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Theories of Translation  
and  
their Applications to the Teaching of  
English/ Arabic-Arabic/ English Translating

by

Muhammad SHAHEEN

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

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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.

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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. Text

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 1977, 1982; Reiss 1976, 1981).

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

equivalent expression in the receptor language. (1964: 68)

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 Jampelt'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)

Nida's list includes contributions from linguists such as Pottier (1970), Hjelmslev (1953), Greimas (1966), Coseriu (1970a, b), Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Nida (1952, 1964, 1969), Walmsley (1970), Scharlau (1970), Raabe (1972), Beekman and Callow (1974), Petofi (1971a, b, and 1972), and most of the articles published in Meta as representative of linguistic theories of translating.

### **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 focussing 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.i 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 pragmatics, 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 lexico-grammatical 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 historicity. 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 fujjī'a in the sentence fujjī'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.i), 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:

Country      Number of Books translated into Arabic

Jordan	22
United Arab Emirates	2
Tunisia	40
Algeria	16
Saudi Arabia	7
Sudan	9
Syria	442
Iraq	238
Oman	5
Palestine	5
Qatar	3
Kuwait	95
Lebanon	152
Libya	44
Egypt	1758
M o r o c c o	2

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2    8    4    0

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:

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

( See, for example, Al-Khoury 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 Ṭlās Publishing Company, al-Yaqazah al-‘Arabiyyah 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-Taṭbīqiyyah (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 clichés. In practice, SLT clichés should be rendered by TLT clichés; this is the case with loan-words, epigrams, and proverbs, which should be dealt with in the same way as we deal with clichés, trying as far as possible to find a close TL equivalent.

When it is difficult to find a TL equivalent of a certain SL cliché, Shuraym recommends translating literally, warning translators against changing live figures of speech into clichés 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 Kunstgattung (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 Ḥasan'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-Jāḥiẓ's clever hints in Kitāb al-Ḥayawān, al-Ṣafadi's hints reported by al-ʿĀmili in al-Kashkūl, 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 Ṣarrūf's article in al-Muqtataf entitled 'Ṭarīquna fi al-Taʿrīb'.

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-Muqtataf. Hints also appeared in Filastin's Qaḍāyā al-Fikr fi al-Adab al-Muʿāṣir. Others written by Adham, al-ʿAqqād, and Yunus appeared in the journals Qāfilat al-Zayt, al-Majmaʿ al-ʿArabī, and al-Risālah respectively. (See, for instance, Anonymous, Al-Maqāl al-Adabī 1988, no.202, 203, pp.179-188)

Ḥasan 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 Ṣarrūf's views on translating and that of al-Jāḥiẓ
- The art of translating: a comparison between Al-Jāḥiẓ 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 Qurʾān
- 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 ʿUmar Khayyām's Rubaʿiyyāt.

Though Ḥasan'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<sup>5</sup>.

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-Adabi1988: 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 ‘Ilmu 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 ‘Abd al-Ḥafēz's ‘Ilmu 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.

ʿAbd al-Ḥāfeẓ's ʿIlmu 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. Muḥammad 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.

Muḥammad 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.

Muhammad 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 Waqīʿ al-Tarjamah fi al-ʿĀlam 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 Ṣābir, 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. Sa'adeddin 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 clichés. 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 Saʿadeddīn 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. Saʿadeddīn 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. Saʿadeddīn (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 Saʿadeddīn 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 Saʿadeddīn 1987).

In that article, Saʿadeddīn 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.

Saʿadeddīn 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 Saʿadeddīn 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, Saʿadeddīn 1986: 183)

From a pedagogical point of view, Saʿadeddīn 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 Saʿadeddīn'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 Saʿadeddīn, 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 developement 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'adeddīn:

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, Saʿadeddīn 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)

Saʿadeddīn 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.' Saʿadeddīn 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 Ṭāha Ḥusain'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 chracteristics.) (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, Ḥātim (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, Ḥātim 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, Hātim 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 Hātim'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 Hātim 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 Hātim quotes to prove his case lend the least support to his argument. Tammam Ḥassān (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'adeddīn'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; Naphtine 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 addresser and the addressee in the form of gestures, signs, and intonation.

There is a disagreement among TT 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/ I 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-Jāhiz (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.I: 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

examples. (1978: 237)

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 Naphtine (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, Naphtine 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, Naphtine 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;
- general translation theory: models of translating, translatability, strategies and techniques, text linguistics, and equivalence. (Koller 1978:69-92, cited in Fawcett 1981: 144)

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), Jumpselt (1961) and Reiss (1971, 1976), where translating techniques and problems are considered according to text type. Finally, we have the approach adopted by Kloefer (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. Citroen 1966: 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

continue.(1966:143-44)

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 Naphthine (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-studies:

- 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. Naphtine (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 (Naphine 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 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

course.

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-sight 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 Citroen 1967: 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 Citroen 1967, 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 Carroll 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, Carroll 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. (Abercrombie 1955:11, cited in Gregory and Carroll 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

indeed of group of items to group of items, or structure to structure; rather it is a matter of text-to-text equivalence which involves variety and register consideration. (Gregory and Carroll 1978: p.95)

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:**

#### **a) 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 subclassifying 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.

(1969: 62)

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.

#### b) 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 Stevens (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: expository, instructional, journalistic; each of which deals with three fields: Physics, Engineering and Economics. Here there is confusion. To define instructional, expository, 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 (Lackstorm 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 Bühler'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 Bühler'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 Bühler'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 Carroll'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, I.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:

<b>B. Text type</b>		<b>A. Register</b>				
		Field	Legal	Political	Scientific	Literary
		Tenor	Frozen Formal	Semi-Formal	Formal	
		Mode	Mainly written	written to be read in a hurry	written to be read carefully	
Expository	Narrative			A News report		
	Descriptive				A report on an experiment	
	Conceptual					
Argumentative	Overt			Letters to the editor		
	Covert			Editorial		
Instructional	With option	Advertisement				
	Without option	A legal document or a treaty				

#### 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.

Asked 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 addresser 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: ويدور الجدل الاسلامي ايضا حول الاهمية النسبية للقطاعين العام والخاص في الاقتصاد الايراني  
'Is' is replaced by wayadūr = 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 الاسبوع ترددت تقارير تفيد بأن وكيل وزارة الخارجية الامريكية

لورنس ايجل بيرغر يقوم باجراء مشاوراته الاخيرة في القدس مع رئيس الوزراء الاسرائيلي اسحق شامير .

'There were reports' is replaced by taraddadat taq̄-r̄ir='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 فشلت احدى الغارات الجوية التي قامت بها اسرائيل في الصيف الماضي في ضرب كمية ضخمة من الاسلحة

الجديدة المخزنة في تلة قرب مخيم المية مية الواقع شمال مدينة صيدا

Above Sidon: al-wāqī<sup>6</sup>shamāl madīnat Saydā = 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 ان هناك معركة نهائية يتوجب على رجال عرفات خوضها قبل ان يتجرأ عرفات على العودة الى البلد التي

طرد منها بعد حصار مدينة طرابلس في عام ١٩٨٣

TL: 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 jihāz mu'ālaḡat al-kalimāt = 'an apparatus for dealing with words', which is inadequate. The English word 'computer' has, at least, three translations:

al-ḡāsib al-ālī = the mechanical calculator, al-ḡāsūb = calculator, and al-ḡāsib al-aliktrūnī the electronic calculator, beside the transliteration of the word in Arabic as al-kumbyutar.

### 3- Adjectives/ Adjective Phrases:

Adjectives need to be disambiguated, such as in the following example:

'One Israeli air raid': ihdā al-ghārāt al-jawīyyah al-latī qāmat bihā isrā'īl = 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 الحزم اعطال في المادة عالية القدرة على التوصيل  
'Super-conducting material': al-māddah 'āliyat al-qudrah 'alā l-tawṣīl = 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 اجرتها معه صحيفة الصنداي تايمز في الاسبوع الماضي ان الاصلاحات الاقتصادية والاجتماعية التي يقوم بها الزعيم السوفياتي ميخائيل جورباتشوف لن تنجح. (الشرق الاوسط)

TL:



'In an interview with': fī muqābalet ajrathā ma'ahu = 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 ان الحل السياسي هو الذي يمكن ان يؤدي الى اطلاق سراح الاجانب المفقودين لان "اي عملية عسكرية

TL: نقوم بها يمكن ان تؤدي الى موتهم"

'By us': naqūmu 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 ثلاثمائة وخمسون شخصاً يعيشون في مخيم شاتيللا في بيروت الغربية عن الطعام بصورة طوعية لكي

TL: تذهب مخصصاتهم الى المرحى والمرضعات وانضم اليهم البارحة حوالي ٥٠ شاباً و شابة

'In': ya'ishūna 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 ṭaw'īyyah = in a voluntarily manner or ṭaw'īyyatan/ ṭaw'an = 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: اننا نريد فقط التاكيد من ان شعبنا داخل المخيمات في لبنان يحظى بحماية ملائمة

'Are adequately protected': yahẓā biḥimāyah mulāʾimah = enjoy adequate protection.

Another example:

NR,T.F, L49 :Officially, the staple condemnations of resurgence of a Palestinian state within the Lebanese state are uttered here and there.

ومن الناحية الرسمية، تصدر ادانات رئيسية هنا و هناك لاعادة إحياء دولة فلسطينية ضمن الدولة

TL:

اللبنانية

'Officially': min al-nāḥiyah al-rasmiyyah = from the official point of view)

Only:

Good Arabic style favours turning 'only' into the emphatic negative lā...illā, which is more idiomatic, such as the following examples:

SS, p2,L: 'Syria had only to move towards one or the other for this balance to be upset'

TL:

أما سورية، فمما عليها إلا أن تتحرك نحو هذه أو تلك حتى تقلب الميزان

Faḡaṭ:

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

SL: 'He has only ten pounds'

TL:

معه عشر ليرات فقط

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

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

NR, T.D,L13: '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)

نتيجة لذلك شعر الملك حسين انه لا توجد إلا فائدة قليلة من قبول دعوة لزيارة الولايات المتحدة واجراء

TL: محادثات مع الرئيس ريفان

'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

لا تبهر السفن إلا تحت علم دولة واحدة، ولا تخضع إلا لولايتها في أعالي البحار إلا في الحالات الاستثنائية

#### 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: ...ضارباً عتبة الباب وممسكاً بالكأس الأخير من الجمعة

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: ...فرمى هذا عند الباب الخلفي ثم سكب لنفسه كأساً أخيرة من البيرة

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 qibal, 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)

وقد أسس جيش لبنان الجنوبي من قبل إسرائيل وهو عبارة عن ميليشيا قوامها ٢٠٠٠ مقاتل معظمهم من اللبنانيين المسيحيين، وذلك بهدف حراسة المنطقة الامنية الضيقة التي رسمتها شمال حدودها مع لبنان TL

وكانت إسرائيل قد أسست جيش لبنان الجنوبي، وهو عبارة عن ميليشيا قوامها ٢٠٠٠ مقاتل معظمهم من اللبنانيين المسيحيين، وذلك بهدف حراسة المنطقة الامنية الضيقة التي رسمتها شمال حدودها مع لبنان ALT:

NR, T.C, L68: 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)

كذلك نفى وجود مثل تلك الصلة كارل جيرشام رئيس الصندوق الخاص الذي أقيم في عام ١٩٨٣ لمساعدة القوى المناوئة للشيوعية ولتشجيع القوى الديمقراطية في مختلف أرجاء العالم. (الشرق الاوسط ١٨ . ٢ . ١٩٨٢)

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.

تم عقد اتفاقية بين الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية والاتحاد السوفياتي للتخلص من الصواريخ النووية القصيرة والمتوسطة المدى في أوروبا  
 TL1:  
 عقدت اتفاقية بين الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية والاتحاد السوفياتي للتخلص من الصواريخ النووية القصيرة والمتوسطة المدى في أوروبا  
 TL2:

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,L31: '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:

فباسم الوحدة العربية سعت كل من مصر والعراق الى فرض أنماط متنافسة على أشقاءهما من الدول العربية: TL:

An unmarked version may be the following:

فقد سعت كل من مصر والعراق، باسم الوحدة العربية، الى فرض أنماط متنافسة على أشقاءهما من الدول العربية  
TL:

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.'

أما القضية الفلسطينية لوحدها فتظل ذات شأن قليل في السياسة العربية الداخلية لهذه الفترة، اذا طرح جانباً  
TL: هم الهاشميين الدائب وتوقهم لضم سورية

An unmarked rendering of the above sentence in Arabic is the following:

ولا يبقى من السياسة العربية الداخلية في تلك الفترة إلا الشيء اليسير إذا وضعنا جانباً القضية الفلسطينية  
TL: وهم الهاشميين اللذوب ...

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 الاميركيين، تتلخص القضية في الشرق الاوسط في النهاية بسؤال يتعلق بالتوقيت: هل نتعب الان ام نتعب فيما بعد؟ ولا ينتهي السؤال أبداً (الشرق الاوسط)  
TL:

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:

١- تنفيذاً لأغراض هذه الاتفاقية

For the purposes of this Agreement

٢- إلى أن يتم جلاء القوات البريطانية عن الاردن 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.



(Halliday and Hasan 1976: 229, cited in Brown and Yule 1983: 192).

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.

فحين انقطعت الخيوط الغربية الموجهة اتخذ التوتر والقلق أهمية غير متوقعة وكذلك عندما انحسر النفوذ الغربي

ALT: ظهرت بصورة جلية المشاكل المحلية لكل من القيادة والتنظيم السياسي للأسرة العربية

Arabic legal texts exhibit the same feature, as demonstrated in the following declaration, T. J, L13:

أقر وأتعهد في حالة مخالفتي لهذا التعهد نصاً وروحاً (بأنني) ملزم بدفع راتب ستة اشهر للشركة كعطل وضرر

SL: متفق عليه سلفاً وأعتبر نفسي مسؤولاً مسؤولية كاملة تجاه الشركة في حالة اخلاقي بهذا التعهد

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 ikhlāl, 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).

لقد قيل لي ان الاميركيين سيفعلون اي شئ في طاقتهم لمنع تزويد ايران بالاسلحة ، وبالتالي (لمنع) استمرار الحرب  
TL:

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 سورية.... 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: بالاضافة الى مانسته و ادعيته لها، فإن سورية تعتبر مركز مراقبة جيد وبشكل خاص

An alternative unmarked version in Arabic is suggested:

ALT: و تعتبر سورية بالاضافة الى مانسته 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 التايمز هذا الاسبوع اشار بيريز الى نمو الحكم الذاتي في الضفة الغربية... (الشرق الاوسط)

#### 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:

إن سورية انتخبت 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 rheme 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 sensitise 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 clichés, 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: يمكن زيادة الانتاج  
 A literal translation of yumkinu ziyādat al-intāj 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'hotel est plein'  
 can be rendered into English as:  
 TL1: 'No vacancies', which can be rendered in Arabic by either lā tūjad shawāghir or kāmil al-ʿadad  
 TL: لا توجد شواغر - كامل العدد



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 Darblenet's 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 clichés, 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:

القدر ينادي الغلاية ياسوداء

القدر يعيب الغلاية بالسواد

Putting this proverbs in its cultural setting and retaining its function as admonitory, leads to the following rendering:

عيبب القدر على المغرفة قالت ياسودة يامحارفة

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 crystalise. 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:

ابن العم ، ابن الخال ، ابن العمّة ، ابن الخالة ، بنت العم ، بنت الخال ، بنت العمّة ، بنت الخالة

ibn ʿamm: father's brother's son; ibn khāl: mother's brother's son; ibn ʿammah: father's sister's son; ibn khālah: mother's sister's son; bint ʿamm: father's brother's daughter; bint khāl: mother's brother's daughter; bint ʿammah: 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 Hermeneutic 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 effective to adopt, since it provides systematic teaching stages. It is recommended because teaching depends on certain concepts, such as context and co-text. The task of the translator is to reconstruct the context of the text he wants to translate, starting with reading and understanding the text, analysing 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 environment, 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 addition to concentrating on context as a key term for understanding 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 Beaugrande 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.iii 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:

- X 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)

not same  
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 1 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.I 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.

#### 1.House's Model of Translation Quality Assessment (1976)

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, 1978, 1985) ideational and interpersonal functions are comparable to the functions used by Ogden and Richards (1946), Bühler (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.

## 2.Sager's Model of Translation Assessment (1983):

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-

Sharq al-Awsat, and al-Waṭan.

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 Samīr Fallahah and M. ʿAbdeh.

2- Journalese: 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 Raʿd ʿAbd al-Jalīl 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 meta-linguistic 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 eval-

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 unexpected importance; as western influence waned, so local problems of leadership and of the political organization of the Arab family loomed larger.

ص ١٣ فحين تقطع الحيوط الغربية الموجهة يتخذ التوتر بين الدول العربية وفي داخلها اهمية غير متوقعة إما حين يتضاءل النفوذ الغربي فان المشكلات المحلية لكل من القيادة والتنظيمات السياسية للأسرة العربية تزدادان

TL:

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-hīna. Another interpretation of 'as' is kullamā. TL renders 'organization', which is in the singular, as tanzīmāt, which is in the plural. It may be translated as tanzīm

فحين انقطعت الخيوط الغربية الموجهة اتخذ التوتر والقلق... أهمية غير متوقعة وكذلك عندما انحسر النفوذ  
 ALT: الغربي ظهرت بصورة جلية المشاكل المحلية لكل من القيادة والتنظيم السياسي للأسرة العربية

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'.

ص ١٣ وفي وسط هذه التيارات المتعارضة تقع سورية ، مرآة للمصالح المتنافسة على المستوى الدولي، مما  
 TL: يجعلها جديرة بعناية خاصة.

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 mirʔāt lil-maṣāliḥ, mirʔāt being ḥāl. 'As' in the SL means 'being'. To preserve the metaphor of the SL, it might be better to supply a verb like taʔkusu in apposition to 'mirror', which renders it more explicitly.

ALT:

تقع سورية في وسط هذه التيارات المتصارعة وهي مرآة تعكس تنافس المصالح المتنافسة على المستوى الدولي  
 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.'

ص ١٣ والحقيقة ان شؤون سورية الداخلية تبدو كأنها فاقدة المعنى تقريبا ما لم تعز الى القرينة الأوسع  
 TL: 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 ينتظر إليها في ضوء سياق أوسع

SS,p1,L26: 'There are many reasons for this view: one is the strategic position of Syria, guarding the north-eastern approaches to Egypt.'

ص ١٤ ذلك ان هنالك أسبابا تدعوني الى تبني هذه النظرة، أحدها موقع سورية الاستراتيجي، فهي تشرِف على "الممرات" الشمالية الشرقية الموصلة الى مصر

TL:

TL does not translate 'many'. It misrepresents 'approaches' with mamarrāt, which may be rendered as madākhil. It also misrepresents 'guard' with tushrif ʿalā. A better version goes like this:

ذلك أن هنالك أسبابا كثيرة تدعوا الى تبني هذه النظرة، أحدها موقع سورية الاستراتيجي، فهي تحرس المداخل

ALT:

الشمالية الشرقية المؤدية لمصر

SS, p2,L1: 'Both the generator of political ideas and the focus of countless dreams and patriotic fantasies.'

ص ١٤ وكانت منبع الافكار السياسية والمولدة لها، ومرتفع الاحلام والتصورات الوطنية التي لا تحصى: TL:

TL does not translate 'both'. It is not quite accurate, since it misrepresents 'generator' and 'focus' with manbaʿ and murtafaʿ respectively, which do not convey the sense of the SLT.

We suggest an alternative:

ALT: وكانت مولداً للافكار السياسية و مركزاً 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.'

ص ١٤ أما سورية، فما عليها الا أن تتحرك نحو هذه أو تلك حسب تقلب الميزان

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 hattā instead of ḥasb.

TL's use of the demonstratives hādhīhi and tīlka 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 تتحرك نحو هذا الطرف أو ذاك حتى تقلب الميزان

SS, p2,L17: 'Inevitably, the pattern of her internal affairs came to bear the imprint of these contesting forces.'

TL: (ص ١٤) لذلك فلا مفر من أن يحمل نسق شؤونها الداخلية، بصمات هاتين القوتين المتنافستين

The representation of 'pattern' with nasag is not quite accurate. It would perhaps be better to translate it as namat:

ALT: لذلك فلا مفر من أن يحمل نمط شؤونها الداخلية بصمات هاتين القوتين المتنافستين

SS, p2,L19: 'Syrian politicians, factions, and pressure groups of all sorts pledged themselves to one or the other camp.'

TL: وقد رهن السياسيون والزممر والجماعات المؤثرة الفعالة في سورية نفوسهم لهذا الجانب أو ذاك

TL is not quite accurate. It translates 'factions' as al-zumar. It would be better if we translated it as al-ahzāb. TL adds unnecessary information in translating 'pressure groups' as al-jamā'āt al-mu'aththirah al-fa'alah = 'effective pressure groups'. TL does not translate 'of all sorts', which may be translated as min kāffat al-intimā'āt. 'Camp' is translated as al-jānib, because the English metaphor cannot be rendered literally as al-mu'askar in this context:

ALT:

وقد رهن السياسيون والأحزاب والجماعات المؤثرة من كافة الانتماءات في سورية نفوسهم لهذا الجانب أو ذاك

SS, p2,21: 'Syria, as the prize in the contest for Arab primacy, held so central a position on the stage'.

TL: ص ١٤ لقد تمتعت سورية خلال الصراع من أجل التفوق العربي بموقع 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 tamattaʿat bi mawqīʿ is not precise. It can be translated as ihṭallat. We suggest an alternative:

ALT: لقد احتلت سورية موقعا هاما نظراً لكونها الجائزة لمن يفوز في السباق على السيادة العربية

SS, p2,L22: 'That for an Arab state to have an 'Arab policy' in the post-war years came primarily to mean for it to have a plan concerning Syria.'

ص ١٤ حتى غدت كل دولة عربية، تهدف الى "سياسة عربية" في فترة ما بعد الحرب، مضطرة الى وضع خطة تتعلق بسورية أولا

TL:

The rendering of 'to have an Arab policy' as tahduf ilā siyāsa-tin ʿarabiyyah does not fully represent the SLT. A verb like wadaʿa = 'to put' might be necessary to make the meaning clear. TL renders 'in the post-war years' as fī fatrat mā baʿda al-ḥarb. A possible alternative is:

حتى غدت كل دولة عربية تبغي وضع سياسة عربية في سنوات ما بعد الحرب أن تقوم أولا بوضع خطة تتعلق بسورية

ALT:

SS, p2,24: 'To seek to extend its influence there if nothing more or, failing that, to prevent a rival from entrenching it-self there.'

ص ١٥ فتعمل على توسيع نفوذها فيها، إذا لم ترد أكثر من ذلك، أو إذا فشلت في منع الدولة المنافسة في توطيد أقدامها هناك

TL:

TL's representation of 'failing that, to prevent a rival' with idhā fashilat fī manʿi al-dawlah al-munāfisah demonstrates that the translator has misunderstood the SLT. Another possibility is that something like dhālika might have fallen out of the text.

One technique is to get rid of the parenthesis by translating it towards the end:

فتعمل على توسيع نفوذها فيها على الأقل أو أن تمنع الدول المنافسة من توطيد أقدامها هناك إذا فشلت في تحقيق ذلك

ALT1:

Another alternative is to start with the paranthesis 'failing that'.

ALT2: وإن فشلت في تحقيق ذلك، تعمل على منع الدول المنافسة من توطيد أقدامها

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'.

