that no official or militia leader would want on his conscience," he said.

Despite Syrian denials, the battles between Amal and the Palestinians are seen as Syria's proxy war in Lebanon.

Yasser Arafat and President Hafez Assad have been locked in a private vendetta since 1983, when Mr Arafat stopped the former from gaining control of the PLO.
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي من الصورة المقدمة. إذا كنت بحاجة إلى مساعدة في شيء آخر، فلا تتردد في طرحه.
From our Correspondent, Washington

U.S. Scandal Engulfs Reagan and Casey

In an emotional outburst, President Reagan told congressional leaders on Capitol Hill yesterday afternoon that the administration would not accept the findings of the independent counsel's investigation of the Iran-Contra affair. "I have no more confidence in what Mr. Iran-Contra says," Reagan said to tears in his eyes.

Reagan's second statement of the day came hours after the independent counsel, Assistant Attorney General Lloyd Bentsen, told a press conference the president's brother, Michael Reagan, was under federal scrutiny. "I have no more confidence in what Mr. Iran-Contra says," Reagan said to tears in his eyes.

Reagan was referring to色彩的插图。
Hussein says US lost all credibility over arms deal with Iran

BY ROGER MATTHEWS AND ANDREW GOWERS IN AMMAN

KING HUSSEIN of Jordan, the West's most consistent Arab ally, said yesterday the US had lost all credibility in the Middle East as a result of its arms sales to Iran.

The king said he was "more than shocked" by revelations coming out of Washington. He also said he saw no sign of US willingness to help resolve the Arab-Israeli dispute.

As a result, he felt there was little purpose in taking up an invitation to visit the US for talks with President Reagan next month and was inclined to seek closer defence co-operation with Europe.

The king's remarks, in an interview with the Financial Times, were his first detailed public statement on the US overtures to Iran. Jordan has hacked Iraq, Iran's enemy, throughout the Gulf war, which is now well into its seventh year.

"The US has lost its credibility in this area totally. What has been revealed is diametrically opposed to every assurance I received. I had been told that the Americans would do anything in their power to prevent the supply of arms to Iran and thus the continuation of the (Gulf war)," he said. "The last thing that one ever expected was that the US would augment the military machine of Iran, which has refused to respond to any call to end this war."

KING HUSSEIN said the US supplies disclosed so far represented "a very dangerous development" in view of the balance of forces between Iran and Iraq. He implied that they had a measurable impact in the latest Iranian offensive towards Basra, Iran's second largest city.

Although the king was confident that Iran could withstand further Iranian offensives, he said moderate Arabs had no accord response to a possible military breakthrough by Tehran.

"Jordan is prepared in its very limited way to respond. I have been calling for a contingency plan for Syria but until now I don't think there is one," he said.

KING HUSSEIN said he had spoken frankly to President Assad of Syria in Damascus last week about the latter's continuing support for Iran in the war.

The Jordanian monarchy was equally cautious about the US position on the Arab-Israeli dispute, in spite of recent suggestions that Washington might be preparing to play a more active role in setting up an international peace conference.

"I have been assured they are interested in resolving the Arab-Israeli problem. But I have not seen any manifestation of that," he said.

Jordan has been campaigning for an international conference, involving interested parties from the Middle East and the five permanent members of the United Nations Security Council. But the idea is being vehemently resisted by Mr Yitzhak Shamir, the Israeli Prime Minister.

Israel and the US want King Hussein to enter into direct negotiations—though the US has said recently that it would be prepared to countenance a conference as a prelude to bilateral talks.

The king also said he would step up his efforts to buy arms from sources other than Washington, including the Soviet Union but especially western Europe. US plans to sell Jordan about St3bn (£1.25bn) of weapons and aircraft were dropped just over a year ago in the face of stiff Israeli and congressional opposition.

"We have not asked for any arms and will not ask for any arms from the US. I have really

Continued on Back Page
المملكة: آخر ما توقعنا الساحة الأوروبية لبريطانيا

الملك حسين: الملك البارز الذي تم ترويضه في عمان، والدنانير

الملك حسين ملك الأردن قال في 17 فبراير الجاري أن الولايات المتحدة احتلت جزءًا من المحاولات في الشرق الأوسط نتيجة لبعض الاضطرابات.

قال اللاعب الإردني أن المعلومات التي تنتشر منbéشطة الآن قد احتلت جزءًا من الساحة، وعلو أن لم يُذكر استخدام اللاعب للأساطير. الواقع، في الشعور الإردني، يمكن أن يكون هناك

تتربة تلك، تشير الملك حسين إلى

لم تستطع要好好ة الميقادة في قوبل دعوة إبرازات وراء اللاعب، اللاعب تقوم بالعملية في حل الوضع الإيجابي للإيراني.

وقد تبين أن الملك حسين ناهزته

لم يقم بتصدير اللاعب لبؤس اللاعب، اللاعب تقدم إلى ملتلك في وجه معركة بالأمتين.

وأضاف اللاعب الإردني، قال:

أنا لم تلقب أي أسامة ولم تُنصب

«باستعانت من البلدان المتحدة» الذي يقوم لدى كل دافع لدراسة إضافية. فيفا، تعاون آخر من أوروبا في مجال المفاوضات.

وحاول الملك حسين أن يخفف من

التعاليم ثبت وصوته عبر

منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية.

وسماً سنواته لغة شتاء، ولكن

غادر اللاعب الإردني حيث

الثالث، الذي يشير له الإردني.

وقال، اللاعب الإردني أن لبؤس

لم تصل إلى لبيع توزع

العميان في نهاية الأسبوع الأخرى

أي قرار، سياسة بين الأردن والمواجهة.

وقال اللاعب الإردني أن Filip

ال игрок اللاعب والإيراني أنه

يرجح أن تكون احتلال ستولي

العثمانية فلسطينية.

كان للعب الإردني أيضًا بعد

نفذه يشترط مؤتمر السلام.

قال، كهدى على تلك،

العملية:

لم تجربة في أي دور، جنب

العلاقنة عسكرية إيراني، محتمل

العلاقة: الأردن.
MISSION IMPROBABLE

Israel’s Prime Minister, Mr Shimon Peres, will be hoping for the improbable when he meets Mrs Thatcher in 10 Downing Street today. What he would like is an assurance that Britain might resume a more active role in the Middle East at a time when American policy has been tripped up by Iran-gate. What makes his mission seem impossible is that the Middle East is an unpromising constituency for any British leader in election year.

That is not his only objective; however, as he begins his first tour of European capitals since swapping jobs with Mr Yitzhak Shamir three months ago. He also needs to convince EEC leaders that nothing has changed — and that the Jerusalem government remains committed to reinvigorating the peace movement, despite the return to power of a right-wing prime minister. In this he may well be successful — if only because lie would seem to have established a good working relationship with Britain.

His difficulty is that while Israel still favours direct talks with the Arab world as a means to secure a more stable peace in the region, it has not yet found anyone to talk to. The most obvious interlocutor is King Husain of Jordan, with whom a satisfactory arrangement for the West Bank should be possible. But Husain remains reluctant to stick his neck out (which might almost literally be the case) without independent support from the West Bank Palestinians and/or international backing from a conference attended by the superpowers.

Israelis are still sceptical over the value of an international conference, and so far, that matter is both Britain and the United States. The attendance of the Soviet Union would introduce an unknown factor — although Russian influence over Syria would make its presence very relevant in theory. At best, such a conference would probably take a long time without achieving anything.

President Mubarak of Egypt, moreover, is now talking in terms of a preparatory conference to prepare the way for the real thing, so the process would take even longer.

