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SHIFTS IN TRANSLATING LEXICAL COHESION FROM ARABIC INTO ENGLISH:

THE CASE OF FIRST YEAR MASTER STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AT MENTOURI UNIVERSITY OF CONSTANTINE

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Applied Language Studies

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Dedication

To Dad

for his devotion to my education

I dedicate

my work.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

This study seeks to investigate how frequently first year master students of English shift the source text (Arabic) lexical cohesive patterns in the target language (English), as well as the textual and the semantic implications resulting from translation. To check the effectiveness of these translation shifts in establishing both the textual and the discoursal equivalence, a translation test is administered. The results show that the students shift most of the ST lexical ties, and their shifts are not as successful as to establish textual and discoursal equivalence. This is because the students fail in making accurate interpretations and in dealing with a text as a whole unit of discourse.

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List of Abbreviations

ST: Source text

TT: Target text

SL: Source language

TL: Target language

L2:   Second language

M: Modifier

Q: Qualifier

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Transliteration of the Arabic Writing System

In this dissertation the following transliteration system is used when representing Arabic script.

Consonants

Arabic letter	Transliteration	Arabic letter	Transliteration
ء	?	ض	ḍ
ب	b	ط	ṭ
ت	t	ظ	ẓ
ث	ṯ	ع	c
ج	j	غ	ġ
ح	ḥ	ف	*f*
خ	χ	ق	q
د	d	ك	k
ذ	ḏ	ل	l
ر	r	م	m
ز	z	ن	n
س	s	ه	h
ش	š	و	w
ص	ṣ	ى	y

Vowels

Arabic letter	Transliteration	Arabic letter	Transliteration
ﹷ	a	ﺍ	ā
ﹹ	u	ﻭ	ū
ﹻ	i	ﻱ	ī

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Chapter III: The Analysis of the Students' Translation

Introduction

Aim of the Study

The current study has been set out to investigate the phenomenon of shifts in translation. It is an investigation which is actually rooted in the domain of discourse analysis. It is based on Halliday and Hasan's "Cohesion in English" model (1976) where they made a distinction between five types of cohesive markers, namely reference, substitution, conjunctions, ellipses and lexical cohesion. They mention that these cohesive markers create the semantic unity of text and that the selection of types of cohesive markers used in a particular text affects its meaning. The same thing in the process of translation, the selection of the cohesive devices by the translator to re-create the ST message will also affect the TT meaning. So, cohesive ties are very important aspects of language that translators should take into account, because, as Yule (2006:12) asserts, they may cause, or be the source of, difficulty in translation. To achieve depth in the analysis, the focus of this research is limited to the investigation of shifts involving lexical cohesion.

Lexical cohesion is said to be achieved by the selection of vocabulary. It is divided into two classes: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is subdivided into four cohesive effects: word repetition, synonym, superordinate and general word. A collocation is a predisposed combination of words that tend to regularly co-occur (e.g. orange and peel). All semantic relations not classified under the class of reiteration are attributed to the class of collocation (Hallidy and Hasan, 1976).

Lexical ties that occur naturally in the source text (ST), creating cohesion and providing texture, can rarely if ever be replicated in the TT (Baker 2002:206). The difficulty of recognizing and successfully dealing with elements of lexical cohesion is a

constant challenge to the translator and one which demands some translation decisions if the same or similar level of lexical cohesion is to be achieved in the target text (TT) as is present in the source text (ST). These decisions are those choices that might lead a translator achieve appropriate products in the target language (TL), and they are those choices that should involve awareness of discourse features and the differences between languages. The translator should decide whether the source text lexical patterns can successfully be transferred into the target language or need to be altered in some form in order to adhere to the accepted norms of the target language. At the same time, the translator must consider the impact of such re-presentation upon the transfer of intent of the ST.

On the part of the translated text, translator's decisions are those changes known as "translation shifts". For Catford (1965: 27), shifts are those "departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from SL to TL". According to him, shifts are those changes which satisfy the condition that a competent bilingual can identify the relationship between ST and TT patterns as textual equivalence. Shifts may occur when there is no formal correspondence between the two languages involving the process of translation.

Catford (1965) proposes two major types of shifts; these are level shift and category shift. The first occurs when a SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different level. It involves shifts from grammar to lexis and vise versa. The second involves four sub-types of shifts: class, structure, system and unit shifts. Structure shifts occur in grammatical structure. It may occur in all ranks in translation. Class shifts occurs when the SL item is translated into different class in the TL, for example translation of a verb by an adjective or a verb by a noun. Unit shift may occur when a unit at one rank in the SL is translated into a unit at a different rank in the TL. Intra-system shifts occur

within a system, when translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL systems which approximately correspond formally. As Catford (1965) states, intra-system shifts occur internally, within a system; that is for those cases where SL and TL posses systems which approximately correspond formally as to their constitution, but when translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system, for example a term which is definite in the source text translated as indefinite one. Besides the above grammatical shifts, semantic shifts, shifts by addition and shifts by omission are also considered, by some linguists, as translation decisions to get textual equivalence across ST-TT pair.

Baker (1992) for instance states that different grammatical structures in the SL and the TL may cause remarkable changes in the way the information or a message is carried across. She states that "The grammatical structure of the target language may require the translator to add or delete information" (Baker 1992: 206), or make some changes in "the meaning" of some lexical terms. That is to say, to achieve lexical cohesion equivalence across two distinct linguistic codes, the translator may make some sorts of shifts by omitting, adding, or altering the meaning of the target text lexical ties.

This research is based on both Catford and Baker's proposed types of shifts to textual equivalence. It tries to know how frequently first year master students of English shift the Arabic lexical cohesive patterns in TL (English). It also aims at examining the likely consequences of shifts in lexical cohesion that occurred through translation. It tries to check whether these shifts are as positive as to establish cohesion in lexical equivalence. This research is, thus, aims at answering the following question:

Research Question

How frequently do first year master students of English shift the Arabic lexical ties into English, and do these shifts establish textual and discoursal equivalence in the target language?

Research Hypotheses

Because they have very different origins, Arabic and English bear many systemic differences. Based on this theoretical assumption, we postulate that first year master students of English tend to shift most of the Arabic lexical ties rather than maintaining them in the TL (English), and these shifts fail most of the times in establishing textual and discursive equivalence. They are motivated by the students' wrong interpretation of lexical ties and their work at word level not at a discoursal one.

Research Tools

To test the research hypothesis and to establish its validity, a translation test is necessary because it is the most suitable methodological procedure. This test will be administered to a random sample among first year master students of English. It consists of an Arabic text that tends to be translated into English. It should be noted that the register of the text is not so important as the present research is concerned with shifts at a textual level not at a stylistic one.

To achieve the aim of this research, we need to adopt both quantitative and qualitative methods. On the one hand, the quantitative method helps answering the first part of the question: how frequently first year master students shift the Arabic lexical ties into English? On the other hand, the qualitative analysis helps answering the second part: do these shifts establish equivalence in lexical cohesion in the target language?

Subjects

We will select a sample of 30 students among first year master students of English at Mentouri University of Constantine during the 2008-2009 academic year. All of them belong to the same option, which is Applied Language Studies where they are supposed to have the same level of education. They are those ones who have fair knowledge of both Arabic and English and are not just beginners in translation, as they would have been dealing with translation since their second year at the university.

Structure of the Study

This study consists of two main parts: a theoretical part and a practical one. The theoretical part will consist of two chapters while the practical one will consist of one chapter.

The first chapter will begin with a definition of discourse. The emphasis will be on written discourse and its main patterns and characteristics i.e. "text" and "texture". The notion of "cohesion" and "coherence", as inter-related textual aspects, will be fully investigated. A full description of the cohesive markers in English, as they are presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976), along with the five categories of cohesion (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, and lexical cohesion) that they suggested, will be discussed and illustrated.

As it was mentioned earlier, this research is an attempt to examine the students' shifts in translating lexical cohesion. This type of cohesion will be given more importance than any other type in this chapter.

The second chapter will establish the theoretical framework of the current study. It will present cohesion as one of the textual aspects of discourse that tends to differ across

languages. It will also illustrate the main problems concerning the translation of lexical cohesion, explain the concept of shifts in translation, and the types of shifts to achieve textual equivalence suggested by both Catford (1965) and Baker (1992).

The third chapter will deal with the identification of the cohesive patterns in the source text (Arabic) as a first step to facilitate the analysis. Then, it will quantitatively and qualitatively deal with the analysis of the students' production in TL. It will give statistical measurements of the shifts as well as the formal correspondences, i.e., it will give statistical measurements about the elements which are said to be altered in the TL and the elements that are said to be maintained. It will also give statistical measurements about the distribution of each type of shift. Then, it will examine the affect of these shifts on TT meaning in comparison with the original.

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Chapter I: Discourse Analysis and Cohesion

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Chapter I
Discourse Analysis and Cohesion

Introduction

   Discourse analysis is the branch that is concerned with the study of the regular patterns of any piece of language, be it spoken or written. Among these regularities is cohesion. It is a concept that is said to be identified in terms of textual devices. These devices involve the different lexico-grammatical patterns such as conjunctions, ellipses, substitution, reference, and lexical cohesion.

   In this chapter, we will present a general overview about discourse analysis, its concern, and the focus will be upon the concept of cohesion and its different types, especially lexical cohesion as it is the main concern of this research.

I.1 What is Discourse Analysis?

   Discourse analysis is a branch that attempts to study language beyond the limits of the sentence, .i.e. it studies the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. It refers to the investigation into the way sentences "are put to communicative use in the performing of social actions" (Widdowson, 2007: 47). Discourse analysis is a study that deals with how people understand each other, make sense of what they read or hear, recognize whether a text is meaningful well-structured unit or not, and how they understand what is communicated rather than said. To illustrate this argument, let us consider the following example which is adopted from Cook (1989: 03):

> a) This box contains, on average, 100 Large Plain Paper Clips. 'Applied Linguistics' is not the same therefore as 'Linguistics'. The tea's as hot as it could be. This is Willie Worm. Just send 12 Guinness 'cool token' bottle tops.
> b) Playback. Raymond Chandler. Penguin Books in the voice in association with Hamish Hamilton. To Jean and Helga, without whom this book could never have been written. One. The voice on the telephone seemed to be sharp and peremptory, but I didn't hear too well what it said - partly because I was only half awake and partially because I was holding the receiver upside down.

Cook comments that, although, both passages are mad up of five correct utterances each, any reader may feel that the second passage (b) is a meaningful unified whole contrary to the first one (a) which gives the feeling that it lacks unity and it does not make sense. The second passage involves some sort of linguistic forms and structures that make it hang together and appear as a meaningful whole, and although the reader is apart from making this meaning, s/he could provide large amount of information which are not explicitly mentioned. For example: s/he may indicate that the text is only a beginning of something, guess who is 'Jean' and 'Helga', identify text title, genre, author, publisher, context, intended audience, etc. So, the reader /listener can work up on the different features of the utterances and sentences to grasp the intended meaning of a writer/speaker. These features are those language characteristics and structures that discourse analysis tries to identify. For example, it tries to examine turn-taking in conversations, monologues, chats, classroom talks, and different speech interactions, or trucking the themes in written texts such as letters, notices, newspaper articles, recipes, etc. Discourse analysts are, thus, concerned with the study of the components of both written and spoken discourses.

Because there is no agreement among linguists as to the use of the term discourse (some use it for spoken form of language, and others use it for the written form), it needs more clarification and specification for its use in this research.

I. 1.1 What is Discourse?

Originally, the word 'discourse' comes from the Latin word 'discursus' which means 'conversation/speech'. The term 'discourse' has very broad meanings. Some linguists use it to refer to texts, while others claim that it denotes speech. In the analysis of spoken discourse some problems are said to be posed, mainly, because of the number of interlocutors who may vary in the use of non- verbal utterances and the possibility of regular

interruptions. However, the study of written discourse is less problematic than the spoken one, because the analyst will not have to encounter with such factors, and because writers have more time to construct and to look over what they have written.

Generally, any piece of language, written or spoken, involves particular forms and structures. According to McCarthy (1991:12), discourse of whatever type is usually assumed to be meaningful, well-structured, and leads to a successful communication. This means that its words and sentences "are interrelated in conventional formulae". These conventional formulae involve all those norms and rules people follow when they speak or write. Beaugrande (1981, Quoted in Madoui 2004: 21- 22) suggestes seven criteria which have to be fullfilled to qualify any type of discourse .These include:

- **Cohesion:** refers to formal surface relations between the sentences that make up the text.

- **Coherence:** refers to the underlying relations that hold between propositions of the sentences making up the text and which establish their relevance to the central thought of the text.

- **Intentionality:** refers to the text producer's attempt at handling the linguistic resources of the text in a way that meets her intentions and communicates the message to be conveyed, in an appropriate and successful way.

- **Acceptability:** refers to the receiver's ability to perceive any relevance of the text in question. A reader, for example, who cannot identify the relevance of the material in question would not be able to recognize the textuality of the text and would be unable to assign the material its property as a text.

- **Informality:** refers to the newness or the giveness of the information presented in the text, i.e. whether the information in the text is known or not to the receiver. A text to be informative must assure a balance between giveness and newness. A reader would not find informative a text speaks only of what is already known. On the other hand, a reader would neither find informative a text that sweeps the ground with what is totally new.

- **Situationality:** concerns the factors that make up a text relevant to a situation of occurrence. So, it is important to determine what is said, by whom, why, when, and where.
- **Intertextuality:** refers to the factors that make the use of one text dependent upon knowledge of previous texts. A text, in fact, belongs to a wider universe of discourse and it is in this sense that the text receiver is actually able to perceive the intended message.

I. 1.1.1 Written Discourse

Written discourse is a structured, pre-planned, and possibly revised form of language that is produced, most of the time, by only one interlocutor. The writer of the text knows what and how to write and s/he tends to look over what s/he has written, decides whether it is good or not, wrong or not, then corrects it or throws it away. Written discourse is a standalone medium contrary to the spoken one which is more contextual and situational. It is a medium that does not allow for the possibility of playing with intonation and pitch, which can serve as discourse markers in the verbal discourse. Writers tend to follow some norms and rules when they create texts. These rules represent the various linguistic devices which create links across the boundaries of sentences and also chain together related items. They tend to create text cohesion and help readers make sense of the texts they read.

McCarthy (1991:152) points out that the basic unit in written discourse is the sentence. He considers it as the most obvious grammatical unit that is "dismissed as being of dubious value as a unit of discourse". A written text can be recognized as a text if it contains more than one sentence, either following one another or imbedded within one another. However, the notion of the text is slightly different in Haliday and Hasan (1976), Van Dijk (1977), and Widdowson (2007) definitions.

I.1.1.1.1 Text

A text is a unified semantic unit which refers to any spoken or written passage of whatever length. It is called by Halliday and Hasan 'super –sentence', because it differs from other grammatical forms like a clause or a sentence that are considered as abstract units of linguistic analysis. They wrote that "a text is not restricted to number of sentences" but it is "REALIZED BY or encoded in sentences" (1976:2). Van Dijk (1977:03) states that a text is called a text only when "utterances are reconstructed in terms of larger units where they tend to be acceptable discourses of language" and "if they are really well-formed and interpretable". The quality of being well-formed and interpretable refers to text meaning and unity which in turn refers to writer's linguistic choices of the linguistic patterns to transmit ideas, thoughts and beliefs or any other thing to people. These people are those readers or listeners who have to interpret what is intended. In this, Widdowson (2007:04) mentioned that a text is a piece of writing that could be recognized as it has been produced for a communicative purpose, i.e. the main function of the text is to get a message across.

I.1.1.1.2 Texture

Texture is said to be provided by the cohesive relations. Halliday and Hasan (1976:02) point out that "what distinguishes a text from non-text is its texture". That is to say, the presence of the linguistic features in a passage made up of more than one sentence contributes in the total unity of this passage and gives it texture. The interpretation of two sentences (that form a text or a part of it) as a whole, for instance, is highly dependent on the interpretation of those linguistic ties. For example:

Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish (ibid: 3).

Here, the pronoun 'them' in the second sentence refers back to the 'six cooking apples' in the first sentence. This reoccurrence function of 'them' links the two sentences.

The interpretation of the second sentence depends on the first. The cohesive relation between 'them' and 'the six cooking apples' creates texture. This is because both of the terms have the same reference or 'COREFERENTAL' as it is called by the authors.

The identity of reference is one instance of the cohesive ties that create texture. Different cohesive ties will be discussed in the chapter in question. Yet before doing so, the two concepts of textuality, namely cohesion and coherence need more identification.

I. 2 Cohesion

Cohesion is a network of lexico-grammatical relations which link various parts of a text and that can be defined as continuity to its total unity. It is a relational aspect of language that distinguishes connected meaningful texts from those which are not. In other words, cohesion is a textual aspect of discourse that is explicitly expressed by different kinds of linguistic markers. It helps readers make sense of what they read and what writers want to convey. This, of course, depends on the accurate interpretations of the cohesive devices which are interdependent and involve presupposition. In Halliday and Hasan' words (1976: 04):

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

The following is an example suggested by Yule (2006:125) to illustrate the importance of the cohesive ties in creating text unity and meaning:

> My father once brought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he sold it to help pay for my college. Sometimes I think I'd rather have the convertible. (Underlined words are by the author of this work).

