CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

١.١ THE PROBLEM

In English, the simple sentence can be realized in different types in which subject and verb are obligatory elements. The sentence type SV represents the minimal English simple sentence. Moreover, English does not allow a great variety in the syntactic order of the sentence elements, i.e., the subject occupies the initial sentence position and the verb is in the second.

In Arabic, on the other hand, the sentence may be structured in one of three alternatives: SC, SA or VS. Accordingly, the Arabic simple sentence is either nominal or verbal.

Such a sort of sentence variation between the two languages, English as source language (henceforth SL) and Arabic as target language (henceforth TL), may be shown in the subjects' performance of translating English simple sentences into their Arabic counterparts. The problem arises from the fact that there is an obvious influence on the TL not so much at the level of lexis, but rather at the level of structure; i.e., the English sentence is a nominal sentence (henceforth NS) having the verb as an obligatory element which the Arabic NS does not have:

(١) The boy is clever. الولد ذكي.

(٢) The boy is here. الولد هنا.

Most of Iraqi EFL university learners may be unaware of the absence of the verb when translating such English sentence types into Arabic NSs. Moreover, they may also be unaware of transforming the verb into the initial sentence position; i.e., before the subject, when

translating some of the English simple sentences into Arabic verbal sentences (henceforth VSs) following the Standard Arabic in addition to the English tense-aspect and mood-modality shifts in translation.

(٣) My son went to the cinema yesterday.

ذهب إبني الى السينما أمس.

(٤) My son goes to the cinema every week.

يذهب إبني إلى السينما كل أسبوع.

(٥) My son will go to the cinema tomorrow.

سوف يذهب إبني إلى السينما غداً.

(Inani, ١٩٩٨: ٧٠-١)

Such learners may encounter some sort of difficulty in translating English ambiguous sentences into their Arabic counterparts:

(٦) I found the mechanic a helper.

وَجَدت الميكانيكي متعاوناً.

وَجَدتُ للميكانيكي معاوناً.

١.٢ AIMS OF THE STUDY

The present study purports at:

١. Investigating English simple sentences syntactically in comparison with their Arabic counterparts to show the aspects of similarity and difference between the two languages.

٢. Probing as deeply as possible the usefulness of using translation in the second language (henceforth L٢) teaching.

٣. Investigating the Iraqi EFL university learners' ability in translating English simple sentences into Arabic, showing those similarities and differences in structuring English and Arabic simple sentences.

٤. Finding out the problematic areas behind learners' errors in producing adequate translations of English simple sentences into Arabic; i.e., transforming the meaning of the SL into the TL through applying the

linguistic structures of that TL.

١.٣ HYPOTHESES

In the light of the preceding aims, it is hypothesized that Iraqi EFL university learners' difficulties lie in:

١- translating English simple sentences into Arabic NSs due to the absence of the verb in Arabic, namely: SVC and SVA.

٢. translating English simple sentences into Arabic VSs in virtue of being initiated with the verb according to the rules of Standard Arabic.

٣. translating ambiguous sentences out of context.

٤. not taking tense-aspect shifts and mood-modality shifts into consideration in the process of translation.

١.٤ PROCEDURES

١. Investigating English simple sentence syntactically and semantically.

٢. Investigating Arabic simple sentences: NS and VS.

٤. To identify the Iraqi EFL university learners' errors in translating English simple sentences into their Arabic counterparts, a diagnostic test is designed.

٥. The results of the test are linguistically analysed.

١.٥ LIMITS

١. The subjects of the study are limited to two samples of the fourth year learners, Department of English, College of Education in two Universities: Babylon and Al-Qadissiya.

٢. The direction of translation is from English into Arabic.

٣. The study is concerned with translating simple declarative positive English sentence into Arabic.

١.٦ VALUE

The present study has both theoretical and pedagogical values. The former lies in manifesting English and Arabic simple sentences and the significance of using translation in teaching English. The latter, on the other hand, is represented in exposing the SL influence on the TL and revealing the difficulties that may be encountered by learners. Accordingly, this study is hoped to contribute to raise learners' awareness of the differences and similarities of the English and Arabic simple sentences. It is also valuable for EFL learners, translators, researchers, teachers, writers and syllabus designers to overcome the problematic areas in this field.

١.٧ DEFINITIONS OF BASIC TERMS

١.٧.١ Difficulties is a term refers to subjects' errors which are the result of the differences between the source language and the target one.

(Corder, ١٩٧٣: ٢٥٦)

١.٧.٢ Simple Sentence is that sort of sentences which consists of a single independent finite clause (Gardiner, ٢٠٠٠: ١٢).

١.٧.٣ Translation is a process of transforming meaning from one language into another by going from the form of the first language to that of the second language by way of semantic and structure.

(Larson, ١٩٨٤: ٣)

CHAPTER TWO
THE ENGLISH SIMPLE SENTENCE

٢.١ THE NOTION OF SENTENCE

It is clear that the linguistic material is normally divided into stretches of different lengths by grammarians, and these stretches are termed units. According to Aitchison (١٩٩٩: ٩٣) human language is not a collection of a haphazard heap of individual linguistic items or units. It is a sequence of linguistic units that are produced according to certain systematic order.

Traditionally speaking, it is the sentence that represents the basic unit of language for the purpose of analysing grammar (Chalker, ١٩٨٤: ١١ and Robins, ١٩٨٠: ١٤٦). Aarts and Aarts (١٩٨٨: ٦) state that different sorts of linguistic units have always been focused on through the description of the various components of a grammar; syntactic descriptions have traditionally considered the sentence as their starting-point, smaller units being primarily looked at as 'building-blocks' of sentences.

The sentence is defined as the largest structural unit through which it is possible to organize grammar of a language (Crystal, ١٩٩٧: ٣٤٧). To be a sentence, according to Bloomfield (١٩٦١: ١٧٠), it should be independent and in absolute position; i.e., it should not be included, in any larger linguistic forms. For example, in the exclamation **Poor John**!, **Poor John** is a sentence, while in **Poor John ran away**, it is not for its being included in a larger linguistic unit.

Commenting on Bloomfield's definition of sentence, Lyons (١٩٦٨: ١٧٢) says: "the sentence is the tallest unit of grammatical description." It

is possible to establish distributional limitations and dependencies between sentence constituent parts, but the sentence itself cannot be put into distributional class.

Lyon's definition involves that "the sentence has a certain sort of unity: it is grammatically complete; it can stand on its own out of context; and it has a degree of semantic independence." (Brown and Miller, ١٩٨٠: ١٤٩).

Quirk et al. (١٩٨٥: ٤٧) state that the sentence is an indeterminate unit by virtue of being difficult to decide the end or beginning of one or another particularly in spoken language, that is why Quirk et al. resort to the independent clause as a way for defining the simple sentence saying that it is the sentence that consists of a single independent clause which is not subordinated to any other grammatical construction.

Differentiation between clause and sentence, Quirk (١٩٦٢: ٢٠١) defines the former as an SV (CA) structure that is exponent of an element in another SV (CA) structure, or of an element in a structure that is itself an element in another SV (CA) structure, while the latter as being the structure that derives its 'completeness' from the fact that it is not the exponent of an element in another structure.

According to Chomsky (١٩٥٧: ١٣), language itself is "a set of sentences". If so, Roberts (١٩٨٦: ٢٨٥) states that different sets of sentences reflect the fact that languages are different. According to the researcher's point of view Quirk et al.'s definition is the most comprehensive one; i.e., it involves others' various definitions of the sentence.

٢.٢ ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Language is defined as an intricate network of interlinked elements in which every linguistic unit is held in its position and given its identity by virtue of the other units; in other words, it is not through a random heap of individual words together that native speakers produce their own language, but rather they carefully string their words into systematic sentence patterns (Stageberg, ١٩٧١: ١٩٧ and Aitchison, ١٩٩٩: ١٦).

A sentence is composed of a sequence of words arranged according to a network of relations to be meaningful. This network of relations between the words of a sentence is referred to as sentence structure (Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٦-٧). One cannot form sentences and understand them without realizing that each sentence has an inaudible, invisible structure, that cannot be found out by mechanical means such as counting the words of a sentence; in other words, language operations depend on recognizing the internal structure of a sentence, rather than on the number of elements involved in the sentence, and this is called 'structure dependent' (Aitchison, ١٩٩٩: ١٧).

What determines the structure of a sentence is the order in which the words are organized. It is clear that this order is confined to strict rules. For illustration, if one keeps the noun phrase (NP) 'the lion' in an initial position and examines the possible ways of arranging the other words in the following sentence, one finds that only the first and the last sentence have an acceptable word order:

(١)   The lion is less dangerous in this cage.

(٢) * The lion is in this cage less dangerous.

(٣) * The lion dangerous in this cage is.

(٤) * The lion dangerous is in this cage.

(٥)   The lion in this cage is less dangerous.

The significant role of word order does not lie in only manifesting the unacceptability of the three, out of five, previous sentences, but also in the fact that a different order of the words in the two acceptable sentences, (١) and (٥), shows a difference in their structure and meaning. In (٥) **the lion** in this case is said to be less dangerous than others in other cages, while in (١) it is a specific lion that the speaker has been talking about (Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٧).

Aitchison (١٩٩٩: ٦٣) declares that different devices for manifesting the relationship of one word to another are used by different languages. Word order is the device that is manipulated most frequently in English:

(٦) The large spider frightened Aunt Matilda.

(٧) Aunt Matilda frightened the large spider.

The two sentences are composed of identical words. It is the word order that indicates who frightened whom, and that it is not **Aunt Matilda** that is large, but rather it is the **spider**. The term 'Configurational language' refers to languages which depend heavily on word order (Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٩). To be meaningful, Jespersen (١٩٦٠: ١٠١) asserts that the normal English word order of a sentence is SVO.

٢.٣ ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

Every simple declarative sentence is composed of obligatory constituents: subject and predicate; and that it may involve, in addition, one or more adjuncts. Adjuncts are either of place, time, manner, reason, etc. They are optional elements in the sentence:

(٨) John killed Bill in Central Park on Sunday.

(Lyons, ١٩٦٨: ٣٣٤-٣٥)

(٩) The dog barks.   (Jespersen ١٩٦٠: ٩٧)

In (٨) **John** is the subject and **killed Bill** is the predicate, neither of which can be omitted from the sentence in terms of being grammatically significant. By contrast, being adjuncts of place and time, **in central Park** and **on Sunday**, respectively, either or both may be removed without destroying the grammaticality of the sentence (Lyons, ١٩٦٨: ٣٣٤). Sentence (٩) contains only two obligatory sentence constituents; **'the dog'** is the subject of the sentence and **'barks'** is the predicate (Jespersen, ١٩٦٠: ٩٧).

The subject is a person or a thing that is talked about, and the predicate is the statement made about that person or thing (Eckersley and Eckersley, ١٩٦٠:٨-٩). Hockett ١٩٥٨ [cited in Lyons (١٩٦٨: ٣٣٥)] calls the person or thing about which something is said as 'the topic', while the statement made about this person or thing as 'the comment'. The subject, according to Roberts (١٩٦٢: ١٩-٢٠), is either simple in terms of being a noun with or without a determiner or a pronoun:

(١٠) John teaches Mathematics.

(١١) We talked at length with the enemy.

(Johnson, ٢٠٠٠:١-٢)

or a complex subject in terms of being modified in intricate ways instead of using noun or pronoun:

(١٢) The big dog that my brother bought yesterday in London barked furiously at the butcher. (Jespersen, ١٩٦٠: ٩٧)

٢.٤. ENGLISH SENTENCE CLASSIFICATION

English sentences are classified into:

٢.٤.١ Simple Sentence

A simple sentence consists of a single independent finite clause (one main clause). It is composed of at least a predicate (a finite verb phrase) and a subject. Objects (direct, indirect or prepositional) with intransitive verbs, complements (subject complement or object complement) and adverbials are all optional elements of a simple sentence (Gardiner, ٢٠٠٠: ١٢):

(١٣) John teaches Mathematics.   (Johnson, ٢٠٠٠: ١)

(١٤) The sky became dark.   (Shepherd et al., ١٩٨٤: ٤).