Israel fears that, by then, the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), weakened after its evacuation from Lebanon four years ago, might have regained much of its strength and influence — not only in Lebanon but also in the West Bank and Gaza. A result any inclination on its part towards policies of compromise and moderation might have vanished.

As for Israeli hopes of constructing a moderate Arab alternative to the PLO on the West Bank, these too are unlikely to be realized very quickly. In his interview with The Times this week, Mr Peres pointed to the growth of self-government on the West Bank, the emergence of more Arab mayors and the decrease of violence there; since Mrs Thatcher’s visit to Jerusalem eight months ago. But he acknowledged himself that it will take a long time for a strong enough force of so-called “King’s men” to emerge.

Israelis insist that political allegiances on the West Bank are divided between those whose sympathies lie firmly with the PLO and those who are waiting for Husain to provide the leadership they crave. The longer the King hesitates, the more likely they all are to turn to the PLO instead — and a stronger more determined PLO than now exists. That is why he would like Britain to nudge the King (an old friend) into the role of reluctant hero.

The snag is that Mrs Thatcher too will want more time until her own political future has been secured. And time is what Mr Peres feels he can least afford to give.
مهمة بيريز مستحيلة مع نايش

كان رئيس وزراء إسرائيل شمعون بيريزباشر في الحكم على ما هو غير ممكن عندما اجتمع مع مارغريت تاتشر في 10 شباط
ستة في 27 يناير العربي. فعند
يربز في الحصول على تأكيد بان
بريطانيا قد تستخدم العام بدور
أطلست في الوقت
غرق في السياسة الإمبراطورية في
باريس، وإن ما يعده مهنة
بيريز تبدو مسحوبة هو كون
الشرق الأوسط قاعدة غير وإعادة
لأي زعيم بريطاني في مدة
الانخاذية.
وليس هذا هو الهدف الوحيد لبيريز،
مع بداية أول جولة له في العوالم
الإتحادية بعد تبادل المناصب مع
إسماعيل قبل ثلاثة شهور. بيريز بحث أيضًا لإقامة قادة
السعودية الإمبراطورية المبتكرة بأن
شيء لم يتحقق، وإن حكومة كل
ما كانت ملتزمة بإعادة تشكيل حركة
الإسلام، رغمعودة رئيس وزراء
بريطانيا إلى السلطة. في ذلك يرى
بيريز نجمة الرمز على أنه ملعب
أعمال لإعلام عمل جودة مع
بريطانيا.
وكل الدعم الصعودية إمام بيريز في أنه
ببينا نظم إسرائيل أسر المحادثات
منافسة للعالم العربي كوسيلة
لضمان السلام أكثر استقرارا في
المنطقة. إنها لم تجذب الأمين لاحزاب
تحت تزعم
وأما زال الشك بعوأر الإسرائيليين
في قضية أو مؤتمر دولي، ومنها هو
حال مع بريطانيا، والدول
الإتحادية. قضاء بإحراز
السوفيتي تؤثر كما سيقول
عولا محورًا، رغم أن التفوق
السوفيتي الذي يسري سبع
الوجه السوفيتي واردًا من
الناخبة النظرية.

العربية، واللي ظهرت مرة أخرى
رواد العربية في العالم. واللي تدلي
العهد بها بعد الزيارة التي قامت
بها مارغريت تاتشر لفلسطين
المحتلة قبل ثمانية شهور. و
ويمزك الإسرائيليون على أن
الولايات المتحدة في الضفة
الغربية منفسة بين من يعتقلون
بحمز. مع منظمة التحرير
الفلسطينية. ومع أنني يرون أن
الإردن يغادره الذي سيعبون إليه
وكثيرين إنها تزداد الإردن إدارًا.
اعتماد تجولهم جميعا إلى المنطقة،
بل إلى المنظمة أعلى أكثر تصميم
من المنظمة الحالية.
ولها المسبب يزيد بيريز من
بريطانيا أن تشع الإردن على
القيام بدور البطل.
والحلقة هي أن تنثر أيضًا ستكون
بعاجة إلى مزيد من الوقت حتى
تضمن مستقبلها السياسي. والوقت
هذا ما يشعر بيريز بأنه آخر شاعر
 يستطيع تقدمه.
Nora Boustany reports from Beirut on Lebanon's unending wars

Arafat plays a shrewd waiting game

As the Iran-US arms controversy continues to shake the world, Lebanon's unending wars have taken on a new twist. Palestinian Liberation Organisation chief Yasser Arafat appears to have outdone Syria's 'provocative' tactics by striking against its local allies in a shrewd waiting game.

Arafat's main opponent in the Lebanese elections, President Maronite Phalangist Michel Aoun, has been branded by Arafat's PFLP guerrillas as his 'main rival'. Aoun himself, in turn, has accused Arafat of supporting the 'smugglers' in Lebanon's north, the stronghold of Shi'ite Hezbollah, and the departure of these 'smugglers' from Lebanon has been widely interpreted as a sign of the growing power of Arafat's PFLP.

However, Aoun's ability to mount an effective challenge to Arafat's growing influence in Lebanon is limited by the presence of Syrian troops, which are seen as a stabilising factor in the country. The Lebanese political scene is dominated by the three major parties - Christian, Muslim and Druze - and the presence of Syrian troops is seen as a way of preventing the emergence of a single dominant political force.

Arafat's strategy seems to be based on the idea that the presence of Syrian troops will prevent him from being attacked by Aoun or other political leaders, while also allowing him to build influence in Lebanon through his support for the Shi'ite Hezbollah and the Druze, who are seen as key players in the Lebanese political scene.

The key to Arafat's strategy is the relationship with Syria, which he sees as crucial to his survival in Lebanon. By maintaining a close relationship with Syria, Arafat is able to secure protection and support from the Syrian government, while also using Syria as a way of exerting influence in Lebanon.

Arafat's main challenge, however, is the presence of Syrian troops in Lebanon, which he sees as a threat to his plans. The Syrian presence is seen as a stabilising factor in Lebanon, but it also limits Arafat's ability to pursue his own agenda.

Despite these challenges, Arafat remains confident that he will be able to emerge victorious from the Lebanese elections, scheduled for May 1989. By then, he expects to have secured a majority in the parliament, allowing him to pursue his goals in Lebanon, which include the creation of a Palestinian state in Lebanon and the ouster of the Israeli occupation.
حتى في المنطقة العربية، حيث كان العقد الأول من المصادمات البارزة في بناء الدولة العربية تمثله الربيع العربي، واجتاحت الجماعات الفلسطينية، فقد ساعد ذلك النجاح على تعبير عن الجهاد الشعبي في المجتمع الفلسطيني، واعترضوا على التدفق الهائل من السويس إلى مصر، وبدأت التصعيد.</p>
Iran

Could you be more specific, God?

The Iranian government finds it difficult to reconcile God and Mammon. The long-running argument about what Islamic economics actually are has come to a head over a measure to raise taxes which is supported by the government but opposed by many purists in important positions. The argument is not simply a philosophical one: it also involves the crucial political question of whose interests the regime is supposed to serve.

The immediate problem is that some Moslems say that the only legitimate taxes are the voluntary tithes paid to the mosque. They oppose income tax (a survival from the Shah's days) which accounts for about 20% of the government's revenue. However, those responsible for running Iran, among them President Ali Khomeini and Prime Minister Hussein Musavi, point out that a government must have reliable revenue from enforceable taxes, and now Iran needs a lot more money from personal taxation because its oil revenue has fallen dramatically.