As readers, we assume that this is a meaningful whole. This text makes sense through the function of its various cohesive markers. It is clear that the underlined items are referents: the pronoun 'he' stands for 'my father', 'my' refers to the speaker 'I', and both 'that car' and the 'convertible' refer to the 'Lincoln convertible'. The cohesive relationships between elements in a text are affected by the existence of the referring item and the presence of the item to which it refers. In this example, there are some other cohesive types between sentences. These connective items share the same elements of meaning, such as 'money' and 'time'. 'Money' is a hyponym where 'bought', 'saving', 'penny', 'worth a fortune', 'sold pay', are related in meaning and 'time' includes 'once', 'nowadays', and 'sometimes'. In addition, the element 'however' makes the relationship of what follows to what went before. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 08) also point out that cohesion is usually defined in relation to the boundaries between sentences and within a sentence. They argue that cohesion within a sentence is of less impotence because sentences are naturally cohesive thanks to their grammatical structure. To illustrate this, they propose the fallowing example:

If you happen to meet the admiral, don't tell him his ships go down. (ibid: 08)

Here there is no need for cohesion to make this sentence hang together, because it is already cohesive through its grammatical structure. It is clear that both items 'him' and 'his' refer to the 'admiral'. This cohesive relation is created through the rule of pronominalization. From a grammatical point of view, a sentence like 'John took John's hat off and hang John's hat on a peg' (ibid:08), never occurs in the normal use of language. Reference can be identified by pronominal forms, so that we get this sentence; 'John took his hat off and hung it on a peg'. Reference is one type of grammatical cohesion that operates at the inter-sentential level. Yet, there are other cohesive devices which are

structurally determined like lexical cohesion. Both types of cohesion are needed for writers and readers to identify the flow of ideas, reach text meaning and unity i.e. text coherence.

It is clear from the above discussion that Halliday and Hasan conceive the cohesive categories as the basis of coherence. This is obviously said in their own words "cohesive ties between sentences [are] the ONLY source of texture" (ibid:02). However, this concept is challenged by many discourse analysts who believe that the concept of coherence is not always dependent on the occurrence of the linguistic ties and that cohesion is only "a guide to coherence" (MacCarthy, 1991:26). Among those discourse analysts are Brown and Yule (1983:194-5) who raised two critical questions:

> a. Is Halliday and Hasan's cohesion necessary to the identification of a text?
> b. Is such cohesion sufficient to guarantee identification as a text?

They view that a reader will automatically assume 'semantic relations' when encountering a text and interpret sentences in the light of the previous ones. Therefore, texture, in the sense of 'explicit realization of semantic relations,' is not critical to the identification of texts. They conducted a small experiment by scrambling the sentences in the following text while retaining the formal cohesion.

> [1] A man in white clothes, who could only be the surviving half-breed, was running as one does run when Death is the pace-maker. [2] The white figure lay motionless in the middle of the great plain. [3] Behind him, only a few yards in his rear, bounded the high ebony figure of Zambo, our devoted negro. [4] An instant afterwards Zambo rose, looked at the prostrate man, and then, waving his hand joyously to us, came running in our direction. [5] They rolled on the ground together. [6] Even as we looked, he sprang upon the back of the fugitive and flung his arms round his neck. (Reorganized in the order 1, 3, 6, 5, 4, 2, this passage is taken from Sir Arthur Conan Doyle's The Lost World, 1912), (ibid: 197).

The experiment was to show that it would not be easy for the reader to interpret such a 'collection of sentences' even with the presence of all the cohesive relationships. They show that cohesion alone is never sufficient for the identification of a text.

The main difference between the view of Halliday and Hasan and that of Brown and Yule lies in explicitness. While the first pair emphasise the explicit expressions of semantic relations, the second advocate the underling semantic relation that has the cohesive power, and that a text could be interpreted without any presence of the cohesive markers. However, if we compare Halliday and Hasan's view of cohesion and Brown and Yule's refutations, we will find that all agree that semantic relations do exist in a text and help constitute its coherence.

In the following, we will present Halliday and Hasan's types of cohesive devices that may be established in a text.

I. 2.1 Types of Cohesive Devices

A device or a tie is a term which involves the meaning of connection. It is a term "for one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 2). Different types of cohesive ties can be recognized within a text with different frequency. It is a notion which helps analyze text cohesion and identify the relation between its propositions.

Halliday and Hasan distinguish between five types of ties, namely reference, conjunctions, ellipses, substitution, and lexical cohesion. These lexico-grammatical devices are summarised by Williams (1983 cited in Kennedy, 2003) in the following diagram:

Cohesive Ties
- Lexical
  - Reiteration
  - Collocation
- Grammatical
  - Reference
    - Pronominal
    - Demonstrative
    - Comparative
      - Exophoric
      - Anaphoric
      - Cataphoric
  - Substitution
    - Nomominal
    - Verbal
    - Clausal
  - Ellipses
  - Logical Connectives
    - Additive
    - Contrastive
    - Amplifying
    - Exemplifying
    - Causal
    - Alternative
    - Explanatory
    - Excluding
    - Temporal
    - Summary
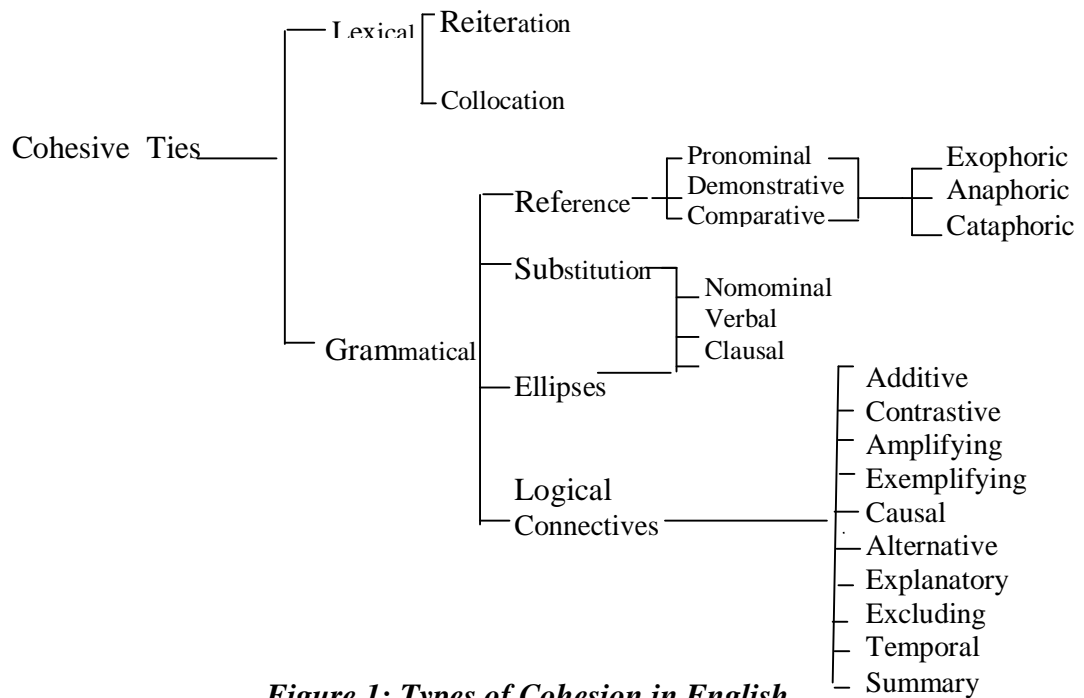
Figure 1: Types of Cohesion in English

I. 2.1.1 Reference

Reference is an identity relationship that exists between two linguistic elements in a textual environment. It is a device which allows the reader to trace entities and events in the text. There are three main types of reference involving pronouns, demonstratives and comparatives. These cohesive items cannot be interpreted semantically on their own right; rather they make reference to something else within the text.

One important thing that is left to be said about reference is that it is of three types, namely, anaphoric, cataphoric and exophoric. The first two types are belonging to what Halliday and Hasan (1976) called endophoric reference, because both of them account for the relationship between two linguistic elements within a text. The former occurs when the writer refers back to someone or something that has been previously identified. This helps avoid redundant repetition. For example (King, 2000:77):

Julies saw the tulips she wanted as they were the deep purple she loved.

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The second, i.e. the cataphoric reference is less common. It occurs when writers refer forward to someone or something that has not yet been identified. For example:

They pressed round him in ragged fashion to take their money. **Andy, David, Phil, Stephen, Bob** (McCarthy, 1991: 35).

In this example, 'they' and 'their', refer forward to 'Andy', 'David', 'Phil', 'Stephen' and 'Bob'. The third type of reference refers to the relationship that plays no part in textual cohesion but rather in the context of situation. For example:

For **he'**s jolly good fell. And so say all of us. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:32)

The pronoun 'he' is not made explicit in the text. Yet 'his' identity is known for those who share the same context.

I. 2.1.2 Substitution

In contrast to reference, substitution is a grammatical relationship rather than a semantic one. It is a relation that holds between linguistic forms rather than between linguistic forms and their meaning. That is to say, it refers not to a specific entity but to a class of items. It refers to "the replacement of one item by another" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:88). It operates either at a nominal, verbal, or clausal level. McCarthy (1991) mentioned that 'one/s', 'do/did', 'so/ not', are the most common used items for substitution in English. Here are some examples from Foley and Hall (2005:35-36):

Ø **Nominal:** I really like sweet sherry but my husband prefers dry one.**(Sherry)**
          Davis appeared in numerous major films but practically no great ones.**(Films)**
          The boys went out night after night and some did not return. **(Boys)**
Ø **Verbal:**   She doesn't know any more than I do.**(Know)**
          At the time, they lived very near to where I did.**(Lived)**
Ø **Clausal:** Do you think WAO phones will ever catch on? I think so.

I. 2.1.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is an omission of a linguistic element. It can be thought of as a zero tie or nothing. This is because the tie is left unsaid. Yet, what is left unsaid is nevertheless understood. It should be noted that every utterance that is not fully explicit is elliptical. Ellipsis refers only to those cases where the grammatical structure points to an expression that can fill the gap in question (Baker 1992:187). "When we talk of ellipses […] we are referring specially to sentences, clauses, etc whose structure is such as to presuppose some preceding item which then serves as the source of the missing information" (Halliday and Hasan , ibid:143). Ellipsis like substitution operates at a nominal, verbal, and clausal level. For example:

- Ø **Nominal:** They are small; take two. (Cookies).
- Ø **Verbal:** Were you typing? No, I wasn't. (Typing).
- Ø **Clausal:** I don't know how to work this computer. I have to learn how (To work the computer) (Hatch, 1992: 225).

I. 2.1.4 Conjunction

Conjunction is the fourth type of the cohesive ties in Halliday and Hasan's modal. It is a formal marker which "explicitly draws attention to the type of relationship which exists between one sentence or clause and another" (Cook, 1989:21). It helps readers relate the ongoing discourse and its preceding part. To use Baker's words "[the] conjunction signals the way the writer wants the reader to relate what is about to be said to what has been said before" (Baker, 1992:190). There are several kinds of conjunctive relations. Kennedy (2003:325) summarizes the most common conjunction relationships in the following table:

Relationship	Examples of Logical Connectives
1.Addition/inclusion	And, furthermore, besides, also, in addition, similarly
2.Contrast	But, although, despite, yet, however, still, on the other hand, nevertheless
3.Amplification	To be more specific, thus, therefore, consists of, can be divided into
4.Exemplification	For example, such as, thus, for instance
5.Cause-effect	Because, since, thus, as a result, so that, in order to, so, consequently
6.Alternative	Or, nor, alternatively, on the other hand
7.Explanation	In other words, that is to say, I mean, namely
8.Exclusion	Instead, rather than, on the contrary
9.Temporal arrangement	Initially, when, before, after, subsequently, while, then, firstly, finally, in the first place, still, followed by, later, continued
10.Summary/ conclusion	Ultimately, in conclusion, to sum up, in short, in a word, to put it briefly, that is.

Table 1: Basic Conjunction Relationships in English

I. 2.1.5 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is the fifth type of cohesion markers in Halliday and Hasan's model. It refers to the role played by the selection of vocabulary. It is of two principle kinds, namely reiteration and collocation.

I. 2.1.5.1 Reiteration

This type of lexical cohesion can be achieved by:

- **Reiteration of the Same Item**

Of all the lexical cohesion devices, the most common form is repetition, which is simply repeated words or word-phrases, threading through the text. That is to say, the same item refers to itself in a previous linguistic environment. For example:

> There was a large **mushroom** growing near her, about the same height as herself; and, when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look and see what was on the top of it. She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the **mushroom**… (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278) .

Here, the term 'mushroom', which occurs at the last line of this example, refers back to 'mushroom' at the first line. This re-occurrence of the same term creates a lexical cohesive tie. Halliday and Hasan distinguish between two types of repetition:

•**Repetition with identity of reference**

     Ø Mary bit into a peach.
     Ø Unfortunately the peach wasn't ripe.

• **Repetition without identity of reference**

    Ø Mary ate some peaches.
    Ø She likes peaches very much (Morris and Hirst 1991: 21).

So, repetition is not like reference, because it does not necessarily involve the same identity. Baker (1992:203) wrote that if the sentence 'the boy is going to fall if he doesn't take care' followed by this sentence 'boys can be so silly', repetition of boy-boys still be an instance of reiteration, even though the two items do not have the same reference.

• **Reiteration by Synonym**

Reiteration does not involve the repetition of the same item, but it also involves the use of a synonym and near-synonym. Synonym is a term which is used to mean 'the sameness of meaning' (Palmer 1981:59). A semantic relationship between a term and its synonym/near- synonym within a text creates a strong cohesive tie. For example:

    a.) Accordingly… I took leave, and turned to the ascent of the peak. The climb is perfectly easy…
    b.) Then quickly rose Sir Bedivere, and ran, and leaping down the ridges lightly, plung'd among the bulrush beds, and clutch the sword. And lightly wheel'd and threw it. The great brand made light'nings in the splendour of the moon…   Halliday and Hasan (1976: 178).

The example (a) is an instance of reiteration by synonym; 'climb' refers back to 'accent'. Yet, (b) is an instance by near-synonym. The term 'brand' refers back to 'sword'.

•**Reiteration by Superordinate**

Superordinate or a hyponym is also an instance of reiteration. The first is called 'upper class', and the second is called 'lower class' (Palmer 1981:76). Both terms involve

the notion of inclusion. Let us consider the following example:

Henry's bought himself a new Jaguar. He practically lives in the car.

(Halliday and Hasan 1976: 178).

The term 'car' in the second sentence refers back to 'Jaguar' in the first sentence, of which is a superordinate.

- **Reiteration by General Term**

A general term is that noun having generalized reference within the major noun classes, such as 'place noun', 'fact noun', 'action noun', and the like. These items play a significant role in creating cohesion. A general noun in cohesive function is usually accompanied by the anaphoric reference 'the'. The interpretation of the general noun plus a determiner like 'the' is only possible by reference to something that has gone before. In this respect, the general term functions as reference as in: "it seems to have mad very little impression and on the man. It seems to have made very little impression on him" (ibid: 275). The only difference between cohesion by reference 'him' and the noun 'man' is that this latter opens up another possibility of introducing an interpersonal element into the meaning. The following table presents some examples of general nouns proposed by Haliday and Hasan:

Type	Examples
human	people, person, man, woman child, boy, girl
non-human animate	creature
inanimate Concrete Count	thing, object
inanimate Concrete mass	stuff
inanimate abstract	business, affairs, matters
action	move
place	place
fact	question, idea

Table 2: Common General Nouns in English

There remains one point to be added to round off this limited discussion of reiteration as one of lexical cohesion types. A lexical item is not bound to a particular grammatical category, or to a particular morphological form, i.e. a term may appear in different inflectional or derivational forms that are often said to be guided by the context. However, it does not much matter, since each sets and pairs are cohesive anyway. For example, there is just one lexical item boy in a text which may appear in different forms such as 'boy, boys, boy's and boys' as instances of re-occurrence. Similarly, 'talk, talks, talking, and talked' all represent a single lexical item 'talk'. There are no perfectly clear criteria for deciding just how far this principle can be extended; for example, 'go, goes, going, gone, and went' are all one lexical item, and so 'good, better, and best'.

Now, let us move to collocations as the second type of lexical cohesion.

I. 2.1.5.2 Collocations

Firth (1951, cited in Fan 2008) is the first to establish the expression 'collocations' as a technical linguistic term. The concept of collocation in Firthian terms developed in connection with his 'Theory of Meaning'. Firth distinguishes three levels of meaning: 'meaning by collocation', the 'conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words', and

'contextual meaning'. The first refer to the co-occurrences of words in general (frequent or rare), second to habitual co-occurrences of words, and the third refers to the number of consecutive words or an order of 'mutual expectancy'. He sees that collocations exclusively as habitual co-occurrences of mutually predicting lexical items such as ('dark' + 'night') and ('silly' + 'ass').

Halliday (1966) was one of the first to build on Firth's concept of collocation. He considers collocations as a syntagmatic association of lexical items of all probabilities which occur in a certain distance from each other. He defines 'probability' as "the frequency of the item in a stated environment relative to its total frequency of occurrence" (Halliday 1966:156). However, he did not really give a precise definition of the notion 'distance'. Halliday and Hasan (1976) define the term 'distance' as a relative proximity in the sense of separating one item from another, i.e. the number of words or clauses or sentences in between. For example, if the term 'sunset' which refers to a particular event considered as a perceptual phenomenon and 'sundown' which refers to the same event considered as defining a moment in time, occur in adjacent sentences, they tend to exert a very strong cohesive force. Morrist and Hirst (1991:20) see that distance between words is important. They argue that if two words are related in meaning but are apart in the text, then they may not actually refer to each other. For example, if 'grow' and 'fruit' occur in the same sentence, it is much more likely that 'grow' actually refers to the 'fruit' and occurs in the same sentence. The cohesive relation seems to be much stronger than if 'grow' appears in a separate sentence or paragraph.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:187) consider all lexical items that systematically relate to each other in a given text as collocations. They have also called them 'collocational cohesion'. Sinclair pointed out that "the occurrence of two or more words within a short

space of each other in a text" is a collocation (1991:170). Halliday and Hasan made from the concept of collocation a property of text lexical cohesion. "It is a cohesion created by the selection of vocabulary". Any co-occurring terms tend to have a cohesive force in any piece of discourse. The relative strength of collocational terms is a function of two kinds of relatedness, one kind being related in the linguistic system and the other being relatedness in the text.

The text is a lexical environment within which lexical items are said to collocate. The structure of the text naturally makes words refer and collocate to each other. In this respect Halliday and Hasan mentioned that:

> EVERY lexical item MAY enter into a cohesive relation, but by itself it carries no indication whether it is functioning cohesively or not. That can be established only by reference to the text. [This is because] discourse does not wander at random from one topic to another but runs on reasonably systematic lines with a certain consistency of topic and predictability of development. Most discourse is well organised, and the patterned occurrence of lexical items is a natural consequence of this (ibid: 288).

