

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LITERARY TRANSLATION
FROM ARABIC INTO ENGLISH AND FRENCH**

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UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA

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**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LITERARY TRANSLATION FROM ARABIC INTO
ENGLISH AND FRENCH**

by

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ADV	ADVERBIAL
AST	ARABIC SOURCE TEXT
C	COMPLEMENT
ETT	ENGLISH TARGET TEXT
FTT	FRENCH TARGET TEXT
IM	INTERROGATIVE MARKER
NM	NEGATIVE MARKER
NP	NEGATIVE PARTICLE
O	OBJECT
Ø	NO WORD USED
PEC	PECULIAR
Q	QUESTION
S	SUBJECT
SL	SOURCE LANGUAGE
ST	SOURCE TEXT
TL	TARGET LANGUAGE
TT	TARGET TEXTS
TTs	TARGET TEXTS
V	VERB
X	ANY SENTENCE ELEMENT

LANGUAGES

Ar.	ARABIC
En.	ENGLISH
Fr.	FRENCH
Ger.	GERMAN
Ma.	MALAY
Sp.	SPANISH
Sw.	SWAHILI

SATU KAJIAN PERBANDINGAN TERJEMAHAN SASTERA DARI BAHASA ARAB KE BAHASA INGGERIS DAN BAHASA PERANCIS

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini adalah satu kajian perbandingan sastera yang bertujuan menjelaskan perbezaan dan persamaan antara tiga bahasa – bahasa Arab, bahasa Inggeris dan bahasa Perancis - bagi mewujudkan satu model penterjemahan. Khususnya, ia menyelidiki kejadian tiga aspek teks – makrostruktur, mikrostruktur dan konteks sistemik – dalam terjemahan dari bahasa Arab ke bahasa Inggeris dan dari bahasa Arab ke bahasa Perancis. Dua buah novel dan terjemahan bahasa Inggerisnya dan terjemahan bahasa Perancisnya - زقاق المدق (Midaq Alley, *Passage des Miracles*) oleh Naguib Mahfouz, dan موسم الهجرة إلى الشمال (Season of Migration to the North, *Saison de la Migration Vers Le Nord*) oleh Tayeb Saleh - merupakan korporanya dan Teori Deskriptif Sistem Lambert dan van Gorp (Descriptive Theory System) menyediakan rangka teori untuk kajian ini.

Darinya, didapati terdapat hubungkait yang banyak antara metateks, makrostruktur dan mikrostruktur. Makrostrukturnya adalah unsur-unsur universal yang terkandung dalam laras bahasa. Mikrostrukturnya, sebaliknya pula, tidak menunjukkan persamaan system atau system yang seialiran; ia sering ditentukan oleh keanehan bahasa dan pilihan penterjemah. Bahasa Inggeris mempunyai lebih banyak ciri tersendiri yang dapat dilihat melalui mikrostrukturnya. Bahasa Perancis dan bahasa Arab, sebaliknya, kurang bergantung pada mikrostruktur untuk menunjukkan ciri-ciri bahasa itu yang tersendiri. Bahasa Perancis dan bahasa Arab mempunyai mikrostruktur yang hampir serupa kerana ciri-ciri bahasa mereka juga mempunyai persamaan yang banyak.

Amnya, didapati terdapat banyak hubungkait antara-teks dan antara-sistem seperti dicadangkan oleh teori Lambert dan van Gorp. Walau bagaimanapun, pentingnya ciri-ciri tersendiri dan ciri-ciri universal dalam mencapai penerimaan pembaca harus diberi pertimbangan yang sewajarnya.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LITERARY TRANSLATION FROM ARABIC INTO ENGLISH AND FRENCH

ABSTRACT

This study is a comparative study on literary translation which aims at describing differences and similarities between three languages – Arabic, English and French – to establish a translation modelling. More specifically, it examines occurrences of three aspects of text – macrostructure, microstructure and systemic context – in translations from Arabic to English and Arabic to French. Two novels and their English and French translations- زقاق المدق (Midaq Alley, *Passage des Miracles*) by Nagib Mahfouz, and موسم الحجارة إلى الشمال (Season of Migration to the North, *Saison de la Migration Vers Le Nord*) by Taleb Saleh - form its corpora and Lambert and van Gorp's Descriptive Systems Theory provides the theoretical framework for this comparative study.

From the study, it is found that there are substantial relations among the metatexts, macrostructures and microstructures. The macrostructures are universals accommodated by language register. The microstructures, however, do not reflect systematic correspondence; they are often determined by language peculiarities and translators' preference and choice. English is more diverse with its peculiarities allowing many microstructure elements to surface. French and Arabic, on the other hand, show moderate usage and less distinctive usage of microstructure elements. The French and Arabic have similar microstructures due to the quasi-similarity of their peculiarities.

In general, it is found that there are substantial intertextual and intersystemic relations as proposed by Lambert's and van Gorp's theory. Nevertheless, the significance of language peculiarities and universals in achieving readership acceptability should be given due consideration.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 RESEARCH ASPECTS

1.1.1 BACKGROUND

Evolving from linguistics whose role is to study the similarities, differences, varieties, spoken and written forms, acquisition, change, and standards of languages, translation has gone further as a unifying communicative factor of lingual, cultural diversity, and academic knowledge. Cary (1959: 43) mentions that translation is playing the role of discovery. It discovers things from language to language, from country to country, from age to age, and from world to world. It then plays big role in the evolution and spread of religions, and literatures.