Quirk et al. (١٩٨٥: ٧٢٠) illustrate that the term 'simple' does not necessarily mean simple in a nontechnical term, i.e., simple sentence may be complicated due to its complex phrases:

(١٥) On the recommendation of the committee, the temporary chairman, who had previous experience of the medical issues concerned, made the decision that no further experiments on living animals should be conducted in circumstances that might lead to unfavourable press publicity.

The complexity of phrases lies in certain factors that are represented in the degree of their modification: the obscurity of the use of vocabulary, the compress of phrases, the use of difficult nominalization, the difficulty of understanding the coherence of the sentence as a whole, and the inavailability of the knowledge that may be presented through to content of the sentence.

٢.٤.٢ Compound Sentence

A compound sentence consists of two (or more) main clauses coordinated with a conjunction **and**, **but**, **or**, **for**, **yet**, **nor**, etc. A compound sentence should have at least two subjects, two predicators and a conjunction (Chalker, ١٩٨٤: ١١):

(١٦) I have bought a new shirt, but it does not fit me.

(Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٨٧)

(١٧) Joe lived in Glasgow and his sister lived in London.

(Gardiner, ٢٠٠٠: ١٢)

٢.٤.٣ Complex Sentence

A complex sentence consists of two (or more) clauses, one being subordinate to the other. **Subordinate** means that one clause functions as a sentence element of the other, the main clause. Unless the subordinate clause is a non-finite clause, two subjects and two predicators are needed (Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٨٣).

(١٨) Althought I admire her reasoning, I reject her conclusions.

(Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٧١٩)

(١٩) He told me what he wanted.

(Gardiner, ٢٠٠٠: ١٣)

٢.٤.٤ Compound-complex Sentence

This type of sentence consists of two or more independent clauses, at least one of which is complex:

(٢٠) The storm stopped by ten o'clock on that morning, and we went to the beach where we had stopped a picnic place earlier.

(Farghal and Shunnaq, ١٩٩٩: ٤٣)

٢.٥ SYNTACTIC TYPES OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

Quirk et al. (١٩٨٥: ٨٠٣) divide the simple sentence into four main syntactic sorts according to their form:

٢.٥.١ Declarative

Declarative sentences are those in which the subject is present and generally precedes the verb. They may be either 'affirmative' or 'negative'. (Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٠٣; Zandvoort and Van Ek, ١٩٧٢: ٢٠٦).

(٢١) I have read all of Shakespeare's tragedies.

(Gardiner, ٢٠٠٠: ١٣)

(٢٢) Pauline gave Tom a digital watch for his birthday.

(Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٠٣)

٢.٥.٢ Interrogative

It is a term that refers to that sort of sentences which begin with a finite verb, usually an auxiliary or a form of 'to be', and end with a rising intonation. The expected answer of such a sort of interrogative sentence is either 'yes' or 'no' or other words that express various nuance of affirmation or denail, such as, **certainly**, **perhaps**, **hardly**, **no at all**, etc. (Zandvoort and Van Ek, ١٩٧٢: ٢٠٦). Syntactically speaking, interrogative sentences' are formed with the inversion of the subject and the first verb in the verb phrase and such a type of sentences is called yes/no questions:

(٢٣) Is he going? (Crystal, ١٩٩٩: ٣١٩)

(٢٤) Did Pauline give Tom a digital watch for his birthday?

(Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٠٣)

The second type of interrogative sentences are those which commence with an interrogative wh-word (Crystal, ١٩٩٩: ٣١٩).

(٢٥) What are you laughing at?   (Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٩٦)

The third type of interrogative sentences are those which end with a question tag:

(٢٦) John should work harder, shouldn't he? (Ibid: ٩٤)

The fourth type of interrogative sentences is referred to as 'alternative questions'. Alternative questions are of two types: the first resembles a yes/no question with a difference in intonation. Alternative questions have a separate nucleus, instead of the final rising tone, a rise occurs on each item of the list but the last one has a fall as an indication of completing the list:

(٢٧) Would you like CHOCOLATE, vaNILLa or STRAWberry (ice cream)?

The second sort of alternative questions resembles a wh-question:

(٢٨) Which ice cream would you LIKE?

CHOcolate, vaNILLa or STRAWberry? (Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٢٣)

Gardener (٢٠٠٠: ١٣) mentions that interrogative sentences are often equated with a direct address to the reader in a written text. For illustration, it is possible to say that advertisement tries to imply the reader by asking a question. In speech, interrogative structures can be used as a way of forming a more polite command:

(٢٩) Could you open the window?

۲.٥.۳ Imperative

Imperative sentences are those sentences which contain a verb in the imperative mood. As a rule the subject is always lacking, if not, it is usually 'you'. (Aarts and Aarts, ۱۹۸۸: ۹٥)

(۳۰) Call at once.   (Quirk et al., ۱۹۸٥: ۸۰۳)

(۳۱) Read Shakespeare's Hamlet by next week. (Gardiner, ۲۰۰۰: ۱۳)

Zandvoort and Van Ek (۱۹۷۲: ۲۰۸) point out that an imperative may be preceded or followed by 'you', 'somebody', 'someone', 'everybody', 'everyone', for emphasis or specification:

(۳۲) You be quiet.

(۳۳) Come on, everybody.

۲.٥.٤ Exclamative

Exclamative sentences are those sentences which are introduced by a **what** or **how** phrase, usually with subject verb order (Quirk et al., ۱۹۸٥: ۸۰۳).

(۳٤) How brave you are!   (Aarts and Aarts, ۱۹۸۸: ۹٥)

In addition, there is some sort of resemblance between wh-questions and exclamative sentences lying in requiring the initial placement of an exclamatory wh-element. Therefore, the wh-element may be altered from its normal (statement) position and put into an initial prominent position. On the other hand, an exclamative sentence is in contrast to a wh- question in the sense that there is no subject-operator inversion.

(Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٠٤)

In literary English, it is sometimes possible to use the subject-operator inversion, and it is clear particularly with a purposed adverbial, subject complement, or direct object:

(٣٥) How often have I bitterly regretted that day!

(٣٦) How rarely do I see you! (Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٣٣)

٢.٦ DISCOURSAL FUNCTIONS OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

The four syntactic types of the simple sentence in (٢.٥) may be primarily uttered to have a particular function in speech situations. Declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences are chiefly used when the speaker wants to make statements, questions, commands and exclamations respectively.

(Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٩٥)

Interestingly, a direct association between the grammatical form of a sentence, the syntactic class, and its communicative function is only a norm (Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٠٤). There is no 'one-to-one correspondance' between the grammatical form of a sentence and its functional role, or its 'illocutionary force'. In other words, sentences may have the same grammatical properties, but not the same illocutionary force (Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٩٥):

(٣٩) Pauline gave Tom a digital WATCH?

(Quirk et al., ٥: ٨٠٤)

(٤٠) I'd love a cup of TEA. (Ibid)

(٣٩) is a declarative question, i.e. it is syntactically a declarative sentence but semantically a question. In (٤٠) the declarative is,

semantically speaking, an imperative sentence suggesting that the speaker demands a cup of tea. Thus simple sentences are functionally divided into:

٢.٦.١ Statements

Quirk et al. (١٩٨٥: ٨٠٣-٠٤) point out that statements are those sentences that are mainly used to convey information:

(٤١) John lives in Kent. (Aarts and Aarts, ١٩٨٨: ٩٥)

(٤٢) They study sociology. (Shepherd et al., ١٩٨٤:١٣)

Moreover, it is possible to make many more refined discoursal functions of the statement; to make a prediction, an assertion, or to offer an apology:

(٤٣) It's going to rain any minute now.

(٤٤) Engineers are building massive hydroelectric projects in China.

(٤٥) I'm sorry about the delay. (Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٠٤)

Assertions, predictions, and apologies are pragmatic categories that give an indication of how the semantic classes of sentences are manipulated in actual utterances (Ibid).

٢.٦.٢ Questions

Questions are chiefly used to fill in gaps of information concerning a particular point. They have the illocutionary force of inquiries. It is possible to answer any utterance of a question having the illocutionary force of an inquiry by **I don't know** or **I'm not sure**, or by a refusal to

answer: **It is none of your business** <impolite>, or by an evasion saying that:

Good question, or by a challenge to a presupposition of the question: **Do you like Joan Parker**? **-I don't know any Joan Parker**. (Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٠٥-٦)

In addition, questions are often used as directive implying requests, offers, invitations, and advice, as shown respectively:

(٤٦) Could you please make less noise?

(٤٧) Do you want another cup?

(٤٨) Why don't you take an aspirin?   (Ibid: ٨٠٦)

Questions do not generally imply that the speaker does not know the answers, but they are also used in particular contexts where the speaker knows the answer but wants to check whether the hearer knows or not. Such a use may be found in the contexts of written examination, exercises in textbooks, and questions by teachers, parents, and interviewers to test the hearer's knowledge (Ibid: ٨٠٧)

٢.٦.٣ Commands

Semantically speaking, the purpose of using commands is to inform people to do or not to do something (Crystal, ١٩٩٩: ٧٠).

Commands contain the omitted subject, i.e., the ٢nd person pronoun 'you'. Then many grammarians demonstrate the implied subject through the use of 'you' as a subject of a tag-question:

(٤٥) Be quiet, will you?

or by the occurrence of the reflexive pronoun, 'yourself', 'yourselves'

etc.:

(٤٦) Behave yourself/ves.

But not

(٤٧) * Behave myself.

and by the use of only emphatic possessive 'your own':

(٤٨) Use your own comb.   (Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٢٧)

Sometimes commands are manipulated to give the impression of strong irritation, in such a use the stressed subject 'you' is used:

(٤٩) 'You mind your own business.

(Zandvoort and Van Ek, ١٩٧٢: ٢٠٨)

(٥٠) 'You' show me what to Do.   (Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٨٢٨)

Moreover, 'you' may also be used in the sense of addressee-distinguishing, isolating one person out of a set of persons. To make the identity of the person clear, the vocative or some gesture such as pointing is used:

(٥١) Here! YOU take the book!

(٥٢) 'you take THIS chair, and I'll take THAT one.

Finally, the first person imperative sentence can be formed through the use of the verb 'let' that is followed by a subject in the object case:

(٥٣) Let's all work hard.   (Ibid)

٢.٦.٤ Exclamations

Crystal (١٩٩٩: ١٤٢) states that the term 'exclamations' traditionally refers to any emotional utterance to the speaker's internal impression toward something. Gardiner (٢٠٠٠: ١٣) mentions that exclamatory sentences are 'emphatic sentences'. According to the researcher, exclamative sentences imply the speaker's psychological state toward something in a situation s/he finds her/himself in.

٢.٧ BASIC STATEMENT PATTERNS

Roberts (١٩٦٢: ٢٥) says that it is possible to notice even in 'very' simple sentences that the predicate may be composed of different structures. And it is this variety of the predicate that is responsible for recognizing different English sentence patterns.

According to Chalker (١٩٨٤: ٢١-٢), the predicate is divided into:

verb phrase (VP)-essential

object   (O)

complement (C) essential in many verb patterns

adverbial   (A) usually optional

He considers the verb as an element of central importance in the sentence structure due to the fact that it is the verb that forms the basic patterns of the simple sentence or clause.

Most grammarians such as Jesperson (١٩٦٠) Eckersley and Eckersley (١٩٦٠), Roberts (١٩٦٢), Gleason (١٩٦٥), Stageberg (١٩٧١), Zandvoort and Van Ek (١٩٧٢), Chalker (١٩٨٤), and Quirk et al., (١٩٨٥) present different patters of the simple sentence. Being a model for this study, according to the researcher's point of view, Quirk et al. manifest a comprehensive classification of the basic simple patterns holding the

term 'clause types' as follows:

(٥٤) SV : Someone was laughing.