ص ١٥ أما القضية الفلسطينية لوحدها فتظل ذات شأن قليل في السياسة العربية الداخلية لهذه الفترة، إذا طرح

جانبا هم الهاشميين الدائب وتوقعهم

TL: The use of ammā 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 lā illā, which is more idiomatic in Arabic:

لا يبقى من السياسة العربية الداخلية في تلك الفترة إلا الشيء اليسير إذا وضعنا جانبا القضية الفلسطينية

ALT: وهم الهاشميين الدؤوب

SS, p2,31: 'In the name of Arab unity, both Egypt and Iraq sought to impose on their fellow Arab states rival patterns of relations which had little in common save for the central role Syria was called upon to play.'

ص ١٥ فبا سم الوحدة العربية سعت كل من مصر والعراق إلى فرض أنماط متنافسة من العلاقات على زميلاتهما

الدول العربية، ولم يكن يجمع هذه العلاقات سوى سورية ذات الدور المركزي المدعوة إلى القيام به

yajmaʿhādhihi al-ʿalāqāt is grammatically incorrect. 'Little' is rendered as lam...siwā, which is more idiomatic than a literal rendering of 'little' as qalīl:

ALT: ولم يكن يجمع بين هذه العلاقات سوى الدور الرئيسي المدعوة سورية للقيام به

SS, p2,L34: '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.'

ص ١٥ وكان الصراع ذا أهمية خاصة، لأنه دفع بالمشاركين الرئيسيين إلى حوار عقائدي، لا يزال مستمرا حتى اليوم، حيث بلدت متناقضة فيه جميع منازعات الحركة الوطنية وبنيتها السياسية وانتساباتها الدولية ومناهجها الاقتصادية والاجتماعية

TL:

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 jamīʿ munāzaʿāt al-ḥarakah al-waṭaniyyah is a clear example of this. The use of fīh in TL is incorrect, as it comes after ḥaythu. 'Programmes' is rendered as manāḥij. It would perhaps be better to translate it as barāmij. The translator misrepresents 'seem at issue' with badat mutanāqidah fīh. It may be rendered as mawdūʿ al-niqāsh:

و يعتبر الصراع ذا أهمية خاصة إذ يقدم لنا المشاركين الرئيسيين في حوار ايديولوجي لا يزال مستمرا إلى وقتنا الحاضر حيث يبدو المضمون الكلي لحركة القومية العربية: بنيتها السياسية وانتساباتها الدولية وبرامجها الاقتصادية والاجتماعية موضوع النقاش

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.'

ص ١٥ إن سورية، بالإضافة إلى مانسبته وادعيتها لها لهي بوجه خاص مركز مراقبة جيد، يمكن منه رصد سياسات الدول الكبرى في المنطقة

TL:

TL is not quite accurate. It starts with the nominal sentence initiator inna. It would perhaps be better to start with tuṭabar. TL is unnecessarily repetitious, translating 'the claims I have made for her' as ilā mā nasabtuhu wa-dd aʿaytuhu lahā. It would perhaps be better to render it as al-iddiʿāʾāt al-mansūbah ilayhā.

ALT: وتعتبر سورية أيضا مركز مراقبة جيد بشكل خاص بالإضافة إلى الإدعاءات المنسوبة إليها

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.'

ص ١٥ فكما أنها مركز المنافسات بين الدول العربية فهي أيضا المحور الذي تدور حوله أعظم التحركات الدبلوماسية التي يمارسها الغرب والاتحاد السوفياتي

TL:  
TL switches from the past tense of the SL into the present fa-hiya al-mihwar al-ladhī tadūr ḥawlahu. The representation of 'set-pieces of diplomacy' with al-taḥarrukāt al-diblumāsiyyah is not quite accurate. It would perhaps be better to translate as al-munāwarāt al-diblumāsiyyah. 'Both' is not translated. 'Attempted' is rendered as yumārisuhā. It may be translated as ḥāwala al-qiyāma bihā.

فكما أنها كانت مركز المنافسات ... فكانت أيضا المحور الذي تدور حوله أفخم المناورات الدبلوماسية التي حاول كل من الغرب والاتحاد السوفياتي القيام بها

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.'

ص ١٥ فعلى حقل السياسة الداخلية السورية جرت ، المعارك الحاسمة من أجل حلف بغداد ومبدأ أيزنهاور وعزم روسيا على ضم سورية إلى منطقة النفوذ السوفييتي عام ١٩٥٧

TL:  
TL successfully renders the cleft sentence, thus producing the right focus. A better alternative might be the repetition of the subject al-mustawā, preceded by the relative pronoun huwa. 'Plane' is rendered as ḥaql. It may be translated as mustawā or ṣaḥīd. The representation of 'bid' as ʿazm is not precise. It would perhaps be better to render it as muḥāwala.

لقد كان مستوى السياسة الداخلية السورية هو المستوى الذي جرت عليه الكثير من المعارك الحاسمة بشأن حلف بغداد ومبدأ أيزنهاور ومحاولة روسيا لضم سوريا إلى منطقة النفوذ السوفياتي في ١٩٥٧ وعلى ذلك المستوى بالذات كان يتقرر نجاح تلك المعارك أو فشلها

فعلى صعيد السياسة الداخلية السورية جرت المعارك الحاسمة من أجل حلف بغداد ومبدأ أيزنهاور ومحاولة روسيا لضم سورية إلى دائرة نفوذ الاتحاد السوفياتي، وعلى ذلك المستوى غالباً كان يتقرر نجاح أو فشل تلك المعارك

SS, p.3,L13: 'This is not to say that Syria only existed as a focal point for international rivalries'

TL: ص ١٥ إن هذا لا يعني أن سورية هي فقط نقطة لقاء للمنافسات الدولية

TL renders 'only' into Arabic as fagaṭ rather than rendering it with the negative emphatic device lam...illā.

ALT ولا يعني هذا أن سورية لم تكن إلا ملتقى للمنافسات الدولية

SS, p3,L10: 'Syria's internal politics were unusually complex and her indigenous contribution to the guiding ideas of Arab politics particularly rich.'

TL فسياستها الداخلية كانت جِد معقدة، ومساهمتها المحلية في الافكار السياسية العربية الرائدة كانت غنية

TL does not translate 'unusually'. It rather represents it with the collocation jidd mu'aggaḡadah, which means 'extremely complex'. It would perhaps be better to replace it by a more euphonious version lil-ghāyah. The representation of 'her indigenous contribution to the guiding ideas' with musāhamatu-hā al-maḡaliyyah fil-afkār is not quite accurate. In order to make the above-mentioned sentence more explicit, we should supply a verb or an infinitive such as rafd. TL does not translate 'particularly'.

فكانت سياستها الداخلية معقدة للغاية كما كانت مساهمتها المحلية في رفا الافكار السياسية العربية الرائدة

ALT: غنية بشكل خاص

SS, p3,19: '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.'

ص ١٥ فالحلاف والتنافر فيها كانا يصدران احيانا إلى جيرانها الاقربين وإلى الابعدين، وهكذا ، فاننا حين

TL: نتقصى أسباب بعض الأزمات الدولية الخطيرة نجد ان الطريق يقود الى دمشق

The translator changes the present tense of the SLT into the past. TL is repetitious, translating 'discord as al-khilāf wa-l-tanāfur, where one term is sufficient. 'to her neighbours and

beyond' is rendered as ilā jārānihā al-aqrabīn wa ilā l-ab'adīn, which is not quite precise. It may be translated as ilā jārātihā wa mā warā? jārātihā. TL also misplaces ahyanan, '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 ṭarīq. It might be better translated as athar

فالحلاف فيها يصدر إلى جاراتها وإلى ما وراء جاراتها، وهكذا فإننا حين نتقصى أسباب أزمة من الازمات الدولية الخطيرة نجد أن الأثر يوصلنا الى دمشق  
ALT:

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.'

ص١ فمعظم المبادئ والتيارات السياسية في العالم العربي، ولدت فيها أو عملت فيها بوضوح خاص  
TL:

TL does not translate 'today', which can be rendered fī yaw-minā hādhā. The representation of 'could there be seen at work' with ʿamilat fīhā is not quite accurate. Rather, this might be translated as jarā tatbīquhā, and hunāk respectively. TL does not translate 'either':

ALT:

فكثير من التيارات السياسية في العالم العربي حاليا إما نشأت فيها أو جرى تطبيقها هناك بوضوح خاص

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'.

لقد كانت الهزيمة في فلسطين عام ١٩٤٨ درسا بليغا للعرب في سياسة القوة، وكان لابد ان تؤثر في جميع ما تلاها من سلوك وعدم ثقة بالقيم السابقة والعلاقات الدولية، وعلى حد سواء أيضا بالرجال الذين أقيمت عليهم



TL: تبعة النكية ومسؤولياتها

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 kāna lā budda an tu?aththir, 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 ḥaddin siwā?in ayḍan.

لقد كانت هزيمة العرب في فلسطين عام ١٩٤٨ درساً قاسياً لهم في سياسة القوة وكان لابد أن تؤثر هذه الهزيمة في جميع ما تلاها من تصرفاتهم (فكانت نتيجة هذه الهزيمة) أن أثرت خلال عشية وضحاها إلى فقدان الثقة بالقيم السابقة والعلاقات الدولية وبالرجال الذين أقيمت عليهم مسئولية الكارثة

SS, p3,L29: 'But 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.'

ولكن بروز الجيش كقوة قائمة أولى في السياسة السورية لم يفض إلى عزل جميع المدنيين المنافسين كما جرى في مصر

The TLT represents 'did not result' with lam yu?di. It would perhaps be better to translate it as lam yu?addj. It also reproduces 'in the elimination of' as ilā ‘ozl. It may be translated as ilā ib‘ād. TL does not translate 'later'.

ولكن بروز الجيش كقوة قائمة أولى في السياسة السورية لم يؤد إلى إبعاد المنافسين المدنيين كما جرى بعد ذلك في مصر

SS, p3,L31: 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.

..وهكذا فإن سورية تستطيع أن تفخر بأنها كانت برجا للأحزاب خلال الاعوام التي سبقت الوحدة مع مصر عام ١٩٥٨، وبأنها كانت غنية في الحياة السياسية

TL: The TLT is not quite accurate. It changes the past tense of the SL, 'could' into the present, yastatī. The representation of 'a constellation of parties' with burj lil-aḥzāb is not the

right collocation. It would perhaps be better to translate it as bi-kathrat aḥzābihā.

فسورية استطاعت أن تزدهو بكثرة أحزابها في السنوات التي سبقت الوحدة مع مصر في ١٩٥٨ و بغنى الحياة السياسية فيها  
ALT:

SS, p3,L34: 'The country thereby provides a working model for the study of the interaction of forces and ideas of varied political complexion.

ص١٦ وهكذا فإن سورية تطرح نموذجاً ناشطاً للدراسة تداخل القوى والافكار من مختلف الالوان السياسية  
TL: وصراعاتها

TL renders 'provides' as tatrah. It may be translated as tu-qaddim. It reproduces 'a working model' as namūdhajan nāshi-ṭan; 'interaction' as tadākhul. These might be better translated as namūdhajan 'amaliyyan and tafā'ul respectively. 'Of varied political complexion' is imprecisely rendered as min mukhtalaḥ al-alwān al-siyāsiyyah wa sirā'ātihā, which is rather tautologous. It might be translated as min aṣnāf siyā-siyyah mutanawwi'ah.

ALT: فهذا القطر، إذن، يقدم نموذجاً عملياً للدراسة تفاعل القوى والافكار من أصناف سياسية متنوعة

SS, p3,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'

ص١٦ إن انحلال الأحزاب الوطنية التقليدية قد تجلّى هنا بوضوح تام بعد الحرب ذلك أنها غدت عاجزة عن تشخيص المشكلات التي أوجدها الاستقلال، فتخطاها الزمن بعد أن استكانت اثر فوزها على الدولة المنتدبة،

TL: وخلفتها مجموعات اصغر سنا واكثر راديكالية

TL does not fully represent 'most clearly', rendering it as bi-wuḍūḥ tām = 'perfectly clear'. What the author means is that the impotence of classical parties is more clear than in other countries. This might be translated as bi-shaklin aw-ḍaḥ mimma fī ghayrihā. TL fails to render the cleft sentence,

thus producing the wrong emphasis. It misrepresents 'impotence' with inḥilāl, which may be rendered as ʿajz. The representation of 'outmoded' with takhaṭṭāḥ al-zaman deviates from the sense of the SL. 'Were ousted' is translated as khalafathā, 'succeeded by', which is not the exact equivalent of the SL word.

ففي سورية ذاتها ظهر بشكل أوضح مما في غيرها عجز الأحزاب التقليدية إذ لم تكن تلك الأحزاب تستطيع أن تشخص المشكلات التي أوجدها الاستقلال لأن فوزها على قوات الانتداب يحد ذاته جعلها قديمة الطراز فاطاحت بها مجموعات أكثر شبابا وراдикаلية  
ALT:

SS, p4, L2: 'It was Syria that elected the first communist deputy in the Arab World.'

TL : فسورية هي التي دفعت إلى المجلس النيابي بأول نائب شيوعي في العالم العربي  
The representation of 'elected' with dafaʿat 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: إن سورية هي الدولة التي انتخبت أول نائب شيوعي في العالم العربي

SS, p4, L6: 'Finally, it was Syria that was to make the greatest single contribution of the period...'

TL: ص ١٧ وأخيرا إنها هي التي قدمت أكبر مساهمة في هذه الفترة للفكر السياسي العربي  
The reference, here, is unclear. There is a need to repeat Sūriyyah. The deictic 'of the period' translated as fī hādhihi is not quite accurate. It may be translated as tilk.

ALT: وأخيرا إن سورية هي التي قدمت المساهمة العظمى الفريدة في تلك الفترة

SS, p4, L5: 'The slogan of neutralism was heard there long before Egypt took up the cry'

TL: ص ١٦ إن شعار الحياد قد سمع فيها قبل أن ترفع مصر هذا الصوت

The representation of 'there' with fihā is not quite precise. It would perhaps be better to translate it as hunāk. TL does not

translate 'long'. 'Took up the cry' is rendered as tarfa' al-sawt. It could be translated as tatabannā= 'adopted'.

ALT: وقد سمع شعار الحياذ هناك قبل أن تتبناه مصر بمدة طويلة

SS, p4: 'That many Arabs share a common language and religion, common culture-patterns, institutions, historical memories and national aspirations has long been accepted.'

ص ١٧ لقد سلم، منذ زمن طويل، بأن كثيرا من العرب يشتركون في لغة واحدة ودين واحد، ونماذج ثقافية،

TL: ومعاهد وذكريات تاريخية كلها مشتركة

TL is not quite precise. The representation of 'patterns' with namādhij is not quite appropriate in this context. It would perhaps be better to translate it as anmāṭ. TL represents 'institutions' with ma'āhid. It may be rendered as mu'assasāt. TL leaves out 'national aspiration' all together.

لقد اعتبر من المسلمات بأن كثيرا من العرب يشتركون في لغة واحدة ودين واحد ونماذج ثقافية مشتركة

TL: ومؤسسات مشتركة وذكريات تاريخية مشتركة وتطلعات قومية مشتركة

SS, p4,L11: 'But these factors by themselves did not transform the drive for Arab unity into an effective force in modern politics.'

ص ١٧ ولكن هذه العوامل جميعها لم تحول بذاتها المسيرة نحو الوحدة العربية إلى قوة مؤثرة في السياسة

TL: المعاصرة

TL's representation of 'the drive' with al-masīrah does not reproduce the sense of the SL. It would perhaps be better to translate it as al-dāfi'.

ALT:

غير أن هذه العوامل بحد ذاتها لم تحول الدافع في سبيل الوحدة العربية إلى قوة فعالة في السياسة الحديثة

SS, p4,L14: 'It was the Ba'ath, a political movement of Syrian origin, which was to forge this notion into a powerful political instrument.'

ص ١٧ لكن البعث الحركة السياسية ذات المنشأ السوري، هو الذي صهر هذه الفكرة وحولها إلى أداة سياسية

TL: قوية.

TL adds unnecessary information in rendering 'forge this notion' as ṣahara hādhihi al-fikrah wa ḥawwalahā.

ALT: لكن البعث، الحركة السياسية سورية الاصل، 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: ص١٧فانحن، بالتحالف مع عبد الناصر، تنفيذ الوحدة السورية المصرية

TL is awkward, in giving two words with the same sense: an-jaza and tanfīdh for 'bring about'.

ALT: فعمل 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 للدولة أو زعيم أو حزب أن يدعي أنه بطلها المطلق

TL's representation of 'exclusive' with mutlaq does not produce the meaning of the SLT. It would perhaps be better to render it as munfaridan bi-stithnā? al-ākharīn.

ALT: وليس لأية دولة أو أي حاكم أو حزب حق الادعاء ببطولتها منفردا باستثناء 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-Nahḥas.'

ص٣٩ وقد تبنت مصر القومية العربية سياسة رسمية عام ١٩٤٠ بدافع قناعتها العميقة الذي يقل أهمية

TL: عن دافع العداء الشخصي المستحكم بين الملك فاروق ومصطفى النحاس

TL does not translate 'but'. The representation of 'became' with tabanna is more interpretative than literal. It adds unnecessary information in al-mustahkim.

غير أنه عندما أصبحت القومية العربية سياسة مصر الرسمية في أوائل ١٩٤٠ تبنتها مصر ليس بدافع

ALT: قناعتها الراسخة بها بل أكثر منه 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 Naḥḥas a means of bolstering his position in the face of Farūq's hostility.'

ص ٣٩ وبدا للنحاس آنئذ ان التأييد المطلق للقضية العربية ومحاولة الوصول إلى لقب زعيم العرب من الوسائل التي تدعم مركزه في وجه أعداء فاروق

TL:

TL's representation of 'wholehearted espousal' with al-taʿyīd al-muṭlaq is not quite accurate. It would perhaps be better to render it as al-taʿyīd al-mukhlis. TL's representation of 'in the face of Farūq's hostility' with fī wajhi ʿdāʾ Fārūq so far deviates from the sense of the SLT as to produce the opposite meaning of that intended by the SLT.

وبدا للنحاس آنئذ ان التأييد المخلص لقضية القومية العربية ومحاولته الحصول على لقب زعيم العرب هما من الوسائل التي تدعم مركزه في وجه عدوانية فاروق

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.'

ص ٧٧ وذكر أنه بحث عام ١٩٤٦ مع رئيس الوزراء السوري الراحل المرحوم سعد الله الجابري إمكانية تعاون

سري-عراقي (كذا)

TL:

TL is repetitious in translating 'late' by two Arabic words: rāḥil and marḥūm. The representation of 'the possibility of close Iraqi-Syrian cooperation' with imkāniyyat taʿāwun is not explicit enough. It might be better to make it more explicit, by adding qiyām.

ALT:

وذكر أنه بحث عام ١٩٤٦ مع رئيس الوزراء السوري الراحل سعد الله الجابري إمكانية قيام تعاون سوري

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.'

ص ٨٢ وفي الاجتماع الذي تم بين الوفدين بالملابس الرسمية (كان نوري يرتدي بزة لواء (جنرال) ويتمنطق بحزام

TL: مسدس) نزعَتْ لهجة نوري السعيد لأن تبلى لهجة النصير الحامي

TL's representation of 'Nuri's tone tended to be patronizing' as lahjat al-naṣīr al-ḥāmī is not quite accurate. It may be translated as mālat lahjat Nūrī ilā al-taʿālī.

وفي الاجتماع الذي عقد بين الوفدين السوري و العراقي بالملابس الرسمية (كان نوري يرتدي بزة جنرال) مالت

ALT: لهجة نوري إلى التعالي

SS, p55,L6: 'He wished to assure Zaʿim that in the event of a Zionist attack he could count on Iraqi help.'

TL:

وهو يرغب في طمأنة الزعيم والتأكيد له انه يستطيع الاعتماد على المساعدة العراقية في حال هجوم صهيوني

TL is redundant to use ṭamʾanat wa taʾkīd for 'assure'.

ALT:

وقد أراد أن يطمئن الزعيم بأنه يستطيع الاعتماد على المساعدات العراقية في حال وقوع هجوم صهيوني

SS, p55,L7: 'But, he soon added, if Zaʿim's aims were wider in scope than the receipt of military aid, Iraq wished to know in which direction this would lead them.'

ص ٨٢ و لكنه أضاف فورا إذا كانت أهداف الزعيم ومآربه أوسع في مداها من مجرد تلقي العون العسكري

TL: فالعراق يود معرفة الوجهة التي سيقوده إليها ذلك

TL is redundant to render 'Zaʿim's aims' as ahdāf al-zaʿīm wa maʿāribuh, though it is not uncommon in Arabic to use doublets. It also adds mujarrad. It causes ambiguity by using vague deictics. The representation of 'in which direction this would lead them' with al-wujhah al-latī sayaqūduhu ilayhā dhālik is misleading and unclear.

لكنه أضاف فورا إذا كانت أهداف الزعيم أوسع مجالا من تلقي المساعدات العسكرية فإن العراق يرغب ان يعرف

ALT: في اية وجهة سيقودهم ذلك

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.'

ص ٨٢ ثم ابتداء نوري السعيد بحثه النظري فقال: إن العالم يتغير سريعا، وهم يدنون من زمن قد يتم فيه عقد ميثاق دفاع يشمل جميع أقطار الشرق الاوسط أو معظمها لا اتفاقية بين قطرين فقط  
TL:

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 yuhṭama. TL misrepresents 'not just..but' with lā.. faqaṭ. It may be translated as lā... faḥasb.. ba.

ALT:

ثم ابتداء نوري بموضوعه النظري المفضل فقال: إن العالم يتغير بسرعة وأن الناس يدنون من زمن قد يحتمل فيه عقد حلف دفاعي يضم معظم أقطار الشرق الاوسط إن لم نقل جميعها لا اتفاقية ثنائية بين قطرين فحسب

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'im away from the Hashimites.'

ص ٨٣ وفي اليوم التالي وصل عزام باشا ، الامين العام للجامعة العربية، وأبغض الناس لبغداد، إلى دمشق  
لتكامل ابعاد الزعيم عن الهاشميين  
TL:

TL is not quite accurate. It renders 'Iraq's bête noire' as ab-ghad al- nās li- Baghdād. It could be translated as abghad al-nās li-al-<sup>l</sup>Irāq. It also mistranslates 'flew' as waṣala. It may be translated as tāra.

وفي اليوم التالي طار إلى دمشق عزام باشا، الامين العام للجامعة الدول العربية وهو أبغض الناس إلى العراق  
لاكمال ابعاد الزعيم عن الهاشميين  
ALT:

SS,p56,L17: 'Arm in arm, the king and the colonel toured the royal plantations before an Egyptian Spitfire escort started Za'im on his return flight.'

ص ٨٣ ثم طاف الاثنان، الملك والزعيم، بالمزارع الملكية يدا بيد، وحين طار الزعيم عائدا إلى سورية رافقته للحماية طائرات مصرية من طراز سببفاير  
TL:

TL gives additional unnecessary information in al-ithnān. It changes the SLT's syntactic structure.

ثم زار الملك والزعيم المزارع الملكية يدا بيد قبل أن تقوم طائرات مصرية من طراز سبببفاير بمرافقة الزعيم في



ALT:

بداية رحلة العودة

SS, p.56,L14: 'The king was lavish and open-handed as Nuri had been darkly circumspect.'

TL:

ص ٨٣ وكان الملك سخيا باسطا يده على خلاف نوري السعيد غامض الحذر مبهم

The representation of 'as' with 'alā khilāf is not quite precise. It would perhaps be better to translate it as baynama. 'Darkly circumspect' is translated as ghāmida al-ḥadhar mub-hamuh, which adds more information. It may be translated as shadīd al- ḥadhar.