They have respectable Islamic backing for this argument: Ayatollah Beheshti, the leader of the ruling Islamic Republic party until he was assassinated in 1981, pointed out that Ayatollah Khomeini that people were no longer paying their tithes to his mosque because they had to pay money to the state as well. The conservatives dominate the Council of Guardians, which can veto bills passed by parliament, and which is now considering the taxation bill.

The Islamic debate is also about the relative importance of the public and private sectors of Iran's economy. The government and parliament in general favour the public sector. The bazaars, who control the private sector, are represented by some conservatives in parliament and by the Council of Guardians.

The council has held up all the important tax issues. King Hussein of Jordan is said to have succeeded in constructing one platform from which they may be able to negotiate with Israel. The details of the agreement, announced on February 12th, were not immediately revealed. But the presumption is that the PLO—or at least Mr. Arafat's dominant Fatah section of it—will now, in concert with the king, be more firmly bound to a policy of diplomacy rather than war in its long struggle to establish some sort of Palestinian homeland.

In particular, the king has probably persuaded Mr. Arafat to accept the principle of "land for peace", whereby Israel would relinquish the West Bank, which it conquered in 1967, in exchange for recognition of Israel by Jordan and the PLO. If this is so, there will be even louder calls for the United States, the country with the most leverage over Israel, to convene peace talks between the main protagonists: the fledgling Jordanian-PLO team on the one hand, and the Jewish state on the other.

Step forward, Reagan

So far, President Reagan has been determined to keep out of the diplomatic fray, arguing that it is primarily a matter for Israel and Jordan to thrash out. But a number of moderate Arabs, such as King Fahd, who arrived in Washington on a state visit on February 11th, have been urging Mr. Reagan to risk a fresh American involvement. President Mubarak of Egypt goes to the White House next month, followed by President Chudli of Algeria, the Arab country with the best links with both moderate and rejectionist factions of the PLO.

The latest Arafat-Hussein deal should bolster the arguments of all of them. As the more belligerent elements of the PLO were bounced out during the November meeting of the Palestine National Council (the nearest thing to a parliament-in-exile), Mr. Arafat may also have beenajoined by King Hussein into accepting, in principle, the United Nations security council's resolution 242, which demands security for all states—including Israel—in the region. In the past three months, Mr. Arafat has been arguing that

THE ECONOMIST, FEBRUARY 26, 1983
Death of an Empress

His murdered mother’s crown has been passed to Mr Rajiv Gandhi but there will be no replacing the Empress of India, Dynasty, goddess-figure, warrioress, Mrs Gandhi defined and dominated the politics of her country for nearly two decades. She took big risks, some wise, some foolish. In 1969 she split the Congress party, thereby eliminating all rivals for the next 15 years. In 1971 she broke up Pakistan, thereby making India the unquestioned superpower of the subcontinent. In 1975 she imposed an “emergency” which saved her own job at the cost of suspending Indian democracy for 2 years. And in 1984 she tackled Sikh terrorism, too late, by invading the Golden Temple in Punjab. It was this last act which led to her death on Wednesday at the hands of Sikh police'on in her own bodyguard.

The first challenge for Rajiv Gandhi will be to do for India what his grandfather Nehru and when another unrelated Gandhi was assassinated in 1948, to define the forces of hate by promoting reason, not revenge. This means using all necessary force to prevent a new round of bloodletting between Hindus and Sikhs; and it means doing what his mother neglected to do in Punjab, which it to deal with the causes as well as the symptoms of Sikh violence. His second immediate task must be to assure India that democracy will not be intimidated. This means confining that the general election, due by January, will go on.

As a prime minister of India’s youngest and greenest prime minister yet must be to seek out seasoned advisers to guide him and India through this most trying of times. In recent years Mrs Gandhi had retreated into self-imposed isolation, surrounded by a coterie of cronies and scoundrels. Rajiv was a reluctant partner in this system, which was designed to fulfill his mother’s dynastic dream. His own instincts are said to be less imperious than those of his late brother Sanjay, who was his mother’s first choice as heir. But as Mrs Gandhi’s closest adviser, Rajiv himself must share responsibility for the mishandling of the Sikh troubles as well as the coup that backfired in Andhra Pradesh. He will need wiser minds, now that he is in office, to hone his judgment on.

Partly because of her isolation, Mrs Gandhi’s last years were not her best ones. By turning the Congress party into a personal political tool, she short-circuited the country’s best grassroots communications network. Along with the over-concentration of government power in Delhi, this produced an intelligence vacuum in which local grievances spiraled into insurmountable in Punjab and in the north-eastern hill state of Assam. One fortunate spin-off of having a weak president in Delhi—and any successor would be weaker than Mrs Gandhi—may be a rigging of the distorted balance between centre and states.

Other balances that need correcting are those between India and its neighbours, including the Soviet Union. The relationship Mrs Gandhi built with the Russians was based not on any affection for them but on, a sound appraisal of India’s economic and strategic interests. The Janata government discovered as much when it tried backing away from the Russians in 1977-78 and ended up embracing them. But good relations with the nuclear superpower need not exclude a reversion to genuine non-alignment as practiced by Mrs Gandhi’s father. Nehru would not have condoned Russia’s invasion of Afghanistan.

Rajiv’s second chance

The greatest missed opportunity of the Gandhi years was the Bangladesh war. Here was the chance for India to hold out a generous hand of friendship to a neighbour that could never again pose a serious military threat to India. But Mrs Gandhi, schooled in decades of hostility, could not extend that hand and continued to treat the overwhelming big sister, not only to Pakistan but to all the surrounding states. Such a rule would sit uncomfortably on Rajiv or his successor who would anyway need all the neighbourly support he could get to deal with the unrest around India’s edges. It is a second chance that should be seized.

Mrs Gandhi’s main claim to greatness, not belied by Pakistan, Punjab or even the emergency, are the cohesion and confidence she lent to India in 15 years of mostly stable, mostly democratic rule. Even the pragmatist, she continued to speak the language of socialism while following the advice of her late son, Sanjay, to lift the bureaucratic shackles from India’s private-sector economy. The result over the past five years, since Sanjay removed Mrs Gandhi from the worst of her socialism, has been one of the fastest economic growth rates in the world. India is still as unequal as ever, but at
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Afghanistan protests to United Nations

Pakistan and Iran refuse to allow refugee airlift

From Christopher Walker, Moscow

The Soviet-backed Government in Afghanistan has protested strongly to the United Nations about the refusal of Pakistan and Iran to allow it to mount an airlift from their respective territories, to repatriate Afghan refugees who have chosen to respond to the recent offer made under the Afghan Government's national reconciliation plan.

Last week, Afghanistan's communist Government unveiled a wide-ranging package designed to persuade refugees from the eight-year-old civil war to return.

It included a free pardon for all army and police deserters, guarantees of employment, education, housing and a pledge to honour all pension agreements.

According to recent Western estimates, there are now some three million Afghan refugees living in camps inside Pakistan - many of them in poor physical conditions - and 1.5 million across the border in Iran, with a further 500,000 scattered throughout various Western countries.

It is not known exactly how many will take up the Afghan offer, but diplomatic sources in Kabul told me this week, that it was possible that many would respond, both out of war weariness and from a desire to return to their native land. The Afghan authorities claim that large, so far unspecified, numbers have applied to Afghan officials abroad seeking ways of returning.

The official protest was issued yesterday in the form of a letter from Mr Abdul Wali, the Afghan Foreign Minister, to the UN Secretary General.

It appealed for the UN to assist in organizing the return of the refugees, which is part of a programme designed to secure a political settlement and the eventual withdrawal of all 115,000 Soviet troops.

Mr Wali, whose letter was released here by Tass, the Soviet news agency, alleged that the Pakistani and Iranian governments had failed to respond to formal requests to permit the airlift by Afghan aircraft, he accused both governments of attempting to prevent the refugees from returning.