(٥٥) SVO : My mother enjoys parties.

(٥٦) SVC : The country became totally independent.

(٥٧) SVA :I have been in the garden.

(٥٨) SVOO : Mary gave the visitor a glass of milk.

(٥٩) SVOC: Most people consider these books rather expensive.

(٦٠) SVOA: You must put all the toys upstairs.

These seven clause types can be represented in three main types:

a two-element pattern: SV

three three-element patterns: SV+ $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} O \\ C \\ A \end{array} \right\}$

three four-element patterns: SVO+ $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} O \\ C \\ A \end{array} \right\}$

(Quirk et al., ١٩٨٥: ٥٣)

Being classified in such a way, the main verb is classified into:

١. Intransitive verbs are those verbs which have no obligatory element and occur in type SV.

٢. Transitive verbs take an object, and occur in types SVO, SVOO, SVOC, and SVOA.

٣. Copular verbs that are followed by a subject complement or an adverbial, and occur in types SVC and SVA. (Ibid: ١١٦٩-٧١)

(٦١) The girl seemed restless.

(٦٢) William is my friend.

(٦٣) The kitchen is downstairs.

(Ibid: ١١٦٩-٧١)

CHAPTER THREE
THE ARABIC SIMPLE SENTENCE

٣.١ THE NOTION OF SENTENCE

Most Arabic linguists consider the sentence as a starting point for recognizing the linguistic features of the language; i.e. understanding the sentence representing the base for a deep linguistic study. Thus, it is defined as an independent linguistic form (خرما، ١٩٧٨: ٢٨٨), it is the minimal unit of speech (عبد اللطيف، د.ت: ١٨).

To be a sentence, according to العزاوي [cited in (الكبيسي، ١٩٨٦: ٦٩)] and الجرجاني (١٩٣٨: ٦٩), it should have predication regardless of its meaningfulness. They consider any construction that is composed of two words predicated to each other as a sentence. In other words, the linguistic structure of the sentence is more important than its meaning. While بسيوني (١٩٨٩: ١٢) considers the sentence as a part of 'speech' in the sense that 'speech' should be both sufficient and meaningful.

Moreover, أبن جني [cited in (السامرائي، ١٩٩٤: ٤)] declares that 'speech' is that sort of pronunciation which is independent by itself giving a particular meaning and it is referred to as 'sentence' by Arab grammarians.

٣.٢ PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

It is necessary for every sentence to consist of two parts, a subject and a predicate. Nasr (١٩٦٧: ١٨٩) considers the subject as "the focal point in the utterance-the part talked about", while the predicate is "what is said about the subject.". Arab grammarians call the subject as (المُ سَّدإليه), and

the predicate as (الْمُسْـنَدُ), and the relation that connects them as (الإِسْنَاُ) which is considered important for constructing sentences.

<div dir="rtl">(عبد اللطيف، د.ت: ٤٠؛ خرما، ١٩٧٨: ٢٨٨)</div>

Wright (١٩٣٠: ٢٥٠) defines (الْمُسْنَُ) 'the predicate' as "that part which leans upon or is supported by (the subject), the attribute", while (الْمُسْنَُإِلَيْـه) 'the subject' as "that part upon which the attribute leans, or by which it is supported, that to which something is attributed". Further, he defines (الإِسناد) as "the act of leaning one thing against another."

The construction of the Arabic sentence is shown in two ways according to the predicate of the sentence, where the sentence may be composed of (verb) with (noun) or (noun) with (noun): terminologically speaking, (فعل) (verb) and (فاعل) (the subject) or (نائب فاعل) (subject substitute) and sometimes (الْخَبَرُ) (الْمُسنَُ) and (المبتدأ) (الْمُسنَُإِلَيْـه) :

أقبلَ سعيدُ (١)	Sa'eed came.
سَعِيدُمُقبل (٢)	Sa'eed is coming.

<div dir="rtl">(السامرائي، ٢٠٠٢: ١٥)</div>

In addition, السـامرائي (١٩٩٤: ١٠-١١) illustrates that the Arabic sentence consists of two indispensable parts: subject and predicate, that are termed as (عُمْـدَةٌ) and whatever out of the subject and predicate is referred to as (فَـضْـلَةٌ) that Wright (١٩٣٠: ٢٥٠) calls (a support) and (a redundancy) respectively.

Moreover, the subject of a sentence may be a noun or a pronoun that is implied in the verb, while the predicate is either a noun or a verb or an adjective:

زيدٌعالِمٌ (٣)	Zeid is a scientist
ماتَ (٤)	He died.

(٥) أنتَ شريفٌ   You are noble.

<div dir="rtl">(Wright, ١٩٣٠: ٢٠-١)</div>

(٦) الرجل مَلِكٌ   The man is a king.

<div dir="rtl">(Ziadeh and Winder, ١٩٥٧: ٢٤)</div>

(٧) جاءَ محمدُ   Mohammed came.

<div dir="rtl">(الضامن، ١٩٨٩: ٦٤)</div>

(٨) الأرضُ كروية   The earth is round.

<div dir="rtl">(العزاوي، ١٩٨٦: ١٥٠)</div>

٣.٣ TYPES OF THE ARABIC SIMPLE SENTENCE

Arab grammarians differ in their classification of the Arabic sentence, some say they are two: the NS (الجملة الإسمية) and the VS (الجملة الفعلية), and others say three adding the adverbial sentence (الجملة الظرفية) of which the predicate is a preposition with a genitive referring to a place; and if the genitive refers to any other relation rather than place, it is called a sentence that runs the course of a sentence (جملة جارية مجرى الظرفية). According to Wright (١٩٣٠: ٢٥٣), the expression (adverb) (ظرف) is generally used to refer to (prepositional phrase) (جَارُّ ومجرورٌ). Other grammarians say that there are four types of the Arabic simple sentence adding the conditional sentence (الجملة الشرطية), where it is considered as an independent sort of sentence. However, many other grammarians do not consider the conditional sentence as a unique sentence type as ابن يعيش [cited in (٢٥ عبد اللطيف، د.ت:)] who says that the origin of a VS is that the verb and subject should be independent by themselves: قـامَ زيـدُ, **Zeid stood**., but when the 'conditional if', (أداة الشـرط) comes to connect the two parts of the sentence, the matter will differ in the sense that it will be dependent. The condition, (الشرط) is a sense just like 'negation' (النفي), 'emphasis' (التوكيد), and 'question' (السؤال).

Only the first two types of the Arabic simple sentence, i.e., NSs and VSs, will be dealt with.

٣.٣.١ The Nominal Sentence

NSs are those which begin with nouns. The subject of a NS is referred to as (المُبَدَأُ), with which a beginning is made, and its predicate is (الخَبَرُ) which Wright (١٩٣٠: ٢٥١) translates as 'the inchoative' and 'the enunciative' or 'announcement' respectively.

As far as definiteness in the simple NS is concerned, Haywood and Nahmad (١٩٦٥: ٢٢-٣) mention that "there is no indefinite article in Arabic, but the presence of 'nunation' at the end of a noun indicates indefiniteness. Thus, 'بَيْتٌ' means 'a house'. However, in Arabic, definiteness is determined through the use of the article 'أَلْـ' 'the' that comes before its noun, e.g. 'البَيْتُ'. Being definite, the noun loses its 'nunation'.

Nasr (١٩٦٧: ١٩٠-٩١) points out that NSs may be represented in the following patterns:

١. Nominal subject + Nominal predicate:

الوَلَدُ تِلميذٌ (٧)   (The boy is a student)

٢. Nominal subject + Quality:

الوَلَدُ كبيرٌ (٨)   (The boy is big.)

٣. Quality + Nominal predicate:

الواقِفُ أميرٌ (٩)   (The standing (one) is a prince.)

٤. Quality + Quality:

الواقَفُ كبيرٌ (١٠)   (The standing (one) is big.)

٥. Nominal subject + Verbal predicate:

الوَلَدُ يَسْبَحُ (١١)   (The boy is swimming.)

٦. Quality + Verbal predicate:

الواقِفُ يقرأُ (١٢)   (The standing (one)is reading.)

٧. Nominal subject + Phrase:

الوَلَدُ في البيتِ(١٣)   (The boy is in the house.)

٨. A nominal sentence could be introduced by any function word except (كان وأخواتها) (Kaana and its sisters):

إن الوَلَد تلميذُ (١٤)   ((that) the boy is a student.)

خرما (١٩٧٨: ٢٩٢) illustrates the NS according to the following patterns:

١. Noun + Noun:

علي طبيبٌ (١٥)   (Ali is a doctor.)

٢. Noun + Adjective:

زيدُمريض (١٦)   (Zeid is sick.)

٣. Noun + Adverb (or Prepositional Phrase):

محمد هناك (١٧)   (Mohammad is there.)

سمير تحت الشجرة (١٨)   (Sameer is under the tree.)

سمير في البيت (١٩)   (Sameer is in the house.)

٤. Noun + Intransitive Verb

علي سافرَ (٢٠)   (Ali travelled.)

٥. Adverb (or Prepositional phrase) + Noun:

في البيت رجلٌ (٢١)   (There is a man in the house.)

٦. Noun + Monotransitive Verb:

أحمد غادرَ البلد (٢٢)   (Ahmed left the country.)

٧. Noun + Ditransitive Verb:

محمد أعطاني كتاباً (٢٣)   (Mohammad gave me a book.)

                              (the researcher's translation)

Aziz (١٩٨٩: ١٩٨: ٩٩) classifies the NS according to two patterns:

١. Subject + Complement:

الطفلةُ جميلة (٢٤)   (The child is pretty.)

The S element is normally definite while the C element is often indefinite. If C is definite, it is possible to insert the pronoun of the ٣rd person between the two elements; i.e., SC:

اللهُ هو الحيُّ القيوم (٢٥) Allah is the Living, the Self-Subsisting.

اللهُ هو الحياةُ والحقُّ (٢٦)   Allah is the Life and the Truth.

(Wright, ١٩٣٠: ٢٥٩)

٢. Subject + Adverb:

الطفلة في سريرها (٢٧)   The baby is in her bed.

In such a sort of pattern, SA, it will obligatorily appear as AS if S is indefinite:

في الصندوق ذهبٌ (٢٨)   (There is gold in the box.)

As far as the predicate of the NS is concerned, Ziadeh and Winder (١٩٥٧: ٢٤) limit the following three "common varieties":

١. It may be a noun or an adjective:

محمدُ رسولُ الله (٢٩)   Muhammad is the Prophet of Allah.

الرجلُ طويل (٣٠)   The man is tall.

٢. It may be a clause which is either:

(a) Verbal:

(٣١) الرجلُ جاءَ   The man came.

In (٣١), the word 'جاءَ' 'came' is a verbal clause. It is the predicate of the NS, with an understood subject referring back to 'الرَجُـل', 'man', the subject is used for emphasis.

or

(b) Nominal:

(٣٢) الرَجُـلُ ابـنُهذكي   The man, his son is intelligent.

In (٣٢), the predicate is a nominal clause; i.e., ابنُهذكي . The predicate itself contains a subject, ابنُه ', 'his son', and a predicate, 'ذكي', 'intelligent'.

or

(c) Prepositional Phrase:

(٣٣) السلام عليكم   Peace be upon you.

On the other hand, Beeston (١٩٧٠: ٦٦-٧٠) uses another sort of terms for tackling the predicate of the NS:

١. Classificatory, i.e., it assigns the theme or subject to a membership of a category:

(٣٤) جو غني   Joe is rich.

(٣٥) جِو رجلٌ غني   Joe is a rich man.