This seems to suggest that a particular collocational environment is said to be built up in the course of the creation of the text. The lexical environment determines the meaning of words, and words create a cohesive force that strengthens its meaning. In other words, the text provides the context for the creation and interpretation of words, just as the words help create the texture of the text.

However, this does not mean that collocational terms do not have their own meaning, i.e. 'their own collocational history' in a linguistic system (ibid). Collocations are said to relate in a linguistic system where they occur together in a regular way. They create a cohesive force which can be influenced by the degrees of proximity in the linguistic system. There are always restrictions on the way words can be combined to convey meaning. Such restrictions - Baker (1992:47) argues- are usually written down in a form of rules which determine the

'admissible' and 'inadmissible' occurrences. For example, a determiner cannot come after a noun, and 'that beautiful girl the is' is not an acceptable combination in English. Similarly, 'deliver a verdict' and 'pronounce verdicts' are acceptable collocations in English. Yet, 'deliver a sentence' is not. Plenty of examples of common collocations in English are given by Palmer (1981), such as 'rancid butter' and 'addled eggs' and not 'rancid eggs' and 'addled butter' although both 'rancid and addled' carry the meaning of a state of being rotten. These words have a strong collocational range. It should be noted here, also, that there are some other words which have a weak collocational range. Baker (1992: 49) states that "Every word in a language can be said to have a range of items with which it is compatible, to a greater or lesser degree". For example, the English verb 'shrug' typically occurs with 'shoulder' and does not have a particularly strong link with any other word in the language. 'Run', by contrast, has a vast collocational range, some of its typical collocates being 'company', 'business', 'show', 'car', 'stocking', 'nose', 'wild', 'bill', 'river', 'course', 'water', and 'colour' (ibid).

Halliday and Hasan distinguished various meaning relations of collocational cohesion that can be established within a text. These include:

 a .**Relation of Autonomy**: words that have different senses and stand in opposition to one another, such as 'hate' /'like', 'wet' / 'dry', 'crowded' / 'desert', etc.

b. **Relation of Complementarity**: lexical items are used in contrast to each other. They are mutually exclusive terms, such as 'girl' /'boy', 'stand up'/ 'set down', and the   like.

c. **Relation of Part to Whole:** one lexical item is related to a more general class to which it is a part such as 'car'… 'box'… 'lid'.

d. **Relation of Par-part:** whereby two or more lexical items belong to the same general class such as 'mouth…' 'chin', 'verse…' 'chorus.'

e. Relation of Co-hyponymy; whereby words belong to the same general class as 'chair' and 'table' (both are hyponyms of furniture).

f. Words Down from the Same Ordered Series: such as 'dollar,' 'cent,' 'north,' 'south,' 'colonel' 'brigadier', 'Tuesday', 'Thursday, 'etc.

Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 290-1) state that the recognition of the pairs of chains that share the tendency of occurring together in a given text depends largely on the reader. It is very much dependent on common sense and one's knowledge of the language. In fact, a native speaker would be able to distinguish between significant patterns of cohesion and insignificant ones. The most important thing is to use common sense, combined with the nature and structure of vocabulary. For example, the term 'agreed' in the sense of 'exclamation', or 'good' in a 'moral context', there is likely to be no significant association between the two occurrences. Yet, by paling the common sense, there might be quite a significant tie between the first of these and a different but related word such as 'virtue' or 'judgement'.

I. 3 Lexical Cohesion and Text Meaning

In texts, lexical cohesion is the result of chains of related words that contribute to the continuity of lexical meaning. These lexical chains are a direct result of units of text being about the same thing, and finding text structure involves finding units of text that are about the same thing. Determining the structure of text is an essential step in determining the deep meaning of the text. The lexical chains also provide a semantic context for interpreting words, concepts, and sentences (Morris and Hirst, 1991).

Lexical patterns occur not simply between pairs of words but over a succession of a number of nearby related words spanning a topical unit of the text. There is a distance relation between each word in the chain, and the words co-occur within a given span.

Lexical ties do not stop at sentence boundaries. They can connect a pair of adjacent words or range over an entire text. Lexical ties tend to delineate portions of text that have a strong unity of meaning. For example (ibid: 26):

> In front of me lay a virgin crescent cut out of pine bush. A dozen houses were going up, in various stages of construction, surrounded by hummocks of dry earth and stands of precariously tall trees nude halfway up their trunks. They were the kind of trees you might see in the mountains.

lexical chains spanning these three sentences is 'virgin', 'pine', 'bush', 'trees', 'trunks', and 'trees'.

Lexical chains provide an easy-to-determine context to aid in the resolution of ambiguity and in the narrowing to a specific meaning of a word. They provide a clue for the determination of discourse structure, and hence the larger meaning of the text. They help in determining the flow of ideas and the change in the topics or ideas being discussed, and, hence, will have an effect on potential referents. Therefore, if we do not understand the meaning of words and structures used in a text, we cannot work out its implied meaning. The major importance of lexical chains is that they provide a clue for the determination of text meaning and structure. When a chunk of text forms a unit within a discourse, there is a tendency for related words to be used. It follows that if lexical chains can be determined, they will tend to indicate the structure of the text. Lexical chains are a clear indication of the linguistic segmentation. When "a lexical chain ends, there is a tendency for a linguistic segment to end, as the lexical chains tend to indicate the topicality of segments" (ibid: 28).

It may be remarked from the above discussion that lexical cohesion is so important in making text meaning as well as cohesion. Even if we have the different grammatical categories to establish text cohesion, lexical cohesion remains as the most necessary

condition to make this. This is because "grammatical cohesion displayed by any piece of discourse, will not form a text unless this is matched by cohesive patterning of a lexical kind" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 292).

Conclusion

In this chapter we have gone through the main concepts that are related to discourse; be they, text, texture, cohesion, and the different types of cohesive devices. We have reviewed cohesion and lexical cohesion in particular, as an important textual aspect of discourse that contributes to a great extent to text structure and meaning.

In the following chapter, we will consider lexical cohesion as one of the textual regularities that plays vital role in assessing a successful transmission of source text message in target language, and the possible difficulties that the translator may encounter while translating, as well as the possible ways to cope with the differences between languages.

Chapter II: Lexical Cohesion and Translation

Chapter II

Lexical Cohesion and Translation

Introduction

The production of an appropriate target text is said to be determined, to a great extent, by the manner in which the translator deals with the textual features revealed by the source text. For expressing a certain message, the translator generally opts for a formulation which best serves this purpose. In close connection to this aspect, the cohesive elements placed in the source text are creators of the framework within which the message is to be understood. They need to be given a considered attention by the translator who would never strive to preserve all of them, but rather s/he would try to reflect the target text ones. This tendency can best be achieved by accurate interpretations and appropriate translation decisions. This is because, languages are said to differ greatly in the use of cohesive patterns.

This chapter identifies cohesion and lexical cohesion in particular, as one of the discourse regularities that are undoubtedly of a significant importance in assessing the transference of source text massage, and in dictating an appropriate approach or decisions to get the textual equivalence across ST-TT pair.

I. 1 Cohesion and Translation

Translation is said to be viewed as an act of communication that is necessarily related to at least the linguistic and discoursal systems holding for the two languages involved in the process of translation, i.e. source text (ST) and target text (TT). It is a process that requires a complex text and discourse processing (Blum Kulka, 1986)**.**

Cohesive devices contribute to texture and are motivated by the linguistic as well as the communicative factors of both ST and TT languages, so that they need to be given a

considered attention by the translator when transferring from one language into another. In other words, the different textual chains need to be considered along their communicative and discursive potential by the translator. In this respect, Hatim and Mason state that "Texture need to be seen as an integral part of what one is doing with one's language" (1990, 194-5).

Cohesion is arguably one of the most challenging issues in translation as each language has its own set of cohesive devices and a unique manner in which these devices are used. Every language "has its own patterns to convey the interrelationship of persons and events; in no language may these patterns be ignored". In other words, each language has what we might call general preferences for certain cohesive patterns over others. For example, both the studies of Berman (1978 cited in Blum-Kulka, (1986) and Stemmer (1981 cited in Blum-Kulka, (1986), which are concerned with the analysis of the use of the cohesive devices between English and Hebrew, show that lexical cohesion was overrepresented in the translation of Hebrew learners to English texts. The learners tended to prefer lexical cohesion over referential linkage. They shifted most of the grammatical ties such as pronouns and demonstratives that are used to refer to entities and events in the source text, into lexical terms in the target language. In other words, the learners preferred repeating the same lexical elements rather than referring to them by other grammatical terms (Blum-Kulka 1986:19). Similarly, Callow (as discussed in Baker 1992) explains that, unlike English which tends to rely heavily on pronominal reference in tracing participants, Brazilian Portuguese generally seems to be more in favour of lexical repetition. In addition, he views that Portuguese inflects verbs for person and number, and such grammatical features provide additional means of relating process and actions to specific participants without the use of independent pronouns. Baker (1992), in turn, illustrates the tendency in

English for relatively small chunks of text to be explicitly conjoined in unambiguous ways using a wide variety of conjunctions and a highly developed system of punctuation. In contrast, Arabic tends to use a relatively small number of conjunctions which must be interpreted according to the addressee's ability to infer relationships. The following example discussed in Baker (1992: 184) is an article from Playboy Magazine on Akio Morita, Chairman of the Portuguese:

ST: Surrounded by the toys and the gadgets of his calling – tape recorders, mini television sets, world-band radios– he is the quintessential Japanese combination that has conquered the world: a thinker turned businessman. As the eldest son of a wealthy sake and soy-sauce producer in conservative Nagoya, he was expected to take over the family business – and perhaps become the 15th generation of Morita Mayors in the local community. Instead, he spent his time taking apart clocks and listening to Western classical music and preferred the study of physics to business. During World War Two, he went into naval research as a lieutenant, working on a thermal-guided missile and other projects, and it was there that he met his future partner, Ibuka. After the war, the two set up a business after a false start in the home-appliance market manufacturing rice cookers.

TT: Produto de uma cultura que valoriza a sutileza e as maneiras indiretas, Morita, com seu jeito franco, é a ponte ideal entre o Japão e o Ocidente. Filho mais velho de um próspero produtor de oleo de soja e de saquê, em Nagoya, os pais de Morita esperavam que ele assumisse o controle dos negócios da famila. Ao invés disso, Morita passava o tempo desmontando relógios, ouvindo música clássica occidental e preferindo estudar Fisica a se meter em negócios. Durante a Segunda Guerra Mundial dedicou-se à pesquisa naval, como civil, e foi nessa época que fez a sociedade numa fábrica de panelas de cozinhar arroz. Produção total: 100 panelas.

Baker (1992: 185) points out that English prefers to pick up the reference by means of a pronoun while Portuguese prefers lexical repetition. Baker also notices that within the main paragraph under examination, Portuguese further repeats Morita twice while English persists in using pronominal reference. She notes further that the finite verbs in the Portuguese text establish additional cohesive links with Morita because they are marked for person.

Baker suggests another example that represents the difference between languages in the use of cohesive devices. An example is part from a document explaining arbitration procedures at the International Centre for Arbitration in Cairo (188):

ST: إذا انقضى ثلاثون يوما من تاريخ تسلم احد الطرفين اقتراحا قدم وفقا للفقرة الأولى دون أن يتفق الطرفان على تعين المحكم الواحد تولت تعيينه سلطة التعيين التي اتفق الطرفان على تسميتها. فإذا لم يكن الطرفان قد اتفقا على تسمية سلطة تعيين أو إذا امتنعت السلطة التي اتفقا على تسميتها من تعيين محكم أو لم تتمكن من إتمام تعيينه خلال ستين يوما من تاريخ تسلم الطلب الذي قدمه لها احد الطرفين في هذا الشأن جاز لكل من الطرفين في هذا الشأن أن يطلب من الأمين العام لمحكمة التحكيم الدائمة تسمية سلطة تعيين.

TT: If thirty days elapse from the date on which either party received a proposal-submitted according to the first item without the two parties agreeing on appointing one arbitrator, the authority nominal by the two parties undertaken to appoint the arbitrator. If the parties had not agreed on nominating such authority, or if the nominated authority declines to appoint an arbitrator or is unable to nominate one within sixty days of its receipt of either party's request to that effect, both parties may ask the Secretary-General of the Permanent Arbitration Court to nominate an appointing authority.

Baker comments that both versions represent striking differences in the choice of cohesive devices. The Arabic text makes considerable use of pronominal reference, contrary to the English text where there is no instance of such type. The Arabic version includes the use of 'الذي' to establish linkage, as in 'تسلم الطلب **الذي** قدمه لها احد الطرفين', which does not appear in English. In addition, all verbs agree with their subjects in gender and number, which means that the link between the two is clear even if they are separated by a number of clauses or sentences with their own subjects and verbs, i.e. there is no ambiguity in reference. Unlike Arabic, English has very few verbs that are said to agree with their subjects in gender and number. Even if the Arabic version contains different lexical repetition terms such as (الطرفان) 'الطرفين' which occur six times, 'تعين' four times, 'سلطة تعيين'three times, Arabic text uses referential linkage to disambiguate references and events.

Baker mentioned that, unlike Arabic, English generally uses whatever means to reduce ambiguity when referring to participants. Whenever ambiguity arises in establishing reference, lexical repetition is most preferable.

A further example mentioned by Blum-Kulka which illustrates the differences in cohesion between (English and French):

SL: Marie was helping Jimmy climb the biggest branch of the tree in the front yard, to start work on their tree house. The branch looked very strong but when Jimmy grabbed hold, it started to crack. He might really get hurt! (18).

TL: Marie était en train d'aider Jimmy à grimper sur la plus haute branche de l'arbre du jardin pour commencer à construire leur cabane. La branche avait l'air très solide, mai quand Jimmy l'attrapa, elle commença a craquer. Il pourrait vraiment se faire mal (ibid. 18).

The term 'branch' is marked twice for gender 'la branche, elle commença', as it is required by the French grammatical system. This anaphoric reference is also repeated twice in English. The result is a slightly higher level of redundancy in the French text as compared to the English one.

Blum Kulka commented that, the changes committed by the translator are so necessary, i.e. 'unavoidable' to get the textual equivalent across, because they are "due to differences in the grammatical systems between the two languages" (ibid:22).

Cohesion in the above examples seems to suggest that, textual devices should be chosen by the translator in accordance with the source language textual norms and conventions. The translator has to take into account the way languages create cohesion. It should be noted here that the failure to reproduce these textual patterns, might result in an odd, ambiguous, or redundant translation, as it might lead to failure in communication. Failure is an evidence of inability to cope with the differences between languages.

Among the cohesive devices this research is about is lexical cohesion. In the following, we will see how this cohesive device may cause difficulty in translation and what the possible decisions are there to achieve textual equivalence across ST-TT pair.

II. 2 Lexical Cohesion and Translation

We have mentioned in the previous chapter that lexical cohesion is a result of related elements that contribute to the continuity of entities of meaning. These chains are a direct result of units of text "being about the same thing" i.e. about the same meaning (Morris and Hirst 1991:21). The translator's task is to find and recognize these units to determine the deep meaning of the text. To recognize and to determine the meaning of the text is the first and the most important step in translation and a successful communication.

Therefore, the translator is reminded of his duty to carefully analyze the text in order to minimize any substantial loss in the meaning potential to be relayed. The translated text reflects the translators reading. "The translator reads in order to produce, decodes in order to re-encode" (Hatim and Mason 1990:224). To recodify is not simply to transmit directly elements, structures and different textual patterns of the source text into the target text, but rather there is a preparation shuffling back and forth between source and target codes. That is, the source language (code) provides the essential information to be recodified, and the target language provides the parameters for the rendering of such patterns. The identifications of the meaning of source text textual patterns can only be successful of appropriate readings and interpretation.

Interpretation is a process that involves the analysis of source text textual materials. It is a process of a gradual building of composite meaning of related items. The lexical ties need to be analyzed by the translator in terms of their meaning and discursive function. Any misinterpretation would alter text perception, meaning, and cohesion. The following

example is proposed by Hatim and Mason (1990: 200-1) as an instance of a translator's misinterpretation of a sentence, and a lexical tie in particular (reiteration of the same term) which results in a wrong translation:

1. The corridors were dusty and I saw dust on the windows ledges…

Hatim and Mason proposed that the meaning of this sentence would probably be interpreted by the translator as the following:

2. The corridors were dusty and so were the windows ledges.

The reoccurrence in (1) 'dusty…dust' creates a given function in the text; it is to mean that both the corridors and the window ledges are dusty. However, it is clear in (2) that what the reader, i.e. the translator has interpreted is not as this. The translator's interpretation is not as successful as to allow for the transference of the same lexical tie. Hatim and Mason said that, this translation is in fact not equivalence, because the reoccurrence of the term 'dust' is an evidence of possible features of speaker meaning, including cataloguing of separate instances in support of an argument; obsession with cleanliness. The omission of the second occurrence of dust affects the meaning of the sentence. In addition, sentence (2) includes no instance of reiteration but rather of substitution. The translator shifted from the level of lexis to that of grammar.

Similarly, Baker (1992: 229) mentioned that any misinterpretation of ST items leads to a mistranslation in which it will "affect the calculating of implicatures in the target language". This mistranslation may be any of the strategies followed by the translator to recode source text elements and textual aspects (in the example above the translator **omitted** the lexical tie 'dust'). To illustrate this let us consider her example (misinterpretation of source text collocation):

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ST: All this represents a part of all that Forbes Magazine reported on Fayed in the March issue mentioned before. In 1983, he had approached the industrialist Robert O. Anderson under the cover of a commission agent. The industrial had been struck by his appearance as someone with modest means. Mr. Anderson was therefore astonished by his sudden acquisition of a considerable fortune.

TT: ....وقد رأى فيه رجل الصناعة شخصا ينمو مظهره من التواضع و البساطة.