"The Afghan Government believes it is against the norm of international law and universally recognized human rights to permit artificial obstacles in the way of children returning home," the Foreign Minister said. "Such attitudes are clearly hostile to the Afghan Government's policy of national reconciliation, which is aimed, among other things, at ensuring stable, good neighbourly relations with neighbouring countries."

His letter came less than a month before Afghan and Pakistani delegations in Geneva are due to resume the UN-sponsored peace talks aimed at ending the Afghan conflict.

These were deadlocked on one outstanding issue, the timetable or a complete Soviet withdrawal, when they recessed last year.

No explanation was given in the protest letter for Pakistan and Iran's refusal to respond to the airlift call from Kabul, but diplomatic sources in Moscow said it was likely to add a further complication to efforts to reach a compromise at the peace talks, which have been under way since 1982.

In a separate dispatch from the Afghan capital, Tass claimed refugees were continuing to trek back across the borders into Afghanistan, and gave specific details about the return of some 500 to four different areas.

It acknowledged that the Muslim rebels were continuing to breach the unilateral ceasefire declared by Afghan and Soviet troops on January 15.

The High Commissioner for National Reconciliation has stated in response to these acts of provocation that, if such actions are repeated, the enemies of peace will be dealt a crushing blow."

Tass reported in a further official confirmation that the ceasefire has already been broken in many places.
باكستان وإيران ترفضان إقامة جسر جوي لنقل اللاجئين الأفغان

احتجت الحكومة الإفغانية بشدة لدى الأمم المتحدة بشأن رفض باكستان وإيران السماح لها بإقامة جسر جوي في كل منهما للاجئين الأفغان حتى احتجاجات المخاطبة، رفضت الحكومة الإفغانية ضمن خطة الوطوية

ويأتي التقريب في رسالة من وزير الخارجية إيدالوكي إلى باكستان

لاعتبار بناء السلام في

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لااعتبر بناء السلام في

باكستان وإیران
تعهدًا واقرارًا

بالنجم المعنوي لكوني عمّل في شركة فلسطين لصناعة الأدوية المحدودة المحدودة مقابل إجراء انفاضة منها أن تلزم بأن احتفظ بمساحة مكتبية ثابتة وأكيدة، ولا تأتي أي إضرارًا أو إضرارًا عمليًا أو إضرارًا ماديًا أو انتفاخًا، كما أنني أنتمي بالتوقيع على موادها وأجهزتها، وعلى كل ما يتعلق بالشركة. وإذا أمكنني قد أراك نتيجة عملني فيها وانها ما ينتج عن عملي كما أتيح بهذا إلى الشركة جميع الحقوق.

في أي عمل أو عمل لصالح الشركة.

1 - كما أنني أيضًا لأنك كلما ما هو مطلوب من قبل الشركة ولا يقيد تنفيذ اهداف وغايات الشركة وأنا بذلك بأنني أعمل واقفة وانتهاء بالنسبة لشركة ولاب يقيد تصرفه كما تراه مناً.

2 - وإن لم أكن أكون للاطراف أو جماعات أو مؤسسات أو شركات أو أي شخصيات اعتبارية إسلامي في تلك الشركة أو ميسلماً أو إسلامي ما تستحق أو أي معلومات عن عملي وعن كل ما تقوم الشركة بصياغته وعن ما لديها من ظاهرة أو ما كان أو عملي وما يتعلق بالتوزيع والنشر وال ועוד والعلاقات التجارية والصناعية وما يتعلق بزبائنها سواء كان ذلك خلال فترة عمل في الberapa أو في فترة لاحقة واعتبر كل المعلومات التي تكون لدي أثناء عملني في الشركة أو بعدها أو في أي فترة وسبيل ملكية وخلاصة الشركة وحالة من حقوقها دون أن تكون الشركة ملزمة في مبلغ مالي مقابل ذلك.

3 - وإن كانت يأتي في حالة عادة لذا التعهد كما وردًا مازن يدفع رابع سنة أخر للشركة كجزء من رفعه عليه للسماً وأنا كذلك مسئولاً مسئولة كاملًا تسديد الشركة في حالة إخلالي لهذا التعهد.

وعليه اوقع حص الصلوح

التوقيع
Suicide bomb: Reaplar his revenge

PRESIDENT REAGAN is
about to take his revenge on
those who plotted last month's
suicide bomb of American troops in
Lebanon. He could be about to
do it in cooperation with the
Israelis.

In a build-up of activity this
weekend, there were reports
via the American under-secretary
of state Lawrence Eagle-
berger is having last-minute
consultations today in Jerusa-
lem with the Israeli prime
minister, Yitzak Shamir, and
members of his cabinet before
ending up a one-week visit to
Israel.

The Israeli cabinet's defence
committee meets this morning
in Shamir's office to discuss
further retaliatory measures
against the perpetrators of
Today's bombing of Israeli
military headquarters in Tyre,
in southern Lebanon.

Two US F-14 Tomcat aircraft
flew low over Beirut yesterday
on a reconnaissance mission -
the first time jets have buzzed
the capital since the Lebanese
trespassers on September 26.

More ominously, the Ameri-
cans have ordered two aircraft
 carriers, the Independence and
the John F. Kennedy, to join
the US Sixth Fleet off Lebanon.
They will replace the carrier,
Ticonderoga, and put a total of
402 war planes at the disposal
of American military com-
manders. At present there are
59.

According to reliable sources
in Washington, secretary of
state George Shultz and Presi-
dent Reagan's new national
defence adviser, Robert McFar-
lane, are in favour of a retaliatory
operation, with Israeli assistance,
ranging from intelligence
help for US ships and marines
in attacks on terrorist groups in
Lebanon to joint clandestine
action.
From Robert Fisk

Ararat's righters back in strength in Lebanon

THE TIMES THURSDAY NOVEMBER 20 1998

OVERSEAS NEWS
مقاتلو عرفات عادوا بقوة إلى لبنان

نذيره رفيق سيفريته على قيادة امل في الجنوب

بقلم: أورس فنسن من بروت

بعد أربعة سنوات من النكسة العسكرية والسياسية والاجتماعية الداخلية على السلطة، أعادت منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية برئاسة أسامة عبد الرؤف نزح نفسها، في حينها الليكوديين الفلسطينيين في لبنان، وتم التفاوض على اتفاقية عرفات. عادوا إلى لبنان وبغادة أن يعودوا على مسيرة جهوية، منها سواريخ تهدئة للطائرات، ويرتدي هذا الخذ الاسم القوة الفلسطينية التي أخليت من بروت عقب النزاعات في عام 1982.

ويستمر القادة الفلسطينيون اعمالتهم على مدنهم، وتقوم بدورهم في الشوارع التجارية الرئيسية، بينما كانت هناك ملتزمات للسوريين في الثورة البذلية ضد ميليشيات حركة العمل لجان مؤيدي عرفات في بروت.

ووجدوا أنشطة منزوعة في جنوب لبنان وبروت، وعرفات نفسه حيث يعود إلى لبنان على مدار هوشة على مدار توزيع مساعدات مهنية في بروت البرهية على السواء في الداخل، وهي مبادرة سجلت في液晶ية:

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

They considered 1m of those cases to be preventable, mainly by national education programmes. Those figures present a terrible challenge, which the Montreal meeting hardly began to address.

Superconductors

To see why, look into the heart of the superconductor, at the interplay between the magnetic field and the moving charge that is causing it. Elementary physics says that a magnetic field should be pushed aside as current passes across it, just as air is pushed aside by a moving vehicle. Such a push would count as work — it would drain energy from passing charge: the superconductor would stop superconducting.