٢. Identificatory, where both theme and predicate are known and represented as "recognizable entities" which are stated to be one and the same":

(٣٦) جِو مؤسسُ النـادي   Joe is the founder of the club.

٣. Locatory, i.e., that one which indicates "the theme's position":

الإجتماعُ يومُ الجمعة (٣٧)	The meeting is on Friday.
الاجتماع في قاعة القرية (٣٨)	The meeting is in the village hall.
الإجتماعُ برئاسةِ جو (٣٩)	The meeting is under Joe's chairmanship.
الحقيقةُ من غيرِ ريب (٤٠)	The fact is beyond dispute.

٤. A statement of an event, where the theme (or agent) plays a part in this event:

جو أفتتحَ اللقاء (٤١)	Joe opened the meeting.

(the researcher's translation)

Moreover, the predicate of a NS may form another sentence:

الشيخُ أخذهُ الى الجامعة (٤٢)	The rector took him to the university.

Such a sentence consists of two sentences; where the first is a NS whose subject is (الشَّيْخُ) and whose predicate is the rest of the sentence. The predicate, أَخَذَهُ الى الجَامِعَة, represents the second sentence; it is a VS that begins with the verb (أَخَذَ). The subject of the verb is implied in the verb. "The pronominal suffix (هُ)… is the object of the verb to which it is attached and… the combination (أَخَذَهُ) consists of three words: the verb, its hidden subject, and its object." (Ziadeh and Winder, ١٩٥٧: ٥١-٢).

Wright (١٩٣٠: ٢٥٥) shows the difference between a compound NS, such as زَيْدٌ مَاتَ , and a verbal one, such as مَاتَ زَيْدٌ in the sense that in the former, the inchoative (المبتدأ) may be used to contrast with another inchoative (مبتدأ), containing a different or even an opposite one:

زَيْدٌ مَاتَ وَعُمَرُ حَيَّ (٤٣)	Zeid is dead and 'Omar is alive.

(٤٣) is identical to أَمَّا زَيْدٌ فَمَاتَ وأَمَّا عُمَرُ فَحَيَّ; while in the latter, in which the emphasis is upon the verb, such a contrastive inchoatives is not

possible.

٣.٣.٢ The Verbal Sentence

It is that sort of sentence which is introduced by a verb, e.g. 'يَقرأُ أحمد الكتـابَ', 'Ahmed reads the book.' (Ziadeh and Winder, ١٩٥٧: ٢٣). It is a sentence of which the predicate is a verb preceding the subject, or a sentence having a verb which includes both subject and predicate:

مَاتَ زَيْدٌ (٤٤) Zeid died.

مَاتَ (٤٥) He died.

(Wright, ١٩٣٠: ٢٥١)

Ziadeh and Winder (١٩٥٧: ٥١) say "the subject of the verb is the doer of the action expressed by the verb and must follow the verb".:

ذَهَبَ جَميلٌ إلى القَاهِرَةِ (٤٦) Jamil went to Cairo.

Haywood and Nahmad (١٩٦٥: ٤٥-٦) agree with Ziadeh and Winder (١٩٥٧: ٢٥) saying that it is Verb + Subject + Object + Adverbials that represents the VS order:

حَضَرَ حَسَنٌ الاجتِمَاعَ أمس (٤٧) Hassan attended the meeting yesterday.

According to Othman (١٩٩٦: ٩١), the VS is represented in the sentence structure: predicate + subject. It is not obligatory that the syntactic category of the predicate is to be a verb. It may be a verbal noun (gerund) that functions as though it were a verb. As a result, regardless of the nature of that constituent that may indicate such markers can represent the predicate category:

ضاربُ زيدٌ عُمراً (٤٨) Zeid is the hitter of Oamr.

سَافَرَ زيدٌ (٤٩) Zeid travelled.

كَانَ زيدٌ شُجاعاً (٥٠) Zeid was courageous.

Beeston (١٩٧٠: ١٠٨) says: "in the verbal sentence structure, one has to consider the relative placing of agent, object and adverbials … adverbials enjoy considerable freedom of placing, even to the extent of preceding the verb." Using adverbials before the verb does not mean that they are formally a theme (or subject), although becoming logically so, and do not need "a subsequent referential pronoun.":

المَلِكُ ، هزمُهالطاعون في ذلك اليوم (٥١)	The king was defeated by the pestilence on that day.
في ذلك اليوم، هزم الملك الطاعون (٥٢)	That day, the pestilence defeated the king.

In addition, it is possible to extrapolate an indirect object as theme with subsequent preposition + referential pronoun:

هذا الكتاب أطلعنا عليه (٥٣)	This book, we have perused it.

Aziz (١٩٨٩: ١٩٨-٩٩) introduces the VS in the following patterns:

١. Verb + Subject:

جَاءَ صَديقُكَ (٥٤)	Your friend came.

٢. Verb + Subject + Object:

كَتَبَ زَيْدُالرسالةَ (٥٥)	Zeid wrote the letter.

٣. Verb + Subject + Adverb:

يَذهب الوَلَدُالى المدرسةِ (٥٦)	The boy goes to school.

٤. Verb + Subject + Indirect Object + Direct Object:

أعطى عليُ أخاه كتاباً (٥٧)	Ali gave his brother a book.

٥. Verb + Subject + Object + Complement:

ظَنَّ محمدُعليا عاقلاً (٥٨)	Mohammad considered Ali wise.

٦. Verb + Subject + Indirect Object + Direct Object + Complement:

أبلَغزيُدالناسَ علياً صادقاً (٥٩)   Zeid told the people that Ali was truthful.

In Arabic, a number of objects can realize the element (O) in the pattern (VSO):

A. Cognate object (المفعول المطلق), as in the pattern (VSOO), that is used for emphasis:

﷽ ⚕☺⑩❂✦⬇❉•✎ ▣✿⬛⬀⬜↰✎ ✦✎✎⬎⬌ ⌘☠✳■⌧🖰◆□ ⫶

(النساء/١٦٤)   (٦٠)

(حسن، ١٩٦٨: ٢٩٨)

The cognate object may also specify the sort or the number of times of the action:

ضَربَ عليُّ الولدَ ضربةً جيدة (٦١)   Ali gave the boy a good beat.

In number, the cognate object is usually omitted:

علمه علم الجغرافية (٦٢)   He taught him geography.

كلمُهمرتين (٦٣)   He talked to him twice.

(Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ١٩٨)

B. The object of accompaniment (المفعول معهُ) :

سارَ الولُدوالنهر (٦٤)   The boy walked along the river.

(Ibid)

It is necessary to distinguish the particle (و) from the conjunction (و). The former is termed (واو المعية) and subordinates the second noun to the first one (حسن، ١٩٦٨: ٢٨٤).

C. The object of purpose (المفعول لأجله):

قِمْ تُاحتراماً لأُستاذي (٦٥)   I stood up to respect my teacher.

(Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ١٩٨)

(D) The object of specification (التمييز):

تصببَ زيدُ عرقاً (٦٦)   Zeid streamed with perspiration.

(الأنطاكي، د.ت: ١٣٦ and Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ١٩٩)

In this sentence, the specification is to the subject, while in

زرعتُ الحديقة أزهاراً (٦٧)   I planted the garden with flowers.

the specification refers to the object. The object may specify number and is used with the numbers ١١-٩٩:

اشتريت عشرين قلماً (٦٨)   I bought twenty pens

(the researcher's translation)

(الأنطاكي، د.ت: ١٣٥)

عندي طن حديدٍ (٦٩)   I have a ton of iron.

(Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ١٩٩)

(E) The object of exception (الاستثناء), it is constructed when the first part is affirmative and the excepted person or thing is introduced after the general term preceded by (إلا):

كتبتُ الرسائل إلا رسالة واحدة (٧٠)   I wrote the letters but one.

(the researcher's translation)

(حسن، ١٩٦٨: ٢٩٦)

جَاءَ الطلاب إلا زيداً (٧١)   All the students have come except Zeid.

(F) The circumstantial accusative (المفعول فيه), the pattern of such a sentence is (VSA):

وَصلَ الضيوف مساءً (٧٢)   The guests arrived in the evening.

(Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ٢٠٠)

CHAPTER FOUR
TRANSLATION: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

٤.١ TRANSLATION: DEFINITION

Translation is defined as a process of replacing a textual material in the SL, by equivalent material in the TL (Catford, ١٩٦٥: ٣٥).

Kamel (٢٠٠٤: ٢) views translation as a project of finding out equivalence between the SL and TL depending principally on the closeness and remoteness of the SL to TL. To Nida (١٩٦٤: ٥٢) translation is "reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style." Campbell (١٩٩٨: ٢) says that producing "a natural sounding" target text in translation represents the primary difficulty.

As far as meaning is concerned, Larson (١٩٨٤: ٣) states that translation is a project for transferring meaning from one language into another "by going from the form of the first language to the form of the second language by way of semantic structure." Thus, it is a means; i.e. meaning must be held constant while form is altered.

Kamel (٢٠٠٤: ٢) agrees with Larson (١٩٨٤: ٣) saying that translation is a process based on the theory that it is possible to abstract the meaning of a text from its forms and reproduce that meaning with very different forms of a L٢. To him (ibid), it is important for the translator to ensure that the surface meaning of the two languages is almost identical and maintains the structure of the SL as well as possible but not at the expense of the TL structure.

Furthermore, translation is a branch of applied linguistics which

relates itself to the transference of meaning (Catford, ١٩٦٥: ٣٥). It is a process of filling in the gaps in meaning in a universal language (Newmark, ١٩٨٨: ٤). It is a way of extracting the meaning of a SL, and transforming it through the language units and structures of TL, keeping "ideally" its message or communicative goal. Extracting the meaning and identifying the message of a text means understanding it and making sense of it (Zlateva, ٢٠٠٠: ٢٦١).

Rupprecht (١٩٩٩: ٢) says: "reading is already translation and translation is translation for the second time. The process comprises in its essence the whole secret of human understanding and social communication." Translation reflects one's understanding and creativity. Zlateva (٢٠٠٠: ٢٦١) supports this idea by saying that translation is involved in the process of understanding and creative thinking. The ability to understand and recreate the source text is a different language is built upon the ability "to decode its linguists and comprises a basic prerequisite for coping with the task of rendering…".

Aziz (١٩٩٠: ١٢-٥) considers translation as the "best" way of transferring humanistic experience, thoughts, habits, etc., from the SL community into another of the received language community. To achieve such a sort of transferring, one should know the criteria of a good translation. A good translation, according to Newmark (١٩٨٨: ٤), is the one that has the merit of the SL in the sense that it helps the native of the received language community to apprehend and feel it as it is by those who speak the source text. Youzi (٢٠٠١: ٢) defines the "ideal" translation as "a transparent pane of glass through which people can see the original without being aware of anything intervening." To the researcher, the ideal translation is that sort of translation which

transforms the meaning of the English sentences, as SL, into their Arabic counterparts, as TL, maintaining the grammatical rules of standard Arabic.

Newmark (١٩٨٨: ٣٩-٤٠) classifies translation into 'communicative', 'semantic' and 'cognitive'. 'Communicative translation' aims at producing an effect as close as possible to that one of the original of its readers. It is basically concerned with the receptors, the context of languages and variety of culture, while 'the semantic translation' is concerned with rendering, as closely as possible, the semantic and syntactic structures of the L_γ, the exact contextual meaning of the original. It is devoted to the transmitter as an individual. Both form and content are one in semantic translation.

As for 'cognitive translation', it transposes the source text grammatically to plain 'animate subject+verb+non-animate object' clauses, or, in the extended version, to sequences of: 'an agent (subject) does (active verb) something (direct object) to or for someone (indirect object), and so on. Thus, the grammatical meaning of the source text becomes explicit. The text is removed from its natural cultural and linguistic axis to an artificial neutral universal plane of language (ibid: ٤١).