Furthermore, Gambier (1995: 222-4) emphasizes the role played by translators in importing foreign cultural values and creating aesthetic values. This made translation not to be a substitution but “cross-fertilization, resulting in the hybridity of cultures.” Wilss(1982:11) points out that the importance of translation in the human communicative acts has made it one of the most important branches of linguistics. Moreover, Munday (2001: 17) argues that translation in the twentieth century, thanks to Holmes, has helped to fill the gap between theory and practice. It has turned from traditional processes to new approaches which describe meanings scientifically and “put together systematic taxonomies of translation phenomena” (ibid: 29).

Holmes (2000: 172-185) has divided translation studies into three categories: (1) theoretical translation studies, (2) descriptive translation studies (DTS), and (3) applied translation studies. The first category deals with the explanation and prediction of phenomena to constitute general principles. The second category deals with comparative studies; it focuses on textual phenomena and their translatability, be they

linguistic, literary, or cultural. The last category deals with translator training, translation aids, and translation criticism.

This study is conducted on the second category (DTS); it is a descriptive translation study in literary translation. It describes and compares translation aspects that can be semantically problematic. It is motivated by problems concerning the macrostructures (the global meaning of the texts under study) and microstructures (the expressive means of the texts under study), their occurrence, translatability, and effects in literary translation.

1.1.2 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

This study is a multilingual comparative study. It is a descriptive study on literary texts whose dynamic polysystem, according to Hermans (1985: 10-12), requires a “continual interplay between theoretical models and practical case studies” carried out in a descriptive approach which is target-text oriented. Moreover, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 9) state that “translation can be an object of research into the mechanisms of one language in relation to another. Translation allows us to clarify certain linguistic phenomena which otherwise would remain undiscovered.” Weston (1991: 9) points out that translation difficulties deal with overcoming conceptual differences between the SL and TL. Wilss (1998: 58- 60), van Dijk (1981: 5), and Charolles (1978: 12- 14) have linguistically discussed the interdependence between macrostructures and microstructures in terms of coherence and relationships. The former deal with the global relationships of the events and actions of the text, whereas the latter deals with the local details and their relationships between the sentences on the one hand and the whole text on the other hand. Based on the above statements, some problems arise, in translation, a propos of their range, functions in different languages, text type, and reflectiveness to other genres.

The rationale behind this topic, therefore, consists of several reasons. They are:

First since translation is “a science and an art, a skill and a taste, an exercise of choices and decisions” (Newmark, 1983: 15), translation study needs to determine the range and possibilities of those trends with a systematic approach. Secondly, owing to effective human communication, understanding, and globalization, translation study may need to focus more on translation modelling based on descriptive comparative study in literary translation, which is increasingly in demand for the understanding of the otherness. Thirdly, while literary translation must pay attention to both text and texture hermeneutically, compared to language for special purpose translation, which is epistemic (Wilss, 1996: 168), there is a lack of a multilingual comparative study determining the range of the behaviour of linguistic aspects in literary translation. Fourthly, language is not a nomenclature but a text in the sense of “a semantic unit” in context, expressed by a texture (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 293). By “semantic unit” they mean the systematic and interdependent function of the ideational (the way language conceptualizes the world), the interpersonal (i.e. the way language is used as a personal medium), and textual (the way language is used to form texts) (Halliday, 1975: 239- 265).

In addition, Frawley (1992: 17- 61) argues that meanings can take different patterns: (a) meaning as reference, (b) meaning as logical form, (c) meaning as context and use, (d) meaning as culture, and (e) meaning as conceptual structure. This may hold some truth concerning the relationships between the semantic macrostructures and microstructures in a given source text (ST), but their representation, interrelatedness, and functions as “a semantic unit” in given target texts (TTs) is still vague. Therefore, a systematic and comparative description in the ST and the TTs of such unit in terms of macrostructures and microstructures can elucidate translation operativeness in the languages under study.

Accordingly, many studies may have been done on translation particularly in language pairs (from one source language into one target language) concerning translation and its problems in terms of syntactical, semantic, pragmatic and cultural factors particularly from well-documented European languages like English, French, Spanish, German, etc. into non-European languages, and vice versa. However, a search in the internet, and C.D. net whether in the national interlibrary universities, or in the international dissertation abstracts in America and United Kingdom, reveals that there is no recorded research on a multilingual comparative study on literary translation from Arabic into both English and French.

To support this descriptive study, a system theory concerning DTS by Lambert and van Gorp (1985: 42- 53) is followed. It is explained in the theoretical framework and methodology chapter of this thesis.

1.1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study are:

- i. To identify and describe the semantic relation between macrostructures and microstructures.
- ii. To examine the translatability of macrostructures and microstructures.
- iii. To compare the behaviour of both macrostructures and microstructures in the literary products.
- iv. To examine intertextual relations and intersystemic relations.
- v. To construct a translation model.

1.1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research tries to answer the following questions:

- i. What are the similarities and differences between Arabic, English, and French with respect to languages pairs that may occur in translating the macrostructures and microstructures?
- ii. What are the translators' possible choices for handling the macrostructures and microstructures in translation?
- iii. How do the macrostructures and microstructures of the TTs function to serve the same function of the macrostructures and microstructures of the ST?
- iv. To what extent do the microstructures affect or enhance the macrostructures or vice versa in translation?
- v. What makes the macrostructures and microstructures of the genre chosen, i.e. novels, reflective of other genres?
- vi. What literary translation modelling of the languages in question will be functional and effective?

To answer those questions, this study will be conducted in one of the hyponyms of literature, which is the novel, at the level of macrostructures and microstructures, whose findings are expected to be reflective of other types and genres.

Moreover, the hypothesis which the research tests concerning those questions is that the macrostructures may affect the macrostructures due to translators' misuse of their choices, and mishandling of expressive possibilities which are offered by the languages they deal with.