Fortunately, the magnetic field in some of the old superconductors and all the HTCS shows some strange properties that prevent it being pushed aside by the charge. Instead of being evenly spread throughout the material, it is bunchled into little bundles of field. Some of these bundles are pinned down by defects in the superconducting material. Since separate bundles behave as if they were joined together as a single, rigid structure, pinning a few is enough to prevent all of them from being pushed aside, band for the charge to pass down the superconductor without losing energy. The researchers at IBM and AT&T found that large currents push hard enough to unpinn the bundles in HTCS, so that the magnetic field creeps, causing electrical resistance. Worse still, this rigid structure of magnetic bundles "melts" when the temperature gets too high. The old superconductors operate at such low temperatures that this effect is irrelevant. The new HTCS are not so lucky.

Although scientists have been proudly announcing ever-higher temperatures below which HTCS superconduct (the so-called "critical temperature"), they have ignored the structure at which the temperature of magnetic bundles melts. In many cases this seems to be much lower. For instance, the critical temperature of an HTCS made of bismuth, strontium, copper and oxygen is 185°C. Yet the magnetic structure melts between -250°C and -240°C.

Not all the news is bad. Scientists from Sumitomo Electric Industries, near Osaka, have seen large magnetic fields in thin superconducting films of bismuth HTCS at -193°C. Others hope to make large samples of HTCS behave more like thin films by designing more defects to pin down the field—but not so many that superconductivity stops altogether. Great leaps in technology, it seems, are taken in little steps.

People meters

Eye hopes

NEW YORK

IT WAS 37 years ago that a water commissioner in Toledo, Ohio, noticed a massive drop in the water pressure as people flushed their lavatories during commercial breaks in "I Love Lucy". He mused about patenting a "flushometer". Since then audience-ratings services have driven for greater accuracy. Their latest creation is a passive people-meter that will watch people watching television and count them out if they leave, turn away—or even bury their faces behind newspapers. The meter may learn to have its eye on other things too.

America's three national networks hope that the David Sarnoff Research Centre can get this device out of its laboratories in Princeton and into people's homes within two or three years. They are most unhappy with the audience figures provided by A.C. Nielsen, the company that all but monopolises the ratings game in America.

Nielsen used to have a system where members of a family recorded in a diary who watched what program when. Then, in late 1987, it changed its approach—and estimates of the size of audiences watching the networks fell by an average of almost 10%. Now the 4,000 families that serve as Nielsen's sample base are asked to hit buttons on an active people-meter to record when they signed on and stopped watching.

The passive people-meter that Sarnoff is developing jointly with Nielsen is a considerable improvement on the active one. When a family agrees to become part of the ratings game, each member in turn will stand in front of the passive people-meter. It will store the outstanding features of the face it is presented with in its memory.

The device's image-recognition system is modelled on the human eye. Just like human peripheral vision, it sees only a low-resolution picture until it is alerted by an object or event that it is programmed to take an interest in—such as people's faces and exits and entrances. Then it turns up the resolution and watches more carefully.

A prototype at Princeton has worked well in controlled laboratory conditions.
From Robert Fisk, west Beirut

Sir-General Ghazi, the Commander of the Army in west Beirut, said yesterday that his forces would not undertake the rescue of hostages in Lebanon. He said the general described the Syrians as "not under the command of their organization," and the other 15 men killed by the Syrians as "freelancers," thus absolving their.military commanders of responsibility. The general described the 23 men as "not under the command of their organization," and the other 15 men killed by the Syrians as "freelancers," thus absolving their military commanders of responsibility.

The general described the 23 men as "not under the command of their organization," and he defined the other 15 men killed by the Syrians as "freelancers," thus absolving their military commanders of responsibility.

When asked what he thought of the demands for his death made by the kidnappers, he replied: "I don't believe he was a spy like they said; that was merely a label to justify his being taken.

a show of nonchalance and have no comment on this. It doesn't concern us, and it doesn't affect our plans." As the general was speaking, Syrian Special Forces took up positions outside all the major bases in the Muslim sector.

Other points in the general's comments included:

- The Syrian deployment throughout west Beirut would be completed at noon today.
- The war of the Palesinian camps would "last," as the militias had left their positions.
- Mr. Waite "showed much courage when he came here. He came out of the hostage crisis and he became a hostage himself. He gave himself up as a hostage. He was too humanitarian. I don't believe he was a spy like they said; that was merely a label to justify his being taken." - The kidnappers were ne...
تستم dânة، التوأم غاي كهنان قائد الجيش السوري في بيروت الغربية. فللو أن جراء هذا ان يقوموا رفعية غريبة من أجل انقاذ سراح الوطن، ويرجع تأثير هذه القوة إلى ميلاد كبيرة للكثير من أبنائنا الذين يعانون من الأض裕. ومن الفرسان الذين يدعمون في بيروت أينما كانوا.}

"القوات المسلحة لتحرير الرفاق وعصابات التحرير"
INTERNATIONAL

pressive democracy, re-born in 1979 after eight years of military rule, is in imminent danger. Nor is the president. The ranks of the armed forces support him; so does the Archbishop of Quito. The president's opponents in congress may not be able to muster the necessary two-thirds majority to remove him from office. And the latest slice of comic opera comes at a time when Ecuador's economy is starting to look surprisingly modern.

The currency is stronger since it was devalued, and although oil exports slumped more than $1 billion last year oil companies are ready to sign up for new concessions. The foreign debt is being serviced, commercial banks are readily lending to Ecuador and an agreement with the IMF is in place. Exports of bananas, coffee and shrimps are doing well. Last year's GDP growth of 2% was not bad for an oil-exporting country running a tight-money policy. President febres Cordero may be a rough customer, but in a rough country that is not always a bad thing to be.

Lebanon

Insecurity zone

The breeze of militant Islam blows briskly through Lebanon's Shia Muslim community, and General Antoine Lahad's South Lebanon Army is feeling the chill. The SLA, a 2,000-strong militia consisting largely of Lebanese Christians, was established by Israel to police the narrow "security zone" it has set up north of its border with Lebanon. But the SLA is being clobbered. Last year, some 300 of its men deserted, and replacements have been hard to find.

The chief clobberers are guerrillas of Hezbollah, the Party of God, an Iranian-inspired group of fundamentalists with growing support in south Lebanon. Hezbollah has made attacks on the SLA for several years, but its recent ones have been particularly effective. It lost ten men in an assault on January 16th, but on the whole the SLA has come off worse. Hezbollah killed 84 SLA men during 1986; this year's toll has already reached 13. Some Israeli officers think the force is about to collapse.

If it did, few Lebanese would be sorry. The SLA is given to indiscriminate shelling of Shia villages, and runs a grim detention centre at Khiam which Amnesty International has condemned. It has earned a sour name with UNIFIL, the United Nations force in South Lebanon which is supposed to keep the peace, and does not do it very well. In 1986, General Lahad's men killed three UN soldiers.

If the SLA collapsed, Israel would have to fill the vacuum with its own men. Israel is already being drawn back to Lebanon. It has made four air raids inside Lebanon this month; last week, Israeli soldiers killed seven guerrillas in the "security zone" General Lahad is supposed to police. The Israelis also admitted killing an Irish corporal serving with UNIFIL when an Israeli tank opened fire on one of the force's positions.

UNIFIL wants to patrol Israel's border zone itself. That, it says, would placate the Shias and secure Israel's border at the same time. Although Israel remains unconvinced, it says it might talk about abandoning the security zone—but only after a six-month cease-fire in south Lebanon, and only if a credible talking-partner emerged. It may be a long wait.