٤.٢ EQUIVALENCE IN TRANSLATION

Catford (١٩٦٥: ٢١) regards the term 'equivalence' as "a key term". Finding the TL translation equivalents represent the central problem of practicing translation. Farghal and Shunnaq (١٩٩٩: ٤) state that one cannot think of translation unless one bears in mind the notion of equivalence which is related to the natural sense of the verb **to translate**. Nida (١٩٦٤: ٥٥) states that translators should do their best to avoid their

subjective involvement and "reproduce the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style." If the participation or subjectivity of the translator is neglected in ST oriented studies, the translator will be objective and free from "the tyranny of subjectivity". The goodness of a translated version depends on its closeness with ST. Translation is seen as a process of word-for-word fidelity to the ST. To be equivalent, the text should be reproduced completely and accurately, without addition, deletion or distortion. It demands a translator who is discrete to the degree of self-negation for the sake of keeping the integrity of the origin (Youzi, ۲۰۰۱: ۹).

In the light of the above discussion, equivalence is an important pillar upon which translation is based and evaluated. Translation is a process of finding out meaning to be transformed to the TL without being affected by the original.

٤.٣ TRANSLATION AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

It is well-known that language is viewed as being a body of words and symbols governed by unique, language-specific rules that tie people, in general and learners of a foreign language in particular into a speech community classroom. In other words, to communicate with each other using the TL for satisfying their needs, university learners should be able to translate from the SL into the TL.

Attitudes to the use of translating in language teaching have been predominantly negative for at least a century (Malmkjar, ۱۹۹۸: ۱). Yet translation has remained a significant component in the teaching of many languages in many parts of the world. Moreover, the ۱۹۸۰s are

considered a revival of support for the practice among a number of applied linguists (Malmkjar, ١٩٩٨: ١).

Schutz (n.d.: ١) states that many theories about the learning and teaching of languages, which are normally affected by progress in the linguistic and psychological fields, are proposed. These theories have evoked many approaches to the teaching of second and foreign languages.

According to Chastain (١٩٨٨: ٣٢٤), the first stage in the language-learning process is meaning and understanding. Learners should be aware of the meanings and relationships included in learning the text. The teacher's task is to concentrate on meaning and understanding through translation because translation itself reflects both meaning and understanding (See ٤.١).

Newmark (١٩٨٨: ١٨٠-٨١) emphasizes the role of translation in teaching saying that:

> … the ability to translate should be one of the main aims of a foreign language learner … translation is useful initially to ensure understanding when extensive explanation in a classroom is not possible, and later as a regular revision and consolidation procedure …. It offers a particular insight into the nature of language as well as contrastive linguistic and cultural studies. No one should attempt to learn any new item without understanding what the item means: the ideal way is ostensively (pointing, picture, sides etc.), but if that cannot be done clearly and quickly … it should

be through a quick translation before the word or
sentence is internalized … brief translations from
native to foreign language are useful in consolidation
and testing of spoken and written foreign utterances.

It is common that translation would be used as an inherent part of
foreign language teaching (FLT) (Kozminsky et al., ١٩٩٨: ١). The
Grammar-Translation method (١٨th, ١٩th and early ٢٠th century) focuses
on translation and grammatical analysis, and puts greater emphasis on
accuracy than on fluency. It is based on the assumption that language is
basically graphic, i.e. the main aim of learning a foreign language is to
build knowledge of the structure of that language either as a tool for
literary research or translation (Richards and Rodgers, ١٩٨٦: ٤-٥).

The Grammar-Translation Method started to pave the way to the
Direct Method at the turn of ٢٠th century. The latter advocates maximum
exposure to the TL without recourse either to the L_1 or to translation
(Hurley, ٢٠٠٠: ٧٩). Kozminsky et al. (١٩٩٨: ٢) point out that during this
period, "translation used to be regarded as a necessary evil".

From the ١٩٤٠s through the ١٩٦٠s, the audiolingual approach is
popular. It is built upon structural linguistics (structuralism) and
behavioristic psychology (Skinner's Behaviorisms). It concentrates on
patterns and structures. It is the spoken language, rather than the written
language, that is heavily emphasized. The product, not the process, is
important; there is to be minimal explanation of rules without recourse
to translation.

In the ١٩٥٠s, Noam Chomsky revolutionized against the
assumptions of language structure and language learning, assuming that

language is creative, not memorized, and it is rule-governed not based on habit (Schutz, n.d.: ١). In line with this, Kfouri (٢٠٠٥: ٧٨) says:

> according to Chomsky, there are certain language universals. The first is that all languages are learnable. The second states that all languages share certain characteristics, and the third contends that there are rules and principles that speakers follow in making sentences. In the classroom, translation instructors are particularly concerned with points two and three.

Furthermore, if all languages share certain characteristics, instructors should do their best to help learner recognize and manipulate such characteristics in the translation activities. It is, necessary for the instructor to make the rules of the language available to the learner for facilitating translation (ibid).

Studying translation skills is valuable in the sense that it raises learners' linguistic awareness concerning their native as well as the foreign language. The translation process can help learners enhance an awareness of how ideas can be expressed, and how there is no 'right' way to present a topic (Kozminsky et al., ١٩٩٨: ٢-٣).

Campbell (١٩٩٨: ٧٢) states that the grammatical task faced by a foreign language learner is "to get the mechanics of the TL grammar more or less correct at the sentence level", and this includes matters like concord, word order, inflectional morphology, etc. What represents the next challenge is how to deploy the target level grammar for a particular text type in a way that reflects a native writer's performance.

Psychologically speaking, to investigate the way people learn is one of the psychologist's roles. The cognitive approach, that is a more recent explanation of how to encourage learning, is appropriate to university teaching since it is recognized that learning does not only represent the recall of facts but also involves memory, reasoning, critical thinking and problem solving. And all of these are applicable to the daily activities of the translator or interpreter (Kfouri, ٢٠٠٥: ٢-٣).

٤.٤ FIRST LANGUAGE TRANSLATION AS A TEACHING TECHNIQUE

Direct use of the first language (henceforth L_1) in language teaching is a problematic issue in the sense that it is sometimes viewed as a sort of help and sometimes as a sort of hindrance.

According to Allen and Corder (١٩٧٤: ٩١), the use of translation into the L_1 in the process of teaching a foreign language is rejected to avoid encouraging the learner to think that structurally and lexically similar sentences in the two languages mean the same. Moreover, it discourages the learner to think of the meanings in the relationship between the sentences and situations in which they are used.

In contrast, Bowen (٢٠٠٤: ١-٢) believes that resorting to the L_1 is effective in virtue of being used as a means "to check instruction, to ensure that concepts have been correctly understood." In the case of checking the difference in concept between present perfect and past simple as in '**John has gone to Paris**' and '**John went to Paris**.', the teacher may ask learners to give a hasty translation into the L_1. Giving correct translation enables the teacher to be absolutely confident that learners have understood the concepts.

In addition, it is presumed that the contrastive analysis of the L_1 and the foreign language through the use of translation process is to heighten the learners' metalinguistic awareness of both languages and to facilitate their perception as abstract language systems (Kozminsky et al., ١٩٩٨: ٣). Bowen (٢٠٠٤: ٢) mentions that the use of translation in language teaching helps the teacher to show the contrastive points between the two languages. In other words, translation is used as a means for knowing which structures are difficult, in virtue of being different, and which ones are easy and need very little attention. With a knowledge of the L_1, the teacher is in a position to know, and he helps learners to know, the potential problems with vocabulary items, words easily confused, words or structures with no equivalents and so on.

Some learners need the use of translation into the L_1 to relate what is taught or learned in English to equivalents in their L_1. They may also feel that it is a far more efficient to have a L_1 equivalent as a way of arriving at meaning than a constant process at teaching things out (ibid). It is found, according to Al-Azzawi (١٩٩٠: ٢٦), that the teaching of the English-related subjects with the aid of translation helps to raise learners' level up in the linguistic skills.

CHAPTER FIVE
DATA COLLECTION

٥.١ THE TEST

The present chapter is devoted to manifesting the test that has been designed to satisfy the aims of the study. It tackles the test's objectives, design, material, subjects, reliability, pilot, main administration of the test and the scoring scheme.

A test should be thought of as a teaching device, therefore, it is a natural step in the educational process. It is useful for both the teacher and the learner. In other words, it should help the teacher to know where s/he was effective or ineffective in teaching certain areas. It should show the areas that the learner finds difficult and the parts that have been given inadequate practice. Similarly, it is a guide to the learner in the sense that it provides an indication to the level of his/her expected achievement, the level s/he has reached, and the discrepancy between them both (Rivers, ١٩٦٨: ٢٨٩-٩٠).

Translation is, according to Harris (١٩٦٩: ٤-٥), "formally one of the most common teaching and testing devices, and it remains quite popular in many parts of the world." However, it is for the new 'linguistically oriented' methods of instruction, measurement and the objective to free the learner from having a recourse to the mother tongue, translation is viewed as being an impediment to the proper learning of a foreign language.

It is a fact, according to Lado (١٩٦١: ٣٣), that the ability to translate manifests wide variations "with the ability to speak, understand, read and

write." To him, translation tests are manipulated to measure general achievement in the linguistic repertoire, i.e., to give final grades to the learners' proficiency in language courses. Moreover, it is possible to see translation as an aid of contrastive analysis. Translation helps the teacher to show similarities and differences between the mother tongue, or L_1, and the foreign language or L_2, and how facilitation or difficulties are brought about due to such similarities and differences. Using translation means providing "a point-by-point comparison of target and background languages" and this, in turn, will pave the way for more efficient contrastive instruction (Harris, ١٩٦٩: ١١).

٥.٢ OBJECTIVE OF THE TEST

The test is an instrument for measuring the learners' performance of a particular linguistic material ability in using the TL (Heaton, ١٩٧٥: ١-٢). Such a sort of instrument is of no interest in itself unless it enables one to infer from it (Corder, ١٩٧٣: ٣٥٢).

The present test is constructed in such a way that it investigates the university learners' ability in translating the English basic simple sentences into Arabic.

In addition, the test is diagnostic in the sense that it aims at measuring the difficulties faced by Iraqi EFL university learners in such a task. It also aims at identifying the causes of such difficulties and suggesting certain remedial recommendations.

٥.٣ SELECTION OF MATERIAL

The items of the test, i.e., the sentences that the learners are asked to translate, have been chosen from certain books of grammar such as

Stageberg (١٩٧١) and Quirk et al. (١٩٨٥). These items or sentences are manipulated to test the various patterns of the simple sentence.

٥.٤ TEST DESIGN

The test is composed of twenty five items (Appendix I). They are designed in a way that measures the subjects' ability to translate English simple sentences into Arabic. Almost each item aims at testing a new sort of the clause type and how to be translated into their Arabic counterpart. Moreover, the features of validity, reliability, economicality, scorability, and administratibility are all taken into consideration as criteria of a good test. To evaluate its face and content validity, the test has been exposed to a jury of scholars (Appendix II), who are arranged according to the academic status alphabetically as follows:

١. Prof. Abdul Latif Al-Jumaily (Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics), College of Arts, University of Baghdad.

٢. Prof. Abdul Wahid Muslit (Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation), College of Languages, University of Baghdad.

٣. Prof. Kadhim Haider Al-Jawady (Ph.D. in Linguistics), College of Arts, University of Baghdad.

٤. Prof. Majeed Al-Mashtaa (Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation), College of Arts, Al-Mustansiriya University.

٥. Prof. Sabah Al-Rawi (Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation), College of Languages, University of Baghdad.

٦. Assist. Prof. Abbas Degan (Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation), College of Education, University of Babylon.

٧. Assist Prof. Lamia' A. Al-Ani (M.A. in Linguistics), College of Education/Ibn Rushd, University of Baghdad.

٨. Assist Prof. Munthir Manhal (Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation), College of Languages, University of Baghdad.