ALT:

وكان الملك سخيا باسطا يديه بينما كان نوري شديد الحذر

SS,57,L23: 'One myth which the Iraqi-Syrian exchanges explode- but which is widely believed to this day in the Middle East- is that Nuri, and his British allies, toiled sleeplessly for union with Syria.'

ص ٨٥ وهناك اسطورة أثارها الحملات السورية العراقية المتبادلة ويؤمن بها حتى الآن في الشرق الاوسط على

نطاق واسع، وهي أن نوري السعيد و حلفاءه قد عملوا دون كلل لاقامة وحدة مع سورية

TL:

TL is not quite precise. The representation of 'exchanges' as ḥamalāt does not give the full sense of SL. It may be translated into Arabic as murāsālāt. The representation of 'explode' with athārathā deviates from the sense of SL. It may be translated as tukadhdhibuhā. It also leaves 'British' out of the translation. TL translates 'union' as wahdah. It would perhaps be better to translate it as ittiḥād. The representation of 'toiled sleeplessly' with 'amila dūna kalāl is not quite precise. The collocation is 'amila dūna kalāl aw malāl.

ALT:

وهناك اسطورة تكذبها المراسلات بين سورية والعراق رغم أنها مايزال يعتقد بها على نطاق واسع في الشرق

الاطوسط وهي أن نوري السعيد و حلفاءه البريطانيين قد عملوا دون كلل أو ملل لقيام اتحاد مع سورية

SS, p57,L25: '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'

ولكن مادون عن الفترة ليدل أن نوري السعيد، وقد واجه وضع كان عامل السرعة فيه قد ينتج دمجاً، أخذ  
 يتحامل على نفسه بينما لم تحضه بريطانيا على عمل شيء،  
 TL:

This is an interpretative reading of the SL. The representation of 'the record shows' with walākin mā duwwina 'an al-fatrah layadullu. TL adds Walākin. It would perhaps be better to translate it as tuzhiru al-sijillāt. Al-fatrah is also added. TL fails to reproduce the idiomatic expression 'dragged his feet', translating it as akhadha yatahāmal 'alā nafsih, which is a mere misinterpretation. It may be translated as taṣarrafa bi-but?='he acted slowly'. The rendering of 'did nothing to encourage him' as tahudduhu 'alā 'amal shay?in is not quite accurate. It may be translated as lam taqum bi-?ayyi shay?in li-tashjīh.

وتظهر السجلات أن نوري السعيد واجه وضعاً قد يؤدي العمل السريع فيه إلى تحقيق دمج مع سورية غير أنه  
 تصرف ببطء، ولم تقم بريطانيا بأي شيء، لتشجيعه  
 ALT:

SS, p67,L22: 'Sa'ada'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.'

ص ٩٨ قد يستبعد التحديد الجغرافي لسعادة كمثال على ذلك الافتتان غير الناضج بالأفكار العامة التي  
 يتميز بها المفكرون الشباب في بلاد بعيدة عن مراكز الحضارة. إن علمه المزعوم هذا لا يمكن أن يقيم عدة  
 تحولات ولقد قرأ قلة من أفراد حزبه كتابه الطويل والغامض جداً  
 TL:

The representation of 'Sa'ada's geographical determinism' with al-tahdīd al-jughrāfī li-Sa'adah is vague. TL may be clarified by inserting al-ladhī nādā bihi Sa'adah. The rendering of 'converts' by tahawwulāt 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 atbā' = 'followers'. TL translates 'few' as qillah, instead of using the stylistically desirable māillā.

وقد نستبعد المحتمية الجغرافية التي نادى بها سعادة كمثل على الافتتان غير الناضج بالأفكار العامة التي يتميز بها المفكرون الشباب في البلدان البعيدة عن مراكز الحضارة. فعلمه المزعوم ما كان ليجمع الا قليل من الاتباع ولم يقرأ كتابه الطويل الغامض إلا عددا قليلا من أعضاء حزبه  
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.'

ص ٩٨ ولكنه اعتمد على التنظيم أكثر من اعتماده على الحجة، وما كان يلفت الانتباه هو لهجة الشباب والنظام الصارم والمفهوم الفاشستي لدور القائد و الفرضية البسيطة بأن سورية الطبيعية كانت أمة عظيمة لعبت دورا عظيما في التاريخ  
TL:

The representation of 'accent' as lahjah is a clear indication of the translator's literal-mindedness. He produces a distorted translation. 'Accent' may be translated as tar-kīz = 'emphasis'.

ولكنه اعتمد على التنظيم أكثر من اعتماده على الحجة والذي كان يلفت الانتباه هو التركيز على الشباب و النظام الصارم والمفهوم الفاشستي لدور القائد والفرضية البسيطة بأن سورية الطبيعية كانت أمة عظيمة لعبت دورا عظيما في التاريخ، وستلعب ذلك الدور مرة أخرى  
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.'

ص ٩٩ وكانت أيضا حركة يمينية متطرفة تبشر بفلسفة نظام شريرة تتناقض و مصالح المستخدمين و المستخدمين مستهينة وعن قصد بحقوق الطبقة العاملة متعللة بأن معالجتها سوف يؤدي الى الفوضى  
TL:

TL adds extra information with aydan. The representation of 'to acknowledge' with mu'ālajatiḥā is quite inaccurate. It would perhaps be better translated as al-i'tirāf biḥā.

وكانت أيضا حركة يمينية مغالية تبشر بفلسفة نظام مشؤوم وهي تركيب من مصالح المستخدمين و المستخدمين  
و تستخف عن قصد بحقوق الطبقة العاملة متذرة بان الاعتراف بها من شأنه أن يؤدي الى الفوضى: 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.'

ص. ١٠٠ فيما بعد استعطف المندوب السامي لاقامة الوحدة السورية-اللبنانية وهذا ما أدى إلى تنكيل بالحزب  
جديد قبل من السلطات الحاكمة  
TL:

TL is ambiguous because it does not start with the subject 'Sa'ādah'. The representation of 'led to renewed repression of the party' with wa hādhā mā addā ilā tankīl bi-lḥizb jadīd is awkward. qibal min may be a printing mistake of 'min qibal'='by'. It is preferable to translate the English passive into the active in Arabic, especially when the agent is introduced with 'by'.

فيما بعد ارسل سعادة بعريضة للمندوب السامي يلتزمه بشأن إقامة وحدة سورية لبنانية مما حدى السلطات  
الحاكمة إلى استئناف التنكيل بالحزب  
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.'

ووقف أيضا يطالب بالغاء الاقطاع و القيام بتنظيم الاقتصاد الوطني على أساس القدرة على الانتاج ولكنه  
عارض قيام الاتحادات التجارية و فكرة الصراع الطبقي  
TL:

TL renders 'stood for' as waqafa yuṭālib, which is not quite accurate. It may be translated as nādā bi. TL adds unnecessary information like aydan. It also adds qiyām and qudrah.

The representation of 'trade unions' with al-ittihādāt al-tijāriyyah is a literal translation which does not reproduce the SLT's sense. It may be translated as ittihād niqābāt al-‘ummāl.

وقد نادى الحزب بالغاء الاقطاع و بتنظيم الاقتصاد الوطني على أساس الانتاج ولكنه عارض قيام اتحاد نقابات العمال وفكرة الصراع  
ALT:

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.'

ص ٩٩ وقد وجدها "الوطنيون اللبنانيون"، واسعة جدا لا كما وجدها القوميون العرب ضيقة جدا، أما بالنسبة للانتداب فقد وجد أنها تمثل تهديدا منظما لسلطته، ووجدوا آخرون تشبه كثيرا الفاشية الاوربية  
TL:

TL does not make the referent of ha clear. It does not translate 'views', which may be rendered as ārāʾ?. 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 baynamā.

وقد وجد الوطنيون اللبنانيون آراء الحزب واسعة جدا بينما وجدها القوميون العرب ضيقة جدا، وشكلت بالنسبة لقوات الانتداب تهديدا منظما لسلطاتها كما وجدها آخرون تشبه إلى حد كبير الفاشية الاوربية  
ALT:

SS, p69,L32: 'Sa'ada's growing power and militancy were causing the government concern and it is possible, as the PPS alleges, that the authorities deliberately incited the Phalanges to launch an armed attack on their newspaper offices to destroy Sa'ada'.

ص. ١٠١-١٠٢ وكانت في قوة سعادة المتزايدة واستعداداته العسكرية داعيا لاهتمام الحكومة، ومن المحتمل أن السلطات، وكما يدعي الحزب القومي السوري، قد دفعت عن قصد الكتائب لتشن هجوما مسلحا على مكاتب

صفحه و نشراته المطبوعة في محاولة لتدمير سعادة  
TL:

TL's representation of 'militancy' with isti'dādātihi al-‘askariyyah is inadequate. 'Militancy' may be translated as naẓ‘ātihi li-l-qitāʾ. It also adds nasharātihi al-matbū‘ah= 'his

published tracts'.

وكانت في قوة سعادة المتعاطفة ونزعته للقتال داعيا لاهتمام الحكومة، ومن المحتمل، أن تكون السلطات الحاكمة، وكما يدعي الحزب القومي السوري، قد دفعت الكتاب عن قصد لشن هجوم على مكاتب صحفه في محاولة لتدمير سعادة  
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'

ص ٨٤ لقد أتى أقرب مايكون تعبيراً عن إدانة الرأي العام السوري للوضع بقدر ماسمح به فقر الفكر السياسي السوري  
TL:

TL renders 'judgement' as idānah. It may be translated as ḥukm. It also adds al-sūri.

لقد أتى أقرب مايكون إلى التعبير عن حكم الشعب على وضع بالقدر الذي سمح به فقر الفكر السياسي السوري ومؤسساته  
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: ص ٧ مع حلول الظلام، أقفل السيد جونز حظيرة الدجاج

TL2: ص ٨ أقفل السيد جونز، صاحب المزرعة، 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:

استعدادا لحلول 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/قن الدجاج

The second translation gives a better rendering than the first, with one further qualification ; that the order

السيد جونز، صاحب المزرعة

would perhaps be better reversed.

AF, p5,L2: 'But was too drunk to remember to shut the pop-holes.'

TL1: ص ٧ غير أنه كان مخمورا إلى درجة لم يتذكر معها أن يغلق جميع الفتحات

TL2: لكنه كان شديد السكر حتى أنه نسي إقفال الابواب

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 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 تأرجع مصباحه إلى اليمين والشمال، خطى بخطوات غير متوازنة

TL2: وعاد مترنحا... وقنديله يتمايل 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 تتراقص من جنب إلى آخر

TL1: ص خطى بخطوات غير متوازنة

TL2: ص 8 وعاد مترنحا 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 'āda and its indication of the direction of the lurching, unspecified in the SL.

ALT: ترنح عبر الفناء

AF, p5,L5: kicking off his boots at the back door, drew himself



a last glass of beer from the barrel in the scullery.

TL1: ضارباً عتبة الباب و محسكاً بالكأس الأخير من الجعة الذي تناوله من فوق البرميل.  
وعاد مترنحاً عبر الساحة وقنديله يتمايل معه من جنب إلى جنب فرمى حذاءه عند الباب الخلفي، وأخذ كأساً

TL2 : أخيرة من البيرة من برميل في غرفة الغسيل و حفظ الأطباق

TL1 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 وحفظ الأطباق .

A better rendering of the final section may go like this:

ALT: ثم سكب لنفسه كأساً أخيرة من البيرة من برميل في المطبخ

AF,p5,L8: 'Where Mrs Jones was already snoring.'

TL1: ص السيدة جونز تغط في نوم عميق وصوت شخيرها مسموع من مسافة بعيدة

TL2: ص ٨ حيث كانت السيدة جونز مستغرقة 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'

حركة وجلبة

TL1:

TL2: الرفرفة 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: حركة و روفرة

AF, p5,L11: 'word had gone round during the day.'

TL1: ص ٧ فقد اتفق ومنذ الصباح

TL2: ص ٨ فقد سرى كلام في المزرعة

An alternative for sarā may be suggested, because the primary meaning of this word is to 'walk by night'. To avoid ambiguity, we suggest a clause like taraddadat ishāʿatun:

ALT: ترددت إشاعة خلال النهار

SL: ' Old Major '

TL1: الرائد العجوز

TL2: الميجور العجوز

TL2 gives a better version.

AF, p5,L12: 'The prize Middle White boar.'

TL1: ص ٧ الخنزير الأبيض السمين

TL2: ص ٨ الخنزير الأبيض المتوسط صاحب الجائزة

TL1 gives an inaccurate rendering of the SL. The representation of 'prize' with samīn may denote that the translator does not understand the meaning of the word in this context, and is trying to disguise his misunderstanding. Alternatively, it may be a misspelling of thamīn = 'valuable' or 'precious'. In either case, it is not the term required here.

The use of ṣāhib in TL2 is vague, as it could also mean the

person who offers or owns the prize. We therefore suggest the following alternative:

ALT: الخنزير الحائز على الجائزة من النوع الابيض المتوسط

AF, p5,L16: 'As soon as Mr Jones was safely out of the way.

TL1 is an interpretative reading of the SL.'

TL1: ص٧ حالما يخلد السيد جونز الى النوم

TL2: ص٨ 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: ص٧ كما كان يدعى دائما يرغب في تسمية نفسه بهذا الاسم

TL2: ص٨ (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: ص٧ جلس الرائد على حشوة من القش في زاوية مخزن الحبوب تحت المصباح مباشرة

ص. ١. في أحد أطراف مخزن الحبوب الكبير وعلى منصة مرتفعة ارتقى ميجور سريره المصنوع من القش، تحت  
 قنديل تدلى من عارضة خشبية  
 TL2:

TL1's representation of 'at one end of the barn' with fī zāwiyat makhzan al-ḥubūb and the representation of 'under a lantern which hung from a beam' with taḥta al-miṣbāḥ mubāsharatan 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 makhzan 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: كان يبلغ من العمر اثني عشر عاما وقد بدا مترهلا

TL2: كان في الثانية عشرة من عمره وقد راح مؤخرا يفقد بعضا من قوته

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: كان في الثانية عشرة من عمره وقد بدن مؤخرا

AF, p5,L26: 'But he was still a majestic-looking pig, with a wise and benevolent appearance in spite of the fact that his tusches had never been cut.'

TL1:

لكنه ما يزال محتفظا باللامح الملكية للخنزير مع مظاهر الحكمة و الكرم وإنيا به التي لم تقطع ابدا

ص. ١. لكنه ما زال يحافظ على جلال شكله كخنزير، بالإضافة الى مظهره الحكيم الطيب، رغم أن نابيه لم

TL2: يقطعا بعد

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-idāfati ilā, a far better interpretation of this subordinator. We suggest the following:

ALT1: لكنه مازال جليلاً حكيماً كريم المظهر رغم أن نابيه لم يقطعا ابدا

ALT2: ذا مظهر حكيم كريم

ANF, p6, L3: 'The other animals began to arrive and make themselves comfortable after their different fashions.'

TL1 ص٧ بدأت الحيوانات الاخرى بالتقاطر والجلوس في مخزن الحبوب بملابسها المختلفة  
ص٨ لم تمض فترة طويلة حتى بدأت الحيوانات بالوصول واخذت امكنة مناسبة لها ، كل حسب طريقته

TL2: 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: ص٨ دعونا نواجه هذا السؤال

TL2: ص١٦ 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 slaughtered with hideous cruelty.'

ص ٨ أن حياتنا بائسة متعبة، قصيرة، نولد ونطعم جيدا للحفاظ على صحتنا ومن كان قويا يجبر على العمل

حتى آخر رمق، وفجأة فإن فائدتنا تنتهي ونساق الى المسالك حيث نقتل بكل قسوة

ص ١٦ إن حياتنا تعسة، تتطلب منا الجهد وهي قصيرة نأت الى الحياة ولا ننال من الطعام سوى ما يسد

رمقنا، فنعمل من أجله حتى آخر ذرة من قوتنا، وحين تنتهي الحاجة اليها، نذبح بقسوة شنيعة

TL1 preserves the parallelism of the SL. It does not reproduce 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 translated.

There is a case of implicit connectivity in English. This may perhaps be explicitly rendered in Arabic. Leaving the connector out weakens the Arabic text. Qawī does not exactly form an equivalent of 'capable of'. In this context, a verb derived from the same Arabic root qawiyā may give that sense.

ALT: ومن قوي على العمل منا أجبر عليه

TL1 gives an awkward rendering of the English prepositional phrase 'at the very instant that' as fajʔah which is not quite accurate. The representation of 'we are slaughtered' with nusāq ilā al-masālikh is not precise. TL2 provides us with a better way of retaining the sense of SL. It renders faithfully the adverbial as wa hīna tantahī. A second alternative using the construction mā kāda.....hatta is suggested:

ALT: وما تكاد قدرتنا على العمل أن تنفذ حتى

AF, p8,L15: 'No animal in England knows the meaning of happiness or leisure.'

TL1: ص٨ لا يوجد حيوان في انكلترا يعرف معنى السعادة او المرح  
 TL2: ص١٦ ليس هناك حيوان في انكلترا يعرف معنى السعادة او الراحة  
 TL1 renders 'leisure' imprecisely as al-marāḥ, 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: ص٨ ان حياة الحيوان مزرية وهي عبارة عن عبودية  
 TL2: ص١٦ ان حياة الحيوان رق وعبودية  
 TL1 is not quite accurate, as it adds wa hiya 'ibārah 'an. TL2 is redundant in using riqq wa 'ubūdiyyah, which means the same.  
 ALT: ان حياة الحيوان بؤس وعبودية

AF: 'That is the plain truth.'

TL1: ص٨ هذه هي الحقيقة العارية  
 TL2: هذه هي الحقيقة بأم عينها  
 TL1 misrepresents 'the plain truth' with al-ḥaqīqah al-'āriyah, 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: ص٨ ولكن هل هذه الوضعية وبساطة شديدة هي جزء من قانون الطبيعة ( كذا )  
 TL2: ص١٦ لكن هل هذا بالفعل هو جزء من نظام الطبيعة؟  
 TL1 adds al-waḥḍiyyah to provide for the exophoric reference 'this'. TL2 gives a better translation, though the use of bi-l-ḥi for 'simply' is not correct. Instead, TL1's bi-baṣāṭah 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?'

ص٨ هل السبب يكمن في ان الارض التي نعيش عليها مجذبة فقيرة ؟ هل لانها غير قادرة على توفير حياة كريمة لأولئك الذين يعيشون عليها؟  
 TL1:

TL2: ص١٦ وهل الأمر كذلك لأن أرضنا فقيرة جدا ولا تستطيع منح الحياة اللائقة للذين يسكنون فيها  
 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: الجواب لا والف لا بالتأكيد أيها الرفاق

TL2: ص١٦ كلا أيها الرفاق، والف كلا

TL1 adds unnecessary information such as bi-tta?kīd ='certainly'. TL2 gives a better alternative.

AF, p8,L23: 'Its climate is good'

ص٨ طقسها مثالي

TL1:

TL2: مناخها جيد

TL1 deviates from the sense of the SL. It misrepresents 'good' with mithālī='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: وهي قادرة على توفير حياة كريمة لاعداد كبيرة من الحيوانات وأكثر مما هو موجود حاليا

TL2: وبمقدورها منح الطعام الوفير لعدد اكبر من الحيوانات التي تقطنها

TL1 is ambiguous in the use of mimmā and the referent is not clear. It also gives imprecise equivalents of the SL words. 'Food in abundance' is misrepresented as ḥayāt karīmah. 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.

ص ٨ ان هذه المزرعة التي نعيش فيها على سبيل المثال يمكنها ان تتحمل أعدادا كبيرة من الخيول و عشرين بقرة و مئات الخراف جميعهم يمكنهم ان يعيشوا بشكل جيد ومريح و بكرامة. تلك التي نحلم بها. TL1:

ص ١٦ فمزرعتنا هذه تستطيع بمفردها إعالة إثني عشرة جوادا وعشرين بقرة، و المئات من الأغنام- فتنعم جميعها بحياة من الراحة والكرامة مايفوق الخيال TL2:

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 aḥdād kabīrah min al-khuyūl, 'a great number of horses'. It adds bi-shaklin jayyid= 'well', 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?.'

ص ٨ عليه لماذا نستمر في هذه الوضعية المزرية؟ TL1:

ص ١٦ لماذا اذا الاستمرار في هذه الحياة التعيسة TL2:

TL1 misrepresents 'why then' as ʿalayhi. It also gives the wrong word for 'condition' rendering it as wadʿiyyah. Wadʿ 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'.

ص ٨ لسبب ان معظم عملنا وانتاجنا يسرق منا من قبل الانسان (كذا) TL1:

ص ١٨ والسبب في ذلك هو ان بني البشر يسرقون جميع منتوج جهودنا تقريبا TL2:

TL1 does not translate 'nearly'. It renders 'the whole' as muḥẓam. Taqrībān may be used. TL1's representation of 'the

whole of the produce of our labour' with muḥamamalinā wa intājinā is quite inaccurate. It reproduces 'stolen from us by' as yusraf minnā min qibāl.

TL2 provides a better translation of the SL.

AF, p9,L2: 'It is summed up in a single word: man.'

TL1: ان المشكلة اذن تكمن في الانسان

TL2: ص ١٨ وهو ما يمكن تلخيصه بكلمة واحدة- الانسان

TL1 is an interpretative reading of the SL. It misrepresents 'summed up' with takmun. 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 ٨ الا نسان هو عدونا الحقيقي -

TL2: ص ١٨ الانسان هو عدونا الحقيقي الوحيد

TL1 leaves the word 'only' out. TL2 is a full translation of SL. hunger and overwork is abolished forever.'

TL1: ابعادوا الانسان من الصورة، تقضون على الجوع إلى الابد

TL2: ص ١٨ ابعادوا الانسان 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-ṣūrah 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 clichés 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 أريض فيه، المرأ 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 ان الناس يأتون الى المستشفى كل يوم يتوسلون للحصول على فئات 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) تشير سجلات الكمبيوتر الخاصة بالبيت الابيض التي حصلت عليها لجنة تاوار التي تحقق في فضيحة الاسلحة الامريكية لايران الى ان كبار المسؤولين في ادارة الرئيس ريجان كانوا متورطين بشكل اكبر كثيرا في الفضيحة مما كان معروفا حتى الآن.  
TL:

NR,T.A,L22: 'King Hassan of Morocco built his barrier of sand and rubble to prevent the Polisario from attacking his soldiers and garrison towns.'

وكان الملك الحسن ملك المغرب قد بنى هذا الحاجز من الرمال ليمنع البوليساريو من مهاجمة جنوده وحامياته العسكرية  
TL:

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-murāsīl= 'the reporter', though it is unlikely that the reader will confuse the reporter with anybody else.

NR, T.D, L66: 'King Hussain said he had spoken frankly to President Assad of Syria...' (The Financial Times February 18 1987)

TL: وقال العاهل الاردني انه تحدث "بصراحة جدا جدا" مع الرئيس حافظ الاسد

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.'

ص ١٥ إن سورية، بالإضافة إلى ما نسبته وادعيته لها لهي بوجه خاص مركز مراقبة جيد، يمكن منه رصد سياسات الدول الكبرى في المنطقة  
TL:

TL is unnecessarily repetitious, translating 'the claims I have made for her' as mā nasābtuhu wa-dda'aytuhu lahā. It would perhaps be better to render it as mā-nasābtuhu lahā.