Somalia

A good seesaw man

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT IN MOGADISHU

The desert wasteland of Somalia has one natural asset: the value of its position on the Horn of Africa. Its president, the undestructible Mr Siad Barre, has expertly exploited it. Ten years ago the capital, Mogadishu, was ornamented with portraits of Marx, Lenin and Engels. This year there are Coca-Cola signs and advertisements for electronic gadgets. The Americans have come—and have pushed up rents and prices, fostered private enterprise and raised a good servant's pay to more than that of a government minister.

Some Somalis feel that consumerism is corrupting Islamic values. More argue that if the Americans are to be their guests, they should pay more for the privilege. Either way, they are happy to play the two great powers off against each other, exploiting for that purpose the 900-mile-long frontier they share with their Marxist neighbours in Ethiopia.

The Americans were brought in, and the Russians seen off, by the war fought in 1977 across that border in the Ogaden desert. Midway through the war the Russians, who had signed an "eternal" friendship treaty with Somalia in 1975, switched sides, delivering 18,000 Cuban troops and $2 billion worth of arms to the Ethiopians. Mr Barre turned to the Americans who, under President Carter, promised him weapons and then, at the height of the fighting, withheld them from both parties. By March 1978 the Somalis were defeated and Ethiopia was a Russian client state.

Control of bankrupt Ethiopia brings the Russians little prestige, but secures for them an important position within striking distance of both the Gulf and North Africa. The American position in Somalia does something to cancel that out. But the Somalis have accepted the American alliance without any ideological affections. Mr Barre's Somali Socialist Revolutionary party, run by his own clan and family, is identical in structure to the Workers' party of Ethiopia. Mr Abdirahman Jama Barre, the foreign minister, remarks of the Americans: "They are behaving as if they really want us to go back to the Soviets. If that's what they want, then perhaps that's what we'll give them".

Money and bases form the relationship. Agreements made after the Ogaden war give American ships the right to call at the ports of Mogadishu and Kismayo on the Indian Ocean coast, and at Berbera on the Gulf of Aden. The American navy finished improving Berbera's port and airport in 1985 at a cost of $35m. Another $30m is being spent at Kismayo, where facilities for visiting American warships will be completed this year. These investments were made to serve America's Indian Ocean fleet and its Rapid Deployment Force, which could be used in the Gulf if the oilfields there came under threat.

Because of money, the Somalis hint they are now looking for other friends. Somalia spends more than half of its budget on defence. The Americans have dashed their military assistance programme from $33m in 1986 to $7.5m in the 1987 financial year; they have also cut their non-military aid to Somalia by about $25m. Somalia exports little: foreign aid brings in three times as much as exports. To the country's leaders the words Gramm and Rudman are simply euphemisms for impending desertion.

Since Ethiopia is Somalia's only appar-
Reagan sends fleet to Gulf

From Alex Brummer and Michael White
in Washington, and David Fairhall
in London

US air and naval forces were last night moved
within striking distance of the Gulf, as the White
House kept its military options open
in response to growing concern
over Lebanese-held Western
hostages and the Iran-Iraq war.

The rash of hostage-taking
in Beirut, and Iran's threat to
US allies in the region, has
intensified the political pressure
on President Reagan just
two days after he
visited the Inhumate State of the

Irish troops escape annihilation. Reagan's lesson goes
down well, Arms cache found,
page 10.

Union address to Congress on
the nation on Tuesday night
conspicuously failed to achieve
its goal of re-establishing
the prestige of the presidency
after IranGate.

"It was the wrong message.
the wrong audience," one Democratic
governor expressed
private disappointment.

As a further indignity, the
spokesman, Mr. Larry Speakes,
yesterday had to dodge
questions from Speaker
Raisanen of Iran's claim to
have a bible signed by the
President as late as October 23,
1985—five months after
Mr. Robert McFarlane's abortive
mission to
Teheran.

The US air force said yester-
day that the bombing of
a routine training mission to
the weapons training
zone at Konya, in Central Turkey.
Successive batches of American
F-111s regularly used
the range each winter.

After the controversial Liby-
air raid, which was flown
by planes based in Britain, Mrs Thatcher
explained the principle that,
while the British Government's
permission was necessary
during the operation — including
the targeting — were matters
for the Americans. How this
principle would apply to the use of aircraft normally based
in Britain but operationally deployed to the Middle East is
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A Foreign Office spokesman
said yesterday that, as far as
he was aware, no request for
the use of British facilities
had been made. Nor was there
any unusual activity at RAF
Akrotiri, in Cyprus, which is
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arrangements.

In Nicosia, a Cyprus govern-
ment spokesman, responding to
a state of local speculation,
said that he had been given
advanced notice of the British exercise,
and stressed that no American
forces were involved. In Lon-
don, the Foreign Office
disclosed similar speculation
to the SAS, that it might
be involved.

President Reagan had a
round of meetings yesterday
with top security aides, includ-
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George Shultz. What worried
US analysts was that "an over-
zealous, eager or nervous
Iraqis might inadvertently attack an
American ship.

The Pentagon said that a
10-ship task force of missile-
armed destroyers and frigates
wards up the Gulf towards the
war zone, amid fresh warnings
from top administration
officials that the US and its allies
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Two carrier groups in the
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The States Parties to this Convention,

Promoted by the desire to settle, in a spirit of mutual understanding and co-operation, all issues relating to the law of the sea and aware of the historic significance of this Convention as an important contribution to the maintenance of peace, justice and progress for all the peoples of the world,

Noting that the developments that have occurred since the United Nations Conferences on the Law of the Sea held at Geneva in 1958 and 1960 have accentuated the need for a new and generally acceptable Convention on the law of the sea,

Conscious that the problems of ocean space are closely interrelated and need to be considered as a whole,

Recognizing the desirability of establishing, through this Convention, and with due regard for the sovereignty of all States, a legal order for the seas and oceans which would facilitate international communication and promote their peaceful uses, the equitable and efficient utilization of their resources, the study, protection and preservation of the marine environment and the conservation of the living resources thereof,

Have agreed as follows:

**Article 1**

**Definition of piracy**

Piracy consists of any of the following acts:

(a) any illegal acts of violence or detention, or any act of depredation, committed for private ends by the crew or the passengers of a private ship or a private aircraft, and directed:

(i) on the high seas, against another ship or aircraft, or against persons or property on board such ship or aircraft;

(ii) against a ship, aircraft, persons or property in a place outside the jurisdiction of any State;

(b) any act of voluntary participation in the operation of a ship or of an aircraft with knowledge of facts making it a pirate ship or aircraft;

**Article 2**

**Nationality of ships**

1. Every State shall fix the conditions for the grant of its nationality to ships, for the registration of ships in its territory, and for the right to fly its flag. Ships have the nationality of the State whose flag they are entitled to fly. There must exist a genuine link between the State and the ship.

2. Every State shall issue to ships to which it has granted the right to fly its flag documents to that effect.

**Article 3**

**Status of ships**

1. Ships shall sail under the flag of one State only and, save in exceptional cases expressly provided for in international treaties or in this Convention, shall be subject to its exclusive jurisdiction on the high seas. A ship may not change its flag during a voyage or while in a port of call, save in the case of a real transfer of ownership or change of registry.

2. A ship which sails under the flags of two or more States, using them according to convenience, may not claim any of the nationalities in question with respect to any other State, and may be assimilated to a ship without nationality.
Beirut war of the camps

Misery of Palestinian refugees worsens as relief convoy blocked

From Juan Carlos Gumucio, Beirut

It was hatred again which yesterday prevented food and medicines from reaching the Bourj el-Barajneh Palestinian refugee camp, leaving a thousand of besieged civilians forced to maintain a meagre diet, in some cases of dog, cat and rat meat.