1.1.5 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Comparative studies are used in many research fields, whether they are scientific, linguistic, or literary. The purpose of such studies is to suggest similarities and differences, and then be aware of phenomena that may occur among the parameters established.

This study is a multilingual comparative study; it describes textual macrostructures and microstructures of novels from three languages (Arabic, English, and French). Lambert and van Gorp (1985: 42- 53) consider Descriptive Translation Study as an effective means for determining theoretical and practical approaches to the degree of interaction of the source and target systems in literary translation. Teich (2001: 219) believes that translations are suitable data for multilingual studies because they can provide “contrastive-linguistic insights”. Enkvist (1978: 185) argues that “it is often said that contrastive text linguistics is still in its infancy”. He believes that its modelling strategy can be useful to “contrastive purposes and to the theoretical study and practical pursuit of translation.” Toury (1985) classifies translation comparative study into three categories: 1. comparative study of different target translations of one ST into one language, 2. comparative study on different phases, and 3. comparative study of one text into different languages. He writes:

One may compare several translations into one language done by different translators, either in the same period or in different periods of time...; or one may compare different phases in the establishment of one translation, in order to reconstruct the interplay of ‘acceptability’ and ‘adequacy’ during its genesis...; or, finally, several translations of what is assumed to be the same text into different languages, as an initial means of establishing the effects of different cultural, literary, and linguistic factors on the modelling of a translation.

(Toury, 1985: 24)

Due to the foci of this research, the third comparative approach will be utilized. This is because in terms of translation comparative studies people used to rely on the first and second approach due to multilingual barriers. But the choice of the third corresponds

also to the needs of this period of globalization in which translation modelling is needed for the effective transfer of knowledge and experience.

1.1.6 CORPUS

Corpus is a collection of written texts or a collection of spoken material used for linguistic investigation in terms of structures and frequencies. However, translation corpus-based study has been taking different shapes from corpus linguistics which began during the 1960s. It has become data source for Descriptive Translation Study.

McEnery and Wilson (2001: 158) state that corpora are suitable materials for language engineering and machine translation. They are excellent sources for quantitative data and linguistic knowledge. Sager (1990) points out that most of the corpora studies are monolingual and do cater for the needs of linguists. However, traductologists may need data from corpora from more than one language to serve their purpose. Therefore, in translation, corpora can be categorized into (a) monolingual, (b) bilingual, and (c) multilingual (Laviosa, 2002). It is defined as far as translation is concerned as follows:

A corpus is generally referred to as either a collection of texts or a collection of pieces of language. Both definitions express an important feature of a corpus, namely that it is a sample of texts, either full running texts or text extracts, assembled according to explicit design criteria.

(Laviosa, 2002: 33)

In addition, Kenny (1998: 50-52) discusses that corpora in translation have been so far categorized by Mona Baker into parallel corpus (to provide translational behaviour of lexes and structures in terms of language pair relationships) , multilingual corpus (to provide contrastive lexical information) , and comparable corpus (to provide information of specific features occurrences that may stand as translation universals). The demand of translation studies for corpora reflects the “new ways of looking at

corpora, just as corpora are already leading to new ways of looking at translation” (*ibid*, 53).

Baker (2000) highlights the importance of translation corpus-based study in electronic process for discovering data on the range of style in literary translation. Moreover, Baker (1996: 175-185) points out that corpora in descriptive translation studies is a basic source for discovering translation phenomena in terms of simplification (making the text easy to understand), explicitation (explanation), normalization and conservatism (target language standardization bias or exaggeration), and levelling out (balance between SL and TL). She believes that the foci of corpora in translation go beyond the linguistic ones which are based on frequency lists and concordances. She writes:

Translation scholars are ultimately not interested in the words or syntactic structures themselves. What they are interested in are abstract, global notions such as explicitation and simplification, which are independent of specific languages and have various manifestations on the surface.

(Baker, 1996: 185)

Based on the above theories concerning corpus-based translation studies, this study opts for the novel as its corpus. It is chosen for its literary quality, and for convenience in that it can be reflective of other genres, be they literary or non-literary. Being a multilingual comparative study, the corpus is composed of two novels written in Arabic as ST. The first is entitled زقاق المدق (Zukāk el- Midaq) by Naguib Mahfouz (1947). The translations are entitled (1) Midaq Alley and (2) Passage des Miracles. The second is entitled موسم الحجرة إلى الشمال by Tayeb Salih; the translations are entitled (1) Season of Migration to the North, and (2) Saison de la Migration vers le Nord. A full description of the corpus and its justification is given in the methodology section.

1.1.7 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This multilingual comparative study is a case study. It will be carried out in the novel taken as corpus in order to compare the occurrences of the macrostructures and microstructures. Being a multilingual comparative study and due to time constraints, and availability of translations, the study limits itself to two original novels and four translations. The entire novels are studied, but some excerpts reflecting the problems of the macrostructures and the microstructures will be selected in the ST and TTs respectively. Macrostructures of any text, according to van Dijk (1981), Garcia-Berrio, and Majordomo (1987) deal with the global semantic and pragmatic aspects of the text. They range over phonological, graphological, lexicogrammatical sentences and propositions, and speech acts; the microstructures deal with linguistic aspects that provide information to the macrostructures.

Owing to the wide range of both macrostructures and microstructures, and the foci of the study, this study limits itself to semantic textual metatexts, macrostructures and specific linguistic microstructures, and systemic context. Mounin (1959: 51- 52) discusses that the study of linguistic aspects is very important in translation because they lead to the understanding of the non-linguistic aspects. Being a qualitative study, it, therefore, limits itself to aspects of the macrostructures and microstructures of the texts under study, which are conceived to be problematic in translation. It limits itself also to certain languages, Arabic, English, and French.