ALT: وتعتبر سورية 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: ص ١٥ فالحلاف والتنافر فيها كانا يصدران أحيانا إلى جيرانها الأقربين وإلى الأبعدين

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 بيريز من بريطانيا أن تقنع الأردن للقيام بدور البطل (المتقاعس)

NR,T.P L.49: 'What worried US analysts was that an over-zealous, crazy or nervous Iranian or Iraqi might inadvertently attack an American ship.' (The Guardian, January 29, 1987)

إن ما أثار قلق المحللين الأمريكيين كان احتمال أن يقوم إيراني أو عراقي مفرط في حماسه (أو عصبي) أو

TL:

(مجنون) بمهاجمة سفينة أمريكية (الوطن سطر ٢٩)

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 انديرا غاندي سياسات بلدها وسيطرت عليها اكثر من عقدين 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 anti-personnel mines' (The Observer, 7 December, 1986)

منتصف الليل في الصحراء الغربية، ولا تمنع رياح الصحراء الجليدية ثوار البوليساريو (الاقوياء) من البحث في

الرمال عن الالغام المضادة للأشخاص (ذات شكل علب السجائر)

TL:

NR,T.I, L.118: 'It acknowledged that the Muslim rebels were continuing to breach the unilatera ceasefire declared by Afghan and Soviet troops on January 15.' (The Times, 1 January, 1987)

واعترف بان المجاهدين الافغان مازالوا ينتهكون وقف اطلاق النار (المنفرد) المعلن من طرف القوات السوفياتية

TL:

والافغانية منذ يوم الخامس عشر من يناير

SS, p2, L21: 'Syria, as the prize in the contest for Arab primacy, held so central a position on the stage'.

TL1: ص ١٤ لقد تمتعت سورية خلال الصراع من أجل التفوق العربي بموقع هام جدا

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 سورية موقعا هاما نظراً (لكونها الجائزة) 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: ص ١ فمعظم المبادئ والتيارات السياسية في العالم العربي، ولدت فيها أو عملت فيها بوضوح خاص

TL does not translate 'today', which might be rendered as fī yawminā hādhā.

ALT:

فكثير من التيارات السياسية في العالم العربي (حاليا إما) نشأت فيها أو جرى تطبيقها هناك 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)

الصحراء المغربية

TL: فوق السور المغربي 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 التوفيق بين الدين والدنيا

NR,T.B, L.39: 'Dr Cutting... admitted that her own weight was down to 95 pounds.' (The Independent, 17 February, 1987)

TL: واعترفت الطيبة... ان وزنها هي نقص كثيرا و اصبح حوالي أربعة وأربعين كيلوجراما

NR,T.R, L.39: '..neither medical workers nor journalists were to witness conditions.'

TL: كما لم يسمح لعمال الاغاثة او المرضى او الاطباء او 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 Morrocco. 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-aqwiya? (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 tagriban. C.f. p. 241 above)

In the SS, p1, L26, the translator misrepresents 'approaches' with mamarrāt, which may be rendered as madākhl. It also misrepresents 'guard' with tushrif alā. (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.'

TL: ص ١٣ والحقيقة ان شؤون سورية الداخلية تبدو كأنها فاقدة المعنى تقريبا ما لم تعز الى القرينة الأوسع

The addition of wa 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)

وليس هذا هو الهدف الوحيد لبيريز، مع بداية اول جولة له في العواصم الاوروبية بعد تبادل المناصب

TL: مع ...

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)

كان رئيس وزراء اسرائيل شمعون بيريز يأمل في الحصول على ما هو غير ممكن عندما اجتمع مع مارغريت  
تاتشر...

TL:

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)

TL: فهو يرغب في الحصول على تأكيد بان بريطانيا قد تستأنف القيام بدور انشط في الشرق الاوسط

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: ان ما يرغب في الحصول عليه هو تأكيد بان بريطانيا قد تستأنف ..

SS, p.1, L16: '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.'

ص ١٣ فحين تقطع الحيوط الغربية الموجهة يتخذ التوتر بين الدول العربية وفي داخلها اهمية غير متوقعة اما

TL:

حين يتضاءل النفوذ الغربي...

TL switches from the past tense of the SLT to the present.

The representation of 'as' with fahīna is not quite accurate.

We suggest an alternative:

ALT:

فحين انقطعت الحيوط الغربية الموجهة اتخذ التوتر والقلق أهمية غير متوقعة وكذلك عندما انحسر 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 ما يزال محتفظاً باللامع الملكية للختير مع مظاهر الحكمة والكرم وأنياه 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 raghma anna.

AF, p8,L23: 'It is capable of affording food in abundance to enormously greater number of animals than now inhabit it.'

TL: وهي قادرة على توفير حياة كريمة لاعداد كبيرة من الحيوانات واكثر مما هو موجود حالياً  
TL is ambiguous, because the translator uses mimmā. 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 التائمز هذا الاسبوع اشار بيريز الى 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: وقد أشار بيريز في مقابلة له مع صحيفة التايمز هذا الاسبوع

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).'

لقد قيل لي ان الاميركيين سيفعلون اي شيء في طاقتهم لمنع تزويد ايران بالاسلحة وبالتالي (لمنع) استمرار الحرب..

TL: The repetition of liman<sup>6</sup> is necessary in order to interpret the meaning of the SL correctly. Otherwise, the opposite meaning may be understood.

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

preceding sentence by a connector.

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. The



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, Bühler, 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-sight 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

- 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
	----
	18

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

- Composition	2
- Linguistics	2
- Contrastive linguistics	2
- Area Studies (the study of the British legal system)	1
- Modern literature	1
	----

### 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	

	1
- Comprehension	1
	----
	20
Second semester:	
- Translation Theory	2
- Modern Literature	2
- Contrastive Grammar	2
- Translation Exercises from English into arabic of legal texts	3
- Translation from Arabic into English of general and legal texts	3
- Grammar	2
- Arabic Grammar	2
- Linguistics	2
- Area Studies	1
	-----
	19

### Third Year:

#### First semester:

- Translation theory	2
- Translation from English into Arabic of economic texts	



	3
- Translation from Arabic into English of economic texts	3
- Arabic Grammar	2
- Composition	2
- Text Linguistics	2
- Translation Assessment	2
- On-Sight Translation	2
	-----
	18
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	1
- Composition	2
- Translation Assessment	2

- Text Linguistics	2
- On-Sight Translation	2
	-----
	18

#### 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
	-----
	18

##### Second semester:

- Translation from English into Arabic of literary texts	2
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- Translation from English into Arabic of scientific texts	2
- Translation from English into Arabic of economic texts	2
- Translation from Arabic into English of literary texts	2
- Translation from Arabic into English of scientific texts	2
- Translation from Arabic into English of economic texts	2
- Translation Assessment	2
- On-Sight Translation	2
- Text Linguistics	2
- Simultaneous interpreting	2
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	20

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# الكويست تست

## اختيار الالديمة من اطلبة في الهند في الحياة ائدير اخاندي

راجيف رئيسا للحكومة واجراءات عسكرية لمواجهه الموقف

Appendix

الهندي وشيخ الهند ان الكويست ستينر بالتالي حرم الهندا على تفيز علاقات الهندا للتاليين بين الكويست والهند وقال سبي ولي العهد رئيس مجلس الوزراء الشيخ سبي العبدالله في برقية مائة ان العالم اجمع يستنصر غربي هذه الزعامة العظيمة. واعرب نائب رئيس الوزراء وزير الخارجية ووزير الاعلام الشيخ صباح الاحمد الجابر عن امه بالا بلاش اغتيال رئيسة الوزراء الهندي على استنار الهند وان يستمر تلك الصديق في سوابقه كرايك من رواد عدم الاحوال

اما وزير الدولة عبدالعزير حسين فقد قال ان العالم يعتقد ان الكويست تست تستنر الهندا لول عدم الاحوال كما تعتقد الكويست والعالم العربي صديدا متعلما للتاليين العربية وقضايا العالم الثالث

وقال المرابطون ان التعيين السريع لراجيف غاندي انك الحرب الحاكم والهند كلها من الفتنة والصراع وكثيرا المعاصم الكبيرة التي تتنقل من المعارضة شققة المتولي سناجاي حيث ان زوجه المعارضة يكاد في الوضوح الى حربا المعارضة

واكت التناظر ان غاندي توليت على الفور من الناحية الايديولوجية حيث اصيبت في القلب والصدر واليدن وزالت كميات كبيرة جدا من الدم ولم تدمر معها كل جوفم الاحياء في المستشفى حيث اجريت لها عملية جراحية عاجلة لاستخراج الرصاصات ولور الاعلان عن اطلاق الرصاص على غاندي اعانت حالة الطوارئ القصوى في صفوف القوات الهندية واغلقت الحدود مع باكستان وبنغلاديش واتخذت اجراءات عسكرية واسعة متعددة تضمنها من وقوع احداث انقلابية ضد عائلة الشيخ خاصة وان مهنيا باسم الطائفة ابلغ احدى وكالات الاجباء في نيودلهي هاتيا ان الطائفة بالبروا مسؤولة عن

لجعت الهند والعالم باغتيال السيدة انورا غاندي ١٧ سنة رئيسة وزراء الهند ورئيسة حركة عدم الانحياز وهي الجريمة التي رأى فيها المرابطون اختيارا للديمقراطية التي جاهدت السيدة غاندي طوال ١٨ سنة على ارساء دعائهما. لهند ٣٦ سنة على اغتيال العمات غاندي «ابو الاستقلال الهندي» برصاص مهور من الهندوس، التي صباح امس الاربعاء ١٦ رصاصا اطلقتا ثلاثة من المهور من الشيخ، ومثلت في الحرس الخاص لرئيسة الوزراء حياة «ام الهند الحديثة» انورا غاندي لدى سيرها مترجلة من منزلها الى مكتبها الذي لا يبعد سوى ٢٠٠ متر

الهند وشيخ الهند ان الكويست ستينر بالتالي حرم الهندا على تفيز علاقات الهندا للتاليين بين الكويست والهند وقال سبي ولي العهد رئيس مجلس الوزراء الشيخ سبي العبدالله في برقية مائة ان العالم اجمع يستنصر غربي هذه الزعامة العظيمة. واعرب نائب رئيس الوزراء وزير الخارجية ووزير الاعلام الشيخ صباح الاحمد الجابر عن امه بالا بلاش اغتيال رئيسة الوزراء الهندي على استنار الهند وان يستمر تلك الصديق في سوابقه كرايك من رواد عدم الاحوال

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THE OBSERVER, SUNDAY 7 DECEMBER 1986

# How Sahara rebels tweak the devil's tail

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 Ayoun, the capital of the western Sahara, and the phosphate mines of Bou Craa from which Hassan earns mill

**SHYAM BHATIA,**  
Africa Correspondent,  
takes an exclusive trip  
with Polisario guerrillas.

ions 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 Mohammed 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 at 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.

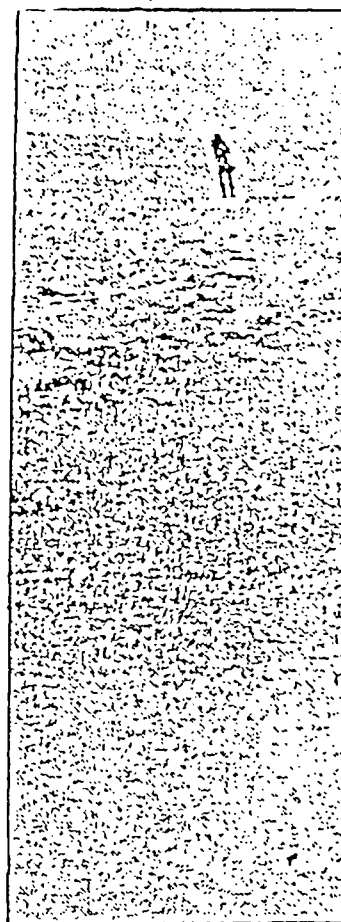
We travelled with four guerrillas in the back for four days and nights to reach the Atlantic coast, most of the time racing along desert tracks that run parallel to the wall and often within sight of it.

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

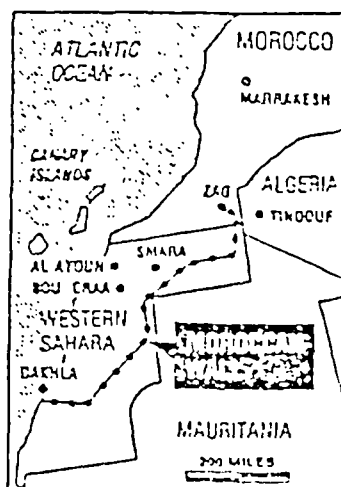


Desert patrol

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





الأحد ١٤ ديسمبر ١٩٨٦

الوزير فر البريطانية

## الصحراء الغربية

( Appendix )

## فوق السور المغربي مع البوليساريو

بقلم: شيام بهاتيا

ساحل الاطلسي، وكنا معظم الوقت تسير في طرق صحراوية موازية للسور وغالبا على مرمى النظر منه.

وعدنا رجال بوليساريو بعلب «سباعيتي» وشارك مصور الاويزيرفر في وجبة من الارز المطبوخ مع ارناب اصطناعية وكانوا يشترتون حليب النياق من الرعاة باستمرار. في الساعة الثانية بعد الظهر، وكنا ما تزال على بعد مائة ميل عن الاطلسي، اوقف محمد اللاد روفر وقال: «الآن ننظر لمدة ساعة. هل تبصرون الشطرنج؟» وبعد ساعة مشينا سيرا على الاقدام نحو السور. وفي وقت متأخر من تلك الليلة تسلقنا السور بلفظ. ومن مكاننا فوقه كنا نستطيع رؤية الجنود المغاربة وهم يمشون عبر غابة من هوائيات الاتصال بالراديو خلف السور تماما. قال ديلينا: «ان لديهم رادار. ولكنهم لا يستطيعون رؤيتنا فالرادار لا يعمل في هذه المنطقة التي تسودها الظلال».

ولم نضطر رصاصة واحدة باتجاهنا وقد تسلقنا السور نفسه قبل منتصف الليل تماما وسرنا نحوه في صف فردي، مثل مستلقي الجبال، وانتف محمد قائد المجموعة نحوي وقال: «هذه المنطقة منقومة لكننا طهرناها من اجل خاطرك» بعد بضع دقائق كنا عند السور. قطع الثوار سباجا من الاسلاك الشائكة. وبقفزة واحدة كنا فوق السور همس احد الرجال: «لا تتحدث. فالجنود المغاربة لا يبعدون الا ٤٠٠ متر عنا وربما يسمعوننا».

للتعب عن مشقة الاغنام استخدم البوليساريو استراتيجية خطيرة وقاسية معا. «اننا نستخدم الاسان لاكتشاف الاغنام»، كما قال نيل حبيب قائد المنطقة الجنوبية في البوليساريو «وقبل كل هجوم نرسل طليعة من الرجال للبحث عن الاغنام يبنو الامر خطيرا. ولكنه ليس كذلك. انه مثل تعلم قيادة السيارة، فامرء عندما لا يعرف كيف يقودها يبنو الامر خطيرا. اننا نعثر على النعم باستخدام ايدينا او بواسطة عصا. ثم نفصل الاجزاء الثلاثة: المتفجر والتصاق والابرة، وبعدا يكون النعم سائما». بعد ذلك يقوم البوليساريو باعادة تجبي الاغنام المفككة ويوزعونها خلف خطوط العدو قريبا في العادة من مهاجع نوم الجنود المغاربة.

ان تصميم البوليساريو على ان يكونوا شوكة في خاصرة المغرب لم تقنع العامل الحسن الثاني حتى الان بفتح مفاوضات مباشرة معهم. ودخل الجيش المغربي الصحراء الغربية بعد الاسحاب الاسباني منها في عام ١٩٧٦ والملك الحسن يتمسك بقناعته ان المنطقة جزء من مغرب اكبر قسمته قوى الاستعمار. وتقول البوليساريو انها على استعداد للانتظار حتى يضطر المغرب للتفاوض، وتساندها الجزائر كما تساندها ليبيا في لترات متقطعة.

١٩٨٦/١٢/٧

منتصف الليل في الصحراء الغربية، ولا تتسع رياح الصحراء الجليدية ثوار بوليساريو المنهكين من البحث في الرمال عن الاغنام المضادة للاشخاص التي تحرس الوصول الى «خط ماجينو» المغربي الذي يبلغ طوله «١٦٠٠» ميل. ومن المكان الذي كنت اريض فيه، المراسل، فوق السور الذي يبلغ ارتفاعه ستة اقدام كنت اقرّب قاعدتي للجيش المغربي تبعد مسافة اقل من ميل. قال محمد قائد مجموعة بوليساريو: «لا تخف. انهم ينامون في الليل، ويظنون في خنادقهم».

وكان الملك الحسن ملك المغرب قد بنى هذا الحاجز من الرمال والصخور لمنع البوليساريو من مهاجمة جنوده وحامياته العسكرية في العدن، وكما هو واضح فان نجاحه كان جزئيا. ويصف الثوار السور المغربي بأنه انجبية الثامنة في العالم. ويبدأ هذا السور من «زاغ» الى الشمال الغربي من المكان الذي ضبع فيه مارك بن مارغريت تاشر طريقه اثناء سباق رالي عبر الصحراء ويستمر متعرجا على طول خط يسير في اتجاه جنوب غربي حتى يصل الى المحيط الاطلسي قرب «دخلة» والهدف الاستراتيجي منه هو حماية جنوب المغرب ومدينة «العيون» عاصمة الصحراء الغربية ومناجم الفوسفات من «بيوكراع» التي تدر على المغرب ملايين الدولارات كل عام.

ومنذ اكتمل بناء السور في انعام الماضي توقفت عمليا هجمات البوليساريو على العدن الواقعة تحت سيطرة المغاربة. ولكن في هذه العملية اصبح الجيش المغربي الذي يبلغ تعداد «١٤٠» الفا رهينة لتكتيكات رجال العصابات. ومقابل هذه القوة المغربية حشدت بوليساريو قوة من عشرة الاف رجل يحاربون من اجل الاستقلال منذ الحاق الصحراء الغربية بالمغرب في عام ١٩٧٦.

قال محمد عبد العزيز امين عام البوليساريو الذي قابله في خندق صحراوي على مقربة من الحدود مع الجزائر: «صحيح ان السور خلق بعض المشاكل لقواتنا. فحدث غير معتادين على عقبات من هذا النوع وكان لا بد لنا من العثور على تكتيكات جديدة. وهذا الان هو استنزاف العدو حتى يضطر للاستحاب».

ولاعطاء مثل على تكتيكاتهم الجديدة اصطحبنا البوليساريو في رحلة مدشة بالالاند روفر لمسافة اثني ميل عبر الصحراء وصننا فيها الى المحيط الاطلسي عند نقطة تبعد حوالي خمسين ميلا الى الجنوب من «دخلة» واستغرقتنا الرحلة بصحبة اربعة ثوار اربعة ايام وليال حتى وصننا الى

# Palestinian factions sink differences in camp siege

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.

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 95 pounds. She is 5ft 3in tall. There

## From our Correspondent in Beirut

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 Dertan, 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.

But a senior Amal official said Amal had no intention of storming any of the refugee camps. "Amal will under no circumstances storm 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.

## المخيم في غزة

مستشفى المخيم مع ممرضة اسكتلندية  
الصحيفة ان النقص في الطعام مستمر  
كما ان الناس يأتون الى المستشفى كل  
يوم يتوسلون من أجل الحصول على  
فتات ما تبقى من الطعام وقالت  
الطبيبة: لكن المشكلة هي انه ليس هناك  
فتات. وقالت: واعترفت الطبيبة التي قالت انها لن  
تترك المستشفى ما دامت هناك حاجة  
اليها فيه ان وزنها هي نقص كثيرا  
 واصبح حوالي اربعة واربعين  
كيلوجراما. كذلك حصلت هناك حالات  
كثيرة اغشى فيها على الفتيات  
الفلسطينيات اللواتي يعمن كممرضات  
في المستشفى الوحيد بالمخيم نتيجة  
ضعفهن وتضورهن جوعا. وقالت  
الطبيبة ان تسعين بالمائة من سكان  
المخيم مدنيون وليس لهم اي مكان اخر  
ليذهبوا اليه. ولهذا فهم لا يريدون  
مغادرة المخيم.

ولكن امرأة في الخامسة والثلاثين من  
عمرها لم تستطع التحمل اكثر معا  
تحملت قالت عندما غادرت المخيم يوم  
امس: وانتى لم استطع البقاء لان  
عندي ثلاثة اطفال ولم اعد استطيع باني  
شكل ان اراهم وهم يبكون يوميا  
ويتأوهون من الألم جوعا. وقالت هذه الام انه كان هناك  
انقسامات قبا. الحب بين الناس في

امتنع ثلاثمائة وخمسون شخصا في  
مخيم شاتيلا طوعية عن الحصول على  
مخصصاتهم من الطعام لكي يتم ارسال  
ما تيسر منه لهم الى الامهات الحوامل  
والمرضعات والجريحات. وقد انضم  
اليهم الان خمسون شخصا اخر.  
ومضت صحيفة ذي اندياندنت  
تقول في خبر لمراسلها الخاص ببيروت ان  
الدكتور كرس جيانو الطبيب الوحيد في  
المخيم قال في مقابلة باللاسلكي انه  
اضطر الى اجبار بعض الجوع الى قبول  
حقنهم بالجلوكوز للبقاء على قيد الحياة.  
ولكن المشكلة كما قال الطبيب هي انه لم  
يعد في المخيم الا القليل جدا من  
الجلوكوز. ولم يسمح بدخول اي مواد غذائية  
الى مخيم شاتيلا - الذي يقطنه اكثر من  
عشرة الاف فلسطيني - منذ ان بدأت  
ميليشيا امل الشعبية حصار المخيم قبل  
اربعة اشهر تقريبا. كذلك لم تسمح  
ميليشيا امل بدخول اي شيء الى مخيم  
برج البراجنة الذي يضم اكثر من  
عشرين الف فلسطيني منذ ان سمح  
بدخول حوالي ١٥ طن من الحليب  
المجفف والطحين في الاسبوع الماضي.  
اما مخيم الرشيدية فيبدو ان الحصار  
رفع عنه لبعض الوقت. وفي برج البراجنة ابلغت الطبيبة  
في

المخيم. فالبعض كان يؤيد ياسر عرفات  
رئيس منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية بينما  
كان الآخرون يؤيدون الفئات الأخرى.  
ولكن كل هذا انتهى واصبح الكل يقف  
صفا واحدا ويساعد الكل بعضهم  
بعضا.

وقالت تلك الام الفلسطينية ان  
الجميع متحدون في وجه امل كما ان كل  
الرجال والصبية والشباب يتقاتلون.  
كذلك تساعد البنات غير المتزوجات.

# Iran scandal engulfs Reagan and Casey

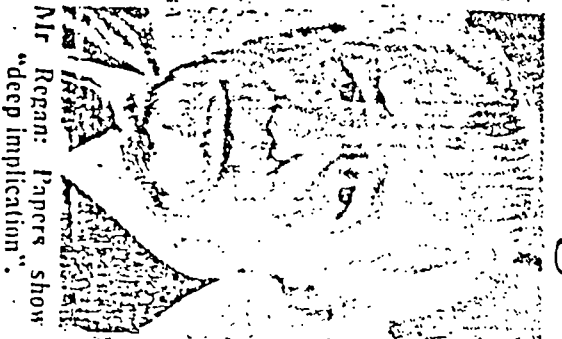
From Michael Binyon  
Washington

While House computer records, acquired by the lower Commission investigating the National Security Council's (NSC) role in the Iran affair, suggest that key officials in the Reagan Administration were far more closely involved in the scandal than previously established.