٩. Assist Prof. Razzaq N. Mukheef (M.A. in English Language and Linguistics), College of Education, University of Babylon.

١٠. Instructor A'sim Abbood (Ph.D. in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language), College of Basic Education, University of Babylon.

١١. Instructor Maysaa' K. Hussein (Ph.D. in English Language and Linguistics), College of Education, University of Al-Qadisiya.

١٢. Instructor Wafa'a M. Faisal (Ph.D. in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language), College of Education, University of Babylon.

٥.٥ VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

To be valid, the test must test what it purports to test. It has to provide an authentic measure of a particular skill that is intended to be measured (Chastain, ١٩٨٨: ٣٩٣ and Heaton, ١٩٧٥: ١٥٣). Validity is achieved through two criteria: face validity and content validity. Face validity means that the test items look right to the other testers and testees (Lado, ١٩٦١: ٣٠), and this is applicable to the present test for being handed to some administrators and expert users to get their approval of the test. While content validity concentrates on the careful analysis of the language tested and of the course objectives (Heaton, ١٩٧٥: ١٥٤). Thus, the items of the present test are considered valid in

virtue of their being constructed in a way that satisfies the aims of the test.

As for reliability, it means the stability of the test scores. In other words, the test yields dependable scores in the sense that the scores will not differ from those ones of the previous test. The test cannot measure anything if it does not measure consistently (Davies, ١٩٦٨: ٥, Harris, ١٩٦٩: ١٤-٥ and Lado, ١٩٦١: ٣١). Additionally, reliability implies that the test continues to give the same or nearly the same results on successive applications (Chastain, ١٩٨٨: ٣٩٣). If the test gives different results, it will not be reliable. Measuring reliability in this way is usually indicated as being test/retest reliability (Heaton, ١٩٧٥: ١٥٥).

٥.٦ THE SUBJECTS

The study depends on two samples of subjects: the first is fifty (٥٠) subjects chosen randomly from the fourth academic year (٢٠٠٤-٢٠٠٥) of the Department of English at the College of Education, University of Al-Qadissiya, the second sample is also fifty (٥٠) subjects of the fourth academic year (٢٠٠٤-٢٠٠٥) of the Department of English at the College of Education, University of Babylon. According to Heaton (١٩٧٥: ١٨٦) "translation is a special skill in its own right and involves language tasks which students are not capable of attempting before a certain level of proficiency in the target language." Thus, it is preferred to apply the test to fourth year students.

٥.٧ PILOT ADMINISTRATION

On the ٢٥th of April, ٢٠٠٥, a pilot test has been applied to ten fourth-year subjects, chosen haphazardly. The pilot test aims at

specifying the needed time to translate the items of the test, to know whether these items are clear or not, and to enable the researcher to modify what requires modification.

As far as item analysis is concerned, all the items are analysed in terms of:

٥.٧.١ Item Difficulty

Item difficulty (or the facility value (F.V.)) of an item refers to the percentage of the subjects who answer the item correctly. It gives an impression that shows how difficult or easy a particular item in the test is. The index of difficulty is normally calculated by using the formula:

$$F.V.=R/N$$

where (R) refers to the number of correct answers and (N) to that of subjects (Heaton, ١٩٧٥: ١٧٢ and Chastain, ١٩٨٨: ٣٩٤).

٥.٧.٢ Item Discrimination

The discrimination index of an item refers to the degree to which the item distinguishes between the subjects, isolating those who are able to translate from those who are not. It gives information whether those subjects who performed well on the whole test tend to do well or badly on each item in the test.

٥.٨ FINAL ADMINISTRATION

The main test was applied on the ٢٩th of April ٢٠٠٥. An hour was devoted to answering the items of the test. Being assured that the test

was mainly for the purposes of research, the subjects had no bearing concerning their marks (Appendix III).

Before answering the test, the items were clarified well to the subjects. The subjects were instructed to translate items on the same sheet of the test to save time and effort. To avoid the sense of embarrassment, they were asked not to write their names on the test sheets.

٥.٩ SCORING SCHEME

To obtain objectivity and reliability, a definite scoring scheme has been followed. The test as a whole has been scored out of ١٠٠. Four scores are allocated for each syntactically and semantically correct answer and zero score for each of the incorrect or left items.

CHAPTER SIX
DATA ANALYSIS

٦.١ DISCUSSING SUBJECTS' ACHIEVEMENT OF THE TEST

This chapter sheds some light on the problematic areas in translating the items of the test. The mistranslated sentences that the subjects made have been identified linguistically. To be aware of the nature of the difficulties faced by Iraqi EFL university learners in translation, the plausible sources of those mistranslated sentences, i.e., errors, are discussed.

The results of the subjects' performance on each item of the test are represented in Table (١), which is divided into three columns the first of which is for numerating the items of the test, the second represents the subjects' correct responses and the third is devoted to their incorrect and the avoided ones which, in turn, reflect subjects' lowest mastery in translating the items.

The researcher has found that the high rates of the subjects' incorrect responses are due to different sorts of errors, such as initiating the Arabic VSs with the subject instead of the verb, namely: items ٣, ٤, ٧ and ٩, or inserting a verb and a third person pronoun in translating NSs as an equivalent to the verb (is) as in item (١١). Thus in both cases they follow word for word translation from English into Arabic, or literal translation, neglecting the structural differences between the two languages.

Thus, the following table statistically frames the subjects' ability or inability in using the two languages, English and Arabic, meaningfully, that is called, according to Cook (١٩٩١: ١١٤), 'multicompetence'.

Table (١): Subjects' Performance of the Items of the Test

Items' Number	Correct Responses %	Incorrect Responses %
١	٢٦	٧٤
٢	٢٢	٧٨
٣	٩	٩١
٤	٢	٩٨
٥	٢٨	٧٢
٦	٧٧	٢٣
٧	٨	٩٢
٨	٢٢	٧٨
٩	١١	٨٩
١٠	١٣	٨٧
١١	٥٠	٥٠
١٢	١٢	٨٨
١٣	٤٧	٥٣
١٤	٢٠	٨٠
١٥	١٢	٨٨
١٦	٧٠	٣٠
١٧	٢١	٧٩
١٨	٢٤	٧٦
١٩	٢٠	٨٠
٢٠	١٢	٨٨
٢١	٥٧	٤٣
٢٢	١٨	٨٢
٢٣	٤٤	٥٦
٢٤	٢٦	٧٤
٢٥	١٥	٨٥

To be clearer, the twenty-five items are diagrammed in Figure (١), that is divided into two parts where the first of which includes the first thirteen items and the second includes the last twelve ones. The light pillars are devoted to representing the subjects' correct responses which, in turn, give a sign for their mastery of translating those items, while the dark pillars represent the level of the subjects' incorrect and the avoided responses which reflect the extent of difficulty they face in translation.
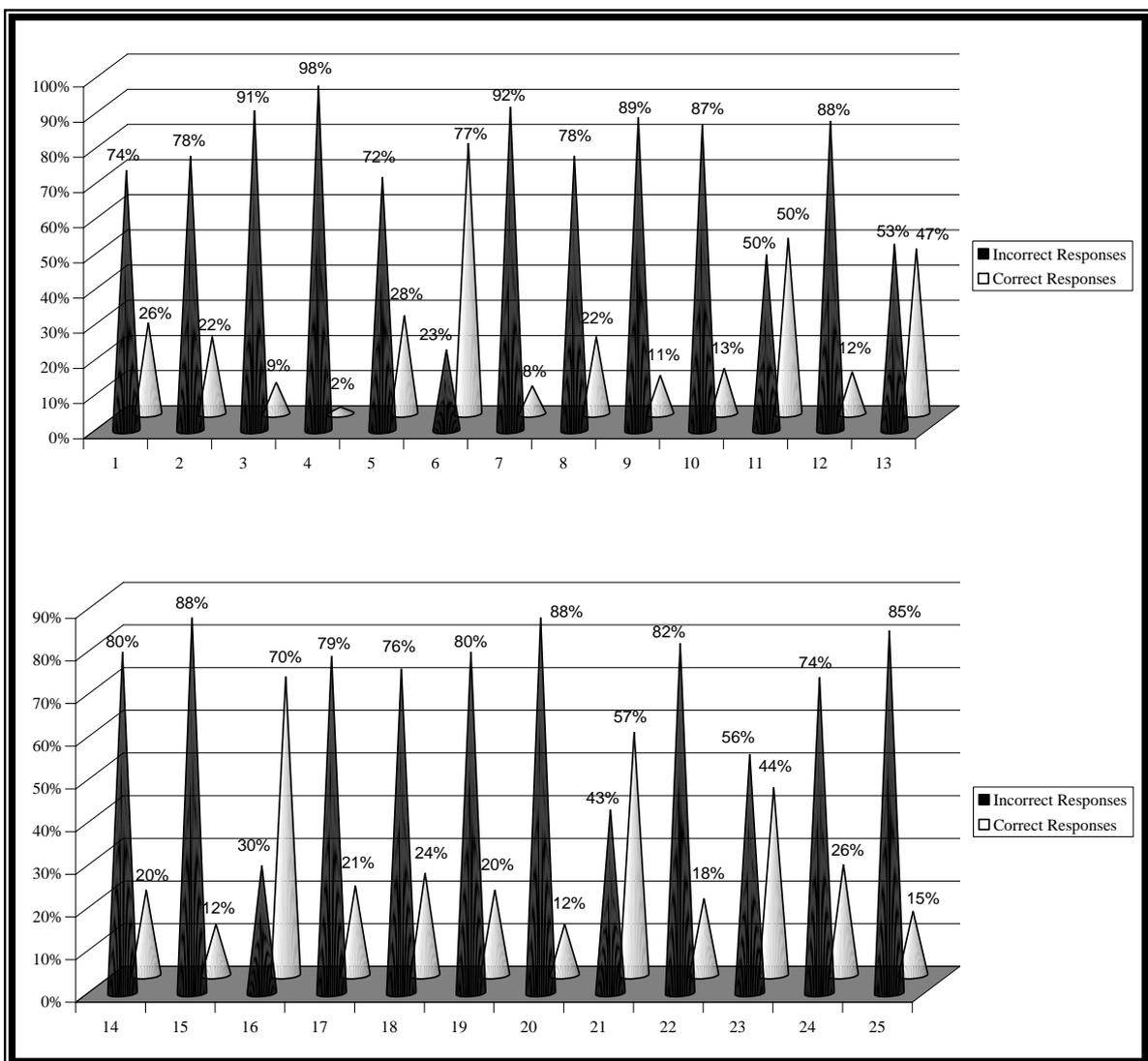

Figure (١): Subjects' Performance of the Items of the Test

It is possible to say that all learners make certain errors at a specific linguistic area at a particular learning career. The nature and quality of the learner's errors do not provide an immediate measure of his/her linguistic repertoire, but rather they may represent an important source of information about the nature of his/her knowledge (Corder, ١٩٧٣: ٢٥٦-٧).

Learners sometimes resort to use the familiar linguistic aspects of the native language as an evasive way from their ignorance in the TL, and this may lead them to commit errors. Such a sort of erroneous performance is interpreted as a result of the influence of the mother tongue. In other words, such errors are termed as interlingual errors which are the product of the difference between the linguistic systems of the native language and those ones of the TL (Cook, ١٩٩١: ٥-٧ and Ellis, ١٩٩٤: ٤٧).

٦.٢ PROBLEMATIC AREAS IN TRANSLATION

The researcher has identified gender, tense-aspect, mode-modality shifts, word-order, addition and ambiguity as problematic areas in the subjects' performance of the test.