1.1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is intended to (a) help professional translators, interpreters, translation students, and language learners know more about the occurrence of some language phenomena of the languages understudy in translation so that they can be aware of them in decision making, (b) elucidate more to linguists and translato

the effectiveness of descriptive multilingual comparative study in the study of translation in the Arabic language, English language, and French language, and (c) contribute a model of translation to the translation field.

1.1.9 ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

This thesis is organized to contain six chapters. Chapter 1 is a preliminary discussion, which discusses and elaborates the following headings: (1) background, which elucidates the topic and its relation, importance, position in translation, as well as its motivation; (2) the rationale of the study, and the problems, ; (3) the objectives; (4) the research questions, and hypothesis; (5) the scope of the study, it determines the kind of comparative study to be conducted; (6) the corpus of the study, it specifies the texts to be used in the research; (7) the limitation of the study, it limits itself to the macrostructures and specific semantic microstructures; (8) the significance of the study; (9) the organization of the study, it comprises the organization of six chapters; (10) historical background of languages understudy, i.e. Arabic, English, and French; and (11) language problems in the translating process from Arabic into English and French.

Chapter 2 contains a review of related literature on language, linguistics, translation, descriptive translation studies (DTS), literary translation, culture, and translation procedures. Chapter 3 embodies the theoretical framework and methodology. Chapter 4 analyses زقاق المدق (*Midaq Alley*, *Passage des Miracles*). Chapter 5 analyses موسم الحجرة إلى الشمال (*Season of Migration to the North*, *Saison de la Migration Vers le Nord*). Finally, chapter 6 concludes the research, and gives some recommendations for further research relative to the research topic.

1.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF LANGUAGES UNDER STUDY

This section discusses the historical background of the languages under study, Arabic, English, and French. Arabic is a member of the Semitic languages family, which embodies Afro-Asiatic languages. The word Semitic comes from Shem, presumed ancestor of this language family (Berry, 2001: 541-545). English and French are two members of the Indo-European languages family. It originated from Proto-Indo European, a language thought to be spoken about 3000 B. C. (Lehmann, 2001: 72). The following figures illustrate more their member families and origins.

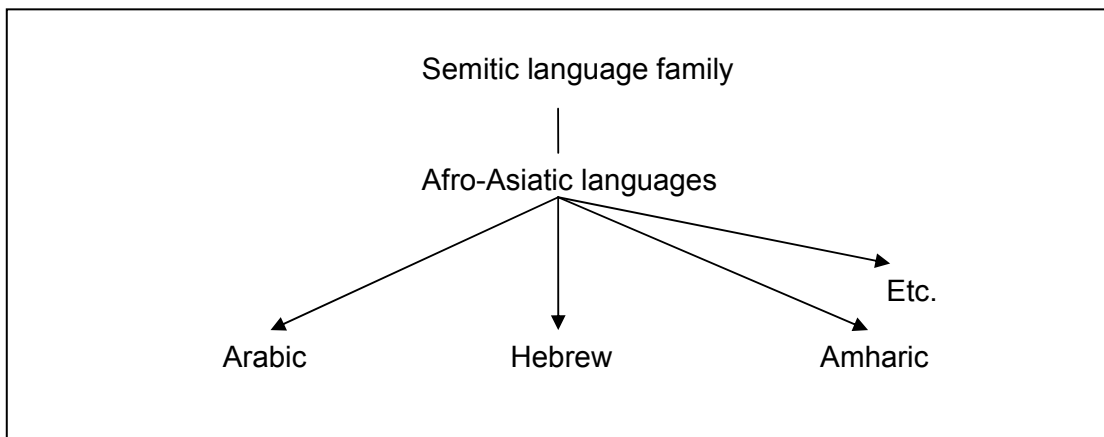
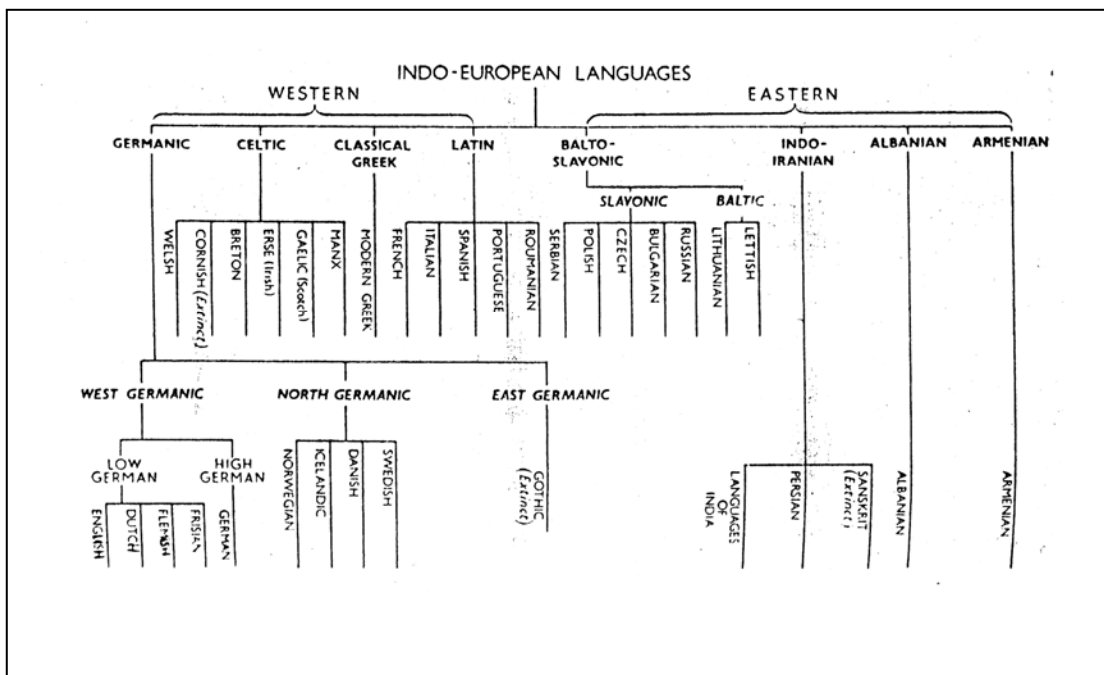