The term 'modesty' in English means that a person lacks affluence, yet 'mutawaadi' (متواضع) in Arabic means also unassuming, and this is what makes the translator add the term 'simplicity'. The translator misinterprets this collocation, i.e. he confuses the collocational pattern of English and Arabic. This process of misinterpretation leads him to a mistranslation. The meaning is altered in the translation as compared to the source text, and, hence, the factors that condition the composition of meaning are changed, i.e. this leads to new conditions for the composition of meaning in the translation as compared to the source text.

What this seems to suggest is that, the translator cannot make any word mean whatever s / he wants it to mean, because lexical items are not seen only as containers of meaning, but they are those elements which have a role to fulfil within the situation described as a sentence or a text. This meaning is said to associate with other lexical items. Words are said to be used and their meaning is said to be determined, in any language, together in special combinations, i.e. in texts and contexts. Snell-Hornby (1988:69) mentioned that in the process of translation, the translator is not concerned with isolating items of the source text to study them in depth, but 'with tracing a web of relationships' in this text, since 'the importance of individual items being determined by their relevance and function in the text'. In this respect, Baker (1992:206) mentioned that:

> It is certainly true that lexical items have little more than a potential for meaning outside text and their meaning are realized and can be considerably modified through association with other lexical items in a particular textual environment.

> And yet, the potential for meaning which a given lexical item has is not totally unrestricted. […] this means that as hard as one might try, it is impossible to reproduce networks of lexical cohesion in a target text which are identical to those of the source text.

To put it in simpler words, lexical chains that naturally occur in the TL, creating cohesion and providing texture, can rarely if ever be replicated in the TT. Their meaning is not restricted and can only be traced within a situation described as a sentence or a text where each lexical item is said to associate with other lexical items. Achieving appropriate collocations in TL text, for instance, has always been seen as one of the main problems a translator faces. There is always 'a danger' of producing unnatural collocations in TL text, even for professional translators (Hatim and Mason 1990).

According to Baker (1992) it is ideal for the translator to preserve ST co-occurring patterns in meaning. She said that, "the nearest acceptable collocation in the target language will often involve some change in meaning" (ibid: 56). She maintained that a change is unavoidable in translation and its degree of acceptability depends largely on a context. She has the following example:

ST: In fact, the money came from the Sultan of Brunei, a native individual, easily romanced and seduced by the oily charm of Mohamed Fayed.

TT:

ولكن الواقع إن هذه الأموال قد جاءت من سلطان بروناي و هو إنسان ساذج يصدق القصص الخيالية الملفقة و إغراء السحر الزائف لمحمد فايد.

The collocational term 'oily charm' in English suggests some one is insincere, unpleasant, and even sickening when dealing with people and showing politeness. Yet, the Arabic 'false charm' suggests that people may think at first of someone to be a good charming person whereas s/he is not.

Astington (1983:121) has the following example about the difference in making collocations in French and English:

ST : Notre civilisation est tout simplement incapable de résoudre les problèmes qui nous préoccupent.

TT: Our culture simply doesn't have the answers to our problems.

Astington (1983) makes the point that while English has the possibility of combining 'problem' with 'answer' and 'solution', French has a narrower scope, being limited to the related terms 'résoudre' and 'solution'. This breadth or narrowness of expressive possibility may, of course, work in either direction between TL and SL; that is, the TL may have more than one collocative option where the SL has only one.

What this suggests- in effect- is that the existence of a complete correspondence between the source text lexical cohesive devices and those of a target text is impossible.

Since each language has its own way of creating text cohesion, the translation process requires the translator to be aware of such differences and preferences. S/he may adopt some procedures in the process of translation, so that s/he can succeed in establishing the textual equivalence across source and target texts. To use Baker's own words:

> The translator need [to] be aware that there are different devices in different languages for creating "texture" and that a text hangs together by virtue of the semantic and structural relationships that hold between elements. […] under normal circumstances, what is required is a reworking of methods of establishing links to suit the textual norms of the target language (ibid: 187).

From the above discussion we can sum up that, the interpretation of the source text lexical devices is an important step in translation that the translator should process to take suitable decisions and achieve appropriate products in TL. The translator is the one who should make choices at the level of texture in such a way as to guide the TT reader. That is to say, the lexical resources of the TL s/he selects will have to reflect the ST meaning, purpose, and discoursal values. The differences between two linguistic codes entail the translator to take some decisions. S/he would either maintain or alter patterns used in the

source text, i.e. s/he must decide whether the source text patterns can successfully be transferred into the target language or need to be altered in some form in order to adhere to the accepted norms of the target language. At the same time, the translator must consider the impact such re-presentation upon the transfer of intent of the ST. 'Maintaining' means that there is a formal correspondence between source text and target text which allows for a direct transference, yet any change is said to be motivated by the differences between languages. On the part of the translated text, changes are known by contemporary translation descriptive studies as 'translation shifts'.

II. 3 Translation Shifts

Shifts in translation are known as those changes which occur or may occur in the process of translation. They result, most of the time, from the attempt to deal with the systemic differences between ST and TT languages (Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies 1998: 262). The notion 'translation shifts' has been directly or indirectly investigated by every theorist who has ever mentioned linguistic translation in their studies, since the process of translation itself may be regarded as a transformation when a system of certain code is substituted with another by preserving identical communication function, reporting the same message and its functional dominant. However, the most prominent name in this field is Catford (1965).

According to translation descriptive studies, Catford is the first scholar to use this term in his 'A Linguistic Theory of Translation' (1965). He uses it to refer to those small linguistic changes that occur between ST and TT. He defines it as "departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the ST to TL" (1965:73).

Hatim and Mundy (2004:27) see that Catford's 'formal correspondence' and 'textual equivalence' are crucially related to Saussure's distinction between 'langue' and 'parole'.

Formal correspondence refers to the fairly 'stable langue', and textual equivalence has to do with 'a variable parole', i.e. all that which language user might say, write or understand in actual situations.

Shifts within Catford's framework occur at grammatical and lexical levels, and their investigation is therefore pursued within or beyond the boundaries of the sentence as an upper rank. He limits his theory of shifts to textual equivalence. In other words, he sees that shifts tend to occur when there is no formal correspondence between two linguistic codes. These shifts are seen as those utterances of translation which can be identified as textual equivalents between source text and target text utterances. In the following, we will explain both concepts 'formal correspondence' and 'textual equivalence'.

II.3.1 Formal Correspondence

Catford (1965:32) defines formal correspondence as identity of function of correspondent items in two linguistic systems: for him, a formal correspondent is "any TL category which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the 'same' place in the 'economy' of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL". He states that formal correspondence can be established when two languages operate at the same grammatical ranks, i.e. 'hierarchies of units', such as sentence, clause, group, word, and morpheme. The following example is an instance of formal correspondence between French and English at all ranks:

French SL Text **:** j' ai laissé mes lunettes sur la table.

↓↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

English TL Text: I've left my glasses on the table.

Formal correspondence is an instance of invariance. It is designed to reveal as much as possible of the form and the content of the original message. In doing so, a translator

should attempt to reproduce several formal elements, including: (1) grammatical units, (2) consistency in word usage, and (3) meanings in terms of the source context. The reproduction of grammatical and lexical units may consist in: (a) translating nouns by nouns, verbs by verbs, etc.; (b) keeping all phrases and sentences intact, i.e. not splitting up and readjusting the units. In such translation the wording is usually quite literal and even the segments are often numbered so that the corresponding units may be readily compared.

In many instances, however, one simply cannot reproduce certain formal elements of the source message. Catford argues that formal correspondence could not be said to be set up between all linguistic patterns in the TL system as SL linguistic patterns in the SL system. This linguistic fact necessitates talking about textual equivalence which is tightly related to the notion of shift. He sees that the translator begins her/his task of translation from formal correspondence to achieve textual equivalence, and the translator makes shifts only when the identical-meaning is either not available or not able to ensure equivalence.

Hatim and Mundy (2004:29) mentioned that the difference between languages must be accepted, and translation most of the time should include changes. Therefore, textual equivalence is inevitably, a translation which involves a number of changes in the source text grammatical patterns. In general, grammatical changes are dictated by the obligatory structures of the receptor language. That is to say, one is obliged to make such adjustments as shifting word order, using verbs in place of nouns, and substituting nouns for pronouns.

In the following, we will extend the notion of textual equivalence and the major types of shifts.

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II.**3.2 Textual Equivalence**

Equivalence is by definition seen as being the same, similar or interchangeable with something, i.e. it is seen as "the condition of being equal or equivalent value and function" (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2000). In translation, equivalence is a term used "to describe the nature and extent of the relationships which exist between SL and target TL texts or smaller linguistic units" (Dictionary of Translation Studies 1997:49). In other words, equivalence refers to the degree to which linguistic units (words and syntactic structures) that can be translated into another language without loss of meaning. Two items with the same meaning in two languages are said to be equivalent.

Textual equivalence "is any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text" (Catford, 1965:27). The understanding of the concept of textual equivalence is to look at translation as a result or product, faced with two texts one of which is a translation of the other. The target text will tend to hold chunks of textual material or linguistic units of the source text. The term textual material underlines the fact that in normal conditions it is not the entry of a SL text which is translated, that is, replaced by the TL equivalent. What this implies is that, translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). There is a replacement of (English) grammar and lexis by equivalent TL (French) grammar and lexis, as it is so clear in the following example (ibid:20):

What time is it? $\longrightarrow$ Quelle heure est-t-il ?

Whenever languages exhibit differences, translation shifts are said to occur and be the most required translation strategy in establishing equivalence. In the following, we will present Catfrod's taxonomies of textual equivalence.

II. 3.2.1 Catford's Taxonomies of Textual Equivalence

II. 3.2.1.1 Level Shifts

Shift of level is when a SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different level. It includes shifts from grammar to lexis and vice-versa. For example:

a) **ST:** This text is intended for…
   TT: Le présent manuel s'adresse à…
b) **ST:** This may reach you before I arrive.
   TT : Il se peut que ce mot parvienne avant mon arrivée.

<div align="right">(Catford 1965:73)</div>

Here the SL deictic 'this'- a grammatical term- has a lexical and a partial lexical French equivalent in both (a) and (b). They are 'le present', an article+ a lexical adjective, and 'ce mot' a demonstrative+ a lexical noun, respectively. Another instance of level shifts between grammar and lexis is the translation of verbal aspect by means of an adverb or vice versa.

Catford (ibid) points out that, cases of shifts from grammar to lexis are quite frequent in translation between languages. We have already mentioned an example of level shifts in the beginning that of both Berman's and Stemmer's studies where the Hebrew learners shifted most of the grammatical ties (pronouns, demonstratives, deictic expression, etc...), that are used to refer to entities and events in the source text, into lexical terms in the target language.

II. 3.2.1.2 Category Shifts

Category shifts refer to unbounded and rank-bounded translation. The first being approximately normal or free translation in which source language and target language equivalents are up at whatever rank is appropriate. It is clear that category shift is unbounded, which might be normal of free translation, depends on what rank is appropriate. It includes, structure, class, unit, and intra-system shifts.

a. Structure Shifts

Languages exhibit a considerable amount of differences both in the realization of similar structures existing in these languages and in the type of structures existing in each language.

Structures, where one element is typically obligatory while other elements are optional, an agreement between the head and its modifiers, are usually observed in some languages, For instance, the case of number and gender agreement between noun and adjective in the Arabic nominal group. However, languages vary so widely in the restrictions they assign to this agreement. In the English nominal group, for instance, this agreement is observed between articles and nouns but overlooked between nouns and adjectives. By contrast, Arabic seeks such agreement in both cases. This is a potential area of structural shifts in translation.

Another type of dependency relations is that of the exclusion relation which is useful for defining some grammatical classes such as the verbs of state in English which do not agree with auxiliaries for the progressive aspect, and proper nouns which do not take the definite article 'the'.

Catford considers structure shifts the most frequent type of shifts that may occur at all ranks. He suggests the following example, of clause-structure shifts between English and Gaelic:

SL Text: John loves Mary $\longrightarrow$ SPC (subject, predicate, compliment)
TL Text: Tha gradh aig lain air Mairi $\longrightarrow$ A-adjunct (PSCA)

In the back translation of the Gaelic TL text, we get 'is love on Mary'.

Structure shifts is said to occur when there is no formal correspondence between the two languages involved in the process of translation, i.e. in the above example we must

posit that the English clause-structure (SPC) have a formal correspondence (PSCA) in Gaelic. Therefore, a translation equivalence of English structure constrains different elements with different places (S and P).

Structure shifts may occur at other ranks. For example:

SL Text: a white house.
TL Text: une maison blanche.

It is clear here that there is a shift from MH (modifier head) to M HQ (modifier+ head+ qualifier) between the two versions.

b. Class Shifts

By a class it is meant the grouping of the constituents of a unit according to the way they operate in the structure of another unit next higher in rank. In other words, a class refers to any set of items having the same possibilities of operation in the structure of a particular unit.

Class shift occurs when the translation equivalence of an SL item is a member of a different class from the original item. It is a change in word class. Catford defines class shifts following Halliday's definition "that grouping of members of a given unit which is defined by operation in the structure of the unit next above" (quoted in Hatim and Mundy, 2004:45). Structure shifts entail class shifts. This is because of the "logical dependence of class on structure" (Catford, 1965:119).

In the previous example: a white house = une maison blanche, the adjective 'blanche' is the equivalence of 'white'. The English adjective represents an instance of formal correspondence, yet, adjectives belonging to two different sub-classes, mainly, M-adjective (white) and Q-adjective (blanche).

Class shift occur in other classes, from adjective to verb, verb to noun, noun to adjective, etc. for example:

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> **SL Text:** a medical student
> **TL Text :** un étudiant en médicine

Here, the translation equivalence of the adjective 'medical' is the noun 'medicine'. Another instance of class shift from (verb to noun) (noun + noun) to (noun + adjective) from Arabic into English:

> a) **SL Text**: الانجليزية سهلة **الفهم**
>   **TL Text**: English is easy **to understand**
> b) **SL Text**: Status quo
>   **TL Text:** الوضع الراهن   (Ghazala, 2002: 57)

In (a) the Arabic noun 'الفهم' is translated into a verb in English, which is 'to understand'. In (b) (noun + noun) 'الوضع, +الراهن,' its English equivalence is (noun + adjective) 'status + quo'. There are many other instances of class shifts that can be found between languages.

c. Intra-System Shifts

By a system is meant the closed number of elements among which a choice must be made. In fact, the terms available in each system in one language can show fundamental differences from the terms of the same system in another language. This can be considered as a major source of shifts at this level of language description. In other words, intra-system shifts refer to those changes that occur internally within a system. They are regarded only on the assumption that is formal correspondence between the two languages, i.e. ST-TT should possess approximate systems. The equivalence is said to occur at a non-corresponding term in the TL system. All languages have their systems of number, deixis, articles, etc. intra-system shifts happen when a term is singular in the source text and its textual equivalent is plural, or vice versa (a change in number even though the languages have the same number system). It is worth noting here that the translator is compelled to

be bound by the SL writer's choice; otherwise, her/his performance is destined to be erroneous. In cases where compatible terms with the source system are taking place in the target system, the translator has to bridge the gap by using some other means, e.g., the use of a lexical marker of number 'two' to express duality when translating from Arabic into English. Similarly, a term may be definite in the original and indefinite in the translated version, and the like. For example:

> **SL Text:** الإنسان حيوان ناطق.
> **TL Text:** man is a speaking animal.
> **SL Text:** الفلسفة مادتي المفضلة .
> **TL Text:** philosophy is my favorite subject. (ibid)

In these instance each of the Arabic terms 'الإنسان' and 'الفلسفة' are definite. They refer to genitive reference; their equivalences are indefinite generic reference, 'man', and 'philosophy', respectively.

d. Unit Shifts

The descriptive units of the grammar of any language are arranged into meaningful stretches or patterns. One single instance of these patterns is called unit. Unit shifts occur when translation equivalent of a source text unit at one rank in is a unit at a different rank in the target language. It includes shifts from morpheme to a word, word to phrase, clause to sentence, and vice versa. For example:

> **English   SL**: **im**possible
> **Indonesian   TL**: **tida** nungkin

In (SL) 'im' is a morpheme, meaning is negative it is translated into a word 'tida'. Another instance of unit shift from one word to two words as in:

يصافح   shake ⟶ hands,

From three words to two words:

على   حين   غرة ⟶ by surprise

And   from three words to one word:

quickly ⟶ على نحو سريع (Ghazala, 2002)

To sum up, textual equivalence may require changes in units, number, person, structure, etc. These grammatical changes are seen as those obligatory shifts when dealing with two different linguistic codes, especially like Arabic and English that belong to two different language families: Germanic and Semitic. Consequently, their lexico-grammatical categories are sharply different. This requires the translator to respect the convention of each code in her/his translation of each element in discourse, so that to succeed in recoding the text as a whole unit of discourse. Any change of the grammatical function or category of the lexical elements may have a certain effect on the target text lexical cohesion network and meaning. They are so necessarily conditions to get the textual equivalence across. Beside these grammatical shifts; shifts in the meaning of words, shifts by addition, and shifts by omission are other types of shifts proposed by Baker (1992) to get the textual equivalence across.

In order to have a complete picture of how first year master students of English render the Arabic lexical cohesion, we need to take into account both Catford's and Baker's proposed types of shifts.

It should be noted that Baker's proposed types of shifts are not listed by her, but they are some suggestions she deduced from her analysis of an English text and its Arabic translation. In what follows, we will present her example and the main types of shifts she found as appropriate translation shifts used by the translator to get the lexical cohesion equivalence across.

II. 3.2.2 Baker's Translation Shifts to Lexical Cohesion Equivalence

The example discussed by Baker, is a press release issued by Britons Limited (Carpet Manufacturers) to coincide with Gulf Fair, Dubai, April 1986. The text was included in an information pack and handed out to visions at the Britons stand.