Well-placed sources told *Newsweek* magazine that an "avalanche" of background memoranda and messages made available to the three-man panel on Thursday, deeply implicate Mr Donald Reagan, the White House Chief-of-Staff, Mr William Casey, the former director of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), and Admiral John Poindexter, the former National Security Adviser.

The information suggests that Lieutenant-Colonel Qil, first shipment of arms to Iran North, the dismissed NSC aide, was not a "hone wolf" keeping secrets from his superiors while organizing the Iran deal and the diversion of money to the Nicaraguan Contras. "North" reported everything, "one source told *Newsweek*.

Admiral Poindexter and his



Mr Reagan: Papers show "deep implication"

predecessor, Mr Robert McFarlane, "tried to doctor" a chronology of the events to make it appear that President Reagan did not authorize the "first shipment of arms to Iran" in August 1985. The magazine said, however, that the lower Commission, reportedly investigating charges of a cover-up, believed it was impossible for Mr Reagan to know everything being done in his name such as the volume of information.

The commission's aggressive

site report is expected to be more thorough than anyone in the White House expected. It has also uncovered computer records of the covert side to Project Democracy — Mr Reagan's extensive operation to help anti-communist forces around the world.

The White House yesterday angrily denied a story in *The New York Times* that claimed there was a link between Project Democracy and the covert Iran-Contra operation. The alleged link was also denied by Mr Carl Gershtman, president of the national fund set up in 1983 to help democratic forces around the world, who said there was "no connection" between the project and the endowment, where every penny was accounted for. Any covert arm was a "perversion of the original aim."

Mr Reagan first outlined his plans for supporting world democracy in a joint address to Parliament in June 1982. *The New York Times* said that documents discovered by the lower Commission showed a clandestine execution of this ideal gradually evolved into an almost independent foreign

policy branch, complete with its own ships, aeroplanes, communications systems, bank accounts and secret enclaves.

The paper said the operation controlled by Colonel North was outside the established government decision-making process and beyond the purview of Congress. It reflected the Administration's deep frustration that it could not push the State Department or Congress into supporting anti-communist insurgents. In January 1983 Mr Reagan reportedly signed a classified order allowing the NSC to coordinate inter-agency efforts for the project. Meanwhile, White House efforts were directed at getting private funding. To that end, Mr Charles Wick, the director of the US Information Agency, arranged a meeting in March 1983 between Mr Reagan and several millionaires, including Sir James Goldsmith, the British financier, and Mr Rupert Murdoch, the International media magnate.

The meeting took place, but apparently no money was raised. Mr Wick, however, denied that he had ever tried to get money for the project.

# White House 'disarray' at Reykjavik attacked

From Our Own Correspondent, Washington

The Reykjavik summit was the "textbook case" of how the superpowers should not negotiate, according to a Democratic chairman of a congressional committee, which has released a blistering report on the Iceland meeting last October.

Mr Les Aspin said the complete record, from the US decision to attend a quick summit to the attempt afterwards to put a favourable "spin" on the outcome, showed the White House in confusion and disarray.

"The entire process was flawed. Despite frequent public statements opposing ill-prepared summits, and with the US elections only six weeks away, Reagan agreed to go to Reykjavik. He added: 'The summit could have been a tragedy. Instead, it will replace the 1961 summit between John Kennedy and Nikita Khrushchev as the textbook case of how the superpowers should not negotiate.'"

One Republican member of

the 13-member House armed services committee, however, issued a sharply worded dissenting view, describing the report as unprofessional and dominated by political sniping.

The report said the proposal causing most problems was the US initiative to eliminate all ballistic missiles over 10 years. This was offered freely by President Reagan in the full knowledge that its implications had not been considered by his own military or by US allies.

*The Washington Post* said yesterday that the proposal was hurriedly drafted in a meeting with the Soviet Foreign Minister by two US officials — Mr Richard Perle, the Assistant Defence Secretary, and Mr Robert Liner, a National Security Council arms expert — "working on a rough pad."

Within half an hour of Mr George Shultz, the Secretary of State, reading the draft to Soviet officials it was proposed by Mr Reagan to Mr Gorbachev, the paper said.

# «الرسائل الى جيلنا» التي نشرت صحيفة التايمز تحقّق لم اسلها في واشنطن جاء تحت هذا العنوان ان نشرت صحيفة التايمز تحقيقا لم اسلها في واشنطن جاء تحت هذا العنوان ان نشرت صحيفة التايمز تحقيقا لم اسلها في واشنطن جاء

تحت هذا العنوان ان نشرت صحيفة التايمز تحقيقا لم اسلها في واشنطن جاء  
تحت هذا العنوان ان نشرت صحيفة التايمز تحقيقا لم اسلها في واشنطن جاء  
تحت هذا العنوان ان نشرت صحيفة التايمز تحقيقا لم اسلها في واشنطن جاء

## صلة قوية

وقد نرى البيت الابيض بغضب ما نشرته صحيفة نيويورك تايمز عن وجود صلة  
قوية بين مشروع والديمقراطية، وفضيحة الاسلحة الايرانية وتحويل عائداتها الى  
التمرديين النيكاراغويين، كذلك نرى وجود مثل تلك الصلة ككل جبرشام رئيس  
المندوب الخاص الذي اقيم في عام ١٩٨٢ لمساعدة القوى الثائرة الشيوعية  
وتشجيع القوى الديمقراطية في مختلف أرجاء العالم.

وكان الرئيس ريجان قد اعلن لأول مرة عن افكاره الخاصة بدعم القوى  
الديمقراطية ومحااربة الشيوعية في خطابه الذي القاه امام الكونغرس في يونيو  
(حزيران) عام ١٩٨٢. وذكرت صحيفة نيويورك تايمز ان الوثائق التي اكتشفتها  
لجنة تارار اخيرا تؤكد وجود صلية سرية لتنفيذ هذه الافكار بصورة تدريجية الى  
الدرجة التي تحولت معها العملية الى سياسة خارجية مستقلة ومنفصلة لها جهازها  
الخاص الذي له سنته وطاقاته وانيمة اتصالاته الخاصة وحساباته الخاصة في  
المصارف ومعموره السريون الخاصون.

والتابع،

## متعمون كبار

ان ان مصادر موثوقة ذكرت ان سبل، المذكرات والرسائل التي قرأته اللجنة  
المزقة من ثلاثة رجال يوم الخميس الماضي تدّين دونالد ريجان رئيس موظفي البيت  
الابيض وليام كيسي المدير السابق للمخابرات المركزية الامريكية (سي، اي، ايه)  
والادميرال جون بوبيند كستل المستشار السابق لشؤون الامن القومي  
وتشير هذه المعلومات ايضا الى ان الكونزيتل اوليفر فورد الذي مره من منصبه في  
مجلس الامن القومي لدوره في فضيحة ايران حيث لم يكن امتلأفا، والذنب المزدول،  
الذي لم يطعن بفساده على الامرال خلال تنظيم صفقات الاسلحة الامريكية مع ايران  
وتحويل عائداتها المالية الى التمرديين النيكاراغويين، والاعم من هذا ان فورد كان في  
الواقع يلعب بفساده على كل شيء، وكل تفرد.

## محاولة تقبيلة

كذلك حال بوبيند كستل وسبل في رئاسة مجلس الامن القومي دبرت مأكلا ريلين  
ان يتصا سلسلة من تطورات الاحداث وتعاقبا لكي يظهر ان الرئيس ريجان لم يخطئ  
اول شحنة من الاسلحة ليران في شهر اغسطس (أب) عام ١٩٨٥. لكن لجنة تارار جردى  
تعتقد انه كان من المستحيل على الرئيس ريجان ان يكون قد عرف كل شيء جرى  
باسمه نشر الصحافة الملومات المتعلقة بالفضيحة.

# 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 backed 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 Iraq and Iran. He implied that they had a measurable impact in the latest Iranian offensive towards Basra, Iraq's second largest city.

Although the king was confident that Iraq could withstand further Iranian offensives, he said moderate Arabs had no agreed 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 years. 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 monarch was equally caustic 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 \$1.9bn (£1.26bn) 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

# الملك حسين: آخر ما توقعناه اسلحة اميركية لايران

بيان اسلحة اميركية لايران

• من: روجر ماثيوس واندرو جاورز في عمان، الاردن

الملك حسين ملك الاردن قال في ١٧ فبراير الجاري ان الولايات المتحدة فقدت كل مصداقية في الشرق الاوسط نتيجة لمبيعات اسلحتها الى ايران.



• الملك حسين



• ريغان

قال العاهل الاردني ان المعلومات التي تتكشف من واشنطن الان قد اصابته بما هو اكثر من الصدمة، كما انه لم ير اي مؤشر على استعداد الولايات المتحدة للمساعدة في حل النزاع العربي - الاسرائيلي.

نتيجة لذلك، يشعر الملك حسين انه لم تكن توجد الا فائدة قليلة في قبول دعوة لزيارة الولايات المتحدة لاجراء محادثات مع الرئيس رونالد ريغان في الشهر القادم وكان يميل الى تعاون دفاعي اوثق مع أوروبا. ان هذه الملاحظات التي وردت في مقابلة اجرتها الفايننشال تايمز مع الملك حسين كانت اول تصريح علني مفصل له عن المبادرات الاميركية تجاه ايران. وقد كان الاردن يدعم العراق، عدو ايران، طيلة حرب الخليج التي تعيش عامها السابع الان.

قال الملك حسين: «لقد فقدت الولايات المتحدة مصداقيتها بصورة كاملة في هذه المنطقة. ان ما تتكشف حتى الان يتعارض تماما مع كل تأكيد حصلت عليه. لقد قيل لي ان الاميركيين سيفعلون اي شيء في طاقاتهم لمنع تزويد ايران بالاسلحة وبالتالي استمرار الحرب».

واضاف العاهل الاردني: «آخر شيء كان يتوقعه المرء على الاطلاق كان ان تعزز الولايات المتحدة الالة العسكرية لايران التي رفضت الاستجابة لاي دعوة لانهاء الحرب».

وقال الملك حسين ان الامدادات الاميركية التي تم الكشف عنها حتى الان تمثل «تطورا خطيرا جدا» في ضوء توازن القوى بين العراق وايران، وقال ما معناه ان هذه الامدادات كان لها تأثير كبير في الهجوم الايراني بالاسلحة باتجاه النصر الثاني اكبر المدن العراقية.

رغم ان الملك كان واثقا ان العراق سيخطئ صد المزيد من الهجمات الايرانية، فانه كشف بان المعتدلين العرب لم يتفقوا على اي رد على اي اختراق عسكري ايراني، محتمل، وقال: «ان الاردن مستعد بطريقته

دولي، تشارك فيه الاطراف المعنية من الشرق الاوسط والدول الخمس دائمة العضوية في مجلس الامن الدولي. ولكن رئيس وزراء اسرائيل اسحق شامير قاوم هذه الفكرة بقوة.

وتريد اسرائيل والولايات المتحدة من الملك حسين ان يدخل في مفاوضات مباشرة، رغم ان الولايات المتحدة قالت مؤخرا انها ستكون على استعداد لكي تشجع عقد مؤتمر كهذا كمقدمة لاجراء محادثات ثنائية.

وقال الملك حسين ايضا انه سوف يصعد جهوده لشراء اسلحة من مصادر غير واشنطن، بما في ذلك الاتحاد السوفياتي، وأوروبا الغربية بصفة خاصة. وكانت الخطة الاميركية لبيع الاردن ما تبلغ قيمته حوالي ١٩٠ مليار دولار من الاسلحة والطائرات قد تم سحبها قبل سنة تقريبا في وجه معارضة صلبة من اسرائيل والكونغرس.

واضاف العاهل الاردني قائلا: «نحن لم نطلب اية اسلحة ولن نطلب اية اسلحة من الولايات المتحدة وفي الواقع لدي كل دافع لدراسة امكانية قيام تعاون اكبر مع أوروبا في مجال المتطلبات الدفاعية».

وحاول الملك حسين ان يخفف من التكهّن بان وصول عضو كبير في منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية الى عمان في نهاية الاسبوع الماضي يعني تقاربا سياسيا بين الاردن وقيادة المنظمة.

وقال العاهل الاردني ان خليل الوزير قد ذهب الى عمان لبحث توزيع المعونات العربية على الفلسطينيين في الضفة الغربية وقطاع غزة الذين تحتلها اسرائيل.

ولكن اتعاون السياسي لا يمكن علم كل حال ان يتم استئنافه حتى تغير منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية موقفها من قرارات الامم المتحدة التي تتضمن الاعتراف بحق اسرائيل في الوجود بسلام خلف جبهودها قبل عام ١٩٦٧.

كان رفض منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية للقبول بهذه القرارات هو سبب القطيعة بين الملك حسين وياسر عرفات رئيس منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية قبل عام.

طيلة سنوات لوضع خطة طوارئ. ولكنني لا اعتقد ان هناك اي خطة كهذه حتى الان».

وقال العاهل الاردني انه تحدث «بصراحة جدا جدا» مع الرئيس السوري حافظ الاسد في دمشق الاسبوع الماضي حول الحرب العراقية الايرانية.

وكان العاهل الاردني لاذعا بانقدر نفسه فيما يتعلق بموقف الولايات المتحدة من النزاع العربي - الاسرائيلي - وعموما قيل مؤخرا عن احتمال ان تكون واشنطن تستعد الان للتخضير لمؤتمر سلام دولي، وقال: «لقد حصلت على تأكيد قوي مهتمون بحل المشكلة العربية الاسرائيلية، ولكنني لم ار ما يدل على ذلك».

## 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. 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 he 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 King Husain of Jordan, with whom a satisfactory arrange-

ment 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 are 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 Organisation (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. As 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 تاتشر

كان رئيس وزراء اسرائيل شمعون بيريز يأمل في الحصول على ما هو غير ممكن عندما اجتمع مع مارغريت تاتشر في ١٠ دواينغ ستريت في ٢٢ يناير الجاري. فهو يرغب في الحصول على تأكيد بان بريطانيا قد تمتنع القيام بدور نشط في الشرق الاوسط في وقت غرقت فيه السياسة الاميركية في «ايرانغيت». ان ما بجعا، مهمة بيريز تبدو مستحيلة هو كون الشرق الاوسط قاعدة غير واعدة لأي زعيم بريطاني في سنة انتخابية.

وليس هذا هو الهدف الوحيد لبيريز، مع بداية اول جولة له في العواصم الاوروبية بعد تبادل المناصب مع اسحق شامير قبل ثلاثة شهور. فيريز بحاجة ايضا لافئاع قادة السوق الاوروبية المشتركة بان شيئا لم يتغير، وان حكومة تل ابيب مازالت ملتزمة باعادة تنشيط حركة السلام، رغم عودة رئيس وزراء يعني الى السلطة. ثم، ذلك ربما ينجح بيريز تماما، على الأقل لانه قد اقام كما يبدو علاقة عمل جيدة مع بريطانيا.

وتكمن الصعوبة امام بيريز في انه بينما تفضل اسرائيل اجراء محادثات مباشرة مع العالم العربي كوسيلة لضمان سلام اكثر استقرارا في المنطقة، فانها لم تجد حتى الان احدا تتحدث معه.

وما زال الشك يماور الامرائيليين في قيمة أي مؤتمر دولي، مثلما هو الحال مع بريطانيا والولايات المتحدة معا. فحضور الاتحاد السوفياتي لمؤتمر كهذا سينحل عاملا مجهولا، رغم ان النفوذ السوفياتي لدى سوريا سيجعل الوجود السوفياتي واردا جدا من الناحية النظرية.

ومثل هذا المؤتمر في افضل الحالات ربما يستغرق وقتا طويلا دون ان ينجز أي شيء. علاوة على ذلك، افان الرئيس المصري حسني مبارك يتحدث الان عن مؤتمر تحضيري يهد الطريق لشيء حقيقي، وهكذا فان العملية مستطول اكثر.

وتخشى اسرائيل ان تكون منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية، التي اصابتها الضعف بعد خروجها من لبنان قبل أربع سنوات، قد استعانت الكثير من قوتها ونفوذها، ليس في لبنان فحسب بل وفي الضفة الغربية وغزة ايضا. نتيجة لذلك، فان أي ميل من جانب المنظمة نحو سياسات التسوية والاعتدال ربما يكون قد اختفى.

وفيما يتعلق بهال اسرائيل في خلق جيل عربي معتدل لمنظمة التحرير الفلسطينية في الضفة الغربية، فان هذه الامال ايضا من المشبع جدا تحقيقها بسرعة كبيرة وفي مقاييس مع التأييد هذا الاسبوع اشار بيريز الى نمو الحكم الذاتي في الضفة

الغربية، والى ظهور مزيد من رؤساء البلديات العرب، والى تلمي العنف فيها بعد الزيارة التي قامت بها مارغريت تاتشر للمستوطن المحتلة قبل ثمانية شهور. ويصر الامرائيليون على ان الولاءات السياسية في الضفة الغربية منقسمة بين من يتعاطفون بحزم مع منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية، ومن ينتظرون ان يقدم الاردين القيادة التي يسمون اليها، وكنفسا طال تردد الاردين اذداد احتمال تحولهم جميعا الى المنظمة، بل الى منظمة اقوى واكثر تصميما من المنظمة الحالية. ولهذا السبب يريد بيريز من بريطانيا ان تشجع الاردين على القيام بدور البطل.

والحجة هي ان تنتشر ايضا ستكون بحاجة الى مزيد من الوقت حتى تضمن مستقبلها السياسي. والوقت هو ما يشعر بيريز بأنه آخر شيء يستطيع تقديمه.

## Nora Boustany reports from Beirut on Lebanon's unending wars

# Arafat plays a shrewd waiting game

AS THE Iran-US arms controversy continues to shock the world, Lebanon's unending wars have taken on a new twist. Palestine Liberation Organisation chief Yassir Arafat appears to have 'outdone' Syria by striking against its local allies in a shrewd waiting game.

Lebanese President Amin Gemayel, having allowed Mr Arafat to arm his guerrillas undisturbed, has benefited by the defeat of the Shi'ite Amal militia, Syria's closest ally in Lebanon, in a battle for the strategic Christian village of Maghdousheh last month. Well-trained Palestinian fighters, pushing out of their refugee camps for the first time since 1982, have recast Mr Arafat as a major player on the Lebanese scene.

After being shunned by Syria for contributing to the collapse of a Syrian-sponsored militia accord one year ago, Lebanon's Christian President is now looking forward to a summit meeting with his Syrian counterpart. Perhaps for the first time since the outbreak of the Lebanese war, Mr Gemayel and the Christian militias watched as Palestinian guerrillas returned to Lebanon with the declared aim of protecting their civilian population and loosening the grip of Amal and the elusive hegemony of Syria.

In a way, Arafat has some sympathy now, not because they love him, but because they hate Amal and fear the Syrians, observed a Palestinian official.

It is an uncharacteristic change of heart for Lebanon's Christian leadership. Officially, the staple condemnations of a resurgence of a Palestinian state within the Lebanese state are uttered here and there, but all of a sudden, there is an expression of sympathy for the Palestinians, laced with a desire to see Nabih Berri smashed, commented a Western diplomat based in Christian-controlled East Beirut.

The grisly conduct of Mr Berri's Amal militia since the first round of Palestinian-Shi'ite fighting in 1985 has enraged guerrilla leaders, banished to other Arab capitals in 1982. "We are not seeking to go

back to pre-1982," maintained one Palestinian spokesman. "We just want to make sure our people inside the camps in Lebanon are adequately protected, and for that we need to be armed. Our primary and only guarantee is our own strength."

A deteriorating economy and slipping exchange rate for the Lebanese pound, down by 300 per cent against the dollar, has eased the penetration of Palestinians in the ungoverned jungle of Lebanon. Since it has happened in mainly Moslem areas, far removed from the Christian enclave, the armed Palestinian presence is rather an idea than a physical threat. In Moslem areas, where poverty and the reality of war are more difficult to conceal, the anxiety over the festering Shi'ite-Palestinian conflict is more overwhelming.

The emergence of Iran as a central mediator, though yet ineffective, has marginalised Syria's role as power broker and accentuated the rise of Tehran-backed fundamentalists. Palestinian leaders privately insist that the pro-Iranian Hizbullah will never get the upper hand in areas where the guerrillas are located, because: "They don't understand the intricacies of Lebanese politics as well, and because they are not as strong militarily."

For now, the interposition of Hizbullah fighters in Maghdousheh between Amal and Fatah members clinging to their trenches, has served to discredit Amal in the eyes of the Shi'ite community.

Hizbullah, unlike Amal, does not expect the Palestinians in South Lebanon to disarm. Amal's drive to control the camps originated with its resolve to ban guerrilla activity in regions already evacuated by Israel.

The 11-week siege of the Palestinian refugee camp of Rashidieh, the bombardment of Chatila and Bourj Barajneh in Beirut's southern suburbs, and the heavy-handed treatment of Palestinian civilians living outside the camps has united Palestinians in the face of



Arafat recast as major player

Syria's closest allies, the unruly Amal militiamen.

The Syrian-formed National Palestinian Salvation Front is now fragmented and groups such as the Popular Front of the Liberation of Palestine (PFLP) have veered closer to Mr Arafat. The decision to take over Maghdousheh according to one Palestinian source was taken by PFLP chief George Habash and Mr Arafat's military commander of Fatah, Khalil al Wazir, better known as Abu Jihad, during a meeting in Prague recently.

Palestinian officials said Moscow was behind Mr Arafat and supported Palestinian demands for keeping the defenceless camps armed.

Though the Soviets are opposed to an extension of guerrilla presence beyond the camps, Mr Arafat appears to have ignored their wishes in that respect.

The PFLP, the Democratic Front for the Liberation of Palestine (DFLP), and Mr Arafat's Fatah, have resurfaced as the basic components of the Palestine Liberation Organisation after four years of fragmentation.

Mr Arafat has become the hardliner and the rejectionist. When other groups agreed to pull out of Maghdousheh as part of an Iranian peace plan,

his men refused to budge. Other Palestinian factions such as the pro-Syrian PFLP-general command, have also threatened to reconsider their alignments if the siege of Rashidieh was not lifted and Palestinian civilians continued to suffer. Libya's Colonel Muammar Gaddafi encouraged Arafatists to stay on in Maghdousheh, now the symbol of recovered Palestinian pride in Lebanon.

In Baghdad, where Mr Arafat has been orchestrating his campaign to re-enter the intricate Lebanese and Middle East equation, Abu Jihad declared a conditional ceasefire provided the blockade was lifted from all refugee camps in Lebanon, and Lebanese factions that had not participated in the fighting above Sidon joined the Hizbullah as a buffer force.

Walid Jumblatt, Druze leader of the Progressive Socialist Party, one of the groups asked to take part in this new plan, is in an unenviable position. While he has wisely courted the Syrians, who are believed to have assassinated his father Kamal Jumblatt in 1977, he is also greatly indebted to the Palestinians. Guerrillas helped Jumblatt in the decisive 1983 mountain war against Christian militias and the Christian-led army of Mr Gemayel. Mr Jumblatt explains his predicament by saying more Palestinians died defending the now Druze-controlled Chouf Mountains than his own Druze warriors.

Theoretically, we should all be defending Amal, as Lebanese who still hope for some semblance of sovereignty over our own land," commented one Lebanese businessman. However, Amal's mismanagement and unreigned lawlessness in areas it should control have made any alternative more palatable.

We may wake up one day to discover that Arafat has not changed anything, except the dimension of the tragedy for Lebanese and Palestinians alike. While it looks like Arafat has indirectly helped Gemayel, it is Arafat who may have to be rescued in the end, a Lebanese analyst said.