Figure 1.1 Semitic language family



(Eckersley and Eckerseley, 1960: 432)

Figure 1.2 Indo-European languages

1.2.1 ARABIC LANGUAGE

Arabic is a Semitic language; it was used in both south and north of Arabia. It has become the lingua franca of Muslims, and official language of the Arab countries since the 7th century thanks to a decree from the Umayyad Caliph Abd al-Malik ibn Marwān who reigned between 685 to 705 A. D. (Baker, 1998).

Chejne (1969) points out that the Arabic language has undergone four periods. The first period is the pre- Islamic period (500- 661 AD) whereby Arabic was a spoken language rich of oral literature, and the early Islamic period whereby writing was in vogue. During the period (610- 632) the powerful, holy and literary book, the Koran came into being. Its value promotes its universality. The second period is (661- 1258), which takes place during the Ummayad and Abbassids rules. In this period Arabic becomes the religious and official language of the above-mentioned empires. The third period (1258- 1800) is a period of decline wherein Arabic disintegrates into many dialects due to the negligence of the Turkish empire ruling in this long period, which officializes and encourages the Turkish language instead of the Arabic language. The fourth period is the period that comes after (1800); it is characterized by awakening, revival, and nationalism, which make Arabic the official language of twenty countries. Goldziher(1966: 2-5) states that the spread of Arabic into other places and countries brings about many dialects, for example Iraqi, Syrian, Egyptian, and Maghreb Arabic. Nevertheless, due to the Koran those dialects could not affect its purity or divide it into different languages as the case with the Latin. It enriched many languages like Persian, Urdu, Altaic, Turkic, Malay, Houssa, Swahili, and others. It is still the universal language of Muslims all over the world.

Burlot (1990) states that the appearance of Islam in the 6th century has played double roles in that its believers spread that religion and Arabic language to many places. The poet of the Arabic language was highly respected and considered as the spokesman of his tribe. Soon the Arabic language becomes the language of expression of the intellectuals who feel very proud of it like Al Khwarizmi, Ibn Sina, etc. in the Abbasid Period. He writes:

La culture arabo-musulmane est vraiment née au cours des premiers siècles abbassides. Elle résulte de la fusion à Bagdad du fond arabe avec les cultures grecque, persane et indienne. C'est d'ailleurs la composante persane qui domine. Mais tout le monde, les auteurs de toutes les ethnies et de toutes les confessions, s'expriment en arabe.

Burlot (1990:111)

In addition, Chejne (1969: 3- 13) mentions that Arabic is one of the major languages of the world like Greek, Latin, French, English, Spanish and Russian. Its rich literary heritage that dates back to the middle ages until the modern age has given it an undeniable universality. Muslims and Arabs consider Arabic as “a God-given language, unique in beauty and majesty.” Moreover, the longevity of classical Arabic is due to the Koran which makes it remain unchanged or branching out into many languages as was the case with Latin. Arabic has become a unifying factor for Muslims in one hand and Arabs on the other hand. They believe that Arabic is the mother of all languages, the language of the Koran and prophet, and the language of the people of Paradise. Moreover, it enjoyed, in the past, a wider range of internationality through the Islamisation process. That is, the spread of Islam contributed to the spread of Arabic language in Africa, Asian, and Europe in the past. It had replaced some languages like hieroglyphic in Egypt, African languages in the Sudan, etc. Apart from that, Arabic is the language of Christian Arabs who, like the Muslims, consider it as an eloquent and communicative language. They also contribute much to its survival, and are proud of it. It has brought about the idea of Arabism. Sharabi (1970: 18) writes:

What this Christian-inspired feeling demonstrated with increasing clarity was that a common religion did not necessarily make for a common destiny, that Arabism expressed interests and loyalties that went

beyond those of religion. Arabism stood opposed to Ottomanism and, by one remove, to pan-Islamism.

However, Arabic has undergone a setback caused by the emergence of European languages. It still imposes itself despite some linguistic problems emerging from internal and external pressures; past and present factors; and the ideal and the real. Its recent challenge is “to bridge the gap between past ideals and future needs” (ibid, p. 169- 175.)

The political revolution which took place in the Abbasid period has contributed to a linguistic revolution. The absolute Bedouin rule was replaced by urbanized elite of different classes, tribes, and non-Arabs, who took the lead in running the country. This political change paved the way to a new linguistic perspective and awareness. The oral literature was replaced by written literature, and descriptive Arabic grammar, analyzing and codifying the Arabic language following the Koran structure, syntax, and pronunciation, was introduced. Arabic then was not only considered the language of the Holy Koran and paradise, but also the language of science, communication, and vehicle of the Arabo-Islamic culture.

Owing to the preservation of the Koran from different readings and misinterpretation that could emerge from different dialects perspective in terms of words and meanings, it happened that the intellectuals marginalized those dialects in favour of the Arabic language which has become the official language in the Arab countries. The Koran then has become the source and touchstone of any language study or analysis. Beeston, Sergeant, and Smith (1983) write:

The strength of this normative attitude has prevented the Arab grammarians from accepting the concept of linguistic evolution and development. The grammatical principles worked out by the eighth-century grammarians are taken to be the only “correct” ones, and form the basis of language teaching in schools throughout the Arabic-speaking world at the present day.