S T:

> Britons have been manufacturing fine quality woven for over 200 years. They are a privately owned company specializing in Axminster and Wilton carpets, using wool-rich blends. They have a totally integrated operation from the preparation of the yarn through to the weaving process. All their products are made on looms designed and built by their own engineers, and recognized as the most technically superior weaving plant in the world. Britons are one of the largest weavers with a production capacity in excess of 100,000 square meters per week. The recently introduced New Tradition Axminister range is already creating great interest and will be on display at the exhibition. New Tradition offers a fascinating series of traditional patterns in miniature using rich jewel-like colours that glow against dark background, suitable for a wide variety of heavy wear locations from hotels, restaurants and leisure areas to high quality residential situations.
> The successful Finesse and place Design qualities will also be displayed. Both carpets have geometrically styled designs suitable for both residential and contract use. Pace Design also incorporates a border and plain range in complementary colours.
> Other Britons' products suitable for the commercial world, such as Bell Twist, Heather Berber, Broad Loop, 'Bell Trinity' and 'Trident Tile' will also be on display.
> Britons will be delighted to solve any carpeting problems as special design and qualities can be produced for minimum quantities. Their standard range of colours offers over 200 possibilities for the discerning designer to select from.

TT:

> تقوم شركة برينتونز بتصنيع أرقى أنواع السجاد المنسوج منذ أكثر من 200 عام. وهي شركة خاصة تختص في إنتاج سجاد لاكسمنستر والولتون الذي تدخله نسبة عالية من الصوف. هذا و تقوم الشركة بتنفيذ جميع خطوات الإنتاج بمصانعها من إعداد الخيوط التي نسجها على أنوال من تصميم وصنع مهندس الشركة. و تعتبر مصانع برينتونز أكثر مصانع النسيج تقدما من الناحية الفنية في العالم كله. كما تعتبر شركة برينتونز من اكبر شركات النسيج بطاقة إنتاجية تزيد من 1000.000 متر مربع في الأسبوع.
> أثارت مجموعة' نيوز تراديشن اكسمنستر درجة عالية من الاهتمام منذ ان قامت الشركة بتقديمها حديثا. وهي من ضمن أنواع السجاد التي سيتم عرضها بالمعرض. تقدم مجموعة نيوز تراديشن عدد من التصميمات التقليدية الممتعة بحجم مصغر في ألوان باهرة كألوان الجواهر. تزيد الخلفيات الداكنة من توهجها. وهي مناسبة للتركيب في العديد من المواقع التجارية ذات الاستعمال الكثيف مثل الفنادق والمطاعم و الأماكن الترفيهية و بعد المواقع السكنية ذات المستوى الرفيع.
> كما يتضمن المعرض نماذج من سجاد فينس و بالاس ديزاين الذين تم تسويقهما بنجاح كبير. و يتسم هذان النوعان من السجاد بتصميماتهما الهندسية و يصلحا للاستخدام في كل من المواقع السكنية و

التجارية. هذا و تمثل مجموعة بالاس ديزاين علي عدة ألوان سادة و تصميمات في شكل كنار تتماشى ألوانها مع باقي ألوان المجموعة.

هذا وسوف تقوم شركة بريتونز بعرض عدة أنواع من السجاد المناسب للاستعمال التجاري. مثل بل تويست و بربر و برود لوب و بل ترينتي و ترايدنت تايل.

يسر الشركة بريتون مساعدتكم على حل أي مشاكل خاصة بالسجاد حيث يمكنها إنتاج تعميمات و أنواع خاصة بكميات محدودة. كما إن مجموعة الألوان المتوفرة لدى الشركة تزيد من مالتي لون مما يتيح لأي مصمم فرصة كبيرة للاختبار.

Baker comments that the lexical cohesion network of the target text is equivalent to that of the source text. This, thanks to the strategies followed by the translator, i.e. the shifts s/he gets recourse to in order to establish the lexical cohesion equivalence in the target language, such as additions, omissions, and some sorts of semantic shifts.

II. 3.2.2.1 Shifts by Addition and Omission

After making a comparison of the two texts, English and Arabic: in the original (English), the terms 'company' occurred once, its Arabic textual equivalence (sharika) 'شركة' is repeated eight times. Similarly, the term 'colour' occurs three times in the source text, its Arabic equivalent occurs seven times. Yet, the term 'discerning', which represents an instance of reiteration in English, is omitted altogether in Arabic.

Baker states that, in establishing equivalence in lexical cohesion, the process of translation may require the translator to add or delete information of the source text. Some lexical choices have to be 'sacrificed in translation' and some are said to be 'added' (ibid: 206). Addition of lexical ties increases the degree of repetition in the target text, and it occurs to make things explicit. This means that addition is an extension of source text units by making additional element absent in the original. Whereas omission occurs because, some lexical elements in the source text cannot be reproduced in the target text. It has to do with the dropping of meaningful lexical elements of the source language text.

II. 3.2.2.2 Semantic Shifts

Semantic shifts refer to those elements which are said to be changed in their meaning. Sometimes the lexical structure of the target text does not offer the translator the same range of word choice. Like in the example discussed by Baker; Arabic does not make a distinction between the term 'plant'/'factory' or 'choose' / 'select'. The items 'plant', 'qualities', 'complimentary', and 'discerning', all represent the careful choice in the English text. They give a certain image of Britons and their products in the perception of the reader. They collectively enhance the image of Britons as a sophisticated company producing a selected range of products. These terms are inevitably lost in the translation. The equivalence of 'plant' is 'factory', 'qualities' is 'kinds, or 'types,' 'complimentary' is 'the matching colour', and 'select' is to 'choose'. However, according to Baker, these changes in meaning of the lexical cohesive tie are so successful.

In fact, meaning should be the main preoccupation of all translation. However, the amount of this interest varies according to the type of meaning conveyed by lexical items of a given text. As far as translation is concerned, the translator has to do his best to transfer as much of the original meaning as he can into the TL. Yet, since we know that the process of meaning transfer is not a straightforward process, the translator, therefore, is often called upon to make some semantic shifts in order to accomplish this task. In other words, s/he has to extract the semantic relations within the lexical cohesive items of the ST then examining the possibility of conveying similar relations into the TL by similar or different formal devices.

Whatever the problems the translator encountered in translating a given item and whatever decisions s/he takes to resolve them, the target text should represent a sufficient

level of lexical cohesion in its own right. In addition, the translator should avoid producing random collection of items that may alter source text deep meaning.

It should be noted that, in this study we will take into account any small linguistic and discursive changes in the Arabic lexical cohesive ties. Any change in form, structure, class, unit, meaning, etc., will be marked as a shift to achieve textual equivalence. We will also take into account all the elements that do not receive any alteration neither in form nor in meaning, i.e. the formal correspondences.

That is to say, in the quantitative analysis of this study, the statistical measurements will not only be limited to types of shifts that represent the change in the lexical ties, but also the cohesive patterns that the students may maintain. This is for the aim to get a complete picture about the way the students replicate all the source text lexical ties, i.e. what they shift and what they maintain.

In the following diagram, we summarize the different types of shifts (as they are proposed by both Catford and Baker) which we will take into account in our analyses of the students' translation of Arabic lexical cohesion into English, (besides the formal correspondences):
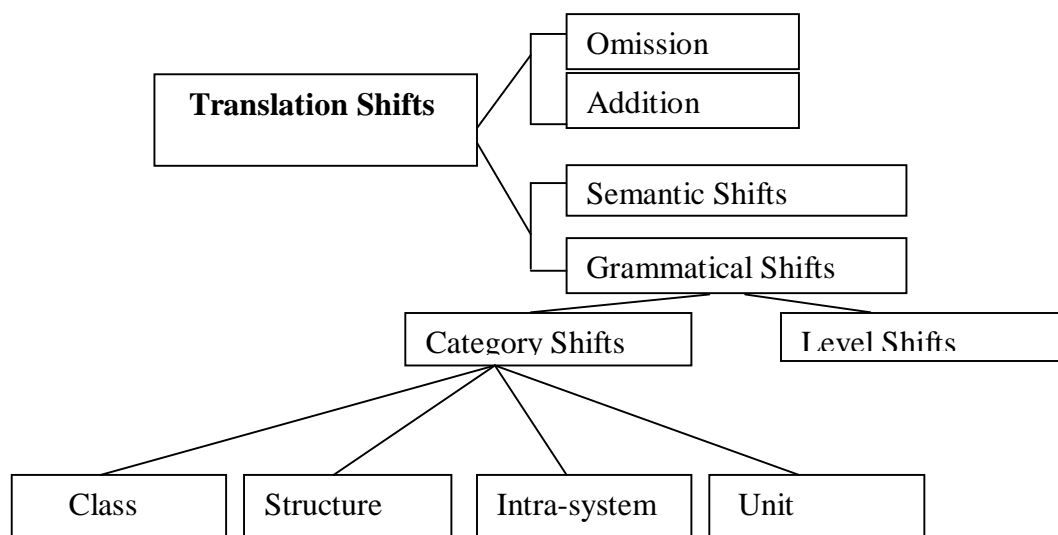
Figure2: Types of Shifts in the Current Study

Conclusion

We conclude this chapter by saying that the phenomenon of 'shift' should be viewed positively as the consequence of the translator's effort to establish translation equivalence between two different language-systems: that of the SL and that of the TL. The occurrence of these shifts reflects the translator's awareness of discourse discrepancies between the SL and TL. In this sense, shifts can be defined as problem-solving strategies adopted consciously to minimize the inevitable loss of meaning when rendering textual patterns from one language into another.

In the following chapter, we will see how first year master students of English establish lexical cohesion equivalence, and how they cope with the differences between Arabic and English.

Chapter III: The Analysis of the Students' Translation

Analysis of the Students' Translation of Lexical Cohesion

Introduction

This chapter aims at giving a clear picture about the students' translation of the Arabic lexical cohesion into English. It tries to identify their decisions in maintaining or altering source text cohesive ties, i.e., it tries to identify the shift or the invariance concerning each cohesive tie in the target language. It also aims at examining the semantic and the textual implications resulting from translation, i.e. examining the textual and the discoursal equivalence.

III. 1 Population of the Study

The population of this study consists of 30 students among first year Master students of English at Mentouri University of Constantine. All of them belong to the same option, which is Applied Language Studies where they are supposed to have the same level of education. They are those advanced learners of English who have a fair knowledge of both Arabic and English and are not just beginners in translation, as they have been dealing with translation since their second year at the university. In addition, they are now more acquainted with discourse features and structures because they have received a fair number of lectures on discourse analysis during their third year.

III. 2 Test

The 30 candidates were asked to translate a text from Arabic into English. The test was administered during a tutorial session for one hour and a half, according to the time table assigned by the administration. The students were not allowed to use dictionaries as they were informed that the translation of the selected text is a test for their final semester. This was for the purpose of making them translate it seriously. The selected text was taken from 'Aususu

Al-tarjama' (أسس الترجمة) of Az-aldine M. Najib (2001) page (223). This text was an examination for third year students of English in Ain Shams University of Egypt in June 1987. It deals with self-confidence as a psychological trait that any one needs to succeed in life. It expresses two distinct points of view. The first is about the importance of self-confidence and the vital role it plays in determining the success of human being. The second is about the lack of self-confidence and its automatic result in one's failure. The vocabulary of the text is simple very common and used in our daily life. This text is of an average length. It consists of (07) sentences and (136) words (computer calculation). The main factor that determined the length of the text the time provided for the translation test. It was supposed that one hour and a half i.e. the whole session (of translation) is an enough period of time to translate a text of such length.

III.3 Procedure

As long as the aim of this research is concerned, we adopted quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative method refers to research that is concerned with quantities and measurements. It helps answer the first question of how frequently first year master students of English shift the source text (Arabic) lexical cohesive patterns in the target language (English). Qualitative research, on the other hand, helps answer the part of the question which is that of examining equivalence in lexical cohesion.

Students' translation will be compared with the original. Any small change concerning the cohesive elements will be taken into account. The data will be classified into four main categories of shifts; grammatical, semantic, and shifts by addition and omission. Each type of shift will be discussed and illustrated with samples taken from the data. In each example, both the source language word (term of a cohesive function) and target language item which represents the type of shift used by the students will be highlighted in bold.

As the first phase in the analysis of the data, we have identified the lexical ties within the source text (Arabic). The identified lexical cohesive patterns are presented in tables. Each table represents a type of lexical cohesion.

III. 4 Identification of the Lexical Cohesive Patterns in the Arabic Text

In The following tables we summarize the main cohesive patterns in the source text. The first two tables represent a reiteration type of lexical cohesion. The first is by the repetition of the same term and the second is by near-synonymy. Each of these tables consists of six columns: the term, its transliteration, the sentence number of occurrence, the reiterated item, its transliteration, and finally the sentence number of the reiterated item. In the case of collocations, we have grouped the main apparent patterns of co-occurring lexical terms and expressions in the source text in a separate table.

III. 4.1 Repetition of the Same Term

The following table summarizes the main lexical ties by repetition of the same term in the Arabic text:

The Term	Transliteration	Sentence Number	Reiterated Item	Transliteration	Sentence Number
العناصر	/al'nasir/	1	عنصر	/'unsur/	1
الحياة الإنسان	/al ẖ ayat/ / al-insan/	2	حياتهم الإنسان (إرادة) الإنسان الإنسان (مستقبل)	/ ẖ ayatihim/ (/iradatu) /al-insan/ /al-insan/ (/mostaqbalu)/ al-insan/	3 3, 4,4
ثقتهم بأنفسهم النجاح أعمال اتكاليا	/ t itiqatuhum bi-anfusihim/ /al-nnajā lẖ / /a'mā l/ /itikā liyan/	3	الثقة بالنفس الواثق بنفسه النجاح نجاحه العمل اتكالهم اتكال	/al-t iqatu bi-annafs/ /al-w ā t iqu bi-nafsihi / /al-nnajā ẖ / /naja ẖ oh ū / /al- a'mal/ /itikā lihim/ /itikā l/	1, 5,6 ,7 6, 7 4, 7 3, 4
الناس نقصد	/al-nnas/ /naqsidu/	4	الناس لا نقصد	/al-nnās/ / lā naqsidu/	3 4
تجدد بعد الفشل	/tujadidu/ /ba'da/ /al-fa š al/	5	يجدد بعد يفشل الفشل فشل	/yujadidu/ /ba'da/ /yaf š al/ /al-fa š al/ /fa š al/	5 5 3,6,7
مرتين	/maratain/	6	مرة	/marratan/	6
المظاهر	/al-mazahir/	7	مظهر	/mazhar/	7

Table 3: Reiteration by the Same Item in the Arabic Text

This table exhibits the cohesive patterns by reiterating the same term. Some terms occur between pairs of words and over a succession of a number of related words spanning a topical unit of the text. In other words, some lexical ties occur within the same sentence, and some repetition and associated stretches occur across sentence boundaries. We clearly can distinguish between the sentential and inter-sentential lexical cohesion.

On the one hand, each of these terms, اتكاليا، الإنسان العناصر، بعد، تجدد، المظاهر،مرتين and نقصد is a reiteration of an earlier occurrence within the same sentence. Both الإنسان and اتكاليا occurred and reiterated in (3), نقصد in (4), the same for and both بعد, تجدد which occurred and reiterated in (5). Each of المظاهر، مرتين، العناصر occur in (1, 6, 7) respectively. The term اتكاليا is reiterated once more in a negative form غير اتكال in (4), and the term الأعمال is reiterated twice; one in (4) and the other in (7). On the other hand, the terms الحياة, النجاح, الثقة بالنفس, الناس, الفشل are all instances of repetition across sentences. الحياة in (2) cohere with حياتهم in (3), النجاح in (3) is reiterated in (5, and 6), الثقة بالنفس occurred five times in the text, in (1, 3, 5, 6, and 7), and finally الفشل is repeated in the text four times in which it occurred in (3, 5, 6, and 7). It should be noted that the reiterated items are not bound to a particular grammatical category, or to a particular morphological form.

III.4.2 Reiteration by Near-synonym

Term	Sentence Number	Transliteration	Reiterated Item	Transliteration	Sentence Number
قدرته الخلاقة	2	/qudratahu al-xalā qa/	مواهبه	/mawā hibahu /	2
الاستقلال الشخصي	4	/al-istiqlaul al- š axsī/	الاعتماد على النفس	/al-i'timadu 'la al-nnafs/	4
الأعمال	4	/al-a'mā l/	شؤونه	/ šua ū nahu/	4

Table 4: Reiteration by Near-synonym in the Arabic Text

In this table, we have selected the main apparent cohesive ties by near-synonymy. Using synonyms is similar to repeating key terms/concepts/phrases, except with more diversity in word choice. From a semantic point view, الاستقلال الشخصي means that one is a decision-maker of his life i.e. he depends only on himself in doing everything. The term الاعتماد على النفس also means to be dependent from others in everything.

We can substitute the first term by the second without affecting the meaning of the sentence. The writer uses a near-synonym to strengthen the meaning of the first term and to

add more to its sense. Both of these terms constitute a tie. The same thing applies to the term

الأعمال and شؤونه, both of them refer to personal matters, as we can substitute one for another.

III. 4.3 Collocations

The main collocational patterns in the text are grouped in the following table:

Collocations	Transliteration
يتغلب على الصعاب (1)	/yata ġalabu ʻala al-siʻab /
تعترض سبيله في الحياة (2)	/taʻtariḍ u sabīlahu fi al-ḥ ayat/
الاعتماد على النفس (3)	/al-iʻtimā du ʻala al-nnafs/
اتكال على الآخرين (4)	/itikā l ʻala al-axar ī n/
قوته الجسدية (5)	/quwwathu al-jasadiyya/
قوى الإنسان المعنوية (6)	/qiwā al-insan al-mʻnawiyya/
قوة الإيمان بالنجاح (7)	/quwatu al-imā ni bi al-nnajā ḥ /
ضعف إرادة الإنسان (8)	/ ḍuʻfu iradati al-insan/
الصبر على الفشل (9)	/al-ssabru ʻla alfa š al/

Table5: Collocations in the Arabic Text

In (1)يتغلب على الصعاب is a collocation of this structure verb+ preposition + definite noun.

The verb يتغلب plus the preposition على often collocates with a noun الصعاب.

Similarly, in (2) the verb تعترض often occur with the nouns سبيله when talking about problems or difficulties in life. They are acceptable and conventional combinations in Arabic.