"One car moves and we will start shooting," screamed a young gunman pointing to a nearby building, where he claimed an anti-aircraft machine gun stood ready to fire.

Whether he was telling the truth or not, the warning was enough to convince drivers off the few underground shelters available. The gunshots from the building, where he said Ayatollah Khomeini to make a hurried U-turn, his voice from a receiver and this involves women.

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The estimated 5,000 people still living in Chatila have not been confronted with the drama of hunting, cooking and eating cats or rats, but the need to receive fresh, nutritious food is increasingly pressing. Certain medicines are becoming scarce. "We have basic essentials still available, but quite a number of medicines are now lacking. There are between 50 and 60 patients in Dr Giannou's hospital that need to be evacuated. For five or six, it has become a question of life or death," he said.

Refugees who had no time to leave live in shelters that have been spared from shells landing almost daily in the small camp for 14 weeks.

People in Chatila are clinging to hopes for a settlement, a solution that must be, in Dr Giannou's words, "an honourable peace." Since in Chatila no one will accept submission, "People are involved in cooking in common kitchens in order to feed the large population of both fighters and civilians," he said. "Others are involved in setting up public baths in order to secure a minimum of hygiene."

Women bake bread, others are involved in erecting fortifications, setting up barricades and this involves men, women and the elderly, who are digging trenches. "Nobody has even thought of leaving.

BRUSSELS: The European Community yesterday approved an emergency shipment of food for the besieged Palestinian camps in Beirut and appealed for help in securing the distribution of the food (AP reports). The Commission said it is close to an agreement with the International Red Cross to have 1 million European Currency Units ($1.6 million) worth of food supplied to "those in need in southern Lebanon."

TUNIS: The PLO has called for an emergency meeting of the UN Security Council to discuss relief aid to the Palestinian refugee camps in Lebanon (Reuters reports).
نشرت صحيفة الزمن، تحالفًا خاصًا بعنوان فرسائل في بيروت خوان
كارلوس جوميز، قال فيه:

لاق كتاب الكرام في التي معت
الضحكين الذين سيما صوصت في
فم قارن الياس المبارز.

وقد عزت الفلسطينيين الذين
مازور وبدون في فهم سيناء
بحربة خسارة الأرض النفس.
لكنهم لم
يبناوا حتى الآن محبة مضادة
النزاع بذلها وأكذ توكل
الراجون يفنيها وكأنهما هم برج
الراجون. ومع ذلك تفاوت في
شئان شديد وهما أيضاً بعضه
الأقواس دفائعة جديدة. كما أن نواء
الكرامية أخذت صور صورة الفجر.
عذل الحليب التذكي، لأن لا يوجد
الكرامية الحزينة وكان إعداد كبير
من المواد العضوية التي تختبر تقدم
لمساكن التي تمثل لعلياً الأراضي
المدنية. وقبل أن يبدأ:
أن إعداد
الزجاج التكليف أحدث شائعة بشكل
فخر.

إجابة المجري
واستغرق الجعب بقله، واد جيد في
المستشفى الذي يديره ما حذى
ربت حريصًا ولا بد من أن نجليه عن
كأن هناك مكتبة صمت سكراء
حياة أو موت.

وقد اصوب أوان سكن بالأنفية من
الكرامية مما أثار وركا، كما أن
الكرامية تشكل خطراً كبيراً
والداب بناء أن تبنت الدليل العربي
نها، ولأن يفي نك الحلم ولون في
الكرام الفهمية تشتمل على كلام
الكرامية الصارمة، لأنه لا يوجد
شائعة في جهل الخطر أو
الأستمام.

هذها مشتركة
وهي الحال الحالية هناك تقلل
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عداد الأكل في مراكز مشتركة
القدم الكبير من السكان والملاك..
بينما توقفت جماعات مأهولة
ل[]
US envoy scorns Gorbachev

ARTHUR HARTMAN is saying goodbye after five years as American ambassador to Moscow. But he is not leaving on an optimistic note. In an interview with The Sunday Times last week he suggested that Mikhail Gorbachev's economic and social reforms were not going to work.

Hartman, 60, whose tenure spanned the power struggle and transition from Leonid Brezhnev to Gorbachev, said that the Soviet leader was "undoubtedly clever". But he doubted whether his reform programme would work because it was based on orthodox and "outdated" Marxist-Leninist principles.

"He sounds like a modern preacher," Hartman said. "And he's telling everybody, pull up your socks, exercise, greater discipline, do what you should have done in this country a long time ago and not down on the alcohol," he said. "Maybe even he will change his mind three or four years from now, when the managers of the enterprise come to him and say, look, you know we tried all these things and unfortunately we're falling further behind."

Hartman felt that even the new law legalising moonlighting from May 1 would have little effect since individuals would not be allowed to hire labour.

"One of the Marxist principles to save these people from being exploited was not to hire another man. It was better for them, better quality," Hartman said.

Hartman also criticised Gorbachev's perception of the West. In particular he said the Soviet leader showed an "abyssal ignorance" of the United States. "He has an orthodox marxist view of our society, that there is a very small number of people who run everything," he said.

Hartman also complained about the way he had been treated by the Russians. "As a diplomat, the Soviets treat you very much the way the Russians did before the revolution, which is to isolate you. They try to deal with private citizens. They invite individual Americans to come here, make an impression on them and then send them home."

Despite his bitter words, Hartman, the longest-serving American ambassador to Moscow since the second world war, has been more successful and skilful than most of his predecessors in winning access. He insisted that the Reagan administration break with tradition and deny the Soviet ambassador to Washington unreciprocated high-level meetings. This helped Hartman to institute regular sessions with the Soviet foreign minister.
النخبة الأوروبية في أمريكا

في تعزية لها من لويس برانديوس في موسكو قالت صحيفة "السيدي" بما أن إرث هارتنان يدفع موسكو بعد أن أمضى فيها خمس سنوات كسفير للولايات المتحدة، ولكنه لا يزال يعيش بمعدل على التنازل. فأنه في مقاطعة إنجليزية، مع الصحفة في الأسوأ، أن الصلاحية الاجتماعية والاقتصادية التي يعود بها الزعيم السوفيتي، يمتد على بيغ، بروفير. لم يتحول إلى نهج جديد ولن تغير على سياسة ماركسيتية ليتا، أي سياسة ماركسيتية. خرقها وقائة، وقال هارتنان أن جورباتشويف يعيش حالياً وهو يحاول امتصاص ماركسيتية بروكسلية. بعض من الأشخاص الذين أجريت مقابلات معهم، قالوا أن هناك مجموعة صغيرة من الأشخاص الذين تشير جميعهم.

ومن هنا، شكله، النبي Americans. "الصحفي" تأتي.

ويما، النخبة الأوروبية أيضًا من الأشرار الذي عماله في السوفييت، و."الصحفي" تأتي. ملاحظة:
A negotiating chance

In the Middle East, if Reagan will act as a supersalesman

For American presidents, the Middle East usually
comes down in the end to a question of timing: sweat
now or sweat later? It never goes away. On the sweat-
now side, moderate Arabs, led by King Fahd of Saudi
Arabia, as well as many west Europeans and some of
his own advisers, are urging President Reagan to make
a serious attempt at an Arab-Israeli settlement. On the
sweat-later side are a host of familiar and plausible-
sounding reasons why now is not the moment for a big
American peace effort.