(Beeston *et al.* 1983: 5)

Despite that aspect that hinders the Arabic language change, it has played a big role in unifying the Arab nations in terms of communication and culture. It has

become successful in stopping the emergence of dialects as official languages like what happened to Latin. Laroussi (2003) points out that Arabic language faces a serious challenge in its evolution as a technical technological language. That challenge is due to the lack of linguistic common reforms; discrepancy between writing and speaking in the Arab countries where “most people write and study in one language while speaking in another”; and the lack of a knack of Arabic technical terms use, which lie inert in dictionaries and specialised works.

Moreover, Arabic language is a language characterized by reluctance to borrow words. It scarcely, compared to other languages like English and French, borrows words from other languages. Instead, it has a tendency for *calque*. Beeston *et al.* (1983) points out that Arabic language is heavily influenced in terms of “scientific and imaginative writing.” It frequently depends on the use of *calques* concerning scientific and technical lexicons and *tourneures* from both English and French. It can be said that if the French person appears brilliant because of prolixity and the English person looks wise because of taciturnity, the Arab person appears brilliant because of powerful oral eloquence.

Patai (1973: 48- 59) states that Arabic language is a language that is characterized by rhetoricism, and that lead to exaggeration, overassertion, and repetition, which become natural aspects of any Arab individual from childhood. As far as rhetoricism is concerned, he writes:

Being conversant with several languages, I can attest from my own personal experience that no language I know comes even near to Arabic in its power of rhetoricism, in its ability to penetrate beneath and beyond intellectual comprehension directly to the emotions and make its impact upon them. In this respect, Arabic can be compared only to music. For speakers of English, the effect their language has on them is very different from that of great music. Yet the speakers of Arabic react to both language and music in a basically similar manner, except that their reaction to the language is probably deeper, more intense, and more emotional.

(Patai, 1973: 48)

For example:

Table 1.1 Arabic language

French	English	Arabic
A. <i>Bonjour! Salut!</i>	A. Good morning/day! Hi!	أ. السلام عليكم
B. <i>Bonjour! Salut!</i>	B. Good morning/day! Hi!	ب. و عليكم السلام و <u>رحمة الله وبركاته</u> .
A. <i>Bonjour! Salut!</i>	A. Good morning/day! Hi!	أ. نهاركم سعيد
B. <i>Bonjour! Salut!</i>	B. Good morning/day! Hi!	. ب. نهاركم سعيد و <u>مبارك</u> .
La discipline est un engagement pleinement conscient.	Discipline is a conscious commitment	الانضباط التزام مدرك <u>واع</u> .
Elle est brulante d'ardeur.	She is very enthusiastic	<u>انها</u> و <u>هاجة متلظية</u> .

Adapted from (Patai, 1970; and Hechaïme, 2002)

In the above Arabic text, the words, *رحمة الله وبركاته* and *ومبارك* are a kind of exaggeration in that they come to express more than what is necessary compared to the English and French texts. Also the word, *متلظية* and *واع* are repetitions because they are synonyms of the previous words, *مدرك* and *وهاجة*. The use of the *modus energicus*, *انها* in the beginning of the last sentence expresses over assertion. It literally means “behold, she is very enthusiastic.”

1.2.2 ENGLISH LANGUAGE

It is historically known that England underwent a lot of invasions by Britons, Romans, Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. The real aborigines are still unknown. Eckersley and Eckersely (1960) state that despite the fact that the Britons, who are found there by other invaders like the Romans, are also invaders. The prevalence of English, the language of the Angles invaders took place after the Romans had left in order to

defend Rome. The leaving of the Romans paved the way for the coming of other invaders like Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. Even though English is a hybrid language from different dialects and languages of the invaders, the dominant one, though few words like *ass*, *bin*, *London*, *Dover*, *York*, *Gloucester*, *Manchester*, etc. survived after the Britons' language, is the language of Angles to whom the language, English, and the country name, England refer.

However, Roberts (1967: 56- 61) discusses that survival of the English language despite the invasions that Britain underwent reflects the fact that the invaders came there as rulers and not as citizens, which made Latin and French the languages of the minority rulers and English the language of the powerless majority of the citizens. It has become, as Romaine (1992: 253- 260) points out, the language of human kind or globalization as it is studied and used as either a mother tongue, second language, or foreign language all over the world. She mentions that the growth and spread of English is due to (a) colonialism and economic hegemony; (b) the replacement of the indigenous languages of American Indians, the Celts, and the aborigines of Australia with English; (c) the lack of a common language among the various tribes and ethnics in many African countries which, to avoid linguistic ethnic favouritism feeling, opt for the use of English.

English as an Indo-European language, argue Eckersly and Eckersely (1960), has, in its evolution process, differentiated itself from the other Indo-European languages by getting rid of complicated grammatical aspects like gender, agreement, and subjunctive. Moreover, it has not characterized by a conservative attitude. It relies on borrowing to build up its own vocabulary (ibid). It, therefore, borrows from Latin, Greek, French, Arabic, etc. Eckersly and Eckersly write:

This borrowing has made English a rich language with a vocabulary of already about half a million words, and growing daily. It is this wealth of near-synonyms, which gives to English its power to express exactly the most subtle shades of meaning.
(Eckersley and eckersley, 1960: 432)

It is clear that the process of the quick evolution of the English language is due to annulment of complicated grammatical features and its openness in words borrowing. However, unlike other languages in the process of borrowing, English has a specific way of borrowing. It often borrows to enrich the word family of the basic English words, for example, 'dental', 'dentist'; and 'bovine' are borrowed to build up the vocabulary family of tooth and cow.