The same thing can be said about the collocations in (3) and (4). Both of them have the same structure, noun+ preposition + noun. The noun اتكال and الاعتماد are said to be followed by the preposition على and it collocates with the noun الآخرين and النفس, respectively. Both expressions are also said to collocate by the sense of oppositeness.

The relation of oppositeness is also involved in (5). The terms الجسدية and المعنوية are opposites. In (6) three expressions are said to occur in the same environment. These are قوة بالنجاح and الفشل are said to الصبر على الفشل، ضعف إرادة الإنسان، الإيمان بالنجاح. In addition, the term collocate by a relation of oppositeness.

The Arabic text exhibits different patterns of lexical cohesion, reiteration and collocation.

We have selected the main apparent ones. In the analysis of the translation of these textual patterns, we will check which elements are directly transferred from the source (Arabic) to the target text (English) and which are altered by first year Master students of English. Then we will trace the main textual and semantic implications resulting from the translation.

III.5 Data Analysis

III.5. 1 Quantitative Analysis

A total of 785 (83.43 %) translation shifts and 156 (16.57%) formal correspondences were detected. These are presented in the following table and figure:

	Number of Occurrences	**Frequency**
Translation Shifts	785	83.43 %
Formal Correspondences	156	16.57%
Total	941	100%

Table 6: Shifts and Formal Correspondences in the Students' Translation
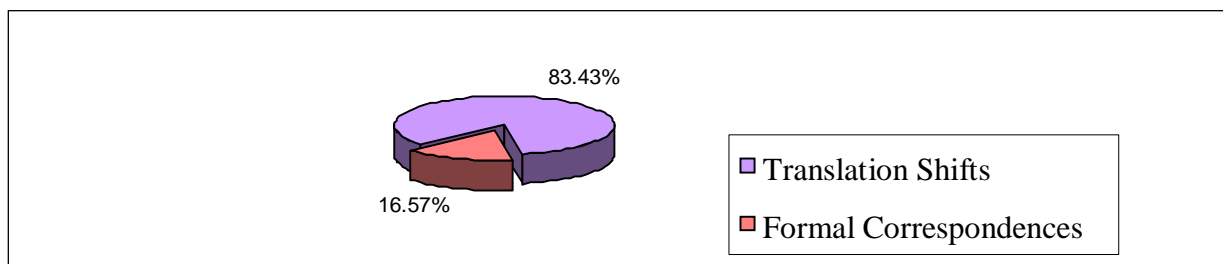
Figure3: Shifts and Formal Correspondences in the Students' Translation

Table (6) and figure (3) show that there are more translation shifts (785/83.43 %) than formal correspondences (156/16.57%). This means that the students made considerable alterations on the ST lexical cohesion and maintained few lexical cohesive elements. This was to be expected since Arabic and English are different systems.

III.5.1.1 Formal Correspondences

There are eight lexical terms which are rendered directly by the subjects. These patterns do not receive any alteration. They are the same in the meaning and in the economy of the target language. These terms are: مرة, بعد ، بعد, تجدد، يجدد ، اتكال ، اتكاليا and مرتين.

III. 5.1.2 Translation Shifts

The 785 shifts found were classified into four main types, namely, grammatical shifts, semantic shifts, shifts by omission and shifts by addition. The following table and figure give the distribution of each type of shift, occurrence, and frequency:

Type of shift	Number of Occurrences	Frequency
Grammatical Shifts	424	54.02%
Semantic Shifts	234	29.81%
Shifts by Omission	73	9.29%
Shifts by Addition	54	6.88%
Total	785	100%

Table 7: Types of Translation Shifts in the Students' Translation
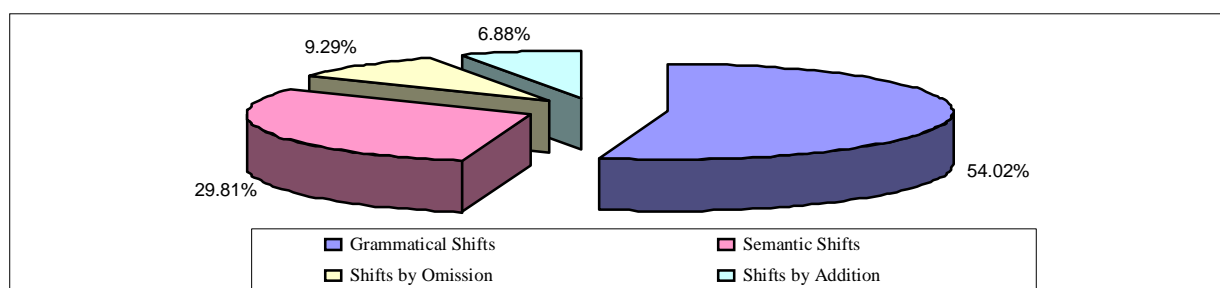
Figure 4: Types of Translation Shifts in the Students' Translation

It is clear from table (7) and figure (4) that grammatical shifts are higher in frequency (424/54.02%) than other types of shifts, and then come semantic shifts (234/29.81%), shifts by omission (73/9.29%) and shifts by addition (54/6.88%).

Grammatical shifts are in turn classified into five types, namely unit, level, intra-system, class, and structure. Table 8 and Graph 1 below give detailed statistics about the occurrence and the frequency of each type:

Grammatical Shifts	Number of Occurrences	Frequency
Unit Shifts	164	38.67%
Level Shifts	95	22.41%
Intra-system	67	15.80%
Class Shifts	51	12.03%
Structure Shifts	47	11.09%
Total	424	100%

Table 8: Types of Grammatical Shifts in the Students' Translation
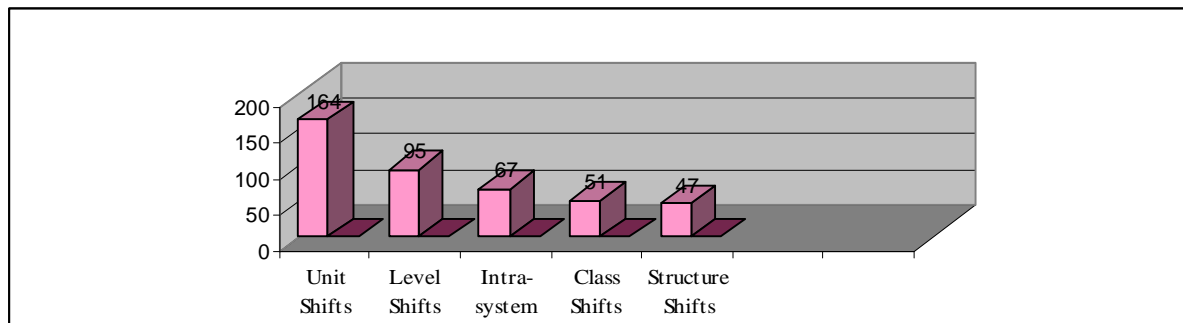
Graph 1: Types of Grammatical Shifts in Students' Translation

To put the above table and graph into words, unit shifts occurred 164 times (38.67%) and it is the most frequent type of grammatical shifts found, and then comes level shifts, which occurred 95 times (22.41%), Intra-system shifts, which occurred 67 times (15.80%), class shifts, which occurred 51 times (12.03%), and structure shifts, which occurred 47 times (11.09%).

Qualitative analysis reveals that the students maintained few lexical ties, i.e., they shifted most of the source text lexical connectives. The grammatical shifts are the most frequent type of shift found in their translation. This can be justified by the fact that Arabic and English are very distinct linguistic codes having different grammatical and discursive systems.

In the following we will qualitatively analyze the semantic and the textual implication of all of these shifts on target text meaning and cohesion in comparison to the source text. We will examine the effectiveness of these shifts in establishing the equivalence in the TL.

III. 5.2 Qualitative Analysis
III. 5.2.1 Grammatical Shifts

Differences between the grammatical systems between languages necessarily entail shifts in textual aspects. This involves a change of word class, structure, unit, number, etc (Blum Kulka, 1986). It is showed in the above table (Table 8) that different grammatical shifts occurred in this study from the most frequent to the least frequent, and they are used as

follows:

- Unit shifts
- Level shifts
- Intra-system shifts
- Class shifts
- Structure shifts

We will follow this hierarchy in our analysis of grammatical shifts.

III. 5.2.1.1 Unit Shifts

Unit shifts occur at different ranks; they occur from a morpheme to a word, from a word to a clause, from a phrase to a clause, etc. Unit shifts occur up and down a rank scale. This means that unit shifts may occur when a clause can be translated as a word, a phrase as a word, a word as a morpheme, or a morpheme as a word, etc. This type of shift is illustrated in the following:

1) **ST:** الثقة بالنفس عنصر من العناصر الأساسية في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة.
   TT: The self-confidence is one of **the fundamental elements** in building a successful personality

2) **ST:** والسبب في فشل الكثير من الناس واتكالهم على غيرهم في حياتهم هو فقدانهم ثقتهم بأنفسهم وضعف إيمانهم بالقدرة على العمل والنجاح .
   TT: The reason behind the failure of many people and **their reliance** on others is **their** lack of **their self- confidence** and **their weak belief** in **their capacities** to work and succeed.

3) **ST:** ولا نقصد بالاعتماد على النفس أن ينقطع الإنسان عن الناس فيتولى شئونه بنفسه ولكننا نقصد الاستقلال الشخصي في تقرير الأعمال التي يتوقف عليها مستقبل الإنسان ونجاحه.

   TT: The self-reliance does not mean that one should live in isolation and do al **the works** by himself, but it means the self-independence in deciding about **the things** that one's future and success depends on.

4) **ST:** والثقة بالنفس تجدد قوى الإنسان المعنوية كما يجدد الغذاء قوته الجسدية بعد عناء العمل المرهق
   TT: This self-confidence renews one's spiritual capacities after failing, as food renews **his physical   powers** after exhausted work.

5) **ST :** فالواثق بنفسه لا يضيره أن يفشل مرة أو مرتين.
   TT: The self-confidence does not care if fails once or twice.

6)   **ST :**.   **فالصبر** على الفشل مظهر من مظاهر **الثقة بالنفس** ودليل على قوة **الإيمان بالنجاح** .

      TT: One of **the self-confidence** aspects and evidence of **the strong belief** in success is **the patience.**

Morpheme shifts in the above examples involve the definite article 'أل' in **الثقة بالنفس** and

in (1) and (4), **العناصر الأساسية** in (6), **فالواثق بنفسه** in (3), **الأعمال** and **بالاعتماد على النفس** in (1) ,

and the personal pronoun 'هم, ه ' in **ثقتهم بأنفسهم, اتكالهم, حياتهم, إيمانهم** and **شئونه** in (2). These

morphemes are part of the lexical terms . The students shifted these morphemes into

independent words in the target text, in which 'أل' is rendered as (**the**) and (هم,ه) as (**his**) and

(**their**) respectively.

The lexical cohesive ties: **الثقة بالنفس, الاعتماد على النفس, الأعمال** and **فالواثق بنفسه** are definite

in the original. They refer to entities in general, i.e. they have a generic reference. That is to

say, they do not refer to specific entities in the surrounding co-text. Their translation

equivalents, as the students rendered them, are definite ones as well.

At a word level, the translation of these lexical terms is equivalent. Yet, at a discoursal

one it is not. This is because; 'the' in English generally signals 'identifiabilty' where its typical

function is an anaphoric one (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). That is to say, it is invariably

specified by reference back in the text. It is one means to achieve specificity. Halliday and

Hasan (1976: 74) state that the function of the definite article is an unmarked or non-selective

referential deictic. The noun it modifies has specific referent, and that information for

identifying this referent is available in the surrounding environment. Contrary to English,

Arabic uses the definite article for a generic reference. These unit shifts affected TT meaning

and cohesion. The only instance of a successful translation of unit shift is that which occurred

in the first sentence involving the lexical tie **العناصر الأساسية**. It is translated as the **fundamental elements**.

In sentence (2) the target text includes five occurrences of the pronoun **their.** This is a result of altering the morphemes in the lexical ties: ‫ثقتهم بأنفسهم , حياتهم , اتكالهم,‬ and ‫إيمانهم‬ as it is mentioned above. These shifts are not all successful to get the textual equivalence across. There is no need for shifting all the morphemes (that are part of the lexical terms in question) into explicit pronouns. For example it is enough to use only one pronoun **(their)** for both lack of **self-confidence** and **weak belief.** The students' shifts result in a redundant translation. We can consider the five occurrences of the pronoun **their** in the target text as a new lexical tie by the repetition of the same term. It also may fall in a type grammatical cohesion by reference. Moreover, the morpheme 'ه' in ‫شئونه‬ in the example (3) is translated as **his** in the target language. This is a necessary shift to get the textual equivalence across.

It should be noted that we have detected another instance of morpheme shifts that is turned as a lexical tie in the target language. This morpheme is ‫ها‬ in ‫بدونها‬ which refers to self-confidence. It occurred in the following:

ST : ‫الثقة بالنفس عنصر من العناصر الأساسية في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة. إنها تجعل الإنسان مؤمنا بقدرته‬
‫الخلاقة مستثمرا مواهبه وبدونها لا يستطيع إن يتغلب على الصعاب التي تعترض سبيله في الحياة.‬

TT: Self-confidence is one of the fundamental elements in building a successful personality. It makes one believes in his creative capacities invest his talent. Without **self – confidence** one cannot defeat difficulties in life**.**

Here the students prefer to repeat the lexical term ‫الثقة بالنفس‬ instead of only referring to it. This raises the number of the lexical tie ‫الثقة بالنفس‬ in the target language which in turn result in redundancy.

Contrary to the above category of unit shifts where the students extended the unit from a morpheme to a word, in the following the students translate a phrase into one word. By definition unit shifts go up and down grammatical ranks (Catford, 1965). This reduction involves two lexical terms,‫الثقة بالنفس‬ , and ‫الاعتماد على النفس‬. The latter is translated as

dependence and the former as **confidence**. These shifts are in fact not successful because they do not correspond to that of the ST. They greatly affect the meaning of the ST. They are also instances of semantic shifts as we will see later.

Moreover, we have detected instances of shifts from one word to a clause. For example, **self-confident** is translated as **the one who believes in himself**, and **reliant** is translated as **the one who rely on himself**. It is an alteration of unit in the form of paraphrase. In spite of expressing the same meaning, the students' translation is a weak one because they failed to produce what native speakers could produce to express the same thing. The students' translation, then, lacks the natural flow of ideas.

III. 5.2.1.2 Level Shifts

One type of level shifts was detected in the students' translation; it is a shift from lexis to grammar. This shift is illustrated in the following examples:

1) **ST:** الثقة بالنفس **عنصر** من العناصر الأساسية في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة
    TT: self-confidence is **one** of the fundamental elements in building a successful personality.

2) **ST:** فالصبر على الفشل **مظهر** من مظاهر الثقة بالنفس .
    TT: Patience upon failure is **one** of the aspects of self-confidence...

3) **ST:** فمتى ضعفت **إرادة الإنسان** أصبح اتكاليا لا يجرؤ على القيام **بأعمال مفيدة.**
    TT: whenever **one's will** is weakened, he become reliant and cannot do **anything positive.**

4) **ST:** إنها تجعل **الإنسان** مؤمنا بقدرته الخلاقة مستثمرا مواهبه .
    TT: it makes **one** believe in his creative capacities and invest his talent.

5) **ST:** ولكننا نقصد الاستقلال الشخصي في تقرير الأعمال التي يتوقف عليها **مستقبل الإنسان** ونجاحه .
    TT: But we mean self-independence in deciding about the works that **one's** future and success depends on.

6) **ST:** والثقة بالنفس تجدد قوى **الإنسان** المعنوية بعد الفشل الذي قد يصيبه كما يجدد الغذاء قوته الجسدية .
    TT: self-confidence renews **one's** spiritual capacities after failure, as food renews his physical capacities after exhausted work.

In the above examples, the lexical cohesive terms **عنصر** in (1), **مظهر** in (2), **(إرادة) الإنسان** in (3), **الإنسان** in (4), **(مستقبل) الإنسان** in (5), **(قوى) الإنسان** in (6), and **الإنسان** in (7) are translated into English by the pronoun **one**. In (1) and (2) the sentence required the students to shift these ties into grammatical ones. This is because they could not translate them by the same/other lexical terms. For example, they could not produce such a sentence: 'self-confidence is an element of the fundamental elements' (yet, some students did). This can be considered as a bad translation even if the same source text lexical cohesive elements are preserved in the target language. However, in the case of the translation of the lexical tie **أعمال** in (3) the students were not obliged to render it as **anything**. They could translate it as **works** in which they would have preserved both the same lexical cohesive device and the same meaning. The final example (7) includes the term **الناس** which is translated into the pronoun **others**. The latter can be used in English to refer to people in general. Here the students preserved the reference but changed the type cohesion.

III. 5.2.1.3 Intra-system Shifts

1) **ST:** و لا نقصد **بالاعتماد على النفس** أن ينقطع **الإنسان** عن **الناس** .
   TT: We do not mean by **self- reliance** that **human being** should live far from **people.**

2) **ST:** و **الصبر** على **الفشل** مظهر من مظاهر **الثقة بالنفس** و دليل على قوة الإيمان **بالنجاح** .
   TT: **Patience** upon **failure** is one the aspects of **self-confidence** and a sign of a strong belief in **success.**

3) **ST:** **فالواثق بنفسه** لا يضيره أن يفشل مرة أو مرتين .
   TT: **A self-confident** does not care if he fails once or twice.

4) **ST** الثقة بالنفس تجدد **قوى** الإنسان **المعنوية** بعد الفشل الذي قد يصيبه كما يجدد الغذاء قوته الجسدية بعد عناء العمل المرهق.
   TT: Self-confidence renews **a spiritual** capacity of human being after failure just as food renews   the **physical capacities** after exhausting work.

5) **ST:** إنها تجعل الإنسان مؤمنا **بقدرته الخلاقة** مستثمرا مواهبه .
   TT: It makes one believe in his **creative capacities** invest his talents.