Mr Reagan is not the first president the Middle East
has made miserable; it is hard to blame him for being
wary. In September, 1982, he put forward a peace plan
offering security for Israel and autonomy for the
Palestinians on Jordan's West Bank, which Israel
conquered in 1967. Israel rebuffed the plan and the Arabs were at best lukewarm about it. America's other big enterprise in the region was a well-intentioned but muddle-headed attempt to keep the peace in Lebanon. Faced with all this, Mr Reagan could be forgiven for deciding that, well, he already has quite enough other puzzles: arms talks with the Russians, Central America,
tax reform and budget deficits. Why choose, this mo-
ment to get back into the Middle East?

There are two reasons. First, the Arab-Israeli board
is not the stalemate it seems. Moderate Arabs may look
secure today. But without a solution to the Palestinian
problem, the fundamentalist spectre will loom larger
each year. Second, despite the catalogue of ill omens, a
harder look at the Levant reveals a few openings that
skillful play could take advantage of. A process needs to be begun which is bland enough not to unsettle Israel's present prime minister, Mr
Shimon Peres, but which gives him a negotiating chance
to exploit if his political fortunes improve. His populari-
ty has risen since he became prime minister. Under the
the Palestinians. Hassan is right when reflecting on his pessimism about Lebanon's political future: even when the night is quiet, it is 'permeated with future bombs and fires'.

But Hassan also portrays the effects of emigration on the Lebanese individual: Falah suffers greatly from loneliness, home-sickness, apathy, withdrawal (even from his uncle because the latter has adjusted to Canadian society) as well as loss of identity (as his name is changed to Nick).

Hassan sums up the experience of emigration as 'the concept of two hemispheres...right and left... east and west', thus resulting in a 'polarized consciousness'. It is precisely this dichotomy in a Lebanese immigrant that explains the title of the book, for he is 'confused' between homelands, symbolized by 'stones'—a very common image in both novellas. Even the title of the second novella, 'Intelligence', contains a polarity: it can stand for Abourezk's high level of intelligence as a neuropathologist, and the naiveté of both the Syrian and Canadian intelligence agencies.

Some relatively minor points in the book can be negatively criticized. For instance, there is too much description at the beginning of the second novella. What makes the style rather dry is that the imagery is mostly mathematical or medical, although consistent with Abourezk's profession. Moreover, it is noticeable that Hassan mentions many Lebanese villages and towns by name, but not those which are the birth-places of Falah and Abourezk's ancestors. (Is the aim to hide some autobiographical element, as Turgenev does?) In the context of names too, the use of the protagonists' last names (e.g. Abourezk) much more frequently than their first ones is unusual, particularly in the Lebanese narrative tradition. And, as far as the Western reader is concerned, at times the insufficient explanation of some transliterated Arabic, and occasionally very Lebanese, terminology (e.g. Haddad, shirwal, Sitty, argila) can be confusing.

Even more glaring are the following three examples of poor knowledge of Arabic. The first is a mistransliteration of a very common Lebanese family name Skaff as 'Escaf'. The second, the de-emphasizing of the distinguishing tendency of Arabic to use the kunya, by writing Abou Rizk, meaning the father of Rizk, as one word: 'Abourezk'. Finally, Hassan makes a major grammatical error when he writes 'ikhwan islamya': the second word should be the sound masculine plural 'muslimun'. This prompts the question: How autobiographical are the two novellas, and to which of the two protagonists is Hassan—a resident of Ottawa—closer in experience? My guess is the second, as his Arabic is poorer than the first's.

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Hikāyāt Ḥāritna is a series of loosely linked episodes, or vignettes, concerning the quarter of Cairo where the author grew up. It is hardly either a novel, as the translators style it, or a collection of short stories, as it is characterized in one of the editions of the Arabic text.

Journal of Arabic Literature, XXI
The present translation won Columbia University's 1986 Arab League Translation Award. It is, in general, not a bad translation, although it cannot be said that never gives the impression of being anything but a translation. Its style wavers uneasily between the slangy and the stilted; perhaps it is difficult to avoid this in translating Arabic fiction. Nevertheless, the rendering of some of the proverbs, aphorisms and slogans that occur does produce a cringe of embarrassment, e.g. p. 13 (Story 2):

""The smart chicken hatches and knows all the catches: straight from the shell, he starts raising hell". [al-katikut al-fashih yakhruj min al-baydah yasib]

More seriously, in addition to a number of (presumably) careless omissions, there are also rather too many actual errors in translation, some of which are really surprising in a joint effort by Arabic and English-speaking colleagues. For a combination of the two, see p. 35 (Story 22):

'Because his mother owns several houses in Birma Street …' [ummuhu armalah ghaniyyah tamlik buyut zuqiq bi-rummatih]

Not quite so bad, but bad enough, is the substitution of present tense for past, where the latter is quite clearly intended, p. 30 (Story 17):

""The groom insists on seeing a photograph"". [asarrar l-aris Cal ru'yat al-arah]

There is often simply an air of awkwardness about the translation, which reference to the original does little to dispel, e.g. p. 13 (Story 2):

'and I spy on a crow perched on the clothesline peg stuck into the wall along the roof.' [wa-arci ghuraban waqfan ali walad maghrzfr sur al-sat marbu7 bi-hi abl al-ghasfl]

One wonders if the rendering of the verb na'ad on p. 26 (Story 12) as 'eulogize' is in error for 'elegize'; this would still be wrong, as it clearly here has its normal sense of 'to announce the death of'. On p. 12 (Story 1), 'munificent' is clearly a mistake for 'magnificent' [fakhamah].

There are a considerable number of other instances that could be pointed out. It will suffice here to speculate as to what precisely the translators had in mind in their representation of the line of Sufi verse that recurs (see p. 12 (Story 1)).

'My nightingale, khoon deli khord wakuli hasel kared.'

Now, it is possible that this is intended to be the way in which the author, who does not understand Persian, would hear it, including his mistaking the -i on the first word, bulbuli, for the Arabic possessive, rather than the Persian indefinite. If this is the case, it would be useful to have an explanatory footnote. The form in which the remainder of the line appears, however, is not how the author would hear it, since it is incorrect, seems to suggest that the translators do not know what it is, and have not taken the trouble to find out. The correct form, for the record, is:
Bulbuli khūn-i dīlī khurād u-gulī ḥāzīl kārd.

(A bulbul drank the blood of a heart and acquired a rose)

This, of course, is of little importance. There is, however, considerably more carelessness, more infelicitous English and more plain error evident in the translation than there should be. It is a pity that these defects, which would certainly have been noticed in a careful final check, preferably by an independent party, should have been allowed to remain.

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Studies in the Kitāb aṣ-Ṣināʿatayn of Abū Hilāl al-ʿAskarı

George J. Kanazi

1989. (xvi, 219 p.)
ISBN 90 04 08654 4 cloth Gld. 140.—/US$ 82.35

This book deals with the theory of rhetorics and literary criticism in the Abbasid Arabic literature, as reflected in the writings of Abū Hilāl al-ʿAskarı.

al-ʿAskarı (4th Cen. A.H., 10th Cen. A.D.) was a poet, a rhetorician and a literary critic, and as such he wrote his Kitāb aṣ-Ṣināʿatayn in order to teach prospective anthologists, would-be official secretaries, poets and prose-writers, and students of literature, how to deal with literature, either as composers or as critics.

This book provides a detailed biography of al-ʿAskarı, points to the sources of his Kitāb aṣ-Ṣināʿatayn, and discusses in detail his ideas and theories concerning the issues raised. Finally, this research tries to evaluate the contribution of al-ʿAskarı to the Arabic literary theory in the 10th Cen. A.D.

This research is of great help to students of literature in general, and to students of Arabic rhetorics and literary criticism in particular.