# حبش وابو جهاد اتخذوا قرارا الاستيلاء



• عرفات

استعادة الكرامة الفلسطينية للبنان. وفي بغداد، حيث كان عرفات حملته للعودة ثانية إلى المعادلة المعقدة في لبنان الأوسط، أعلن أبو جهاد قبوله عن جميع المخيمات الفلسطينية لبنان وبأن تنضم الفئات التي لم تشارك في القتال حوالاً إلى حزب الله كقوة عازلة. ان وليد جنبلاط، الزعيم الحزبي التقدمي الاشتراكي، والفئات التي طلب منها المشاركة هذه الخطوة الجديدة، في مجلسه عليه فهو مدني للفلسطينيين، فقد ساعد الله

زعيم الجبهة الشعبية جورج حبش والقائد العسكري لفتح خليل الوزير «أبو جهاد» أثناء اجتماع بينهما انعقد في براغ مؤخراً. قال مسؤولون فلسطينيون ان موسكو كانت وراء عرفات وايدت المطالب الفلسطينية بأن تظل المخيمات التي لا يمكن الدفاع عنها مسلحة. ورغم ان الوفود يعارضون أي امتداد للوجود الغداني خارج المخيمات، فإن عرفات كما يبدو قد تجاهل رغباتهم في هذا الصدد.

وقد ظهرت الى السطح مرة أخرى الجبهتان الشعبية والديموقراطية لتحرير فلسطين ومنظمة فتح باعتبارها الفصائل الاساسية في منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية بعد أربع سنوات من التمزق. واصبح عرفات هو المتشدد والرافض. وعندما وافقت الجماعات الاخرى على الانسحاب من مغدوشة كجزء من مشروع سلام ايراني، رفض رجاله الادعاء، كما ان فصائل فلسطينية أخرى مثل الجبهة الشعبية - القيادة العامة لتحرير فلسطين هددت باعادة النظر في تحالفاتها اذا لم يتم رفع الحصار عن الرشيديّة وإذا استمرت معاناة المدنيين الفلسطينيين. اما الزعيم الليبي العقيد معمر القذافي فقد شجع انتصار عرفات على البقاء في مغدوشة، التي تحولت الان الى رمز

بقلم: نورا يستاني من بيروت

بينما يستمر الجدل حول صفقة الاسلحة الاميركية لايران في اصابة العالم بالصدمة، دخلت حروب لبنان التي لا تنتهي منعطفاً جديداً. ويظهر ان ياسر عرفات رئيس منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية قد احرز مكاسب.

اما الرئيس اللبناني امين الجميل فقد استفاد بعد ان سمح لعرفات بتسليح فدائييه بدون ازعاج، من هزيمة مليشيات امل، في معركة للسيطرة على قرية مغدوشة الاستراتيجية في الشهر الماضي.

ان المقاتلين الفلسطينيين المدربين جيداً، باندفاعهم الى خارج مخيماتهم وذلك لأول مرة منذ عام ١٩٨٢، قد اعدوا طرح عرفات كلاعب رئيسي في الساحة اللبنانية. ان الرئيس اللبناني، بعد انهيار اتفاق بين المليشيات تم اتوصل اليه برعاية سوريا قبل عام، يتطلع حالياً الى عقد اجتماع قمة مع نظيره السوري. وربما لأول مرة منذ اندلاع الحرب اللبنانية يقوم الجميل والمليشيات المسيحية بالمراقبة بينما عاد الفدائيون الفلسطينيون الى لبنان بهدف ملء هو حماية المدنيين الفلسطينيين وتخفيف قبضة امل ويتمتع عرفات الان بالتعاطف في لبنان.

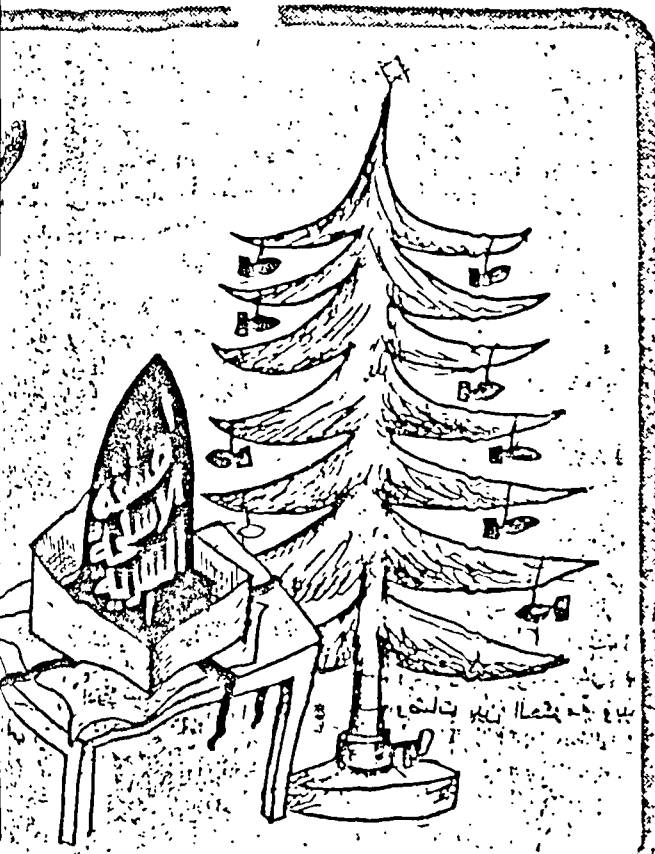
وهذا تغير في العاطفة لا تتميز به القيادة المسيحية في لبنان. ومن الناحية الرسمية، تصدر ادانات رئيسية هنا وهناك لأي عودة لأي دولة فلسطينية ضمن الدولة اللبنانية، «غير انه بصورة مفاجئة تماماً، يوجد تعبير عن التعاطف مع الفلسطينيين مع رغبة في رؤية نبيه بري وقد تحطم». كما علق دبلوماسي غربي في بيروت الشرقية.

ان سلوك مليشيات امل التي يتزعمها بري بعد الجولة الاولى لقتالها مع الفلسطينيين في عام ١٩٨٥ قد اثار سخط قادة الفدائيين الذين ابعدوا الى عواصم عربية اخرى في عام ١٩٨٢. قال ناطق فلسطيني: «نحن لا نسعى للعودة الى ما قبل عام ١٩٨٢، اننا نريد فقط التأكد من ان شعبنا داخل المخيمات في لبنان يحظى بحماية ملأية، ولذلك نحن بحاجة الى التسليح. ان ضماناتنا الرئيسية والوحيدة هي قوتنا، قوة شعبنا».

كما بلغ وجوب الاقتصاد اللبناني في حالة تدهور. وانخفاض سعر الصرف لليرة اللبنانية، التي انخفضت قيمتها مقابل الدولار بمعدل «٣٠٠» بالمائة، قد سهل تغلغل الفلسطينيين في الغابة

انه حدث في المناطق الاسلامية بصفة رئيسية، البعيدة عن الجيب المسيحي، فان الوجود الفلسطيني المسلح فكرة اكثر منه تهديد مادي. وفي المناطق الاسلامية، حيث اخفاء الفقر وواقع الحرب اكثر صعوبة، فان القلق من تصاعد الصراع «الشيعي» - الفلسطيني يطغى اكثر فأكثر.

كما ان ظهور ليون كوسيط رئيسي، رغم انها وسيط غير فعال حتى الان، قد «همش» دور سوريا كوسيط وعزز نهوض المتطرفين الذين تساندتهم طهران. وفي المجالس الخاصة يؤكد القادة الفلسطينيون على ان حزب الله المؤيد لايران لن تكون له اليد العليا في المناطق التي يتواجد فيها الفدائيون: «لان اعضاءه لا يفهمون تعقيد العملية السياسية اللبنانية جيداً ولانهم ليسوا اقوياء عسكرياً».



King Hussein of Jordan seem at last 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 Chadli 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 been cajoled 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

## 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 Khamenei and Prime Minister Hussein Mousavi, 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 Republican party until he was assassinated in 1981, pointed out that the Koran advocates

Khomeini favours the merchants



some sort of 'defence' system consisting of a standing army and horses tied at the frontier. Since 'defence' requirements have changed a bit since then, he argued, it was reasonable that methods of paying for them should change too. On these grounds, the government managed to squeeze a taxation bill through parliament in January. Conservative religious leaders argue that this sort of thinking will erode the power of the mosque. Last year, Grand Ayatollah Golpayagani, Iran's most senior cleric, protested to 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 bazaaris, 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 impor-

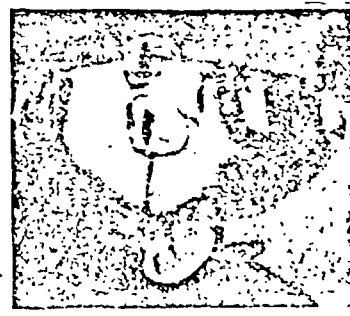
الوزير: الخميني

تجدد الحكومة الأردنية صعبة في التوفيق بين الدين والدنيا . ووصل الجبل الدائر منذ مدة طويلة حول المضمون العملي للاقتصاد الإسلامي الى مفترق طرق حول ارفع الضرائب . وتزيد الحكومة رفعها ويطارعه كثير من «الانقياء» في مناصب هامة . والجبل ليس فلسفيا ببساطة، اذ يدور حول النسبة السياسية الخطيرة : مصالح من يفترض ان يخدم النظام ؟

[illegible]

يكون لها عائد يمدد عليه من طرفها ومن عائد الأرصاء الدينية  
متراب يمكن فرضها أو أن لا في . المتعلقون بأن هذا النوع من  
الوقت الحاضر بحاجة إلى مزيد من التفكير سوف يولد إلى تآكل قوة  
المال المتصل من الغرب . وفي العام الماضي قام إيه  
المنصية لأن دخلها من التط . الله جواراجاني، وهو الأعلى  
انخفض كثيرا . مرتبة دينية في إيران ، بالاحتياج  
ويبقى السؤالين الأولين . لدى الخصمي بأن الناس لم يعودوا  
بمساعدة إسلامية محترمة لهم . يدفعون المال للدولة أيضا . وسيطر  
الحجة : بهتني زعيم الحزب المحافظون على مجلس الإرساء .  
الإسلامي الجمهوري الحاكم كان المحافظون نقض التهربات التي  
جنى اغتيال عام ١٩٨١ قد أوضح الذي يستطيع نقض التهربات التي

1. The first step in the process is to identify the problem or issue that needs to be addressed. This involves gathering information and understanding the context of the problem.



حسين موسى

الاستيراد والتصدير، وكانت النتيجة عدم حل أي قضية من هذه القضايا. وخلال عدم الثقة المتأزم، فإنهم يعملون على سبيل المثال، ليسوا على استعداد لتخمين أراضهم لأنها قد تؤخذ منهم وتعطى إلى الفلاحين. وقد تدخلت الفخمي في انعام المناشي بتصريح علني انتاز به بصورة حاسمة التي جانب تجار البازار، واعتقب ذلك إقرارا بخرق في مجلس الشورى بتولية يناير الماضي، يقوم

مجلس الأوصياء بمراسه في الوقت الحاضر، ويستهدف هذا التشريع تسهيل القناعات الخاصة على سبيل المثال عن طريق تسهيل طريقه الى الأرض والقروض . . . اضطرت الحكومة لتنفيذ التشريع . لكن البراضاتيين . مثل رئيس مجلس الشورى هاشمي رفسنجاني . والرياكانيين . مثل رئيس الجمهورية ورئيس الوزراء . فتكون من هذا النجوح الى القناعات

التي جعلته إلى الوجود .  
في نوفمبر الماضي . وقد انتقم  
صرخوا بها في مباراة لكرة القدم  
الشعارات العنصرية لتخزيه التي  
عبرت عنه على سبيل المثال  
في اوبست هذه الطبقة . هذا الذي  
غير مرتاحين من اندراكهم لتأسيس  
إمام الشاه . وهؤلاء السباسبون  
أسوأ بصفة عامة مما كانت عليه  
ظهران ، والوضع هذه الطبقة الآن .  
صنعها الطبقة العامة في جنوب  
والنفوذ السياسي ، غير ان الثورة  
ان تجار البازار ستكون المان  
خاص .

والعلن أن من أهم أهداف سياسة الدفاعية الاستراتيجية «فرء» الدفاعية الاستراتيجية للصواريخ من شأنه مضادة للصواريخ من المتعددة، حسب زعم واشنطن صواريخ «العدو» الاستراتيجية. ويجب أن يوضع جزء كبير، وتتفرع في الفضاء، يضم لتدمير الصواريخ تستخدم إلى الفيزيائية الجديدة «النيز» حرم الجزينات الموجهة... وقد اعتمدت مبادئ تفكر في الشلالات لتحليل هذا في ويعمل العلماء والبلد والتصميم على قيم ومبادئ إنشاء نماذج تجريبية، منفردة من هذه المتقدمة التي ويخطط لتجربتها في الـ بـفتم استعراضات نشرها، بصورة متعاقبة المتقدمة. وتوضع مذ فيزوا، بقدر حجم الـ التكنولوجيا المناسبة، تشكيل كيانات خاصة ومراكز الفضائية المستخدمة المتعددة الأغراض العسكرية. وإذا اعتمدت واشتغل بها التري العام الاميركي والناه يسمى بالميادرة الدفاعية، حيلة دفاعية واسعة تتسا بشئ السبل لتغيير نهج بشئ الابيض لمسكرة الفضاء التنس، ومن هذه السبل غير التحديد اصدار التنبؤ المذكور اطلق اصحابه معبرين عن، لان موقفهم من هذه المسألة، فلهما جملة جديدة من الالـ

# 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. Dynast, goddess-figure, warrior-queen, 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 2½ 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 policemen in her own bodyguard.

The first challenge for Rajiv Gandhi will be to do for India what his grandfather Nehru did when another (unrelated) Gandhi was assassinated in 1948: to defuse 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 is 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 confirming that the general election, due by January, will go on.

A third priority for 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 sycophants. Rajiv was a reluctant partner in this system, which was designed to fulfil 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 later 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 the intelligence vacuum in which local grievances spiralled into insurgencies in Punjab and in the north-eastern hill state of Assam. One fortunate spin-off of having a weaker ruler in Delhi—and any successor would be weaker than Mrs Gandhi—may be a righting 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 local 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 act the overweening big sister, not only to Pakistan but to all the surrounding states. Such a role 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 claims 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. Ever 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 weaned 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

تاج انديرا غاندي القتيلة تحول إلى ابنها راجيف غاندي ولكن أحدا لن يصدق ذلك. 1  
منذ إمبراطورية الهند، لقد حدثت الملكة، المحاربة المبددة انديرا سياسات 2  
بلاذها وسيطرت عليها طيلة أكثر من عقدين من الزمن. 3  
بمجازفات كبيرة بعضها تتسم بالحكمة وبعضها تتسم بالغباء 4  
عام 1990، شنت حزب المؤتمر وبنتك أقصى منه كل منافسيها للخمسة 5  
عشر عاما اللاحقة. 6  
التي لا تنازع لها في شبه القارة الهندية وعام 1971 جزاء باكستان جاعلة الهند بذلك الدولة 7  
من الطوارئ التي حفظت لها منصبها على حساب تعليق الديمقراطية 8  
الهندية لمدة سنتين ونصف السنة. 9  
وفي عام 1984 تصنت متأخرة لارهاب 10  
المسيح عن طريق اقتحام الحش لمصدهم الذهبي في البنجاب وهذا العمل 11  
الآخر أدى إلى موتها يوم الأربعاء الماضي على يد رجال بوليس من المسيح 12  
من حرمها الخاص. 13  
والتحدي الأول الذي سيواجه راجيف غاندي هو أن يعمل للهند ما عمله جده 14  
نهر عندما اغتيل غاندي الذي لا صلة قرابة له براجيف. 15  
وهذا العمل هو الحاق الهزيمة بقوى الكراهية من خلال العقل وليس الثأر 16  
وهذا يعني استخدام كل القوة الضرورية لمنع جولة جديدة من ملك المنام 17  
بين الهندوس والمسيح وهناك أولوية شتى تواجه رئيس وزراء الهند الشاب 18  
وهي السعي لتعيين مستشارين مجربين له لقيادته وقيادة الهند في فترة من 19  
أصعب الفترات التي تمر بها 20

## 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 home.

The official protest was issued yesterday in the form of a letter from Mr Abdul Wakil, the Afghan Foreign Minister, to the UN Secretary General, Señor Pérez de Cuéllar. 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 Wakil, 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 pre-

vent the refugees from re-

turning. "The Afghan Government believes it is against the norms of international law and universally recognized human rights to put up artificial obstacles in the way of citizens returning home," the Foreign Minister said. "Such

**6 The Afghan Government believes it is against international law.**

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 for 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 Extraordinary Commission 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.



## التاييمز البريطانية

باكستان وايران ترفضان اقامة  
جسر جوي لنقل اللاجئين الافغان

احتجت الحكومة الافغانية بشدة لدى الامم المتحدة بشأن رفض باكستان وايران السماح لها باقامة جسر جوي في كل منهما، لاعادة اللاجئين الافغان ممن اختاروا الاستجابة للعرض الذي قدمته الحكومة الافغانية ضمن خطتها الوضعية للتسوية.

5 وكانت الحكومة الشيوعية في

افغانستان قد كشفت النقاب في

الاسبوع الماضي عن صفقة شاملة

اعدت لاقناع اللاجئين الذين شردتهم

الحرب المستمرة منذ ثماني سنوات

للمعودة الى بلدهم.

10 وتضمن عرض الحكومة انغفو عن

جميع عناصر الجيش والشرطة

الفارين، وضمان فرص العمل،

والتعطيم، والاسكان، والتعبد

15 بالانضمام بجمع اتفاقيات التقاعد،

وطبقا لتقديرات غربية حديثة، هناك

نحو ثلاثة ملايين لاجئ افغاني في

معسكرات داخل الاراضي

الباكستانية، ومليون ونصف

20 المليون في ايران، بالاضافة الى

نصف مليون لاجئ يتوزعون في

مختلف دول العالم.

هذا، ولا يعرف بالضبط مدى

استجابة اللاجئين للعرض الافغاني،

25 ولكن مصادر دبلوماسية في كابول

قالت بأن عددا كبيرا سيستجيب،

بسبب الملل من الحرب، والرغبة

في العودة الى ارضهم، وزعمت

السلطات الافغانية ان عددا كبيرا لم

30 يحدد بعد قد تقدم بطبقات لدى

المسؤولين الافغان في الخارج،

يهدف العودة الى بلادهم.

وقد صدر الاحتجاج الافغاني

الرسمي يوم الحادي والعشرين من

ترعاها الامم المتحدة، والتي تهدف

الى انتهاء النزاع الافغاني. وكان

الطرفان قد اخفقا في العام الماضي

في اتوصل الى اتفاق حول جدول

الانسحاب الكامل للقوات

السوفييتية.

ولم يرد اي تفسير في رسالة

الاحتجاج بشأن رفض باكستان

وايران الاستجابة لطلب اقامة

35 الجسر الجوي من كابول، ولكن

مصادر دبلوماسية في موسكو قالت

انه من المتوقع ان تضيق مزيدا من

التعقيد الى المساعي من اجل

التوصل الى تسوية في محادثات

40 السلام التجارية منذ عام 1982.

وفي رسالة صحفية اخرى من

العاصمة الافغانية، زعمت وكالة

تأس ان المهاجرين مستمرون في

عبور الحدود الى افغانستان.

55 واوردت تفاصيل محددة حول

عودة نحو خمسمائة شخص الى

اربعة مناطق مختلفة.

واعترف بان المجاهدين الافغان ما

زالوا ينتهكون وقف اطلاق النار

60 المتملن من طرف القوات السوفييتية

والافغانية منذ يوم الخامس عشر

من يناير.

وقالت الوكالة في معرض ايرادها

تأكيدات رسمية بشأن انتهاك وقف

65 اطلاق النار في اماكن كثيرة «ان

اللجنة العليا فوق العادة للتسوية

الوطنية قد ذكرت في ردها على هذه

الاستفزازات انه اذا تكررت مثل هذه

التصرفات فان اعداء السلام

70 سيتلقون ضربة ساحقة».

55 ويناير الحالي في رسالة بعث بها

وزير الخارجية عبدالوكيل الى

السكرتير العام للامم المتحدة خافيير

يريز دي كويلا، ماشد فيها الامم

المتحدة بذل المساعي في تنظيم

60 عودة اللاجئين كجزء من برنامج

يهدف الى تأمين تسوية سياسية،

وانسحاب نهائي للقوات السوفييتية

التي يبلغ عددها مائة وخمسة عشر

الف جندي.

75 وقال وزير الخارجية الافغاني في

رسالة التي نشرتها وكالة تاس

السوفييتية ان حكومتي باكستان

وايران لم تستجبا لطلب الرسمي

بالسماح للحكومة الافغانية باقامة

80 جسر جوي، واتهم الحكومتين

بمحاولة منع اللاجئين من العودة

وقال عبدالوكيل «ان وضع العقبات

في طريق اللاجئين العائدين الى

وطنهم، يتعارض مع مبادئ

85 القانون الدولي. ومن الواضح ان

هذه المواقف معادية لسياسة

الحكومة الافغانية من اجل تسوية

وطنية تهدف من بين امور اخرى

الى تأمين علاقات مستقرة وحسن

88 جوار مع الدول المجاورة».

وقد جاءت الرسالة قبل اقل من

شهر من الاجتماع المقرر بين

90 فدين باكمستاني وافغاني في جنيف،

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## تعهداً وقراراً

- ١ - أنا ..... الموقع ادناه لكوني أعمل في شركة فلسطين لصناعة الادوية المساهمة المحدودة مقابل اجراً اتقاضاه منها أتعهد بأن احافظ على اسرار الشركة المذكورة محافظة تامة واكيدة وكاملة ولا افشي اي اسرارها او اسرار العمل لديها او اسرار مبيعاتها وانتاجها ، كما انني أتعهد بالمحافظة على موادها واجهزتها وعلى كل ما يتعلق بالشركة واي اكتشاف قد اكتشفه نتيجة عملي فيها واثناؤه وما ينتج عن عملي كما انني احول بهذا الى الشركة جميع الحقوق في اي عمل اقوم به لصالح الشركة .
- ٢ - كما أتعهد ايضاً بأن اقوم بكل ما هو مطلوب مني من قبل الشركة ولها بقصد تنفيذ اهداف وغايات الشركة وأقر كذلك بأن جميع أعماله واقدمه واتجه في الشركة هو حق للشركة ولها بقصد تصرف به كما تراه مناسباً .
- ٣ - وأتعهد بالآلا أكتشف للآخرين افراد او جماعات او مؤسسات او شركات او اية شخصية اعتبارية اسرار عملي في تلك الشركة او مبيعاتها او اسرار ما تنتجه او اية معلومات عن عملي وعن كل ما تقوم الشركة بتصنيعه وعن ما لديها من اجهزة او مآكنات او عمل وما يتعلق بالتوزيع والنواحي المالية والعلاقات التجارية والصناعية وما يتعلق بزبائننا سواء كان ذلك خلال فترة عملي في الشركة بعدها او في اية فترة لاحقة واعتبر كل المعلومات التي توفرت لدي اثناء عملي في الشركة او بعدها او في اية فترة وبسبب ملكة وخالصاً للشركة وحقاً من حقوقها دون ان تكون الشركة ملزمة بدفع اي مبلغ لي مقابل ذلك .
- ٤ - اقر واتعهد بأنني في حالة مخالفتي لهذا التعهد نصاً وروحاً ملزم بدفع راتب ستة اشهر للشركة كعطل وضرر متفق عليه سلفاً واعتبر كذلك مسؤولاً مسؤولية كاملة تجاه الشركة في حالة اخلالي لهذا التعهد .