(2) are النجاح and الثقة بالنفس, الفشل, الصبر and (1) in الناس, الإنسان, الاعتماد على النفس
lexical cohesive devices that received intra-system shifts. In all cases, the lexical terms in the
source text are definite. The definiteness of these lexical ties is expressed by the article أل (al)
which is a part of each word. They all denote a generic reference. The translation equivalence
of these Arabic definite nouns is indefinite English nouns: **self- reliance, human being,
people**, **patience, failure, self-confidence** and **success** respectively as proposed by the
subjects.

These shifts are successful.

In (3) the definite noun **الواثق بنفسه** is rendered as indefinite noun in the target text. The
morpheme 'أل' which is a part of a word and indicate definiteness is translated by indefinite
article '**a**' in English. The alteration concerning this lexical tie is successful. This is because,
both of the source text and the target text terms have a meaning of a general reference, i.e.
they denote a generic entity. Yet, the shift concerning the lexical tie **المعنوية** in (4) is not a
successful one. The students normally translate it as human's **spiritual capacities** instead of
translating **a spiritual capacity** of human being. Their translation does not establish the
textual equivalence**.** This is a shift from plural to singular.

In (5), the students shifted the lexical tie **بقدرته الخلاقة** from singular to plural. It is
translated as **creative capacities** instead of **creative capacity**. Their translation does not
correspond to the source text. This shift is unjustifiable; there is no need to make this change.

The only instance of intra-system shifts from plural to singular is the translation of the
noun **مواهبه** in sentence (1) above as **talents /skills**. This shift is also unjustifiable, and it does
not correspond to that of the source text.

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III.**5.2.1.4 Class Shifts**

Class shifts occur when the item of SL text is translated into different grammatical class in TL text, such as shift from noun to verb, from verb to adjective, from adjective to noun, etc.

ST: **الثقة بالنفس** عنصر من العناصر **الأساسية** في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة .

TT: self-confidence is **the fundamental element** in building a successful personality

ST :   فمتى ضعفت إرادة الإنسان أصبح اتكاليا لا يجرؤ على القيام **بأعمال مفيدة** .
TT: whenever one's will is weakened he becomes reliant and cannot do **beneficial works.**

ST: والثقة بالنفس تجدد **قوى الإنسان المعنوية** بعد الفشل الذي قد , كما يجدد الغذاء **قوته الجسدية** بعد عناء العمل المرهق يصيبه.
TT: Self-confidence renews human being **spiritual powers** after failure, as food renews his **physical power** after exhausted work.

In all of the examples mentioned above, (الأساسية **the fundamental), (**مفيد ة **beneficial),** (الخلاقة **creative),** المعنوية **spiritual), and (**الجسدية **physical).** Insofar as all the adjectives (that are a part of the lexical ties) are exponents of formally corresponding class adjective. There is apparently no class shift. Yet, at a further degree of delicacy we may recognize two sub-classes of adjectives; those operating at modifiers (M) and those operating at qualifiers (Q) in nominal group structure. M-adjectives are very numerous in Arabic, very rare in English. Since Arabic is M-adjective and English is Q-adjective, it is clear that the shift from M to Q entails a class shift. All of the students succeeded in establishing this textual equivalence.

Another instance of class shift was found in the subjects' translation which involves change from noun to verb is illustrated in the following examples:

1) **ST:**   والسبب في **فشل** الكثير من الناس **واتكالهم** على غيرهم في حياتهم، هو فقدانهم ثقتهم بأنفسهم.
  TT : many people **fail** and **rely** on other, because they lack self-confidence

2) **ST:**   ولا نقصد **بالاعتماد على النفس** أن ينقطع الإنسان عن الناس .
  TT: we do not mean **to depend (to rely)** on the self is to live in isolation.

In (1) both Arabic nouns فشل and اتكالهم are translated into verbs in English **fail** and **rely**, instead of nouns **failure** and **reliance**, respectively. Here, this sort of shift is a result of shift in the structure of the sentence. It is successful to translate the nouns in question into verbs, since this will affect neither source text meaning nor cohesion.

Similarly, in (2) the nominal phrase الاعتماد على النفس is rendered as **to depend / to rely on the self** into English instead of **self-reliance**. The students expressed the same meaning of the original, but in uneconomic language. The meaning expressed can be understood, but it is not what native speakers would produce.

In sentence (2) above, the students translated the Arabic verb لا نقصد as **the meaning** instead of **we do not mean**. This class shift is a possible equivalent as it preserves the same meaning and textual function of the source text.

III. 5.2.1.5 Structure Shifts

Structure shifts are based on the assumption that there is a formal correspondence between the two languages involved in the process of translation i.e. both source text and target text have the same elements. The structure shifts occur when the elements of the ST are said to be replaced in a different order in the TL. Because of the logical dependence of class on structure, it is clear that class shifts entail structure shifts (Catford, 1965). In this research the instance of structure shifts are those of class shifts, particularly shifts from a noun + M-adjective to Noun + Q-adjective. These are the main structure shifts concerning the lexical ties. All of them are obligatory shifts to achieve textual equivalence.

III. 5.2.2. Semantic Shifts

1) **ST:**   الثقة بالنفس عنصر من **العناصر** الأساسية في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة .
 TT: 1-(a) Self-trust is one of the fundamental components in building a successful personality.
 1-(b) Confidence is one of the fundamental elements in building a successful personality.

1-(c) Self-belief is the **basic Key** building a successful personality.

2) ST: إنها تجعل الإنسان مؤمنا بقدرته الخلاقة مستثمرا **مواهبه**.

TT: **2-(a)** it makes one believes in his creative capacities and invests his **skills**.

2-(b) it makes the person trust his creative capacities and use his **hobbies**.

3) ST: وبدونها لا يستطيع إن يتغلب على الصعاب التي تعترض سبيله في الحياة .

TT: 3-(a) without Self-confidence he cannot **overcome life difficulties**

3-(b) without it one cannot confront the difficulties that **faces his way of life**.

3-(c) without it he cannot **pass** the **troubles in the way of life.**

3-(d) without it one cannot **face** the **difficulties in life way.**

3-(e) without self-confidence one cannot **deal with the difficulties** that he may **find in his way of life.**

4) ST: هو فقدانهم ثقتهم بأنفسهم **وضعف إيمانهم** بالقدرة على العمل والنجاح

TT: 4-(a) …their lack of self-confidence and their weak **trust** in their capacities to work and succeed.

4-(b) …they lose their confidence and they **have no trust** in their capacities to wok and succeed**.**

5) ST: فمتى **ضعفت إرادة** الإنسان أصبح **اتكاليا** لا يجرؤ على القيام بأعمال مفيدة.

TT: 5-(a) whenever ones will is weakened he become **reliable** and cannot do beneficial **deeds**.

5-(b) whenever ones will is weakened he become **lazy** and cannot do valuable **acts**.

5-(c) whenever ones will is weakened he become independent and cannot do **anything** positive.

6) ST: ولكننا لا **نقصد** **بالاعتماد على النفس** أن ينقطع **الإنسان** عن الناس فيتولى **شئونه** بنفسه ولكننا **نقصد الاستقلال الشخصي.**

TT: 6-(a) but we do not mean by self-confidence that one should cut his relations with others, and **do things by himself**, but we mean his **independence (freedom)…**

6-(b) Self-reliance does not **imply** that one should live in isolation, and **manage his business (affairs)** by himself, but **it is** (**means**) **self-dependence**…

6-(c) The meaning of **reliance** is not to live alone, and **manage business** alone, but **it** means **self-dependence**…

7) ST: والثقة بالنفس **تجدد قوى الإنسان المعنوية** بعد الفشل الذي قد يصيبه كما **يجدد** الغذاء **قوته الجسدية** بعد عناء العمل المرهق.

TT: 7-(a) self-confidence **remakes humans' morals** after failing, as food **remakes** his physical capacities after exhausted work.

7-(b) self-confidence **refreshes humans' morales** after failure, as food **refreshes** his physical powers after hard work.

7-(c) self-confidence **rebuilds one's sensible powers** after failure, as food **rebuilds** his physical abilities after exhausted work.

7-(d) self-confidence **innovates one's** spiritual abilities after failure, as food **innovates** physical abilities after exhausted work

7-(e) self-confidence **reformulates humans' psychological powers** after failing, as food **reformulates** his physical powers after exhausted work.

7-(f) self-confidence **renews man's mental capacities** after failing, as food **does** to his **strong capacities** after hard work.

8) ST: فالواثق بنفسه لا يضيره أن يفشل مرة أو مرتين .

TT: a confident person does not care if fails once or twice.

Sentence (1) involves the key term الثقة بالنفس which is reiterated five times in the Arabic text. It is translated by the students as **self-trust, confidence, and self-belief** instead of **self-confidence**. Both lexical terms **self-trust** and **self-belief** express the same meaning as **self-confidence**, but they are not typical expressions in English. However, the lexical term **confidence** is not a successful lexical choice, because **self-confidence** is not **confidence**. The first implies the 'feeling of trust in one's abilities, qualities, and judgment', while the second denotes the 'belief that one can have faith in or rely on someone or something' (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary 2000).

We have two possible explanations of this wrong translation; the first is that students do not now the term الثقة بالنفس in English; the second is that they think that both confidence and self-confidence can be interpreted as synonyms.

Similarly, in 1 (c), العناصر الأساسية is translated by the subjects as **the basic Keys** instead of **components** or **traits**. This is an instance of semantic shifts, i.e. it denotes a change in the meaning of the lexical tie العناصر. This meaning does not correspond with that of the source text.

In sentence (2) مواهبه is rendered by the subjects as **skill** in 2(a) and **hobbies** in 2(b) instead of **talents**. In fact, the term مواهبه refers to one's natural capacities in doing good and surprising things. However **skills** refers to the ability to do things well after experience, since it is by definition refer to the "ability to do something well, expertise or dexterity" (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary 2000). This instance of a semantic shift is a result of a wrong

interpretation where the students think that both skills and talent are the same. Similarly, the term **hobbies** in 2 (b) refers to those activities "done regularly for pleasure" (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2000). This is clear that this meaning does not match with that of **talent**.

In 3(a), 3(b), 3(c), 3(d) the verb يتغلب in the collocation patterns يتغلب على الصعاب is translated as **overcome, confront, pass, face, and deal with,** respectively. **Confront, face, or overcome** are acceptable. It is quite normal to say 'confront, face, or overcome difficulties in life'. Yet the verb **pass** and **deal with** are different from the original in which **to solve** is to find a solution to a given problem, **to pass** is exceed a given situation of difficulty, and **to deal with** is to tackle things. In back translation, we would get the following: يتجاوز، يحل مشاكل الحياة يتعامل مع مشاكل الحياة، مشاكل الحياة. These are not acceptable collocations. We cannot say in English **to deal with problems in life** or **to pass problems in life** to mean to **confront or overcome problems in life.** Still in the same sentence the collocation تعترض سبيله في الحياة which is rendered as (problems) **faces his way of life**, **in the way of life, in life way**, **find in his way of life** , as it is mentioned in 3(a), 3(b), 3(c), 3(d) above. These are not acceptable collocations in English too as they do not express the same meaning. For instance **faces his way of life** is said to be used to express ones style of life. It is odd to talk about difficulties in ones way of life! And it is odder to use it to mean problems one may face in life. This is an evidence of a wrong interpretation of the collocation pattern by the students which led to this mistranslation.

We think that the students' decision to maintain the lexical term سبيله in English results in such unnaturalness in the cohesive pattern.

The lexical tie 'ضعف إيمانهم' in sentence (4) is rendered as **lack of self-confidence** in (4)-a and as '**have no trust**' in (4)-b instead of **weak belief**. The tem ضعف إيمانهم is interpreted by

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the students as having no belief, instead of only **a lack** of belief, not a complete absence. This misinterpretation led them to mistranslation of this collocational pattern which in turn affected the meaning of the source text and resulted in contradictory ideas. This is because sentence (4) above is followed by another one (5) which produces the same idea of lack and weakness of self- confidence. All of the students maintained the idea of weakness in self-confidence in (5) but not in (4). That is to say, some students talked about a complete absence of self-confidence, and then shifted in the following sentence to talk about its lack. This does not correspond to the source text, and it is an evidence of the students work at a word level not at a discursive one where they should maintain the logical flow of ideas in a text.

Again, an alteration of the source text meaning and cohesion is included in sentence (5). This sentence involves some semantic shifts in the lexical ties اتكاليا and بأعمال مفيدة. In (5)a the first time is rendered as **reliable, dependable** and **lazy.** The first term means to be relied on, which is completely the opposite of the original **reliant**. This semantic shift can be explained that the students do not make a distinction between the adjectives **reliable** and **reliant**. Similarly, in (5)-b and (5)-c, **dependable** and **lazy** represent a wrong interpretation and mistranslation. Both of them do not express the meaning of the original as they contradict it. **Dependable** means that someone is trustworthy and reliable, and **lazy** means that one is unwilling to work or make efforts. These meanings are unsuccessful as they altered the natural and logical flow of ideas in the text.

The second lexical tie is rendered as **beneficial deeds, acts**, and **anything** instead of **woks**. Semantically speaking, the term **work** and **deed** are synonyms; the first refers to conscious and intentional action, and the second also involves the use of mental or physical effort. This change of a word by its synonym does not affect the target text meaning but its cohesion. This is because; the term is reiterated in the text three times as the same item. In the

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target text, it is reiterated also by a near-synonym. The term **act,** however, is not a suitable translation i.e. it cannot be considered an equivalent.

Works is also translated as a pronoun **anything.** We have already mentioned this as an instance of level shift. **Anything** and **work** are semantically different words that express different meanings. In back translation we get أي شيء ايجابي instead of أعمال مفيدة. The adjective that modifies the lexical term أعمال also receives a semantic alteration. In (5)-b, it is translated as **valuable** and in (5)-c as **positive** instead of **beneficial**.

Sentence (6) involves different patterns of lexical cohesion. Reiteration of the verb نقصد, and الاستقلال الشخصي and بالاعتماد على النفس ,فيتولى شئونه بنفسه and the collocations and الإنسان. In 6-(a) the first occurrence of the verb نقصد is translated as **imply** contrary to its second occurrence in which it is translated as **to mean**. This is a different lexical tie (imply- mean) instead of (mean-mean). This is no longer an instance of reiteration of the same lexical term, but it is a reiteration by near-synonym. The verb **to imply**, here, does not affect the meaning of the source text, but its cohesion. In the same example 6-(a) the lexical cohesive term الإنسان is rendered by the students as **the man.** Both terms **man** and **human being** can be used in interchangeable contexts. Both of them refer to human kind in general. However, the definiteness of the lexical term **the man** changes its reference. In this context it refers to a special entity; i.e. to a specific human male. In the original text, there is no such specific entity. This is another evidence that the students translate at a word level not at a discoursal one.

Furthermore,, the near-synonymy شئونه in (6)-a is translated into English by a general noun **things** instead of **works**. This means that it is an instance of reiteration by a general term in the target text where it is an instance of near-synonymy in the original. Similarly, this term is again translated by the students in (6)-b and (6)-c as **business** and **affairs**, respectively. These are instances of reiteration by near-synonyms and not a reiteration of the same term.

The lexical term الاعتماد على النفس is translated by some students into English as **self-confidence** as in 6-(a) instead of **self-reliance**. This can be justified by that the students have not paid attention that the writer shifted from talking about self-confidence to self-reliance. In other words, they did not pay attention to the topic shift in the original text. This is evidence that they do not deal with a text as whole unit of discourse that involves important lexical ties and that determines its discursive shifts, its whole meaning, and its structure. The writer talked about self-confidence, shifted to self-reliance, then turned back to self-confidence. This is mainly what Morris and Hirst (1991) call 'chain returns'. Chain returns are chains which share candidate terms with an earlier created chain. In other words, chain returns occur when a topic in a text represented by a chain 'has clearly stopped', and is then returned to by the writer later on in the text. Morris and Hirst state that lexical chains are good indicators of text structure as an accurate interpretation of these lexical chains will help readers trace text meanings.

What this seems to suggest is that, students inability to trace the topical shift in the source text, reflects their inability to make accurate interpretation of the lexical terms.

In (6) -c as the lexical tie بالاعتماد على النفس is translated as **reliance** instead of **self-reliance**. Both **reliance** and **self-reliance** cannot be interpreted as the same, i.e. they are not equivalents; the first means to depend on something or somebody, and the second means to depend on oneself. Shifting the meaning of the first by the second as translation equivalent, as the students have done, is not a suitable decision. This automatically affects target text meaning.

Again, the lexical term الاستقلال الشخصي which is a reiteration of self-reliance as a reiteration by near-synonym is translated in 6-(a), and 6-(b), as **independence** and **freedom** respectively instead of **self-independence**. These two terms **independence** and **freedom** share

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the sense of 'being free to do something' with the original lexical term الاستقلال الشخصي. The first means to be free from outside control, and the second refers to the state of having free-will. The choice of these lexical terms in the target language affects its lexical cohesion. As each of freedom and independence is not a near-synonym of self-reliance.

Sentence (7) involves the lexical tie by reiterating the same lexical term يجدد /تجدد, and the collocation قوى الإنسان المعنوية /قوته الجسدية. First, يجدد /تجدد, occurred and reiterated in English as: **remake, refreshes, rebuilt, reformulate** and **innovates.** Only in 8-(e) it is reiterated as **does**. All of these verbs are distinct in meaning from the original. The intended verb in Arabic is to **renew** which means in the text to give fresh life and power. In English the students' lexical choices are not really as successful as to maintain the same meaning. The only exception is the verb **to refresh** which means to give new strength or energy. For example, the verb to **remake** does not involve the sense of refreshment, but it is to create something again, **rebuilt** is to reconstruct what is already damaged, **innovates** is to change something established by introducing new product, **restructure** is to rearrange thing, i.e. to reorganize differently.

In the last example **7-(e)** the subjects did not make a semantic shift concerning the first occurrence of the verb تجدد but they did it concerning the second one. Some of them translated it as **does** and some others as **redoes.** The verb **to do** refers to a general action. From a discursive point of view, it is so suitable to make cohesion by reiteration of a general term instead of repeating the same lexical term (Hallidy and Hasan 1976). The students have succeeded in rendering this cohesive tie. Yet it is different from the original in terms of a type of reiteration.