The hybridity of the English language occur due to the different tribes that invaded the country. The first language which was used in England was probably the Celtic language. It was followed, then, by Latin language of the Roman Empire. Moreover, some dialects brought by the Scandinavians, i.e. Jutes, Saxons, and Angles gained ground as the basis of the grammar and vocabulary of what is called today the English language. Old English is composed by those languages and dialects. The end of the Old English period underwent another foreign influence of the Normans' invasion under William the conqueror in 1066, who came from French province, Normandy. Their rule lasted 200 years. As they were Christians, absorbed the Roman culture, and spoke Norman French, a branch of Latin, they brought with them religious and linguistic influences on the English language and civilization. Linguistically, the Latin became the language of the Church; French became the language of the government, ruling class, and the aristocrats; and English had the status of a low class language (Baugh and Cable, 1951). Seaman (1982) argues that the Anglo-Saxons, who invaded England in the 5th century, were pagans, and their culture and languages which they brought to England, were related to Celtic culture.

Thus, it can be said that the hybridity of the English language reflects the symbiosis of those languages and culture, and borrowing from the above-mentioned languages and dialects, which made it a richer language in terms of vocabulary. It has become today the most practical, communicative, and scientific. Baugh and Cable write:

French and English are both languages of wider communication, and yet the changing positions of the two languages in international affairs during the past century illustrate the extent to which the status of a language depends on extralinguistic factors. It has been said that English is recurrently associated with practical and powerful pursuits.

(Baugh and Cable, 1993: 4)

It is argued, however, that globalization can affect the purity of English in that people tend to use simple and informal English (Hale, 2000: 52- 53). Furthermore, even though English has become a global language, it will be faced by few other languages that strive also to go global (Gradol, 1997: 58); but Maurais (2003: 20) believes that the internationality of English as a global language will last for a long time despite the fact that its hegemony is, to some extent, diminishing.

1.2.3 FRENCH LANGUAGE

France is the word that comes to replace the ancient name Gaule. The language that was used before the Roman conquest in the 1st and 2nd centuries B.C. was Gaulish which was a Celtic language. After the Roman conquest, and the invasion of the Germanic tribes known as Franks who were already romanized, the Gaulish language could not stand against the official and religious language of the Roman Empire, Latin. Modern French, therefore, owes its structures and a great deal of its vocabulary from Latin though it possesses several words from Celtic and Germanic origin (Ewert, 1933).

French grew up not of Classical Latin, but of Vulgar Latin. There were a lot of differences in terms of pronunciation in all branches of the *lingua Romana*, which made it split into distinct dialects. Among those dialects in France were the *langue d'oc* in the south, *langue d'oïl* in the north, and the dialect of *Ile de France*, *Francien* which progressively took the lead (Hare, 1968). Ewert mentions that the prevalence of the *Francien* dialect is due to its rich literary tradition compared to the other dialects. He writes:

Francien, as the recognized literary medium, drives the dialects out of literature and reduces them to the status of mere patois. It is even extended to the domain of the langue d'oc, which begins to furnish outstanding writers in the Northern idiom. Hand in hand with this extension in the field of literature goes the triumph of French over Latin in the chancelleries and in the royal administration generally.

(Ewert, 1933: 11)

French language developed from Latin, and so inherited its grammatical syntactical complexity. It has undergone three phases. The first phase is between the 9th and the 13th centuries; it is called Old French. The second phase is between the 14th and the 16th centuries; it is known as Middle French. The Modern phase began in the 17th century after the establishment of the French Academy by Cardinal Richelieu to preserve the purity and expressivity of the French language. It depends more on denotation and abstractness than connotation and concreteness (ibid). Moreover, the French people hold high the art of speech, *le bons mots*, *bel usage* and loquacity. In that perception, Steele writes:

Les Français adorent jouer avec leur langue: qu'ils soient écrivains, hommes politiques, chauffeurs de taxi, dialoguistes de films, enfants des cités de banlieue, humorists, passionnés de Scrabble ou de l'émission Le Mot le plus long, tous ont en commun la passion des mots.

(Steele, 2002: 136)

The French language is shared by many countries called francophone countries as either mother tongue, official language, or a foreign language. The francophone countries have made the French language politically and geographically the second language of wider international communication (ibid: 78). Nevertheless, although French is an international language, its use has been challenged by the wider spread and use of English language. Its use, therefore, is on the decline due to the poor economic status of the francophone countries in Africa where many people consider English as means to a better life, and the lack of a French government sustainable policy for the majority poor francophone masses (Chaudenson, 2003: 291-297).

All in all, unlike French and Arabic, it can be said that English is characterized by openness in terms of borrowing, and flexibility in terms of grammatical changes. Both French and Arabic are gender languages. However, Even though the French language is a prolix language it is not characterized by exaggeration, overassertion, and repetition aspects, compared to Arabic. Patai (1973: 181) states that the language that attracts Arabs more is French language; and that may hold some truth in terms of the art of speech.

1.3 THE LANGUAGES UNDER STUDY AND TRANSLATION PROBLEMS

In this section, prominent aspects concerning language and translatability are discussed. They are the devices that may pose some problems in terms of loss or gain in the languages under study. Givón (1978) elucidates that most of the problem of translation are not due to the expressive power or expressive inability of a given language, but due to the “complexity of constraints, involving syntactic structure, verb classification, case making, noun gender, agreement, and other factors,” which the translator has to deal with in terms of discourse equivalents. The following are aspects that are conceived to be problematic. They are discussed in terms of their translatability from the ST (Arabic) to the TLs (English, and French). These are word formation, nouns and pronouns, verbs, adjectives, conjunctions, adverbs, voices, cases, word order, *faux amis*, syntax, and peculiarities.