٦.٢.١ Gender

In English, gender refers to masculine, feminine and neuter. It is relevant to pronouns and nouns, i.e., verbs and adjectives are out of the concept of gender agreement. On the contrary, Arabic has two genders, masculine and feminine. Most of Arabic nouns, pronouns, verbs and adjectives are involved in gender agreement. In Arabic, gender acquires its importance from the fact that it affects the concept of concord between the subject and verb of the sentence (Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ١٢٤).

Apparently, some of the fourth year subjects' fluctuation in translating item (٦), **Our teacher shows us our mistakes**, gives a sign for the difference in gender distinction of the word 'teacher' between the two languages, English and Arabic, where the former has no gender for this word, i.e., it is used for both masculine and feminine, while the latter has four words, that correspond to 'teacher' in English, (مُدَرِّسْ), (مُعَلِّمْ), (مُعَلِّمـة), (مُدَرِّسـة). Thus, the subjects seem reluctant to choose which lexeme of them. Moreover, unlike English, gender in Arabic affects the sort of verb, where with (مُدَرِّسـة) or (مُعَلِّمـة), the verb should be, in item (٦), (تُظْهِرُ), while with (مُدَرِّسْ) or (مُعَلِّمْ), it should be (يُظْهِرُ).

As a result, the researcher has noticed the subjects' translations, the subjects are given numbers, have translated item (٦) which is:

يُظهِرُ مُعَلِمُنا أخطاءنا لنا   Our teacher shows us our mistakes.

Into:

معلمنا وضح أخطائنا لنا.	S٧٩*
أستاذنا وضح لنا أخطائنا.	S٨٤*
مدرستنا ترينا أخطائنا.	S٨٨*
مدرسنا أرانا أخطائنا.	S٩٠*

This sort of variety in translating the word 'teacher' reflects subjects' hesitation due to the lack of gender distinction of this word in English.

It seems that most of L₂ learners start from their L₁ setting rather than from that of the L₂. The learners still have access to the system of principles of the L₂ via that one of their L₁. They encounter some sort of difficulty due to the difference between the SL and TL which, in turn, produces interlingual errors or interference. It is (٧٧٪) of the subjects' translations can be attributed to such a factor.

On the other hand, the researcher has found that almost all subjects are able to translate the subject complement **the best student**, in item (٥)

George was the best student in Mr. Allen's class., into الطالب الأفضل because of the presence of the 'proper noun', George, that refers to masculine. Such correct translation reflects their dependence on other sentence elements to translate such a noun; i.e., **student**, into its appropriate gender distinction.

Likewise, some of the subjects' correct translations of the noun **professor**, in item (١١) **Professor Miller is a young man.**, into الأستاذ can also reflect their reliance on the subject complement **a young man** in their translations. On the other hand, some other subjects, (٨٤٪), have translated the noun **professor** into بروفسور and this shows the influence of the SL on the TL; i.e., intralingual transfer.

٦.٢.٢ Tense and Aspect Shifts

There is a difference between languages in realizing the concept of time in the sense that some languages do that exclusively in adverbial systems, while others do it partly in the verb and partly in the adverb. What should be realized is the verb that is marked for tense and aspect and to find out which verbal forms are related to which time notion.

(Corder, ١٩٧٣: ٢٧١)

As far as tense is concerned, Huddleston (١٩٧٦: ٨٣) defines it as a term that refers to "a grammatical category with time relations as its semantic basic". Both English and Arabic manifest identical distinctions; i.e., they make a sort of separation between past and non-past or perfect and non-perfect. What they differ in is the means through which these distinctions are exhibited. In English, this temporal relation is expressed morphologically and syntactically; i.e., using verbal devices. (Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ٣٩)

On the other hand, Hedeli ١٩٧١ [cited in Abdul-Hadi, ١٩٩٩: ١٥٢)] says: "Arabic does not have syntactic devices to express clear time relationship". Aspect is defined with reference to tense system, it mainly refers to the kind of action, especially in the sense of duration, completion, or repetition. Aziz (١٩٨٩: ٥٥) states that "aspect is concerned with the manner of action or even whether this action is long, short, continuous, incomplete, etc.". What creates a problematic area in translation from English into Arabic is the difference in the aspectual distinction of perfectness or imperfectness of a situation. This sort of difference calls learners, while translating sentences into Arabic, to make some shifts. This is clear in items (١٨) and (٢٣) in which the aspectual distinctions with auxiliary verb combinations are obvious.

Item (١٨) **One boy was holding a ladder** has been translated into:

كان أحد الأولاد يحمل سلماً

S٧ *	الولد كان يمسك السلم.
S٨ *	واحد من الأولاد يمسك السلم.
S١٦ *	ولّدواحد مسك ...
S١٨*	صعدَ ولّدالسلم.
S٢٤ *	واحد من الأولاد وقع من الدرج.
S٢٥ *	صبي واحد يحمل السلم.
S٦٥ *	كان الولد يصعد السلم.
S٨٥ *	صبي واحد كان ماسكاً سلماً.
S٨٦ *	أحد الأولاد تسلق الدرج.
S٩٤ *	ولّدواحد كان يضع السلم.

In addition, the subjects have translated item (٢٣) **Someone was laughing** into:

كان أحدهم يضحك.

S٤٠ *	ضحك شخص ما.
S٤٣ *	شخص ما يضحك.
S٧٩ *	شخص ما ضحك.
S٨٨ *	أحُدما يضحك.

Scrutinizing such erroneous responses reflects the subjects' unawareness of the grammatical rules of Standard Arabic, where most of them translate the past continuous into either the past or the present.

According to Abdul-Hadi (١٩٩٩: ١٥٦), "the English past progressive corresponds to two Arabic structures:

١. the particle 'كان' + imperfect.

٢. the particle 'كان' + active participle 'اسم الفاعل'

Thus, item (١٨) should be translated either into:

١- كان أحد الأولاد يحمل سلماً.

or

٢- كان أحد الأولاد حاملاً سلماً.

and item (٢٣) into:

١- كان أحدهم يضحك.

or

٢- كان أحدهم ضاحكاً.

The high rate of the subjects' mistranslations, (٧٠٪) and (٥٦٪) of the items respectively, represent their inability to take aspectual shifts into consideration while translating such sentences. It is difficult for them to construct equivalent Arabic sentences. They are able to translate words regardless of the grammatical rules that make meaningful sentences.

٦.٢.٣ Mood and Modality Shifts

Mood is a term that refers to the speakers' attitude towards what he says. It is normally realized through distinguishing the form of the verb. In English, the verb has three moods: indicative manipulated in statements, imperative used in order, command, demand, entreaty, etc., and subjunctive, used after verbs stating recommendation, suggestion, resolution, demand, etc. The latter a minor mood in contemporary English, is also used in 'fossilized' expressions called as formulaic subjunctive and in hypothetical 'were', in unprobable suppositions, wishes, and conditional sentences. (Haywood and Nahmad, ١٩٦٥: ١٢٠ and Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ٧٥-٦)

In Arabic, on the other hand, the verb has five moods: the indicative (الرفع) the subjunctive (النصب), the jussive (الجزم), the imperative (الأمر)

and the emphatic (التوكيد). It is the verb form contrasts that express such kinds of moods (Haywood and Nahmad, ١٩٦٥).

As far as modality is concerned, the fact that English and Arabic differ in realizing modality represents the main source of shifts in verbal groups in these two languages. In English, modal concepts such as 'obligation', 'ability', 'necessity' etc. are expressed through 'modal auxiliaries' in addition to the lexical forms. On the contrary, Arabic loses this independent category of 'modals' corresponding to those in English. Thus, such modal concepts are only expressed syntactically and lexically in Arabic. Modality is realized by verbal, or non-verbal items, containing particles (Abdul-Hadi, ١٩٩٩: ١٥٤ and Aziz, ١٩٨٩: ٨٧).

Being different in the realization of modal concept, both Abdul-Hadi (١٩٩٩: ١٥٨) and Aziz (١٩٨٩: ٨٧) provide a criterion of modal concepts along with the English modal auxiliaries realizing each concept and their Arabic counterparts:

Table (٢): English Modal Concepts with their Arabic Counterparts

Modal Concept	English/SL	Arabic/TL
Ability	can, could	(كــان) يســتطيع (أن) يــتمكن، يقــدر، لــه القــدرة، بإمكانه، باستطاعته.
Permission	may, might, can, could	يسمح، يجوز، يمكن، يستطيع، بوسعه، بإمكانه
Possibility	can, may, could, might	يمكن، ن الممكن، بما، قد، لعل
Willingness	will, shall	يحرص على، يرغب في، يريد أن، له رغبه في
Insistence	will, shall	يصر على، يسلح على، يعتزم، حتما
Intention	will, shall	ينوي، يفكر في، يخطط لـ، يتطلع إلى، يعد العدة، في نيته، يدور في خلده
Obligation	must, should ought to	يجب علـى، ينبغـي (أن)، من الملـزم، من الواجب، يجب (أن)
Logical	Must, should	لابد، لامناص، لا محال، لاشك، لا ريب، لا مفر

necessity		
Capacity	can, will	من الممكـن أن، يحتـوي علـى، يسـتوعب، يتسـع لـ، يكفي لـ
Promise	will, shall	يعد بـ(أن)، يتعهد بـ، يقطع وعدا، سوف، سـ
Advice	must, should	ينصح، يرشد، يدل على، يوجـه نصـيحة، عليك أن، يجب، من الأفضل، يسدي مشورة
Command	must, shall	(في صيغة الأمر)، على، سوف س، يجب
Request	can, will, may	يرجو، يلتمس، يريد من.. هل لك، هلا تكرمت، هل تقدر أن، هل يمكنك، هل من الممكن..

In the light of the above criteria, item (١٣), **We must help sick people**, should be translated into يجب أن نساعد المرضى.

And item (١٤), **She could hardly understand the question**, into بالكاد استطاعت أن تفهم السؤال.

Some of the subjects such as (٤, ٦, ١٤ and ٧٣) have translated item (١٣) into (علينـا أن نسـاعد المرضـى), i.e., the subject of the sentence is supplied by the particle which supplies the place of the masdar (أن) (المصـدرية (أن)). While another group of subjects as (٤٤, ٧٧, ٨٤, ٨٧ and ٩٠) have translated it into transposed nominal sentence of which the predicate precedes its subject: علينا مساعدة المرضى 'علينا' is a (خبر مقدم) predicate placed in the initial position, (مساعدة) is the subject which is (مضاف) and (المرضى) is (مضاف إليه).

Neither of the subjects' translations reflects their awareness of translating the modal concept of obligation, that is represented in 'must', into its Arabic counterpart (يجب أن) ,يجب علي, ينبغي (أن), من الملزم or من الواجب) as in Table (٢). The researcher has found (٥٣%) of the subjects' translations have ignored the required shift in modality.

For the English concept of ability, the subjects have translated item (١٤) into:

* S١٥	هي بالكاد تفهم السؤال.
* S٢٩	هي تفهم السؤال بصعوبة.
* S٣١	هي بصعوبة تفهم السؤال.
* S٣٥	هي بصعوبة فهمت السؤال.
* S٣٨	هي بصعوبة فهمت السؤال.
* S٣٩	من الصعوبة أن تفهم السؤال.
* S٥٥	هي تجد صعوبة في فهم السؤال.

Reading subjects' translations, one can notice that they have concentrated on translating the adverb 'hardly' at the expense of translating the English modal concept of ability. The researcher has found (٨٠%) of the subjects' translations reflect their ignorance of translating 'could' into either (استطاعت or تمكنت etc.). Thus, they don't pay attention to the significant meaning of the English modal auxiliaries in the process of the translation.

٦.٢.٤ Word-order

In both, English and Arabic, the sentence is composed of two obligatory elements: subject and predicate (see ٢.٣). To be appropriate and meaningful, speakers must know how those sentence elements are ordered and when to use this or that sentence (see ٢.٢). In English, the normal word order is **SV**. In Arabic, on the other hand, the sentence has one of the three alternatives: **SV**, **SC** or **SA**. But the most common is VSO.