وعليه اوقع حسب الاصول

التوقيع

# Suicide bo: Rea plar his revd

PRESIDENT REAGAN is about to take his revenge on those who plotted last month's slaughter 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 that the American under-secretary of state Lawrence Eagleberger is having last-minute consultations today in Jerusalem with the Israeli prime minister, Yitzhak Shamir, and members of his cabinet before winding 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 Friday'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 ceasefire on September 26.

More ominously, the Americans 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, Eisenhower, and put a total of 220 war planes at the disposal of American military commanders. At present there are 80.

According to reliable sources in Washington, secretary of State George Shultz and President Reagan's new national defence adviser, Robert McFarlane, are in favour of a retaliatory operation, with Israeli assistance, ranging from intelligence help for US ships and marines to attacks on terrorist groups in Lebanon to joint clandestine action.

THE TIMES THURSDAY NOVEMBER 20 1986

OVERSEAS NEWS

# Arafat's fighters back in strength in Lebanon

From Robert Fisk  
Beirut

After four years of military defeat, political humiliation and internal struggles for power, Mr Yassir Arafat's Palestine Liberation Organisation (PLO) has re-established itself in the Palestinian refugee camps of Lebanon.

Up to 6,000 guerrillas — more than half the Palestinian force evacuated from Beirut after the Israeli invasion of 1982 — are estimated to have returned to the country and to have received substantial supplies of weapons, including 7 anti-aircraft missiles.

Palestinian guerrillas now virtually control the city of Sidon, carrying their personal weapons in the main shopping streets, while even the pro-Syrian factions ostensibly hostile to Mr Arafat's leadership have been fighting against the

Shia Muslim Amal militia on the side of his supporters in Beirut.

There are growing rumours of forces in the south and in Beirut that Mr Arafat himself may return to the country following his appearance on a Christian television station in Beirut last week — an interview recorded in Baghdad and paid for, according to his Syrian enemies, with £10,000 from PLO funds.

But a final battle has still to be fought around the refugee camps of Lebanon before Mr Arafat dare come back to the land he departed in such ignominy after the siege of Tripoli in 1983.

In the southern city of Tyre, the local Amal leadership has resolved to settle the PLO guerrillas in the Rashidiye camp, whatever the cost in civilian lives.

Sources close to Amal say Mr Nabih Berri has almost lost control of his forces in the south and that as Dr Ali Jaber, Mr Abu Fadel, Mr Mohamed Kharkous and Mr Ali Khreis — wish to destroy the Palestinian armed presence to prevent retaliation by the Israelis.

Yet the most ironic feature of this new chapter in the history of the Palestinian guerrilla movement is that its newly acquired weapons arrived in the car to have been shipped to Lebanon by sea — through the Israeli naval blockade which is supposed to have cut off all arms supplies sent to the PLO by boat from Limassol in Cyprus or from Piraeus in Greece.

Since the Syrians have been striving for months to prevent weapons reaching Mr Arafat's men, many Palestinians suspect that the Israelis deliberately allow the arms shipments to reach Lebanon so that the PLO can provide a check on the military power of Syria and its allies in the country.

If this is true, it is a policy fraught with risks. It was one of the PLO's new supplies of shoulder-fired Sam 7 missiles that brought down the Israeli air raid in the summer of 1982. Yet the Israeli air raid in the summer of 1982 failed to hit an enormous quantity of new weapons stored in a hillside camp near the Mich Mieh camp above Sidon.

The raids since then — especially those against the filthy two-storey buildings and hutments which the Israelis usually dignify with the title of a "PLO naval base" — have demonstrated how seriously the Israelis take the armed presence of the Palestinians. It was the television station of the Christian Phalange militia — among the most mortal of the PLO's enemies in Lebanon — which flouted the Arafat interview, to the intense rage of the Syrians.

It was, in the words of one Beirut newspaper editor, "Syria's long night" as Mr Arafat addressed his Lebanese audience for 80 minutes, accusing the Syrians of plotting against the Palestinians in league with the Americans and condemning Amal for laying siege to the camps in return for a Shia Muslim "canton" in southern Lebanon.

In one sense, the interview did constitute Mr Arafat's return to Lebanon. Nor have the militias here missed the significance of the PLO's new power. The Syrians oppose the PLO's presence now, just as they did during the Lebanese civil war of 1975-1976.

The Shia Muslims object to the PLO's bases in southern Lebanon, exactly as they did between 1976 and 1982. Furthermore, the more radical Lebanese Muslim groups, including many members of the Hizbollah (Party of God), are tacitly or openly in alliance with the PLO.

Mr Walid Junbait, the Druze leader, who only a few weeks ago was still referring to Mr Arafat as "the sole Palestinian leader in Lebanon", now pretends, after some fraternal conversation with Syria, to call the PLO chairman "my former friend".

But he, too, has come to terms with Mr Arafat's men — not least because many of the PLO's recent arms shipments have come through the Druze port of Khale.

## التاييمز البريطانية

# مقاتلو عرفات عادوا بقوة الى لبنان

## نبيه بري فقد سيطرته على قيادة امل في الجنوب



• وليد جنبلاط



• ياسر عرفات

بمعنى من المعاني مثلت المقاومة فعلا عودة عرفات الى لبنان. ولم تلغ القوة الجديدة لمنظمة التحرير الفلسطينية انتباه المليشيات اللبنانية. وفي الوقت الحاضر يعارض السوريون وجود المنظمة تماما مثلما عارضوه خلال الحرب الاهلية اللبنانية عام ١٩٧٦-٧٥. ويعارض الشيعة وجود قواعد للمنظمة في جنوب لبنان تماما مثلما عارضوا ذلك بين عام ١٩٧٦-١٩٨٢.

والاهم من ذلك ان الجماعات اللبنانية الاسلامية ومنها كثيرون من اعضاء حزب الله متحالفة ضمنا او علنا مع منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية.

اما وليد جنبلاط الزعيم الدرزي الذي كان حتى قبل اسابيع قليلة يشير الى عرفات باعتباره «الزعيم الفلسطيني الوحيد في لبنان» فانه يفضل الان بعد بعض المحادثات الاخيرة مع سوريا وصف نفسه

الشهر الماضي كان احد صواريخ سام ٧ الذي يطلق من الكتف من الصواريخ المشحونة حديثا للمنظمة، وفي صيف العام الحالي فشلت غارة جوية اسرائيلية في ضرب كمية ضخمة من الاسلحة الجديدة المخزونة في تلة قرب مخيم الميه وميه المطل على صيدا. ولكن الغارات الاسرائيلية التي اعقبت ذلك، وبصفة خاصة ضد المباني المكونة من طابقين ومعسكرات الاكواخ التي يطلق الاسرائيليون عليها عادة اسم «القاعدة البحرية» لمنظمة التحرير الفلسطينية، اظهرت مدى الخطورة التي ينظر الاسرائيليون بها الى الوجود المسلح للفلسطينيين.

وكانت محطة تلفزيون مليشيات الكتائب المسيحية، وهي من «الاعداء المنظمة في لبنان»، هي التي بثت مقابلة عرفات مما اثار سخطا قويا لدى السوريين. وكما قال محرر احدى صحف بيروت فانه

بقلم : اوبرت فيسك من بيروت

بعد اربع سنوات من النكسة العسكرية والسياسية والصراعات الداخلية على السلطة اعادت منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية برئاسة ياسر عرفات ترسيخ نفسها في مخيمات اللاجئين الفلسطينيين في لبنان. والتقديرات ان عددا يصل الى ستة الاف مقاتل فلسطيني قد عادوا الى لبنان وحصلوا على امدادات اسلحة جوهرية منها صواريخ سام المضادة للطائرات، ويزيد هذا العدد على نصف القوة الفلسطينية التي اخليت من بيروت عقب الغزو الاسرائيلي في عام ١٩٨٢.

على قواته في الجنوب اللبناني وان خمسة من مسؤولي امل في صور هم الدكتور علي جابر واد فاضل ومحمد ابو الحسن ومحمد خركوس وعلي خريس يرغبون في تحطيم الوجود الفلسطيني المسلح لمنع قيام الاسرائيليين بالانتقام.

غير ان المفارقة الاكبر في هذا الفصل الجديد في تاريخ الحركة الفدائية الفلسطينية هي ان الاسلحة الجديدة التي حصلت عليها قد شحنت كما يبدو الى لبنان بطريق البحر عبر الحصار البحري الاسرائيلي المفروض ان يقطع جميع امدادات الاسلحة المرسله الى منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية بواسطة السفن من ليماسول في قبرص او من بيرايوس في اليونان. وبما ان المعارضين لعرفات كانوا يكافحون طيلة شهور لمنع الاسلحة من الوصول الى رجال عرفات بشك الان كثير من الفلسطينيين، فمن ان

ويسيطر الفدائيون الفلسطينيون الان عمليا على مدينة صيدا، وهم يحملون اسلحتهم الشخصية في الشوارع التجارية الرئيسية، بينما كانت حتى الفصائل المؤيدة لسوريا في الظاهر تحارب ضد مليشيات حركة امل الى جانب مؤيدي عرفات في بيروت.

وتوجد اشاعات متزايدة في جنوب لبنان وفي بيروت بان عرفات نفسه ربما يعود الى لبنان عقب ظهوره على شاشة محطة تلفزيون مسيحية في بيروت الشرقية في الاسبوع الماضي، وهي مقابلة سجلت في بغداد.

غير ان معركة نهائية ما تزال متوقعة حول مخيمات اللاجئين في لبنان. قبل ان يتمكن عرفات من نزول لبنان الذي ابعد عنه بعد حصار مدينة طرابلس في عام ١٩٨٣.

في مدينة صور، قررت القيادة

## 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

## Cooling off

INSTANT fame often sours. Before cold fusion—which promised cheap and clean energy—high-temperature superconductivity was the darling of physics. While fusion's fortunes have fallen spectacularly (though the saga is not yet over), high-temperature superconductors have quietly been suffering their own reverses. Their promise—superfast computer chips, levitating trains and the like—now seems more distant than ever. But, severe as the superconductors' troubles might be, it is as unwise to dismiss them now as it was to exult when they were discovered two years ago.

Unlike most conductors, which drain energy from electrical charge as it flows, superconductors offer no resistance. The superconductors that were discovered early this century need to be kept bitterly cold. This makes them expensive and thus of limited use. Hence the fuss in 1987 when two researchers at IBM's laboratories in Zurich and scientists at the University of Houston in Texas discovered superconductors which work at relatively high temperatures. Scientists dreamt up all sorts of applications for their new fascination, later christened HTC materials. Nobel prizes went to two of their discoverers. Scientists found new families of HTCs that worked at ever-higher temperatures. Then things started to go wrong.

Part of the trouble is that the materials are brittle, so they cannot easily be made into useful shapes. Also, they stop superconducting when they carry large currents. HTCs are complicated arrangements of a few elements, mainly yttrium, barium, bismuth, copper and oxygen. Many turn out to be chemically unstable. Now another, equally tricky, problem has turned up.

Many applications of HTCs ask them to behave as electromagnets. These applications exploit the magnetic field created whenever electrical charge moves round a coil of conducting material. Conventional materials drain energy from moving charge, thereby limiting their magnetic powers. Superconductors do not. So HTCs promise powerful electromagnets for "free".

At least they used to. Papers recently published in *Physical Review Letters* by researchers at AT&T Bell Laboratories in New Jersey and IBM's Watson laboratories in New York state, suggest that in the realm of electromagnetism, high-temperature superconductivity has run into trouble.

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 bunched 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 of them is enough to prevent all of them from being pushed aside, and 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 unpin 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 temperature at which the structure of magnetic bundles melts. In many cases this seems to be much lower. For instance, the critical temperature of an HTC made of bismuth, strontium, copper and oxygen is  $-188^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Yet the magnetic structure melts between  $-250^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $-240^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

Not all the news is bad. Scientists from Sumitomo Electric Industries, near Osaka, have seen large magnetic fields in thin superconducting films of bismuth HTC at  $-195^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Others hope to make large samples of HTC 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



Little brother is watching

patenting a "flushometer". Since then audience-ratings services have striven for greater accuracy. Their latest contraption 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 started 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.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY continues on page 144 >  
THE ECONOMIST JUNE 17 1989

# Syrian Army chief rules out rescue of hostages

From Robert Fisk, west Beirut

Brigadier-General Ghazi, the Commander of the Syrian Army in west Beirut, said yesterday that his army would not undertake an operation to rescue hostages in Lebanon. He described Mr Terry as the Archbishop of Canterbury's missing envoy, a man who showed "too much courage" and who "set himself up as a hostage" in efforts to help others find a political solution. He said that lead to the release of foreigners because of an operation by us led to their deaths. "I did suggest — as the ambassador, Mr John — that there may soon be a solution to the ordeal of those for whom Syria is making a great effort," Mr Ghazi said.

news of Mr Waite "in the coming days."

In an hour-long interview yesterday, the general also stated that the Syrian Army would not, after all, enter the Shia suburbs of Bourj el-Barajneh and Hay el-Selum — where most of the hostages are thought to be held — but insisted that foreigners could now return safely to west Beirut "and I will take responsibility for them."

The general gave a formidable, self-confident and, at times, rather chilling performance. He repeatedly expressed Syria's concern for kidnap victims in Lebanon but made it quite clear how ruthlessly the Syrians intended to deal with their enemies in the country. A total of 38 men, he said, had so far been killed by his troops in west Beirut, and at least 20



Brigadier-General Kenaan: A chilling performance

The Hezbollah (Party of God) have claimed that Syrian troops led 23 of their members from their offices in Basta on Tuesday night and shot them in cold blood. General Kenaan's description of the same incident yesterday had a haunting quality about it.

them over to Syrian forces," he said. "We agreed that at 5 o'clock in the evening, we would implement our security plan (in Basta). At five, we gave orders to our men to deploy there but they were surprised because suddenly the electricity was cut. The people there were burning their offices."

"Then we came under fire and one of my soldiers was wounded in the knee. So we dealt (sic) with these gunmen in the way you have seen."

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 militia commanders of responsibility.

When I asked the general what he thought of the demands for his death made by

a show of nonchalance. "I 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 embassies 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 Palestinian camps would "fade" as the militias had left their positions.

- Mr Waite "showed too much courage when he came here. He came to sort out 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 no

# كنعان: القوات السورية لن تلتجئ

## إلى عملية عسكرية لإنقاذ الرها

نسبت صحيفة «التايمز» إلى اللواء غازي كنعان قائد الجيش السوري في بيروت الغربية قوله أن جنوده لن يقوموا بعملية عسكرية من أجل انقاذ سراج الرهاين الغربيين في لبنان.

وقالت الصحيفة في خبر بحث به مراسلها في بيروت روبرت فيسك أن كنعان وصف تييري وبت المبعوث الخاص لرئيس أساقفة كانتربيري المفقود منذ حوالي ستة أسابيع بأنه «رجل إنذار شجاع أكثر مما ينبغي» وسلم نفسه بنفسه رهينة من أجل جبهته لمساعدة الآخرين.

كما قال أن الحل السياسي هو الذي يمكن أن يؤدي إلى الاتفاق سراج الأجانب المفقودين لأن «أي عملية عسكرية تقوم بها يمكن أن تؤدي إلى موتهم».

«حل قريب»

إلا أنه اقترح في الوقت نفسه - مثلما ألمح السفير البريطاني في بيروت جون جراي أيضا - أنه قد يكون هناك حل قريب لمحنة الرهاين الذين قال قائد الجيش السوري أن سورية لا تأو جبهدا من أجلهم. كما أعرب عن أمله في أن يكون لديه أخبار عن تييري وبت خلال الأيام المقبلة.

السورية اقتادت ٢٢ شخصا من أعضائه من مكاتب الحزب في البسطة مساء الثلاثاء الماضي ثم انشقت للثيران عليهم.

وقالت الصحيفة أن وصف اللواء كنعان لتفاصيل تلك الحادثة تبعث على الانزعاج. إذ قال: «لقد طلبنا إلى كل رجال الميليشيا أن يفادروا مكانهم وسلموهم إلى القوات السورية. واتفقنا أننا سنسحب في الساعة الخامسة مساء خسطننا الامنية (في البسطة). وفي الساعة الخامسة أصدرنا الأمر لرجالنا للانشطار ولتزام فوجئوا لأن التهرباء انقضت بقتلهم».

ومضى يقول: «لقد كان الناس هناك يخرقون مكتبهم. ثم تعرضنا للثيران وأصيب أحد جنودي بجروح في ركبته. وهكذا تعاملنا مع المسلحين بالطريقة التي رأيناها».

غير انضباطيين

وقالت الصحيفة أن اللواء كنعان وصف الرجال الثلاثة والعشرين بأنهم «لم يكونوا تحت إمرة منظمهم، كما وصف الخمسة عشر الآخرين الذين قتلهم القوات السورية بأنهم «غير منظمين» مما يعني أن اللواء كنعان

أعفى قادة الميليشيات من المسؤولية ومضى فيسك يقول: «وعندما اللواء كنعان عن رأيه في الصبر التي تعالت مطالبة بموته اثره الثلاثة وعشرين رجلا أجاب بلا ويربالة جاش: «ليس لدى أي حل هذا وهذا لا يعني كما أنه لا خطئنا».

وبينما كان يتحدث كانت القوات السورية الخاصة تتخذ مواقعها في كل السفارات في القلعة الاسلحة بيروت.

ومن أهم النقاط الأخرى التي في المقابلة الخاصة مع اللواء كنعان أن انتشار القوات السورية في بيروت الغربية لن يقتصر على مقرها له أصلا أي ظهر يوم (السن).

حرب المخيمات الثلاث

ستتوقف مع مغادرة الميليشيات مواقعها.

أظهر تييري وبت شجاعة ما يجب بمجيئه إلى بيروت وأرجل أزمة رهائن فانتهم وأرسل الرهاين ومرو الذي شاركهم رهينة.

أن الذين يحتجزون الرهاين لا يشرف السوري.



## INTERNATIONAL

brasive democracy, re-born in 1979 after even years of military rule, is in imminent danger. Nor is the president. The heads 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 floated, and although oil exports slumped by 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

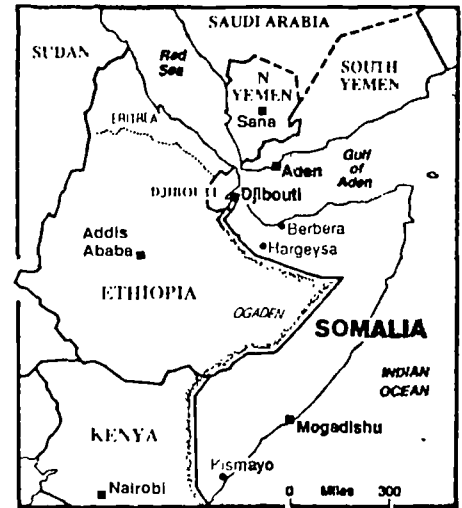
The breeze of militant Islam blows briskly through Lebanon's Shia Muslim community, and General Antoine Lahad's South Lebanon Army is feeling the chill. The SLA, a 2,000-strong militia consisting largely of Lebanese Christians, was established by Israel to police the narrow "security zone" it has set 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.



sian 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 affectations. 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 slashed their military assistance programme from \$33m in 1985 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-

## 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 indestructible 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 Rus-

# Reagan sends fleet to Gulf

From Alex Brummer  
and Michael White  
in Washington,  
and David Fairhall  
in London

## Ships head for Gulf

Continued from page one

ing frustration with American who remain in Lebanon by telling US citizens who remain that their passports would become invalid after 30 days. Lebanon is now out of bounds for American travellers.

In the past week three Americans have been seized by terrorists in the latest wave of kidnapping, which has netted 12 Westerners. The White House last night carefully avoided any comment on the fate of Mr Terry Waite, out of concern for his well being.

For the first time since the abortive US rapprochement with the Khomieni regime in Iran, a senior administration official pointed the finger of responsibility for hostage takings at a breakaway group of the Shi'ite Muslim sect, Hezbollah.

The present naval deployments by the US are said by analysts here to be the largest since the Libyan raids. The five-vessel force, believed usually to patrol the strategic Gulf of Hormuz through which half the West's oil passes, is not in itself substantial enough to affect the battle for Basra. But it is seen as a show of support for Arab moderates, notably Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, meeting in Kuwait this week.

But the Kitty Hawk, the 80,000-ton aircraft carrier, and its escorts in the Indian Ocean, were being moved into the northern Arabian Sea — outside the Gulf, but within minutes' flying time.

In addition, the Sixth Fleet carrier group around the Nimitz was dispatched ahead of schedule towards the eastern Mediterranean, and the 12-ship Kennedy carrier task force was told to remain indefinitely in the area.

US air and naval forces were last night being moved within striking distance of the Gulf, as the White House kept its military options open in view of deepening 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 as the Jackal State of the

Irish troops escape annihilation. Reagan's lesson goes down well. Arms cache found, page 10.

Union address to Congress and 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 to the wrong audience at the wrong time," one Democratic senator said, as Republicans privately expressed disappointment.

As a further indignity, the spokesman, Mr Larry Speakes, yesterday had to dodge questions arising from Speaker Rainsaniani of Iran's claim to have a bible signed by the President as late as October 8, 1986 — five months after Mr Robert McFarlane's abortive cake-bearing mission to Tehran.

No imminent military action was anticipated in the Gulf but defence analysts noted that the new National Security Adviser, Mr Frank Carlucci, was anxious to show his mettle.

President Reagan had a round of meetings yesterday with top security aides, including the Secretary of State, Mr George Shultz. What worried US analysts was that "an over-zealous, crazy or nervous Iranian or Iraqi might inadvertently attack an American ship."

The Pentagon said that a five-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 "strategic interests of the US and her allies in the area had to be protected".

Two carrier groups in the Mediterranean were rerouted eastwards, and port calls were cancelled for many of the 30 ships of the US Sixth Fleet.

Ten British-based American F-111 bombers of the type that raided Libya have flown to a base in Turkey, from which they could reach a wide range of Middle East targets. However, there is no evidence to indicate that this deployment is part of any US plans for military intervention, either in Lebanon or the Gulf.

The US air force said yesterday that the bombers were on a routine training mission to the weapons training range at Konya, in central Turkey. Successive batches of British-based F-111s regularly used the range each winter.

After the controversial Libyan raid, which was flown direct from USAF bases in Britain, Mrs Thatcher expounded the principle that, while the British Government's permission was needed, details of the operation — including the targeting — were a matter 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 not clear.

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 used by American U2 reconnaissance aircraft.

In Nicosia, a Cyprus government spokesman, responding to a spate of local speculation, said it had been given advance notice of the British exercise, and stressed that no American forces were involved. In London, the Foreign Office dismissed similar speculation that the SAS might be involved in plans to rescue Mr Terry Waite, the Archbishop of Canterbury's envoy who is missing in Beirut.

The US Administration last night demonstrated its increas-

الغاليان البريطانيون

# الاستخبارات العسكرية الأميركية في المشرق والخليج

في ليلة ٢٨ يناير الماضي تم نقل قوات أميركية جوية وبحرية ضمن مدى الضرب في الخليج، بينما ترك البيت الأبيض خيال انه العسكري مفتوحة نظراً لزايد عمق نفوذ سبب الرهائن الغربيين المحتجزين في لبنان والعرب الإيرانية العراقية.