Secondly, the collocations, قوى الإنسان المعنوية and قوته الجسدية represent different instances of semantic shifts. قوى الإنسان المعنوية is translated into English by the students as :

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humans' moral, humans' morale, **one's sensible powers**, **one's soul powers**, **humans' psychological powers**, and **man's mental capacities** instead of **one's spiritual powers**. These new collocational patterns that the students produce in the target language are different from that of the source text. The adjective **psychological** is closer to the source text adjective المعنوية. Both of them are related to human's emotional state. Yet, **morale**, **sensible**, and **mental**, express different meanings as they a result of misinterpretation. The first term is a noun which has to do with one's confidence and feeling of well-being at a particular time, the second is to show a common sense, and the third is related to things that happen in the mind. It is quite clear that these semantic shifts altered the source text meaning and result in different lexical associations that are not equivalents.

Similarly, in the associative expression قوته الجسدية the semantic shifts made by the students occurred in the translation of the adjective الجسدية. It is translated into English as **strong abilities,** as it is mentioned in the example 7-(f) instead of **physical capacities**. This is not a suitable translation of the original adjective.

Sentence number (8) involves reiteration of the lexical tie الواثق بنفسه. It is rendered by the students as **a confident person** instead of **self-confident person**. They interpreted both terms as synonyms, yet both are not. The first means that one has a feeling of certainty about something, and the second is to feel confident. This semantic shift affected the source text meaning and resulted in un-equivalent discourse.

III. 5.2.3 Shifts by Omission

Omission occurs when deleting elements of a source text in the target text. The following examples are instances of addition shifts committed by the students:

1) **ST:**   الثقة بالنفس **عنصر** من العناصر الأساسية في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة**.**
   TT: self-confidence is the fundamental element in building a successful personality.

2) ST: إنها تجعل الإنسان مؤمنا بقدرته الخلاقة مستثمرا **مواهبه**.
  TT: It makes one believe in his creative capacities.

3) ST: وبدونها لا يستطيع إن **يتغلب على الصعاب التي تعترض سبيله في الحياة**.
  TT: **3-(a).** Without it one cannot defeat the difficulties.
    3-(b). Without it he cannot defeat life difficulties that face him.
    3-(c). Without it he cannot defeat difficulties in his way of life.

4) ST: ولكننا نقصد الاستقلال الشخصي في تقرير **الأعمال** التي يتوقف عليها مستقبل الإنسان ونجاحه من غير اتكال على الآخرين
  TT: but we mean self-independence in taking decisions about the future of human being without relying on others.

5) ST: والسبب في فشل الكثير من الناس واتكالهم على غيرهم **في حياتهم**
  TT: the reason behind the failure of many people and their reliance on others…

6) ST: ولا نقصد بالاعتماد على النفس أن ينقطع **الإنسان** عن **الناس**
  TT: **6-(a).** We do not mean by self-reliance that one should live in isolation.
    6- (b). We do not mean by self-reliance to live in isolation.

7) ST: **فالصبر على الفشل مظهر** من **مظاهر** الثقة بالنفس ودليل **على قوة الإيمان بالنجاح**
  TT: **7-(a)**. Patience **(failure)** is one of a sing of self-confidence and an evidence of the strong belief in success
    7-(b). Patience when failing is a sing of self-confidence and an evidence of the strong belief**.(success)**
    7-(c). Patience upon failure is (**a sign**) an aspect of self-confidence and an evidence of the belief in success.

The above examples are instances of omission shifts. The interpretation of the sentences leads the students to delete some lexical ties all together in the target text. In (1) **self-confidence,** in the original, is considered as one among other traits in successful personality. In the target text, it is rendered by the subjects as **the main important element in successful personality**. The idea that is expressed by the tie **عنصر** as one among the important elements is completely deleted in the target text. This decision is motivated by a non-accurate and precise interpretation of the lexical tie. In (2) the lexical tie by synonymy is lost in the original. This seems to be quite normal. Yet, the importance of repeating the lexical term by synonymy is to give more emphasis and more importance to the meaning expressed. The subjects did not

succeed in preserving it. Sentence (3) involves an instance of collocational cohesion. Elements in the collocation **يتغلب على الصعاب التي تعترض سبيله في الحياة** are omitted in the target text. In (a) the subjects deleted the collocation pattern **تعترض سبيله في الحياة**, in (b) they omitted the term **سبيله** with the creation of a different structure where problems or difficulties that one can face in life is rendered as **life difficulties**, and in (b) they deleted the verb **تعترض**. In all of these instances, the deletion of the whole collocation or one of the co-occurring elements has a great affect on target text meaning and cohesion. In the omission of the **الحياة** in (a), which modifies the noun **the difficulties** clearly affected the meaning of the source text. In the TT, **the difficulties** is a definite noun that refers to specific difficulties. In the surrounding co-text, the writer did not mention specific problems. He talked about problems in general. In (b) the lexical term **سبيله** is deleted. Here, the students' decision is to some extent successful. This is because preserving the Arabic collocation as it is will result in an odd, wrong, and unacceptable expression as in (d). This is because **way of life** means one's style of life. This has nothing to do with the meaning of the original. This is evidence that the students work at a word level. A Similar thing can be said about the rest of the examples. In (4) and (5), the subjects also deleted the lexical ties **الأعمال** and **حياتهم**, respectively. The omission of the first term results in a meaning that is different from the source text. In the original text, the writer is talking about the **decisions** concerning the **woks** (personal matters) that are necessarily for one's future. In the target text, **decisions** have to do with one's **future** not his personal matters. However, the omission of the second item does not affect the meaning of ST. This is because; it is quite clear from the context that the difficulties are in one's life.

In (6)-a and (6)-b, the subjects deleted the lexical tie **الناس.** This omission in the target text does not affect the meaning expressed in the original. Living in isolation implies the meaning of not contacting with people. However, this shift affected the lexical cohesion of the

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source text, in which it decreases the number of the occurrences of the tie in question. The same thing can be said about the omission shift of tie **الإنسان** in (6)-b in terms of its affect on target text lexical cohesion.

In (7)-a, and (7)-b, the students' interpretation of the collocation **الصبر على الفشل and قوة الإيمان بالنجاح** is completely different from the original. This misinterpretation makes them commit omission shift. They omitted **بالنجاح** and **على الفشل** , respectively. As a result of these omission shifts, on the one hand, these are no longer instances of lexical cohesion in the target language. On the other hand, they affect TT meaning.

First, the collocation **الصبر على الفشل in Arabic** becomes **patience** in English instead of **patience when failing.** It is clear that the students completely altered the intended meaning of the original. Second, the collocation **قوة الإيمان بالنجاح** is translated into English as **evidence of the strong belief** instead of **evidence of the strong belief in success.** The term **success** in this collocation is the key term and its omission is a mistranslation.

However in (7)-c, the lexical term **مظهر** expresses the idea that patience when failing is one of the aspects of self-confidence. The omission of this term does not affect the meaning of the source language. It is quite understandable that patience when failing is one of the aspects of self-confidence in the students' translation.

III. 5.2.4 Shifts by Addition

Addition is to add elements in the target text which are absent in the original. The following examples are instances of addition shifts made by the students:

1) **ST**:   ولا نقصد بالاعتماد على النفس أن ينقطع الإنسان عن الناس
    TT: we do not mean by self-confidence that one should live in isolation from **other people**

2) **ST** :   والسبب في فشل الكثير من الناس واتكالهم على غيرهم في حياتهم
    TT: The reason behind the failure of many people and their reliance on **other people.**

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3) **ST:** ولكننا نقصد الاستقلال الشخصي في تقرير الأعمال التي يتوقف عليها مستقبل الإنسان ونجاحه من غير اتكال على الآخرين.

   TT: …but it refers to one's **own** decisions about his future and success without relying on others.

4) **ST:** **فالواثق بنفسه** لا يضيره أن يفشل **مرة أو مرتين**.

   TT: 4-(a). The self-reliant person does not care if fails **one time or two times**

   4-(b). Any self reliant does not care if fails once or twice.

5) **ST:** فالصبر على الفشل مظهر من مظاهر **الثقة بالنفس** ودليل على قوة الإيمان بالنجاح

   TT: 5-(a). Patience upon failure is one of the sings of self-confidence and an evidence of the strong belief in **ones** success.

   5-(b). Patience upon failure is one of the sings of self-confidence and an evidence of the strong belief of **the man in his** success.

In (1) the subjects added the adjective **other** to the lexical term **people**. In the original **people** is mentioned as a type of a reiteration of the same term without involving the identity of reference in the surrounding co-text. The students can shift by translating the lexical term **people** by the pronoun **others**. However this addition affects neither the source text meaning nor its cohesion. Similarly, addition-shift in the example (2), where the students added the lexical term **people** to the pronoun **others**, does not affect the meaning of the original. Yet, it did on its cohesion in which it raises the number of the occurrences of the lexical term **people**.

The students also added the adjective **own** to a pronoun **one** in 3(d). Here again, there is no need to add this word because it is already understood that one's decisions is specified to him.

In 4(a) the students added the lexical terms **one** and **two** to express duality instead of translating the lexical terms **مرة أو مرتين** as **once** and **twice**. The meaning is preserved but in poor language. In 4(b) they added the determiner **any** to the noun self-confident. **Any** means in Arabic أي. The students try to express a general reference. This in fact can be achieved by the use of indefinite article 'a'.

In (5)-a, the students added the pronoun **one,** and in (5)-b they added **the man in his**. The addition of the first raises the number of the term **one** in the source text. It is mentioned several times in TT. However it is completely absent in the original.

The addition of the phrase **the man in his** -which is also completely absent in the original- affects TT. The students normally produce this express: **strong belief in success** instead of the **strong belief of the man in his success.** It is clear that it is not an equivalent, as it does not correspond to the original. It should be noted here that the use of the nominal phrase **the man** in the target text alters the text meaning in which there is no identity of **man** in the source text.

To sum up, the qualitative analysis has revealed that the students' shifts are not always successful, i.e. they do not establish equivalence in TL. They are most of the times negative and affect target text meaning and cohesion. This is because the students work at a word level, i.e. they do not translate words according to their function (grammatical or textual) within the whole structure of the text. They therefore, do not make accurate interpretations. This results in non-equivalent texts both at textual and discursive levels.

At a textual level, the students' shifts raised a number of occurrences of some lexical ties in TT. This resulted in a more explicit and sometimes redundant text. They also reduced the occurrences of some others. Moreover, some of the shifts resulted in changes from lexical cohesion to grammatical cohesion (reference).

At a discoursal level, the analysis exhibited plenty of shifts that directly affected TT meaning. The occurring shifts resulted in new lexical network of semantic relation and collocational patterns. The different types of shifts used by the students affected ST meaning.

It is also clear from the above analysis that the students do not pay attention to the lexical ties. The clearest evidence that the students did not deal with a text as a whole unit of

discourse, but rather as separate sentences, is that they did not pay attention to the topic shift in the text. This represents the case where they translated **self-reliance** as **self-confidence**.

However, translating at a word level is not always unsuccessful. Many instances are introduced in the above discussion.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter which has been devoted to the analysis of the students' translation, we attempted to answer the two parts of the question raised in this study; (1) how frequently first year Master students of English shift the Arabic lexical ties into English? (2) What are the semantic and the textual implications resulting from the translation?

As far as the first part of the question is concerned, the quantitative part of the analysis proved that the students maintained few lexical patterns and altered most of the source text ties. They used different types of shifts with a varying frequency. These shifts involved grammatical forms, structures, functions, and meanings. It also revealed that grammatical shifts are the most frequent type of shifts in students' translation. This reflects the fact that Arabic and English grammatical structures are very different. In addition it gave statistical measurements of the distribution of each type of shift.

With regard to the second part of the question, the qualitative part of the analysis revealed that those shifts have great affect on target text meaning and cohesion. It shows that the students' shifts result in new lexical network, the students semantic choices are most of the times not suitable. Their decisions in adding or omitting result in a redundant non-cohesive text full of contradictions, poor language and unnatural flow of ideas.

General Conclusion

On the basis of the results obtained in this research, we think that students are continually faced with choices which are motivated by what the translator as a reader of a text understands, i.e. what s/he has interpreted. The complete comprehension and analysis of the source text are the only ways to a good translation.

The teachers have to realize the importance of the skill of reading in translation, to make students get the gist of the text they are going to translate. In classes, an emphasis is laid on the practice of translating word meanings through the knowledge of discourse-organizing vocabulary. By making good readings of ST meaning, L2 learners can interpret discourse more precisely and can successfully transmit it into TL. This seems to suggest that, it is necessary to teach students lexical cohesion explicitly in translation, i.e. to teach students to look for clue items in original texts before they start translating. The reading activity that precedes the process of translation encourages the students to collect the necessary information in a text and understand it more accurately by paying attention to its lexical cohesion.

Lexical cohesion can be explained to students when they read. Understanding the semantic relations and tracing the grammatical and textual functions of the lexical ties, we believe, will make students interact with the text and succeed in taking accurate decisions. It is, therefore, the teacher's task to point out systematically to such differences and to explain the level (s) at which they are likely to affect the translation process.

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Appendix

Test Used in This Research

Mentouri University of Constantine
Department of English
First Year Master Students
1 Hour and a Half

Name…………

Group…………

Second-Term Translation Test

Translate the Following into English:

الثقة بالنفس عنصر من العناصر الأساسية في تكوين الشخصية الناجحة. إنها تجعل الإنسان مؤمنا بقدرته الخلاقة مستثمرا مواهبه، وبدونها لا يستطيع أن يتغلب على الصعاب التي تعترض سبيله في الحياة. والسبب في فشل الكثير من الناس واتكالهم على غيرهم في حياتهم،هو فقدانهم ثقتهم بأنفسهم وضعف إيمانهم بالقدرة على العمل والنجاح، فمتى ضعفت إرادة الإنسان أصبح اتكاليا لا يجرؤ على القيام بأعمال مفيدة. ولا نقصد بالاعتماد على النفس أن ينقطع الإنسان عن الناس، فيتولى شؤونه بنفسه ولكننا نقصد الاستقلال الشخصي في تقرير الأعمال التي يتوقف عليها مستقبل الإنسان ونجاحه من غير اتكال على الآخرين. والثقة بالنفس تجدد قوى الإنسان المعنوية بعد الفشل الذي قد يصيبه، كما يجدد الغذاء قوته الجسدية بعد عناء العمل المرهق. فالواثق بنفسه لا يضيره أن يفشل مرة أو مرتين. فالصبر على الفشل مظهر من مظاهر الثقة بالنفس ودليل على قوة الإيمان بالنجاح.

Résumé

La cohésion lexicale est d'une grande importance dans la construction du sens et dans la détermination de la structure et la cohésion d'un texte. La traduction de cette cohésion est l'un des plus grands défis que les traducteurs et les apprenants de langues étrangères doivent relever. Le problème se situe souvent dans le fait que la plupart des apprenants n'arrivent pas à réaliser l'importance d'associer le sens des mots non seulement aux phrases les contenant mais aussi à l'ensemble du texte. La langue arabe et la langue anglaise étant disparates en structures syntactiques et en traits textuels, la traduction entre ces deux langues devient une tâche plus compliquée. Ceci contraint souvent le traducteur à entreprendre une série de changements au niveau de ces liens textuels afin d'aboutir à un texte homogène, naturel, et logique. Cela ne veut nullement dire que le traducteur doit altérer tous les liens textuels au niveau du texte source mais gardera ceux qui impliquent le même sens dans le texte cible. Cette recherche met en exergue les changements opérés par les étudiants de première année maîtrise au niveau des dits liens textuels lors de la traduction d'un texte de l'arabe vers l'anglais. Elle évalue l'impact de ces changements sur le texte de la langue cible par rapport au texte source et mesure à quel point cet impact est positif dans la réalisation de l'équivalence entre les deux textes.

Un test est administré aux étudiants susmentionnés ; il consiste en la traduction d'un texte de l'arabe vers l'anglais. Les résultats obtenus démontrent que la majorité des étudiants ont altéré la pluparts des liens textuels du texte source, et que la plupart des modifications apportées par les étudiants sont plutôt négatives quant à réaliser une équivalence en matière d'unité et cohésion textuelles pour les raisons déjà mentionnée.

ملخص

للانسجام المفرداتي أهمية كبيرة في بناء معنى النص وتحديد تركيبته. وتعتبر ترجمته من أكبر التحديات التي تواجه المترجم خاصة متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة ثانية أو أجنبية. وذلك لأن الطلبة غالبا ما يتعاملون مع ألفاظ النص على أنها كلمات معانيها مرتبطة فقط بالجمل التي تحتويها غير مدركين أنها ألفاظ ذات معاني ودلالات يجب استخلاصها من خلال النص كله. كما أن إختلاف اللغات (العربية و الانجليزية) في تراكيبها النحوية وخصائصها النصية يضفي صعوبة أخرى في عملية الترجمة. وهذا الإختلاف يلزم المترجم ـــــ في غالب الأحيان ـــــ بتبني سلسلة من التغييرات في هذه الروابط للحصول على نص موحد ترتبط فيه الأفكار والمعاني إرتباطا طبيعيا ومنطقيا. ولكن هذا لا يعني أن على المترجم تغيير كل الروابط اللفظية في النص المصدر، وإنما يستطيع الإحتفاظ ببعضها إن كانت تؤدي نفس المعنى والضيفة في اللغة الهدف. إن هذا البحث يسلط الضوء على حجم التغيرات التي يقوم بها طلبة السنة أولى ماستر أثناء ترجمتهم لروابط النص العربي إلى اللغة الإنجليزية، وتأثير هذه التغييرات على النص في اللغة الهدف مقارنة بالنص الأصلي، أي مدى ايجابية هذه التغييرات في تحقيق المعادلة بين النصين. أجري اختبار لهؤلاء الطلبة والذي يتمثل في نص عربي ليترجم إلى الانجليزية. وقد أثبتت النتائج أن الطلبة قد غيروا أغلب الروابط اللفظية للنص الأصلي. و أن أغلبية هذه التغييرات لم تكن ايجابية حتى تحقق المعادلة وذلك للأسباب التي سبق ذكرها.