In certain circumstances, speakers of both languages may resort to move an element from its normal position to another to lead the receiver of information to recognize the focal linguistic unit in the sentence. In

short, this sort of violation is carried out for rhetorical and stylistic reasons.

(Quirk et al, ١٩٨٥: ١٣٥٥)

In Arabic, on the contrary, Ziadeh and Winder (١٩٥٧: ٥١) state that if the subject of the verb is the doer of the action, it must follow the verb. Therefore, item (٣) should be translated into:

Item (٣) The chief seemed a good fellow.

بدا الرئيس رفيقاً طيباً

The researcher has found (٩١%) of the subjects have translated it into:

S١٧ *	القائد بدى رفيق جيد.
S٤٣ *	الرئيس بدا مرافق جيد.
S٤٤ *	الرئيس بدا متبوع جيد.
S٨٧ *	الرئيس بدا متبوع جيد.

The subjects' translations reflect the fact that they have translated the item word by word following the English word-order in structuring the Arabic sentence. According to Nida (١٩٦٤: ٢١٣-٤), such a sort of translation is 'literal correspondence'. It misleads those who translate from the SL to the TL making up constructions corresponding to the model they find in the SL. It should be evident that literal correspondences represent the source of errors because the subjects are unaware of "the folly of translating word for word" (Ibid).

Some other literal translations, (٨٩%), are obvious in the subjects' responses of item (٩) that is an Arabic imperfect sentence into:

Item (٩) Ahmed does his experiments in the chemistry laboratory.

يعمل أحمد تجاربه في مختبر الكيمياء

S١٨ *	أحمد يعمل تجاربه في مختبر الكيمياء.
S١٩ *	أحمد لديه اختبار في مادة الكيمياء.
S٢٠ *	أحمد يقوم بتجاربه في مختبر الكيمياء.
S٩٧ *	أحمد عَمِل تجربته في مختبر الكيمياء.

Stylistically speaking, most of the subjects have translated both items (٣) and (٩) into Arabic emphasizing the role of the subject which is appropriate for being out of contexts. Corder (١٩٧٣: ٢٨١) says "it takes quite a long time for the native speaker to learn to control appropriately the use of features of his mother tongue in relation to social, technical, intentional and emotional differences in situation. "His acquisition of this aspect of performance helps him to acquire the ability in a foreign language.".

٦.٢.٥ Addition

In Arabic, predicates are either verbal or non-verbal. The former contains a verb. The verbal predicate derives its time reference from the verb regardless of other factors such as temporal adverbials, the context, … etc. (see ٣.٣.٢). The latter, on the other hand, does not have a verb due to "the facts that the present tense of the verb '**to be**' is not used and that Arabic has no verb corresponding to '**to have**'." according to Ziadeh and Winder (١٩٥٧: ٢٣), (see ٣.٣.١). In addition, Mchayet (١٩٨٣: ٩٠) states that it is possible to determine time reference of such a type by the semantic value of the lexical item and the context in which it is used. Thus, the non-verbal predicate is a term that refers to the NS in Arabic.

For item (١١), **Professor Miller is a young man**. الأستاذ ميلر رجلٌ شاب, most subjects resort to add either the Arabic verb 'يكون', or the pronoun of the third person (هو) between the two elements of the sentence: i.e. subject and complement:

The subjects (٤, ١١, ٤٤, ٤٩ and ٥٣) have translated item (١١) into:

الأستاذ ميلر هو رجلٌ شاب.

According to العزاوي [cited in الكبيسي (١٩٨٦:١٥٠)], adding the verb 'يكون' makes the sentence erroneous, since the predicate of such a NS is a non-verbal predicate. It is (٥٠%) of the subjects' responses fluctuate between these two erroneous additions.

In addition, it is possible to use the defective verb (**kaana**) (كان الناقصة) with the NS, altering its indicative (مرفوع) predicate into subjunctive (منصوب), for the sake of referring to past or, preceded with (س), future, as in:

Item (٥) George was the best student in Mr Allen's class.

كان جورج الطالبَ الأفضل في صف السيد آلن.

Item (١٦) He will have been a very successful teacher.

سيكون مُدَرِساً ناجحاً جداً.

In the light of the above illustration, the subjects encounter less difficulty in translating items (٥) and (١٦) than in item (١١). Similarity makes learning and producing a construction in a L_2, or vice versa, easy for learners (Lado, ١٩٦٤: ٢١٦). Such a sort of facilitation is called positive transfer (Allen and Corder, ١٩٧٤: ٢٦٥). It is about (٢٣٪) and (٣٠٪) of the subjects' mistranslations of the items (٥) and (١٦) respectively which may be ascribed to this factor. In translating item (١١), on the other hand, the subjects have faced a sort of difficulty because the syntactic rules in this item are different from the syntactic rules of the L_1. Such a difficulty is called 'interference' (Lado, ١٩٦٤: ٢١٦) or 'negative transfer', according to Allen and Corder (١٩٧٤: ٢١٦-٧).

It is obvious that the basic English clause types have never been shown or taught in relation to the subjects' mother tongue. It is found, according to Cook (١٩٩١), that L$_٢$ teaching aims at enabling the learner to be multi-competent, i.e., using the L$_١$ and L$_٢$ approximately at the same level for satisfying their needs. Moreover, he believes that learning L$_٢$ should not imply losing learners' first identity. Thus, the subjects use the third person pronoun, or the defective Arabic verb (يكون) as a correspondence to that in English, though it is less than the first:

Item (١١) Professor Miller is a young man.

الأستاذ ميلر رجلٌ شاب.

* S$_{٥٨}$ بروفسور ميلر يكون رجلٌ شاب.

* S   بروفسور ميلر هو رجلٌ شاب.

Such translations reflect the fact that they are not multicompetent in using the two languages.

As far as translating item (١٠) into Arabic VS, most of the subjects have translated it into:

Item (١٠) He talked to John during that time.

تَحَدثَ لجون في ذلك الوقت.

* S   هو تَحَدثَ لجون في ذلك الوقت.

(٨٧٪) of the subjects' responses may be ascribed to the fact that they are ignorant of using two subjects in the sentence: (هو) and the verb (تحدث) which implies the pronoun (هو).

٦.٢.٦ Ambiguity

An ambiguous sentence is that sort of sentence which has more than one possible reading (Hasan, n.d.: ٣). The items (١), (١٥) and (٢٥) are ambiguous sentences that should be translated into:

وَجَدَها خنزيرة.

(١) He found her a pig

أو

وَجَد لها خنزيراً.

(١٥) He found the mechanic a helper.

وَجَد الميكانيكي متعاوناً.

أو

وَجَد للميكانيكي معاوناً.

(٢٥) He appointed Jim a secretary.

عَين جم سكرتيراً.

أو

عَين سكرتيراً لجم.

In translating item (١), the researcher has noticed the subjects (١٠، ٢٦ and ٧٠) out of the whole number of subjects could translate it into two different ways regarding 'a pig' as a direct object in the first and as an object complement in the second.

For translating item (١٥), only two of the subjects, (٧٠ and ٨٩) are aware of translating this item in two different ways considering the phrase 'a helper' as a direct object in the first and as an object complement in the second. It is also found that none of the subjects have translated item (٢٥) in two different ways.

Moreover, some of the subjects have committed what is called 'common mistakes', (العزاوي، ١٩٩٠: ١١٩) using (ک) in translating item (١) into:

Item (١) He found her a pig.

* S٢٠	هو وجدها كخنزيرة.
* S٤١	هو يجدها كالخنزيرة.
* S٥٤	هو وجدها كخنزيرة.

هو وجدها كخنزير. * S٥٩
هو وجدها كخنزيرة. * S٦٢
وجدها كالخنزير. * S٩٤

And the subjects (١٩, ٣٤, ٦٠ and ٦٢) have translated item (١٥) into:

* هو وجد الميكانيكي كمساعد.

For Item (٢٥) **He appointed Jim a secretary** has been translated into:

هو عين جم كسكرتير. * S١٢
هو عين جم كسكرتير. * S٢٥
هو عين جم كسكرتير. * S٣٦
هو عين جم كسكرتير. * S٥٥

CHAPTER SEVEN
CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter sums up the main conclusions arrived at both the theoretical and the practical level of the study. These conclusions participate as means for providing pedagogical recommendations and suggestions for further research in the field of applied contrastive studies.

٧.١ CONCLUSIONS

٧.١.١ Theoretical Conclusions

١. To be used in instruction, the study of translation skills is valuable in virtue of being used as a device for hightening learners' linguistic awareness, i.e., it broadens their competence in both Arabic and English. Moreover, translation stimulates an intellectual and linguistic challenge in the learners for finding out equivalence in meaning.

٢. It also shows how the learner balances the two competing aspects of accuracy and fidelity to the SL on the one hand, and appropriacy in the TL on the other, for achieving what is called 'adequate' translation.

٣. Presenting English clause-types in context facilitates the task of translating them into their Arabic counterparts.

٧.١.٢ Practical Conclusions

١. The English clause-types SVC and SVA are translated into the Arabic clause types SC and SA respectively. It is found that Iraqi EFL university learners at the fourth year encounter difficulties in translating English clause-types, SVC and SVA into their Arabic counterparts due to the absence of verb in Arabic NSs. The high statistical rates of the

mistranslated items of such patterns, namely, (١١) and (١٩), (٥٠٪) and (٨٠٪) respectively, reflect such a sort of difficulty which, in turn, validates the first hypothesis of this study.

٢. It is possible to translate other English clause types, SV, SVO, SVOO, SVOA and SVOC, into Arabic VSs which are initiated with the verb instead of the subject according to Standard Arabic. The subjects' translations of almost all items of the test have also revealed that EFL university learners resort to use the English syntactic rules in structuring Arabic VSs, i.e., initiating them with the subject instead of the verb. This is apparent in translating, for example, items (٧) and (٩) of which the rates of the incorrect responses, including the avoided ones, are (٩٢٪) and (٨٩٪) respectively. As such, the second hypothesis is confirmed.

٣. Most of the subjects are unaware of the fact that English ambiguous clause-types should be given two translations because they are out of context. The high rate of the incorrect responses, involving the avoided ones, of the ambiguous sentences of the test, namely: (١), (١٥) and (٢٥), (٧٤٪), (٨٨٪), (٨٥٪) respectively, reflects subjects' unawareness and hesitation in translating such clause-types. Thus, the third hypothesis is verified.

٤. It is not always possible to recognize equivalents in translating English tense-aspect and mood-modality combinations into Arabic. As far as tense-aspect shifts in translation are concerned, the subjects commit errors in this area. The subjects' high rates in translating the items (١٥) and (٢٣), (٧٦٪) and (٥٦٪) respectively, reflect their inability to take such required shifts in translation. This validates the fourth hypothesis. Furthermore, some of the subjects are unable to take mood-modality shifts into consideration while translating items (١٣) and (١٤) into their Arabic counterparts. Subjects' inability is reflected through the rate of the mistranslations of the items, (٥٣٪) of item (١٣) and (٨٠٪) of item (١٤). This also validates the fourth hypothesis.

٧.٢ RECOMMENDATIONS

١. It is possible for the teacher to heighten the learner's metalinguistic awareness of English and Arabic, and to facilitate their perception of the abstract language systems through the contrastive analysis of both languages which accompanies the process of translation.

٢. Teaching English in contrast with Arabic is advantageous in the sense that it provides learners with knowledge of the mother tongue and it also enables the teacher to know the structures which need more attention to concentrate on.

٧.٣ SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

١. A similar study can be conducted to investigate the difficulties faced in translating simple sentences from Arabic into English.

٢. Another study can be constructed for tackling the difficulties encountered by EFL learners in translating compound or complex sentences from English into Arabic or vice versa.

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