وقال البنتاغون ان قوة عمليات ك 35 تتكون من خمس سبل من المدرعات والرافعات المسلحة بالصواريخ قد تم إرسالها باتجاه شمال الخليج نحو منطقة الحرب، وسط تحذيرات جديدة من كبار المسؤولين ان حالة الاتحاد الأميركي في ليلة الثلاثاء الماضي، فشلاً واضحاً في تحقيق الهدف منه، وهو إعادة ترميخ سمعة الرئاسة بعد «إيران

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ستقوم بها سبل كثيرة من ثلاثين سبلية للأسطول السادس الأميركي، وطارت عشر قاذفات «اف ١١١» أميركية من قواعدها البريطانية الى قاعدة في تركيا تستطيع منها الوصول الى سفينة واسعة من

الاعتدال في الشرق الأوسط غير كذا انه لا يوجد اي دليل يشير الى ان هذا الاستشعار الأميركي العسكري هو جزء من اي خطط للولايات المتحدة للتقدم بفتح عسكري في لبنان أو الخليج.

في ٢٨ يناير الماضي قال سلاح الجو الأميركي ان القاذفات العشر كانت في مهمة تدريب روتينية، وفي من النوع الذي هاجم ليبيا في «قزانيا» بوسط تركيا. وقد استخدمت

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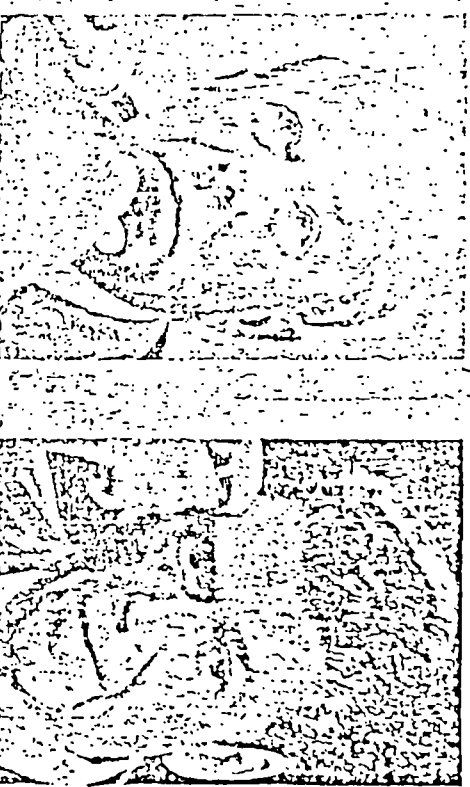
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22 لاظهار معنونه. الجديد لرائك كارلوس، كان توافاً  
ولي ٢٨ يناير أيضاً عند الرئيس  
ريغان جولة اجتماعات مع كبار  
معاونيه الإقليميين بمن فيهم وزير  
الخارجية جورج شولتز. ان ما اثار  
قلق المحللين الأميركيين كان  
«احتمال ان يقوم إيراني أو عراقي  
ملط في حياضه بهجومه سفلية

Prompted 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.

Text R

## Beirut war of the camps

# Misery of Palestinian refugees worsens as relief convoy blocked

From Juan Carlos Gumucio, Beirut

It was hatred again which latest internal conflict has wrought. Ignoring an anonymous voice that interrupted the transmission twice, shouting obscenities in English and Arabic, Dr Giannou said: "There is not enough milk for children under two years of age or pregnant women. Women who are breastfeeding their children are now running short of milk because of the lack of correct nutrition. Elderly people with cardiac and chest problems, because of the overcrowding in the few underground shelters available, are unable to really deal with their problems," he told reporters who recorded his voice from a receiver hidden inside a desk drawer in the nearby Mar Elias camp.

Now, 60 per cent of the camp is in ruins. The water has been contaminated by sewerage. People in Chatila are clinging in hopes for a settlement, a solution that must be, in Dr Giannou's words, "an honorable 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 women, children and the elderly, who are digging trenches... Nobody has even thought of leaving."

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. The attempt to send in relief was postponed "until tomorrow" and neither medical workers nor journalists were to witness conditions inside the shattered Palestinian slums. But in a radio transmission from the adjacent Chatila camp, Dr Chris Giannou, a Canadian surgeon running the Fiel hospital there, described the suffering which Lebanon's

● BRUSSELS : The European Commission 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 (\$1.16 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 (Reuter reports).

## تناقض مخيم الكرامة بين وديهم في المخيمات المحاصرة في لبنان

نشرت صحيفة «التايمز» تحقيقا خاصا بعث به مراسلها في بيروت خوان كارلوس جوميشو قال فيه:

لقد كانت الكرامة هي التي منعت مرة أخرى وصول المواد الغذائية والاسمدادات الطبية الى اللاجئين الفلسطينيين المحاصرين في مخيم برج البراجنة مما جعل الآلاف منهم يستمرون في التضور جوعا واضطراب الكثيرين منهم الى اكل الكلاب والقنطط والفئران للبقاء على قيد الحياة.

التهديد باطلاق النار قد سرج أحد رجال ميليشيا أمل الشيعية التي تحاصر المخيم. وإذا تحركت سيارة واحدة فانتفا سنبدا في اطلاق النار مشيرا الى نهاية قريبة حيث قال ان المدافع الرشاشة جاهزة لاطلاق نيرانها. وسواء أكان يقول الحقيقة أم لا فان تحذيره كان كافيا لانتاع سائقي القافلة الصغيرة من الشاحنات الصغيرة التي كانت تحمل صورة الخميني بالاستدارة بسرعة مما جرم الفلسطينيين من الطعام والأدوية من جديد.

وهمس أحد افراد الجعفرين بأن رجل الميليشيا الذي صرخ كان قد فقد أحد اقربائه في الجولة الأخيرة من حرب المخيمات بين أمل وفدائيي منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية بزعامة ياسر عرفات.

تاجيل جديد وهكذا تم تأجيل محاولات إيصال الغذاء والمواد الطبية للفلسطينيين المحاصرين حتى «يوم غد» كما لم يسمح لعمال الاغاثة أو المرضيين أو الأطباء أو الصحفيين من مشاهدة الأوضاع البائسة داخل المخيم المزدحم. الا أن الدكتور كرس جيانو وهو طبيب كندي يدير مستشفى الفيل وصف في اذاعة له الوضع في مخيم شاتيلو المجاور والمحنة والمعاناة اللتين جرهما الصراع الأخير في لبنان على الفلسطينيين.

اذ قال الدكتور جيانو الذي تجاهل مرتين صوتا مجهولا قاطع كلامه بنسب وشتائم بالعربية والانجليزية: ولا يوجد هنا حليب للأطفال ممن هم تحت سن الثانية أو للنساء الحوامل... كما ان حليب الأمهات اللواتي يرضعن أطفالهن جف من صدورهن نتيجة عدم وجود الغذاء.

ومضى الدكتور الكندي يقول: ولم يبق في وسع المستن من النساء والرجال العجزة الذين يعانون من مشكلات في القلب أو الصدر مواجهة المشكلات المختلفة التي يعاني منها الفلسطينيون في الملاجئ القليلة التي تكتظ بهم.

وقد تحدث هذا الطبيب خلال

مايكروفون مخبأ في درج المكتب للصحفيين الذين سجلوا صوته في مخيم مار الياس المجاور.

ويقدر عدد الفلسطينيين الذين مازالوا يعيشون في مخيم شاتيلو بحوالي خمسة آلاف شخص. ولكنهم لم يواجهوا حتى الآن مخنة اضطهاد الفئران وطهيها وأكلها مثل سكان برج البراجنة. ومع ذلك فالمواد الغذائية في تناقص شديد وهم أيضا بحاجة الى مواد غذائية جديدة. كما ان المواد الطبية أخذت تصبح نادرة الوجود. اذ قال الطبيب الكندي: «ان لدينا المواد الأساسية الحيوية ولكن اعدادا كبيرة من المواد الطبية اللازمة أخذت تتفقد لاسيما تلك التي تلزم لمعالجة الأمراض المعدية». ومضى يقول: «ان امراض الجهاز التنفسي أصبحت شائعة بشكل خطير».

اجلاء المرضى واستمر الطبيب يقول انه يوجد في المستشفى الذي يديره ما بين خمسين وستين مريضا ولا بد من اجلائهم عنه كما ان حالة ستة منهم أصبحت مسافة حياة أو موت.

وقد أصبح الآن ستون بالمائة من مخيم شاتيلو دمارا وركاما كما ان المجاري الملوثة تشكل خطرا كبيرا ولاسيما بعد ان تلوث مياه الشرب منها. ولايزال سكان المخيم يأملون في التوصل الى تسوية تمثل حسب كلام الطبيب «سلاما مشرقا» لأنه لا يوجد في شاتيلو اي شخص يقبل الخنوع أو الاستسلام.

خدمات مشتركة ووصف الحياة الحالية هناك فقال: «ان الناس يشتركون جميعا في اعداد الاكل في مطابخ مشتركة لا طعام العدد الكبير من السكان والمقاتلين.. بينما جهز آخرون حمامات عامة لخمان اقل قدر ممكن من النظافة.. اما النساء فهن يخزنن في حين يشترك بعضهن في نصب الحواجز ويقوم العجائز والاطفال والنساء بحفر الخنادق.. اما فكرة الرحيل فهي لم تخطر حتى على بال أحد في المخيم».

في هذه الاثناء اشعلت إحدى النساء الفلسطينية في مخيم برج البراجنة النار في نفسها ولي اذغالها الاربعه مفضلة الموت معهم بهذه الطريقة على الموت جوعا بسبب الحصار المفروض عليهم.

«التايمز»

# 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

by Louise Branson  
Moscow

programme would work because it was based on orthodox and "outdated" Marxist-Leninist principles.

"He sounds like a modern man. He sounds a little like a 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 put down on the alcohol. We will make the system work'."

"He also promises to introduce greater democracy, by which he means more involvement by the mass of people. It does not mean that the mass is going to direct anything. He's still talking about democratic centralism, which means from the top."

"I think they're going to find that this principle of people just doing better work will not enable them to design things, to meet world competition, to make them with better quality," Hartman 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, 'Well 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 beneath them. Now come on, who's being exploited in this country? The people who don't have any goods are being exploited by the state that's run by an elite that gets all the goods it wants. There's an exploited society here."

Hartman also criticised Gorbachev's perception of the West. In particular he said the Soviet leader showed an "abysmal 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."

Hartman also complained about the way he had been treated by the Russians.

"As a diplomat, the Soviets treat you very much the way 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.

## السفير الأمريكي في موسكو ينتقد الاتحاد السوفياتي

في تقرير لها من لويش براتسون في موسكو قالت صحيفة «الضنداي» تايمز، أن آرثر هارتمان يؤدع موسكو بعد أن أمضى فيها خمس سنوات سفيراً للولايات المتحدة. ولكنه لا يغادرها بتعلق يبعث على التفاؤل. فقد قال في مقابلة أجرتها معه الصحيفة في الأسبوع الماضي أن الإصلاحات الاقتصادية والاجتماعية التي يقوم بها الزعيم السوفياتي ميخائيل جورباتشوف لن تنجح.

وقال هارتمان الذي شهد فترة الصراع على السلطة وفترة انتقال الحكم من ليونيد بريجنيف وحتى لجورباتشوف، أن الزعيم السوفياتي «ذكي بلا شك». ولكنه يشك فيما إذا كانت الإصلاحات التي يتادي بها سوف تحقق النجاح المطلوب وذلك لأنها ارتكزت على مبادئ ماركسية لينينية أورثوذكسية وقديمة.

وأضاف هارتمان يقول «أن جورباتشوف يبدو رجلاً حديثاً وهو يقول مارسوا الانضباط واعملوا ما يملئ عليكم الواجب في هذا البلد وقللوا من تناول المشروبات الكحولية. وسوف نجعل النظام صالحاً للعمل».

وقال هارتمان «أن جورباتشوف يعد أيضاً ديموقراطية أفضل ويعني بذلك مشاركة أكبر من قبل جماهير الشعب. وهذا لا يعني أن الجماهير سوف تدير أي شيء. إذ أنه ما يزال يتحدث عن الديموقراطية المركزية التي تعني الديموقراطية العليا».

واستطرد السفير الأمريكي قائلاً «اعتقد أنهم سيجدون أن مبدأ قيام الشعب بعمل أفضل، لن يمكنهم من مواجهة المنافسة وتحسين نوعية الإنتاج. وقد يضطر جورباتشوف إلى تغيير تفكيره بعد ثلاث أو أربع سنوات من الآن. أي عندما يأتي إليه رؤسائه في موسكو».

المؤسسات ويقولون له «حسنًا. أنت تعلم أننا حاولنا كل هذه الأشياء ولسوء الحظ أننا في حال تراجع». 45

ويشعر هارتمان بأن القانون الجديد الذي يسمح ببعض الإصلاحات ابتداء من الأول من مايو (أيار) المقبل لن يكون ذا مغفول لأنه لن يسمح للأفراج باستئجار الأيدي العاملة. فأحد مبادئ الماركسية هو حماية هؤلاء الناس من الاستغلال. ولكن من هو المستغل في هذا البلد؟ إن الناس الذين ليس لديهم المال هم المستغلون (فتح الغني من قبل الدولة التي تديرها نخبة من الأشخاص التي تحصل على جميع ما تريده من السلع. ويمكن القول أن في الاتحاد السوفياتي مجتمعاً مستغلاً.

وانتقد هارتمان أيضاً الصورة التي يحملها جورباتشوف عن الغرب. وقال إن الزعيم السوفياتي أظهر جهلاً كبيراً في ما يتعلق بالولايات المتحدة. فهو يحمل وجهة نظر ماركسية أورثوذكسية عن مجتمعنا وهي أن هناك مجموعة صغيرة من الأشخاص تدير جميع الأمور هناك. 65

وشكا السفير الأمريكي أيضاً من الأسلوب الذي عامله به السوفيات. «الضنداي تايمز».



# 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 in association with Jordan" 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. That led to the abrupt and embarrassing withdrawal of American peacekeeping troops after some 260 marines had died for little.

Then there are the Israelis. America's most solid friends in the Middle East are in poor shape for talks with the Arabs. Israel's inflation-wracked economy is a mess; its army is engrossed with a tricky withdrawal from Lebanon; and its push-me-pull-you coalition government would probably break up if the less belligerent, Labour, half tried to open "land-for-peace" talks with the Arabs, because the other, Likud, half wants to hang on to the West Bank indefinitely.

Fortress Israel, moreover, is in no immediate danger from its neighbours. Despite their Lebanese travail, Israel's soldiers and pilots are still the single strongest military force in the Middle East. The Syrians are

preoccupied in Lebanon, and their patrons, the Russians, although talking again about the Middle East with the Americans in Vienna this week, have yet to win back a big-power part in the region. Israel's sworn foe, the Palestine Liberation Organisation, is weak and divided. And even those liberal Israelis who have never accepted that the West Bank belonged to the land of Israel biblically or legally must at times be tempted by the argument that it is fast becoming theirs as a matter of fact. Budging such an Israel will take some doing.

And from the Arab moderates, how strong is the pressure for talks? Israel's peace with Egypt, if not especially warm, is more or less secure and falling oil revenues have weakened Saudi leverage. The reasons for talking are not strong. 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 moment 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 skilful play could take advantage of. No progress for a year or two, and the board could be tight shut again. Mr Reagan does have a chance.

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 popularity has risen since he became prime minister. Under the





● الملك هسن

# فرص التفاوض في الشرق الاوسط

الجنرال هسن

وربما يكون زعم منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية أكثر استعداءاً من أي قبل قليل لإجراء محادثات أيضاً، لأن المتطرفين قد تركوا جناح المنظمة التابع له. وفي اجتماعه مع الملك حسين ملك الأردن في ١١ فبراير الجاري قال عرفات انه قد قرر لا يشرطاً بحق إسرائيل في الموت بسلام ضمن حدود ائمة، فإذا صبح ذلك فان العقبة الصعبة المشهورة المنتهية في اجراء محادثات تضم منظمة التحرير الفلسطينية وإسرائيل ربما تقل صعوبة الان بصورة متزايدة.

ولا ينبغي أبداً قطع عرفات والملك حسين دفعا أسرع من اللازم. فإذا قدم كلاهما تنازلات لم فربما بالخير لسوف يوت أحدهما أو يوفرت كلاهما. وبهذه امريكا في المهمة المعقدة التي لا تحظى بالشمع الدافع الجائدين مما إلى الامام، ويجب ان تقابل التنازلات العربية تنازلات امريكية. وبالتنازل الإسرائيلي الإسرائيلي يجب ان يكون استعداءاً لاعادة العقبة الغربية، أو لاعادة معطها، إلى الأردن، ويوجد في امريكا رئيس ان يوضح نفسه ثانية لاعادة التخابر، ان ريفان هو الكثر من أي رئيس امريكي آخر منذ انزهاره قاصر على استخدام ضغط الدعم المالي الامريكي الإسرائيلي. ويبلغ الان أربعة مليارات دولار في السنة. مع طائلة إسرائيل على امها في الوقت نفسه. عليك ريفان أيضاً الرسائل التهديدية والأمريكية. وأخيراً للتوحيات ويجب على ريفان ان يقدم مقربات للطرفين على حد سواء، إذا أراد للفرق بين ريفان و عرفات اغراء الملك حسين وعرفات الملك إلى الحرارة بصلة خاصة، كما ان التفاوض عائدات التفاوض اشعب القوة المسموذي.

وفي مواجهة ذلك كله يمكن ان تغفر لريغان انه قد وجد ما يكفي من المشاكل الاخرى لديه: محادثات التسامح مع السوفيات، امريكا الوسطى، الاصلاح الشريفي، والتميز في الميزانية الاميركية، لماذا ان يفتخر ريفان العودة إلى داخل الشرق الاوسط؟

● السبب الاول ان اللوحة العربية الامريكية ليست جامدة كما تبدو. وقد يظهر المحتلون العرب اليوم بدون التوصل إلى حل للمشكلة الفلسطينية لسوف يندب شبح التفكر اكبر كل سنة.

● ثانياً تكشف نظرة ادى على الشرق تغيرات قليلة بوسع السبب المناور ان يستغل منها، رغم كالتجوج للفر السببية. وإذا لم يتم احراز أي تقدم خلال سنة أو سنتين فان التغيرات قد تتفلق مرة أخرى. ان ريفان بذلك فرصة بالمثل. ولا بد من البدء في عملية لا تكون من الحدة بحيث تسبب عدم الاستقرار لرئيس وذاكر إسرائيل الحالي شمعون بيريز لكنها تمنحه فرصة للتفاوض وستقبلها إذا تمت وشعه السياسي. لك الزادات شعبيته بعد ان اصبح رئيساً للوزراء، ولا بد له طيلة لشروط حيومته الانتلاقية ان يسلم رئاسة الوزارة خلال ١٨ شهرا إلى اسحق شامير الجديد. وإذا قام بيريز باجراء انتخابات أخرى فربما للريما

بالنسبة للرياساء الاميركيين، تتلخص القضية في الشرق الاوسط في النهاية بسؤال يتعلق بالتوقيت. هل نتعب الان ام نتعب فيما بعد؟ ولا ينتهي السؤال ابداً. ففي الجانب العربي يقوم المعتدلون العرب، بقيادة الملك فهد ملك العربية السعودية وكثير من الأوروبيين الغربيين وبعض مستشاري الرئيس الاميركي بحث ريفان على القيام بمحاولة جادة لتسوية عربية - اسرائيلية.

وفي الجانب الذي يدعو إلى التسبب فيما بعد توجد مجموعة من الاسماية المأثولة والمطورة جدا لكي لا يكون الوقت الحاضر هو وقت القيام بمحاولة امريكية كبيرة للسلام. ريفان ليس الرئيس الاميركي الاول الذي يوجه الشرق الاوسط تعيسا، ويصعب لوم ريفان لتوبة قلة، ففي شهر سبتمبر عام ١٩٨٢ طرح مشروعا للسلام يرضي الامن على إسرائيل ويعرض حكما ذاتيا بالأطباء مع الأردن على الفلسطينيين مع الضعة الغربية للذين التي احتلتها إسرائيل عام ١٩٦٧، ورفضت اسرائيل السبل المشروع وكان موقف العرب منه في العمل الحارات موقفاً قاتراً.

ومن المشاريع الكبيرة الاخرى لامريكا في المنطقة محاولة تثبيت حصة لكنها مشوشة قامت بها للمحافظة على السلام في لبنان، كانت إلى استحباب سريع ومخرج لقوات حلف السلام الاميركية بعد مقتل حوالي ٢٦٠ امريكيا من اجل القتال.

ثم هناك الإسرائيليون. ان الصليب اصداق امريكا في الشرق الاوسط حالتهم سيئة لإجراء محادثات مع العرب. فالاستعداد الإسرائيلي المنكوب بالتفهم في لومين والحيف الاميركي مشغول

من الجانبين العرب والإجراء في النهاية بسؤال يتعلق بالتوقيت. هل نتعب الان ام نتعب فيما بعد؟ ولا ينتهي السؤال ابداً. ففي الجانب العربي يقوم المعتدلون العرب، بقيادة الملك فهد ملك العربية السعودية وكثير من الأوروبيين الغربيين وبعض مستشاري الرئيس الاميركي بحث ريفان على القيام بمحاولة جادة لتسوية عربية - اسرائيلية.

● ثانياً تكشف نظرة ادى على الشرق تغيرات قليلة بوسع السبب المناور ان يستغل منها، رغم كالتجوج للفر السببية. وإذا لم يتم احراز أي تقدم خلال سنة أو سنتين فان التغيرات قد تتفلق مرة أخرى. ان ريفان بذلك فرصة بالمثل. ولا بد من البدء في عملية لا تكون من الحدة بحيث تسبب عدم الاستقرار لرئيس وذاكر إسرائيل الحالي شمعون بيريز لكنها تمنحه فرصة للتفاوض وستقبلها إذا تمت وشعه السياسي. لك الزادات شعبيته بعد ان اصبح رئيساً للوزراء، ولا بد له طيلة لشروط حيومته الانتلاقية ان يسلم رئاسة الوزارة خلال ١٨ شهرا إلى اسحق شامير الجديد. وإذا قام بيريز باجراء انتخابات أخرى فربما للريما

من الجانبين العرب والإجراء في النهاية بسؤال يتعلق بالتوقيت. هل نتعب الان ام نتعب فيما بعد؟ ولا ينتهي السؤال ابداً. ففي الجانب العربي يقوم المعتدلون العرب، بقيادة الملك فهد ملك العربية السعودية وكثير من الأوروبيين الغربيين وبعض مستشاري الرئيس الاميركي بحث ريفان على القيام بمحاولة جادة لتسوية عربية - اسرائيلية.

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 neurophysiologist, and the naïveté 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 islamiya*': 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.

Columbia University

SAMAR KADI

NAGUIB MAHFOUZ, *Fountain and Tomb (Hakayat Haretna)*, tr. by Soad Sobhy, Essam Fattouh and James Kenneson, Washington, D.C.: Three Continents Press, 1988, 120 pp.

*Hikāyāt Hārītā* 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-kakūṭ al-faṣīḥ yakhruj min al-bayḍah yaṣīḥ*]

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 buyūt zuqāq bi-rummatihi*]

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’’.

[*aṣarrah l-‘arīs ‘alā ruṣṣat al-ṣūrah*]

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-arā ghurāban wāqifan ‘alā watad maghrūz fī sūr al-saḥ marbūṭ bi-hi ḥabl al-ghasīl*]

One wonders if the rendering of the verb *na‘ā* 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’ [*fakhāmah*].

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, *khooṇ 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 *-ī* on the first word, *bulbulī*, 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, which 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:

*Bulbulī khūn-i dilī khurd u-gulī ḥāṣil kard.*

(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.

University of Glasgow

MUHAMMAD SHAHEEN

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George J. Kanazi

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