1.3.1 WORD FORMATION

Every language has its own way of building and structuring its words. Linguistically, languages depend on inflectional morphology and derivational morphology. Arabic language uses inflectional morphology, suffixes to indicate gender, and number, or both at the same time. These are *ين* - *ان* - *ين* - *ون* - *ات* - *ة* . Moreover,

Arabic depends mostly on building its word by derivation. Wright (1967) clarifies that nouns can be primitive like *بيت*, *بقرة*, *إنسان*, etc. or derivative which is categorized into denominative, i.e. formed from a noun like *مأسدة* (place full of lions) from *أسد* or deverbal, i.e. formed from a verb like *مكّنب* from *كتب*. For that reason, verbs can be primitive or derivative. The derivative verbs are derived from either the trilateral or the quadrilateral. The following are the paradigms that form and determine the literal and vocal features of the derived verbs:

أَفْعَالٌ XI.	تَفَاعَلٌ VI.	فَعَلَ I.
أَفْعُوْعَلٌ XII.	أَنْفَعَلَ VII.	فَعَّلَ II.
أَفْعُوْلٌ XIII.	أَفْتَعَلَ VIII.	فَاعَلَ III.
أَفْعَنْلَلٌ XIV.	أَفْعَلَ IX.	أَفْعَلَ IV.
أَفْعُنُلَى XV.	أَسْتَفْعَلَ X.	تَفَعَّلَ V.

Wright (1967: 29)

Nonetheless, English built its words by the use of compound nouns or derivation. The former deals with joining two words together; they form one word representing one meaning. The compound nouns girlfriend, bookcase, etc. consist of girl + friend, book + case. In this case they do not represent two entities; they represent only one entity. Linguistically, compound nouns do not have properties different from single words. Kuiper and Allan (1996) mention that compound lexemes are like simple lexemes in that they both have phonological, syntactic, and semantic properties. The latter deals with morphological prefixes or suffixes; they can be appropriate of the English language, or borrowed ones mostly from Latin language and Greek language. Morphemes like –able, –en, –ful, –ly, –y, –less, –ous, –al, –ize/ise, –ic, etc. are used to change the premier function of the word in terms of parts of speech into another. So the adjective ‘weak’ can be changed into a verb by suffixing –en to it, i.e. weaken. Others like arch-, geo-, homo-, –neo, –ultra, –vice, –ess, –ule are used to add more significance to the original words like archbishop, geometry, etc.

Like English language French language builds its words by the use of compound nouns and derivation. Ewert (1933: 316- 18) argues that compound words can be formed by noun + noun, noun + adjective, possessive pronoun + noun, adjective + adjective, and noun + preposition + noun, verb + noun, and compounds made of phrases. What indicates their compounding is the meaning and accentuation, for example: *Chou-fleur/chef-lieu/commis- voyageur*, etc.; *gentilhomme/basse-cour/bonjour/amour-propre/fait divers*, etc., *madame/monseigneur/Notre-dame*, etc.; *clair-obscur/ gris-pommel /ivre-mort*, etc.; *chef-d'oeuvre/bo te aux lettres/arc-en-ciel/licence es lettres*, etc.; *cache-nez/garde-manger*, etc.; and *comme il faut/ (des) on dit/ (le) qu'en dira-t-on/ (un) sauve qui peut/ (un) je ne sais quoi*, etc.

Moreover, like English, French uses morphological affixes like *-aille(trouvaille)*, *-eur (grandeur)*, *-oyer (foudroyer)*, etc. to change word functions in terms of parts of speech. *Trouvaille* is a noun derived from the verb *trouver*, *grandeur* is a noun derived from the adjective *grand*, and *foudroyer* is a verb derived from the noun *foudre*. Others are formed by affixes of Latin and Greek origins, for example:

Ante - / anti- (ant deluvien/ antidater), *amphi-(amphith atre)*, *mane-/manie-manemanie (coca nomanie/ bibliomanie)*, *t l -(t l vision)*, etc. These are used to expand or add extra meanings to the original words. Grevice (1969: 75) states that the richness of the French language is due to its process of derivation and word formation rather than borrowing. Thus, a lack of good knowledge of word formation can affect the range of word choice in the translation process, and it can also break the bond between the words and the things, ideas, and states they represent, which will bring about mistranslation.

1.3.2 NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

Nouns in Arabic, English, and French are of two kinds, primitive (substantive) and derivative. The following table illustrates more:

Table 1.2 Nouns

Substantive	Derivative	Language
كرسيّ	مكتبة (كتب)	Arabic
Tree	Prehistory (history)	English
<i>Montre</i>	<i>Fourberie (fourbe)</i>	French

Pronouns or pronominals are used to refer to nouns or simply to replace them. They can be personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, reflexive, indefinite, and relative.

In Arabic pronouns can be either separate from the verb or bound to the verb, the following table exemplifies more:

Table 1.3 Personal pronouns

French	English	Arabic
<i>Tu es sage.</i>	<u>You</u> are wise.	أنتِ عاقل.
<i>Tu es allé au marchet.</i>	<u>You</u> went to the market.	ذهبتِ إلى السوق.
<i>Tu t'assois sur la chaise.</i>	<u>You</u> sit on the chair.	تجلس على الكرسيّ.
<i>L'enfant t'a frappé.</i>	The boy beat <u>you</u> .	ضربكِ الولد.

Possessive and reflexive pronouns are only bound, e.g. هذا القلم لكِ؛ هذا قلمكِ (This is your pen; this pen is yours. *C'est ton stylo; ce stylo est le tien*). Yet, demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite, and relative pronouns are separate, for example: