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Arabic/English Translation of Cohesive Devices in the United Nations Texts:

A Corpus-based Study

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and the English Language for the Degree of 'DOCTORAT LMD' in Applied Linguistics and Applied Language Studies

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to my beloved parents who have always surrounded me with love and sacrifices. Without their kindest support and everlasting encouragements none of my achievements would have been possible.

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"وما توفيقي إلا بالله عليه توكلت وإليه أنيب" (هود:88)

"And my guidance cannot come except from Allah, in Him I trust and unto Him I repent".

(The Holy Qur'an, 11:88, translated by Khan & Al-Hilali)

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Abstract

This study examines the use of the cohesive devices in an Arabic/English parallel corpus of the United Nations texts and compares and contrasts them to identify cohesion shifts in the English translations, to justify their occurrences and to find out how they are interpreted as equivalents. Two research hypotheses are tested. The first one is that since each language employs its own cohesive devices, English and Arabic would reveal differences in both their types and the frequency of their use, which would considerably affect translation. The second one is that because Arabic and English belong to two different language families, many differences would appear in translation. Therefore, shifts of Arabic cohesive devices would occur. These shifts would probably be due to the translators' intention to meet the accuracy, transparency and formality of the UN texts. With the help of corpus linguistics, a quantitative method and a qualitative descriptive one are employed to demonstrate the extent to which source language norms influence the use of cohesive devices in translation and to describe the accuracy of the translation of these devices and how translators cope with the differences. Findings reveal that Arabic and English have more similarities than differences in terms of the cohesive devices used but there are significant differences in the frequency of their occurrence. The similarities are significantly preserved for the purpose of accurateness, transparency and formality that characterise the language of legal texts. The results also show that English translated texts have a major tendency towards both explicitation and implicitation. This is demonstrated in the occurrence of three types of shifts, namely addition, omission and substitution of the cohesive devices used. Some extracts from the Parallel Corpus of the United Nations Texts are used for the purpose of designing Data-driven Learning activities in translation classes.

Keywords: cohesive devices; Arabic/English translation; contrastive studies; parallel corpus.

List of Abbreviations

AntConc: Anthony Concordancer

AntPConc: Anthony Parallel Concordancer

AUNTs: Arabic United Nations Texts

CD: Cohesive Devices

CL: Contrastive Linguistics

DDL: Data-driven Learning

EUNTs: English United Nations Texts

GA: General Assembly

KWIC: Key Word in Context

PCUNTs: Parallel Corpus of the United Nations Texts

SC: Security Council

SPSS: Software Package for Social Sciences

ST: Source Text

TC: Tertium Comparationis

TS: Translation Studies

TT: Target Text

UN: United Nations

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Transliteration Symbols

The adopted transcription of Arabic pronunciation is the one used by Al-Qahtani (2004).

Consonantal Symbols

Arabic Alphabet	Symbols	Arabic Alphabet	Symbols
ء	ʔ	ض	.d
ب	b	ط	.t
ت	t	ظ	ð.
ث	θ	ع	ʕ
ج	ʒ	غ	ĝ
ح	.h	ف	f
خ	χ	ق	q
د	d	ك	k
ذ	ð	ل	l
ر	r	م	m
ز	z	ن	n
س	s	ه	h
ش	ʃ	و	w
ص	.s	ي	j
Shadda ّ	Geminate consonants	The definite article الـ	al-

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Vocalic Symbols

Vowels		Symbols
Short	◌َ	a
	◌ُ	u
	◌ِ	i
Long	ا	a:
	و	u:
	ي	i:

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Chapter IV: Methodology of the Study

General Introduction

This thesis attempts to explore the use of cohesive devices in an Arabic/English parallel corpus of the United Nations texts, with a view to discussing the differences and similarities between these devices and examining their possible effects on the translation product. On the basis of the corpus evidence and the help of discourse analysis, the study compares and contrasts the use of these devices in the two languages and examines the possible shifts of these patterns in the translated texts. In so doing, the study sets out to heighten awareness of the vital role that these devices play in the teaching of discourse cohesion in translation classes.

1. Rationale of the Study

Cohesive devices are considered as an essential prerequisite for text unity. They are important elements of textuality that distinguish a text from a non-text, and connect the sentences to each other both grammatically and lexically. The analysis of these devices in this thesis is based on the model of cohesion suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

The important role of cohesive devices in organising the linguistic elements into unified texts became very pertinent to the study of translation. As a result of the application of discourse analysis and text-linguistics theories on translation studies, cohesion of texts was introduced and naturally became one major subject of text translation. Newmark (1987: 295) pointed out that "the topic of cohesion has always been considered as the most useful constituent of Discourse Analysis or Text Analysis applicable to translation". Henceforth, this growing interest fostered many researchers, such as Baker (1992), Hatim and Mason (1990) and Blum-Kulka (1986) to scrutinise aspects of cohesion in translation.

During the process of translation, it is inevitably important to add or to omit parts of the target text in order to maintain its cohesiveness; such changes occur as a result of the decisions translators take in order to narrow the gap between the two languages involved. They are in fact consequences of the translators' efforts to establish textual equivalence between the two languages. These patterns of change are known as shifts of cohesion that help translators create accurate and natural translation products.

The analysis of shifts of cohesion in translation is carried out in this study in the light of the explicitation hypothesis suggested by Blum-Kulka (1986). Explicitation, which is considered as one distinctive feature of the translated text per se, is achieved as a result of the tendency for translated texts to be more explicit than their source texts. According to many researchers, namely, Toury (1995) and Baker (1993), explicitation and other features such as normalisation, simplification and levelling out are presented as *translation universal*, as the process of translation exhibit features that are translation-specific patterns. They are particularly "the linguistic features that are, intuitively, considered common to all types of translated texts, regardless of the source or target languages involved in the translation" (Baker, 1993:243).

The investigation of this topic within the translation framework is carried out for a couple of reasons: First, the distribution and frequency of cohesive devices require further examination with computer tools and large corpora that the field of corpus linguistics has made feasible. Second, this study is an attempt to describe the role of cohesive devices in a specific type of texts, the UN texts, across two languages and their relevance in translation. In fact, this topic has been slightly neglected in the area of legal discourse.

Such investigation is believed to provide new insights into the use of cohesive devices, and may contribute to the contrastive study of Arabic and English, which is particularly necessary for the analysis of cohesion shifts in the translated texts. Therefore, it would be possible that the contrastive analysis together with the analysis of shifts of cohesion can benefit the teaching and learning of cohesive devices in translation classes. These two types of analysis illuminate the differences between Arabic and English UN texts with regard to the use of these devices and explain the reasons of their occurrences in the translated texts. In this view, the study suggests, on the one hand, a methodology for examining the behaviour of cohesive devices across the two languages, and, on the other hand, tests the validity of the explicitation hypothesis in the translated texts.

2. Statement of the Problem

Many translators may find themselves faced with texts containing a sequence of grammatical sentences but not necessarily a cohesive one. Consequently, they may be inclined to overuse some cohesive devices and underuse some others to reach textual harmony. This may be due to their insufficient knowledge about the significant role of cohesion in translation, or because of their assumption that translators do not need to learn about these patterns since they come naturally. That is why, it is necessary that translators should be aware of the use of cohesive devices in both the source and target language, in order to be able to make the suitable cohesion changes in the translated texts.

Moreover, the differences between Arabic and English cohesive devices are likely to pose challenges for novice translators and students of translation. Although these devices are semantically and logically similar, the Arabic ones differ significantly from the English ones.

In fact, the differences are said to be due to the stylistic preferences in terms of use and amount of cohesive devices that exist between the source texts and the target ones.

Furthermore, it is essential to be aware that the differences between cohesive devices are not only due to language specificities but also a result of text-type norms. For this reason, when translating specific text types, some modifications in the categories of cohesive devices employed in texts as well as their distributions are predictably made by translators. That is to say, since translated texts are generally supposed to be clear and natural and should look as if originally written by natives, it is necessary to guarantee that the types of the source text's cohesive devices as well as their distribution should be adjusted to the target language preferences and text types.

In this view, and in an attempt to produce accurate texts, translators would make it possible to achieve the closest natural textual equivalence, and thus, make sure that texts are well formed, i.e. they are both cohesive and coherent. Accordingly, when translators tend to cope with the differences by adjusting cohesive devices existing in the source text, in order to fit the organisation of the target texts, these adjustments result in shifts of cohesion in the translated texts.

3. Aims of the Study

In an effort to carry out a corpus-based investigation of textual cohesion, the study aims to observe variation in the way both languages (Arabic and English) make use of cohesive devices to signal cohesion relations and to shed light on the semantic implications resulting from translation in this area. It also attempts to examine the occurring patterns of shifts of cohesion in the translation product, and consequently, uncover the distinctive features of translated texts which are believed to be different from the source and target

language. Another goal of the study is to provide recommendations for translators and include some Data-driven Learning activities that exemplify how to incorporate the development of discourse competence, in this case aspects of cohesion, in translation classes.

4. Research Questions

This research will attempt to answer the following questions:

a. Are there any significant differences in the frequency of occurrence of cohesive devices between Arabic and English in the Parallel Corpus of the United Nations Texts?

b. Do the differences between Arabic and English conventions affect the choice of cohesive devices in the translation of the United Nations texts?

c. When and why do translators shift the Arabic cohesive ties into English, and do these shifts establish equivalence at the discourse level in the target language?

d. How can the parallel corpus be used to design Data-driven Learning activities in translation classes?

5. Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses on which the present research is based are as follows:

First, since each language has its own cohesive devices and employs them following its rules, this includes the frequency of using such devices, English and Arabic would reveal differences in the types of cohesive devices and in the frequency of their use, which would considerably affect any attempt at converting a text from one language into another. Second, because Arabic and English belong to different language families, many considerable difficulties would appear when it comes to translation. Based on the latter hypothesis, shifts of

Arabic cohesive devices would occur instead of being preserved in English; they would most often succeed in establishing textual equivalence. These shifts would be motivated by the translators' correct interpretation of cohesive devices at the discourse level, since they intend to produce natural products that fulfil the accuracy, transparency and formality of the UN texts.

6. Research Method

This study makes use of quantitative and qualitative analyses of the use of cohesive devices in the Parallel Corpus of the United Nations Texts (PCUNTs). The study is based on a corpus-based approach combined with the manual analysis and the statistical analysis of data, which help to shed more light on these devices in the source and translated texts and to emphasise the importance of textual cohesion in translation.

With the help of computer tools, particularly, word frequency counts, concordance lines, and aligned texts, which have been greatly facilitated by the development of the software programmes, the corpus data are analysed both semantically and statistically. The Anthony Software Tools, including the Anthony Concordancer (AntConc) and the Anthony Parallel Concordancer (AntPconc), are used for the semantic analysis of data. The Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is used for the statistical analysis and the comparison of the two sub-corpora; it is employed to verify the significance of the obtained findings.

In fact, the study relies on samples of texts extracted from the United Nations' documentation and produced by legal drafters. The samples given in Arabic and English are extracted from a self-built unidirectional Parallel Corpus of the United Nations Texts (PCUNTs). The PCUNTs consists of two sub-corpora, the Arabic source texts, Arabic United Nations Texts (AUNTs) and their English translations, English United Nations Texts

(EUNTs). It encompasses a total of 40 texts, organised in an aligned paragraph pattern where the Arabic sub-corpus is established along with its translational counterpart in English. It consists of 9 General Assembly Resolutions and 11 Security Council Resolutions published over a period of three years (2011-2013)[1], and related to the most relevant events in the Middle East and North Africa, tackling mainly issues related to the crises in Syria, Iraq and Libya.

7. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis includes seven chapters:

Chapter one aims at shedding light on the important role of discourse cohesion in translation studies. It discusses and defines the main concepts related to discourse analysis, genre and text types and cohesion within the framework of translation. The chapter reviews more particularly, the topic of cohesion in English, as proposed in the seminal work of Halliday and Hasan (1976).

Chapter two presents a brief account of contrastive linguistics and translation studies, with special emphasis on more recent developments; it introduces some background knowledge about the influence of contrastive linguistics on translation studies. This chapter attempts to clarify how the emergence of computerised corpora has helped the two disciplines to converge and gain more ground than ever.

Chapter three is devoted to a contrastive study of cohesive devices in English and Arabic. It presents a detailed overview of the different categories of cohesive devices, in

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[1]The UN texts are available in the Document System of the United Nations: http://documents.un.org/

English, as suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976), and offers a discussion of these devices in Arabic using insights from Al-Jabr (1987), in addition to some other researchers.

Chapter four describes the corpus linguistics methods used in this thesis to analyse the translations of cohesive devices. The framework adopted for the study of cohesive devices, the tools, the data collection and the procedures employed are discussed in this chapter.

In chapter five, the obtained results of corpus analysis are analysed. The chapter deals with the semantic analysis of the data, covering descriptive statistics for cohesive devices as well as the significance testing for differences between the two sub-corpora.

Chapter six presents an interpretation of the results of the contrastive analysis of cohesive devices in the Arabic and English UN texts, and provides examples of shifts of cohesion that occurred in the translations of these texts, and ends with some conclusions as regards these shifts.

Finally, chapter seven is devoted to some pedagogical implications which bear on how to improve learning and teaching translation by including the cohesive and coherent dimensions of the source and target texts, using the Data-driven Learning approach. It also suggests some outlook for digging further in this scarcely investigated area.

Chapter I

Discourse Analysis, Cohesion and Translation

Chapter I: Discourse Analysis, Cohesion and Translation

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of literature that is relevant to studies of discourse cohesion in translation. It sheds light on the importance of textual cohesion in translation as one type written discourse. Newmark (1987) affirmed that cohesion had always been considered an important element in discourse analysis applications to translation. Therefore, the main concepts related to discourse analysis and cohesion within the framework of translation are investigated in this chapter. The chapter is divided into two main sections: The first section presents an overview of text linguistics and discourse analysis particularly the concepts of genre and text types. The second section describes the aspects of cohesion in English, as proposed Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). Moreover, cohesion is examined in a translation framework.

I.1. Discourse Analysis

This section reviews some of the key terms that are relevant to the study of discourse analysis. It relates a brief history of the theory of discourse analysis and its development throughout the last decades. It highlight's the distinction between *discourse* and *text*, examines the contextual and textual features governing any piece of discourse, and presents the notions of genre and text types, as they are crucial to the study of legal discourse, the one used in the corpus, and translation studies. Finally, it highlights the significance of text as the basic unit of discourse analysis and translation studies, and the relevance of discourse analysis to translation studies.

I.1.1. Discourse Analysis: Origins and Development

In what follows is a brief account of the origins of discourse analysis and its development throughout the last decades. Some of it is based on the sketches of discourse development by VanDijk (1985) and Cook (2011).

I.1.1.1 Early Beginnings of Discourse Analysis

The origins of discourse analysis date back to the study of language, public speech, and literature more than 2000 years ago. The focus on longer stretches of languages and their correlation to specific communicative situations was typically directed by means of classical rhetoric studies. This main historical foundation, i.e. *rhetoric* or the art of good speaking, anticipated modern stylistics and structural analyses of discourse. Therefore, the central point of ancient rhetoric lies mainly on *Oratory* and convincing features of language. Although *rhetoric* lost much of its importance in the academic linguistic settings, many of its classifications and approaches appear today both in newspapers and stylistics. However, concurrently to the deterioration of rhetoric, new improvements in numerous fields of humanities took place. That would in the long run prompt the development of discourse analysis (Van Dijk, 1985).

As a matter of fact, the twentieth century saw important publications of linguistic studies, which might be considered the commencement of today's achievements in *text linguistics* and *discourse linguistics*. Russian Formalism was the very first branch of linguistics to introduce these approaches. During this phase, the young revolution in Russia witnessed interdisciplinary developments; parallel new ideas in anthropology and poetics emerged besides linguistics. For example, *Vladimir Propp*, a literary scholar and linguist, wrote his eminent and most influential book *Morphology of the Folktale;* in which he

explored the wonder tales of Russia, in terms of predetermined thematic functions and introducing variable subjects of different tales. His works, eventually, were important in swaying opinions about the structure and main components of any story (Van Dijk, 1985).

Harris (1952) was the first modern linguist to study the relations between sentences. He coined the term discourse analysis as the study of sentences in combination; that is why he is sometimes cited as one who made the earliest attempts at a supra-sentential analysis. He defined discourse analysis as "a method for the analysis of connected speech (or writing)" (ibid: 1); he viewed discourse as the study of "continuing descriptive linguistics beyond the limits of a single sentence at a time" and a study of "correlating 'culture' and language." (ibid: 2) However, his model reaped little evidence, mainly because semantic aspects were detached from formal structural units. Later on, discourse analysis was denoted as a branch of applied linguistics but not treated as a separate one. Harris suggested an extension of discourse analysis to grammatical examination which was somehow going back to syntactic investigations. Mitchell (1957) presented an innovative analysis from a more semantic outlook. Other linguists, e.g. Williams (1966), who did not necessarily use the term discourse analysis, have contributed to its historical development. For example, some transformational-generative (TG) grammarians have investigated aspects of discourse structure, although this theory has not freely afforded itself to the basic principles of discourse analysis (Reed, 1996).

It is worth prompting, here, that the study of discourse is not only the result of linguistic research, but also of other fields of investigation such as sociology, psychology, anthropology, rhetoric, literary studies, psycholinguistics, computational linguistics, and philosophical linguistics (Trappes-Lomax, 2004). That is to say, such disciplines influencing the development of discourse analysis arose only loosely related to linguistics. Firstly, the primary interests in systematic discourse analysis were basically a descriptive and structuralist

enterprise, mainly, at the boundaries of linguistics and anthropology. Yet, on both sides the interaction between structural linguistics and anthropology appeared to be very fruitful for the initial interest in the study of language use, discourse, and communication forms.

For example, in the 1920s the anthropologist Malinowski highlighted the outlook of *language* as *action* and coined it to the two terms *contexts of situation* and *contexts of culture,* which became, subsequently, fundamental to discourse analysis today. Malinowski's analyses of the communicative behaviour would later influence his younger student's views, Firth, the first professor of general linguistics in Britain. This latter modelled his view on Malinowski's outlook and maintained that the ultimate meaning of a message comes about only once it attached its importance to the context of situation. Halliday, who had a significant impact on theories of discourse analysis, inherited Firth's views of language and incorporated them into his interpretation of language and discourse; he (1961) developed the *systemic grammar,* a feature of the functional approach of linguistics, in which he scrutinised both the thematic organisation of sentences and the relations between sentences and discourse. This work motivated several studies at the borders of linguistics, stylistics, and poetics both by Halliday himself and by Leech and Crystal. In this way, not only discourse, style, forms of address and verbal art are investigated, but the social and cultural contexts and the variations of language use also came to be studied systematically (Van Dijk, 1985).

McCarthy (1991) put forward that discourse analysis took a more separate form, where the main discussions concentrated on its theoretical background and its application to actual texts. According to McCarthy (ibid: 6):

> In the 1960s and 1970s other scholars, that is philosophers of language or those dealing with pragmatics, enormously influenced the development of this study as well. Among other contributors to this field the Prague School of Linguists, whose focusing on organization of information in communicative products

indicated the connection of grammar and discourse, along with text grammarians are worth mentioning.

Eventually, this new and common attention in the diverse phenomena of language use, either texts or conversations, by different researchers of various fields such as anthropology, linguistics, psychology, sociology, etc. became more incorporated under the notion of discourse analysis in the1980s.

I.1.1.2. Modern Discourse Analysis: A New Discipline (1972-1974)

The early 1970s witnessed obvious and full collections of publications describing systematic discourse analysis as a new independent approach within and across a number of disciplines. This growth, however, did not arise alone. According to Van Dijk (1985:5), "Part of its theoretical and methodological inspiration was shared by other paradigm shifts in the study of language, for example, a critical extension or refutation of formal context-free transformational grammars."

Firstly, in the late 1960s, sociolinguistics began to take place and display how the main interest of linguistics shifted from the language formal account towards the significance of language variation in sociocultural contexts. For example, Fishman (1968) rejected concepts of *ideal speakers* and *homogeneous speech community,* and stressed the role of language variation and social context. Thus, in addition to investigating variations in phonology, morphology, and syntax on social factors, much consideration soon began to include the interdependence of discourse and sociolinguistics (Van Dijk, 1985).

Secondly, the major contribution to the development of sociolinguistics on discourse can be traced back to the philosophical work of Austin (1955 as cited in Van Dijk, 1985), in which he maintained that the concept of *speech-act theory* and the close relation between

language and action had as well deep outcomes on discourse analysis. Later on, in the 1970s, Grice and Searle scrutinised the role of speech acts. They believed that utterances are also forms of social action in addition to the classical grammatical concept of sentences. That is to say, sentences should assign additional meanings or functions, known as *illocutionary acts* defined in terms of speaker intentions, beliefs, evaluations, or relations between speaker and hearer. In this view, besides the systematic characteristics of the context to be accounted for, the social interaction can be elucidated here also (Van Dijk, 1985).

Thirdly, another important phase of discourse development as a separate discipline manifests itself within the framework of grammatical theory, in which the study of sentences in isolation was acutely questioned. Such arguments led to the development of *text grammar* generated in East and West Germany and other European countries, which is often identified as *text linguistics* or the study of *trans-sentential phenomena*. For example, the study of pronouns, cohesion markers, semantic coherence, presupposition, topic and comment, overall semantic macrostructures, and other typical features of texts understood as sequences of sentences, along with the study of the cognitive processing of textual units helped push the linguistic project beyond the confines of isolated sentences into a new integrated perspective. Early examples include Halliday and Hasan (1976), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Van Dijk & Kintsch (1983) and Van Dijk (1985).

Concurrently, in the late 1960s, "attention was turned to everyday social interaction and to common sense interpretation categories at the micro-level of social reality" (Van Dijk, 1985:7). During this phase, British and American scholars made significant involvements in the evolution of discourse analysis. In particular, their works mingled with speech act theory and conversation analysis and briskly unified their perceptions and categorisations.

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British researchers examined discourse from the perspective of the social functions of language. For example, the University of Birmingham funded research works based on systematic accounts of communication such as debates, interviews, doctor-patient relations; particularly, paying close attention to the intonation of participants in talks, as well as their comportments in specific circumstances. Some studies recommended well-construed speech events, such as classroom interaction, with particular grammatical models in mind. For instance, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) used a system of analysis based on Halliday's grammar (1961) to analyse teacher-pupil interaction in order to begin to answer such questions as how are successive utterances related? Who controls the discourse? How does he do it? How, if at all, do other participants take control? How do the roles of speaker and listener pass from one participant to another? How are new topics introduced and old ones ended? What linguistic evidence is there for discourse units larger than the utterance? …etc. (McCarthy, 1991).

At the same time, in America, researchers examined small groups of people and their discourse in real settings. Apart from that, they paid more attention to conversation analysis, examining narratives and talks, and inspecting the behaviour of speakers as well as patterns repeated in given situations. Moreover, Americans made significant contributions in discourse type's taxonomies, in addition to the social limitations of politeness and the description of speech acts theories (McCarthy, 1991).

In this respect, Van Dijk (1985:7) said:

This conversational analysis recalls the early structural and formal approaches to the structures of sentences and provides the first elements of a grammar of verbal interaction. Thus, not only was a new dialogical dimension added to the earlier monological studies of discourse structures, but also, a plea was made for the study of language and language use as a form of social interaction, as

pragmatics or speech act theory had done in more formal and philosophical terms.

Fourthly, the closing word of these early stages of modern discourse analysis can be summarised through discourse's constant move. Actually, the mid-1980s saw the publication, of the four-volume *Handbook of Discourse Analysis*, edited by Van Dijk (1985), in addition to new textbooks and monographs in the field, which are continuously being published: de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Brown and Yule (1983), Edmondson (1981), Enkvist (1975), Gumperz (1982), Grimes (1975), Hoey (1983), Longacre (1983), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), and Stubbs (1983). In the early 1990s, some of the more influential overviews included: Schiffrin (1994), Renkema (1993), Nunan (1993), Maingueneau (1991), and Cook (1989) (Östman & Virtanen, 2011).

Finally, despite such ties to the past, modern discourse analysts generally look to this century for the original architects of the theory. We conclude, here, with some researchers' standpoints about discourse development: Gleason (1968 in Reed, 1996) stated that discourse analysis is indeed perfectly getting on the move. There are as yet very few fixed practical results. But later, Stubbs (1983:12) claimed that "no one is in a position to write a comprehensive account of discourse analysis. The subject is at once too vast and too lacking in focus and consensuses…anything at all that is written on discourse analysis is partial and controversial." Tannen (1990:410 in Reed, 1996) acknowledged that discourse analysis "may seem almost dismayingly diverse"; but she advocated that "an attitude of Catholicism toward the necessary diversity of the field" is a strength of discourse analysis theoreticians. Moreover, Schiffrin (1994) acknowledged the interdisciplinary variety of the field, though she revealed that there are now theoretical limitations which characterise much of discourse analysis. According to her (1987:1) "discourse analysis is a vast and ambiguous field."

I.1.2. Discourse Analysis and Text Linguistics

Discourse analysis is both an old and a new discipline. Originally, the use of the word discourse arose from the Latin *discursus*, which signified written and spoken communications; it referred to the study of everyday meaning as "an extended public treatment or discussion of a subject in speech or writing". Nowadays, the term discourse refers to "'naturally occurring language use' and 'meaningful language use in context'." (Malmkjær, 2010: 133). Concerning terminology, discourse analysis took various definitions and occasionally very deep meanings since it was first introduced to modern science, particularly, since the publication of Harris's paper (1952). That is why developing a suitable analytical background from its varied and multiple meanings is a difficult task. In this chapter, only discourse from the point of view of applied linguistics is explained.

Text-linguistics is a branch of linguistics interested in the study of texts as a communicative system. As such, the investigation of texts skipped from merely going beyond extension of traditional grammar towards an entire text. The first steps of evolution go back to the 1976 Summer Meeting of The Societas Linguistica Europaea, where interdisciplinary co-operations had been taken into account, instead of what traditional linguistics had advocated. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) changed the perspectives of science of texts through digging for new methods and theories, instead of building mere extension of older methods to a new object of inquiry. At this point, linguistics shifted attention from sentence based analysis to text-linguistics, and special disciplines began to concentrate on larger units, other than sentence or intra-sentence relations.

According to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), the terms text-linguistics and text grammar refer to the same type of analysis, but, specifically that of written texts. However,

some linguists, e.g. Coulthard (1985) and Crystal (l987) reserve the term discourse solely for speech, while the term text for the written use of language. De Beaugrande (1990), later on, noted that the two terms are rarely distinguished. De Beaugrande put forward:

> Although 'text linguistics' and 'discourse analysis' originally emerged from different orientations, they have steadily converged in recent years until they are usually treated as the same enterprise.... An exception is the 'discourse analysis' is practiced by philosophers, cultural anthropologists, and literary scholars, especially in France, within such frameworks as post-structuralism, deconstruction, radical feminism, and so on, whose relationship to text linguistics has yet to be clarified (De Beaugrande, 1990: 11).

De Beaugrande (ibid.) further asserted that the term text-linguistics is quite restricted; broader terms such as *text studies*, *text science* and *textology* have been advocated. Discourse analysis, on the other hand, is generally the preferred term. However, both terms text-linguistics and discourse analysis are used throughout this chapter.

The definition of text and discourse among researchers seems to unveil significant differences, though, similarities do emerge as well. Because the terms text and discourse are used ambiguously and defined in different ways by different researchers, there is a strong need for a sharp distinction between the two terms to be highlighted.

In fact, researchers defined the two terms depending on their particular convictions and affiliations: structuralism, functionalism, and social interactionism. Some linguists, e.g. de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) use only one of the two terms, others, e.g. Stubbs (1996) and Salkie (1995) use both of them interchangeably, while generally most linguists, e.g. Coulthard (1985) and Crystal (l987) reveal clear differences between the two.

I.1.3. Discourse Analysis: Major Tenets

The following discussion explores three major areas of definition that can broadly be identified under structural, functional, and social interactional standpoints, as proposed by Schiffrin (1994) and Stubbs (1983).

Stubbs (1983) summarised the ambiguity of the term discourse analysis and offered a broader definition; stating that discourse analysis involves the study of a. *language use beyond the sentence boundaries*, b. *the correlation between language and society* and c. *the interactive properties of everyday communication*. Stubbs wrote the following:

> The term discourse analysis is very ambiguous. I will use it in this book to refer mainly to the linguistic analysis of *naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse*. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organisation of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study *larger linguistic units*, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with *language use in social contexts*, and in particular with *interaction* or dialogue between speakers (Stubbs, 1983: 1).

In a similar vein, Schiffrin (1994) suggested three main definitions of discourse, which are open to the interpretation of different approaches and reflected to different traditions between structuralist, functionalist, and social-interactionist tenets.

According to Schiffrin (1994), modern structural linguists defined discourse as language above the sentence or above the clause. The problem with this approach is that the units of speech do not look like sentences and are often not grammatically accurate. However, in substitution of structuralism trusts, the functionalist approach views discourse as the study of language in use, this approach emphasises on the multiple functions of language. The task of discourse analysis, here, is to investigate the functions of language and the way that language is used. This means that discourse analysis views discourse as a social phenomenon

rather than a purely linguistic one. On the other hand, the third tradition, which appears to be a kind of compromise, is a combination of both the structural and the functional description of language.

Schiffrin (1994: 39) put it as follows:

This view captures the idea that discourse is above (larger than) other units of language; however, by saying that utterance (rather than sentence) is a unit of which discourse is comprised, we can suggest that discourse arises not as a collection of decontextualized units of language structure but of inherently contextualized units of language use.

I.1.3.1. Discourse as more than a Sentence

Traditionally, studies in linguistics examined language at the sentence level, however, a remarkable shift towards the study of sentences in combination and their roles in building coherent passages of language was advocated, since the early fifties, particularly, since the publication of Harris (1952). Since then, modern linguists have abandoned the long-lived idea that grammar is restricted to sentence boundaries, and regarded texts as wholes beyond the level of grammatical sentences. That is why, it can be said that the two terms text-linguistics and discourse analysis have emerged as a kind of reaction to traditional linguistics, which seemed to have reached an impasse. That is to say, the need for some new perspectives of analysis to deal with language use beyond the sentence level was advocated. As a result, and, based on a structural definition of discourse, discourse is viewed as a unit of language above the sentence level. According to Crystal (1992:25), discourse is "a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative." To Celce Murcia and Olshtain (2000: 4) "discourse analysis is minimally the study of language in use that extends beyond sentence boundaries."

I.1.3.2. Discourse as the Social Functions of Language Use

As a response to the formalist trusts in defining text and discourse, discourse analysts and text-linguists became more concerned with aspects of language use, i.e. taking the communicative-functional role of language into account. For Brown and Yule (1983: 4), "the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which are designed to serve in human affairs." In this manner, discourse analysts reiterated that discourse should be observed in social contexts and for social purposes. Therefore, the study of language use offers more depth into social communication and social actions in many areas. Language, then, is not constrained only to its complex rules and exceptions, but, it is used for specific functions. That is to say, people do share the linguistic features within their society, taking into account the broader cultural context and the shared knowledge of the group community.

I.1.3.3. Discourse as Utterance

Schiffrin (1994) established a more balanced approach to discourse. She suggested the *utterance based approach to discourse analysis*; it is a combination of both the formal and the functional description of language. She viewed discourse as *utterance* and suggested that "discourse arises not as a collection of decontextualized units of language structure but of inherently contextualized units of language use" (ibid: 39). She emphasised that the suitable approach to discourse analysis is "to examine structure in the light of functional requirement and function in the light of structural requirement" (ibid: 361). From this perspective, the aims for discourse analysis are not only syntactic but also semantic and pragmatic.

In view of the previous discussion, it might be argued that the main aspects of discourse depend strongly on three main approaches: *structuralism*, *functionalism* and *social interactionism*. They are demonstrated as communicative events, contexts, social interactions, and functions, which underlie the linguistic units beyond the sentence level. Hence, discourse analysis takes account of both the language form and the language function and comprises communication as well, which is elucidated through the various linguistic devices. Therefore, in order to determine the nature of discourse, other factors should be taken into consideration. Features of context, textuality and cohesion are basically required for text definition.

I.1.4. Text and Context in Discourse Analysis

It is well known that any passage of language is considered a text whenever it is related to a specific context. Widdowson (2004) asserted that the interpretation of text is particularly founded on the relationships between text and context; otherwise misinterpretation will arise when contextual connections do not occur. Thus, the fusion of both text and context is very important for the accurate interpretation of texts.

According to Brown and Yule (1983:25), "Here we simply remark that in recent years the idea that a linguistic string (a sentence) can be fully analysed without taking 'context' into account has been seriously questioned." Cook (1989) believed that it is impossible to give a piece of discourse its unity without considering the world at large, *context*, i.e. our knowledge of the world outside language. Therefore, the contextual properties of language must be incorporated.

To further explain, texts cannot be significant when they are examined separately; it is only through their interconnection with other texts, the different discourse in which they draw, and the nature of their production that they are made meaningful. Widdowson (2007) asserted

that language is part of people's everyday life; it is not separate but, indeed, very essential for communication. In normal situations, language is not just displayed aimlessly, but it is used to shape peoples' internal thoughts and to communicate their purposes. Doubtlessly, producing language in dissociation from these natural circumstances is very difficult to attain.

Therefore, in order to understand the communicative events and comprehend how messages are appropriately interpreted, context must be taken into consideration. The context, here, may be the internal relations within the text, the situation, the culture, the society, the interactions between participants and their realisation of paralinguistic features. Schiffrin (1994) argued that context is a world filled with people producing utterances. The people here refer to one with "social, cultural, and personal identities, knowledge, beliefs, goals and wants, and who interact with one another in various socially and culturally defined situations" (ibid: 363).

It is worth mentioning that linguistic and situational contexts are very important for text comprehension. According to Widdowson (2007), *linguistic context* or *co-text* is the internal relations that link the linguistic components (words or sentences) with each other within a text, whereas, *situational context* or the *context of situation* is the actual circumstances of time and place in which language use is situated. It is clearly difficult for speakers or writers to formulate their apposition out of its situational context.

Another crucial belief of discourse analysis is that language is always analysed in its social context. Discourse analysts go to emphasise that the social contexts of a text usually work with naturally occurring data. According to Van Dijk (1997:8), "when we speak or write, we seldom do so by accident; rather, we have a social purpose in mind." Taking up this

point, Schiffrin (1987: 416) clarified that "Data come from a speech community: data are about people using language, not linguists thinking about how people use language."

Moreover, *cultural context* in which discourse occurs and shared values between participants are strongly associated with the study of discourse analysis. Widdowson (2007:25), for example, wrote:

> Context can be thought of as knowledge of the world that text is used to refer to, but of the world as it is known by a particular group of people. And this has not only to do with what these different groups know about as matters of fact, but also with their distinctive way of thinking about these things.

In this sense, people will develop standards and conventions of speaking and writing, the discourse of a community, thus, will reveal the shared notions, or ideologies, of that community.

To put it simply, Crystal (1987:116) summarised the notion of context and mentioned that the common concern among discourse analysts is "to see language as a dynamic, social, interactive phenomenon-whether between speaker and listener, or writer and reader." He (ibid.) reiterated that discourse involves "the participants' beliefs and expectations, the knowledge they share about each other and about the world, and the situation in which they interact."

Therefore, it can be said that discourse analysis is a way of understanding social interactions, it is used in various senses to describe conventional ways of talking in society, and which form an organisation of repeated meanings. It combines the application of both text and context in language use and examines how texts are associated with specific contexts of situations, societies, cultures, and how they are denoted ideology.

From the above mentioned wide range of definitions suggested by various linguists and scholars, we can understand: in the study of language, the concepts of discourse and text, which embrace the focus of attention of discourse analysis and text-linguistics, have not been easily defined because of the broad variety of disciplines. Fairclough (1989) argued that the chief problem that makes the definition of discourse very ambiguous is the conflicting and overlapping descriptions of discourse which are formulated from various theoretical and disciplinary viewpoints. However, the most important and relevant definitions to this study are those provided by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981).

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 1), "a text is a unit of language in use", and since *text* is used in this study to refer to written language, it is, thus, referring to a *dynamic communicative event* (de Beaugrande, 1997: 10). de Beaugrande (ibid.) maintained that: "It is essential to view the **text** as a *communicative event wherein linguistic, cognitive, and social actions* converge, and not just as the sequence of words that were uttered or written", he differentiated between *text* and *discourse*, claiming that if *text* is defined as a communicative event, a *discourse* is seen as "a set of interconnected texts" (ibid: 21).

Moreover, Halliday and Hasan (1989) referred to *text* as language that is *functional*. That is to say, language that is doing some job in some context of situation; and texts could be of two mediums written or spoken, depending on the purpose of the study. They (ibid: 10) wrote:

> ….. [Text is] language that is functional. By functional we simply mean language that is doing some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences […]. So any instance of living language that is playing some part in a context of situation, we shall call it a text. It may be either spoken or written, or indeed in any other medium of expression that we like to think of.

Another definition describes *text* as a unified whole that has a communication meaning, but not merely a random collection of sentences. de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:63) defined it as "a naturally occurring manifestation of language, i.e. as a communicative language event in a context. The surface text is the set of expressions actually used; these expressions make some knowledge explicit, while other knowledge remains implicit, though still applied during processing."

I.1.5. Genre and Text-type

According to many researchers, e.g. Hoey (1991), Halliday (1985), Martin (1985), the organisation of discourse is usually approached from the stand point of *genre*[1] and *text-type*. Baker (1992:114) pointed out that both concepts concern "the way in which textual materials packaged by the writer along patterns familiar to the reader." In order to represent this type of *packaging*, texts have been classified in two main ways. The first classification refers to genre; "it is dependent on the contexts in which texts occur and results in institutionalized labels such as *journal article*, *science textbook*, *newspaper editorial*, or *travel brochure"* (ibid:114). The second classification refers to text-type; it is more subjective and less institutionalised, that is why, it is indeterminate. This type of classification comprises labels such as *narration*, *exposition*, *argumentation*, and *instruction*.

Because all text-types have their specific linguistic and organisational characteristics, genre analysts set out to investigate what makes these texts special, i.e. what makes a *newspaper editorial* a *newspaper editorial* or what makes a *science textbook* a *science textbook*. Swales (1990) considerably devoted attention to the study of genre, in which he

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[1]Genre is a set of texts, spoken or written, which are institutionalized in so far as they are considered by a given speech community to be of the same type, for example the genre of political speeches or the genre of editorials (Baker,1992:285).

examined the concept in various fields such as literature, linguistics and rhetoric. He (1990: 58) presented the following definition:

> A genre comprises a class of communicative events the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style.

The concepts of genre and text-type are crucial to discourse and translation studies; similar to writers working with various text types, translators also deal with different and specialised texts. We attempt in this study to combine two areas, which are slightly neglected, legal genre and aspects of cohesion. The corpus under study consists of original and translated texts from the United Nations documents. The textual genre chosen is named for the purpose of the present study as *legal translation,* as translation at the UN is a special genre of translational activity.

I.1.6. Discourse and Translation

As previously seen, the strong tendency of sentence-based approach to grammar was rejected with the emergence of discourse analysis, which has become a popular topic in linguistics. Instead of looking at sentences, the need for the study of whole texts with their structural and contextual features was advocated. This same belief has finally found its way into translation studies, where translators began to utilise texts in both practice and theory of translations, and, as a result, has led to the expansion of unit of translation into being the whole text.

I.1.6.1. The Basic Unit of Discourse Analysis and Translation

In fact, the theoretical concept of unit of translation has witnessed controversial points of view in recent years, as it goes back to the conflict between *free* and *literal translation*. A number of translation theoreticians, e.g. Newmark (1987), considered text, the base of discourse analysis, as a unit of translation, while others preferred the sentence. Originally, the orientation of *free* translation has always focused on the sentence and "aims at capturing the sense of a longer stretch of language", while *literal* translation "is much focused on individual words, or even sometimes morphemes" (Hatim & Munday, 2004:17). However, with the development of text-linguistics, *free* translation shifted towards seeing the whole text as a unit instead of a sentence.

For this reason, it is the role of the translator to choose whether to work with larger pieces of discourse, here, *free* translation is under investigation, or to translate smaller units of language, here, *literal* translation. In this manner, the translation activity, here, is subjected to the type of the source text (ST) translators are working with, and the division of the basic pieces of texts, either to deal with smaller or larger units. As a result, the unit of translation ranges from being single words to whole texts (Newmark, 1987).

I.1.6.2. Unit of Translation

According to Trosborg (2000), the agreement about the true unit of translation has become centred on the whole text. This same view is reinforced by discourse analysts who emphasised the scrutiny of whole texts instead of isolated sentences.

For Newmark (1987), both the sentence and the text are units of translation. He argued that the "sentence is a natural unit of translation" (ibid: 65), but all lengths of language

beyond sentences are possibly considered units of translation since they bear functional properties. Newmark stated,

> All lengths of language can, at different moments and also simultaneously, be used as units of translation in the course of the translation activity… to me the unit of translation is a sliding scale, responding according to other varying factors, and (still) ultimately a little unsatisfactory (Newmark, 1987: 66-67).

In short, Newmark (1987) reiterated that the features of any text can be derived from individual words and sentences as well as from whole texts. He marked paragraphs and texts as higher units of translation, whereas, sentences, clauses and words as lower units of translation. He (ibid: 64) further claimed that "the mass of translation uses a text as a unit only when there are apparently insuperable problems at the level of the collocations, clause or sentence level."

I.1.6.3. Application of Discourse Analysis in Translation

As previously scrutinised, discourse analysis is a branch of applied linguistics which investigates the study of language in use. It is not only connected to the discipline of linguistics, but can also be found in Psychology, Anthropology, and Theoretical Sociology. Its emergence in the field of linguistics, as a result, added more insights to the field of translation studies (TS). Snell-Hornby (1991:68), for example, argued that "the most fruitful interaction between linguistics and translation theory came with pragmatic orientation of the 70's." Accordingly, the focus of attention of discourse analysis has found applications in TS in the 1980s and the 1990s. Since then, numerous studies on translation have been perceived within the paradigm of discourse analysis, e.g. Newmark (1987), Hatim and Mason (1990), Baker (1992). In this perspective, TS, as an interdiscipline, shifted emphasis from isolated words to whole texts with special attention on communicative functions and situational context of texts.

Among the pioneers in this effort has been Hatim and Mason (1990), Snell-Hornby (1991) and Schäffner (2002), who emphasised that developments in linguistics have had a significant impact on TS.

Snell-Hornby (1991:69) reported the following:

With the development of text-linguistics and the gradual emergence of translation studies as an independent discipline in its own right, there has been an increasing awareness of the text.

Like Snell-Hornby, Wills (1982) highlighted the relevance of discourse analysis in translation. He (ibid: 112) wrote:

Linguistic communication always appears in textual form. Texts are the primary form of linguistic manifestations. Texts show different conditions of origin, different structures, functions and they are designed for different recipients or target groups. Translation therefore is a text-oriented event.

Schäffner (2002), likewise, emphasised that the methods and concepts adopted from other disciplines, such as, Discourse Analysis, Anthropology and Cultural Studies have become eminent in speaking about translation and have afforded more insights into the phenomenon of translation as a social activity. In consequence, TS by its very nature is regarded as an interdiscipline.

She further explained:

Speaking about translation with reference to concepts and methods derived from linguistics, text- and sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and discourse analysis, however, has a very strong tradition both in the discipline of translation studies itself and in translator training. One of the main reasons being that, there is general agreement that understanding a text is a prerequisite for translating it, i.e. for producing a target text (TT) on the basis of a source text (ST). Understanding includes reflecting about the linguistic structures which a text displays, realizing that the structure chosen by the text producer is (to be) seen as the most appropriate one to fulfil the intended aims and purposes which the author wanted to achieve with the text for specific communicative situations in a specific sociocultural context for specific addressees (Schäffner, 2002: 1-2).

In view of this, translation is more than simply replacing the ST's messages into the TT's; there are, however, so many different factors involved. For example, looking at TS from the point of view of discourse analysis requires considering language at the socio-cultural settings in which communication is taking place. In this manner, translators must detect the socio-cultural settings of the ST and convert its messages in the TT in an accurate and a coherent way that sounds natural; otherwise, the translation would seem complicated and ambiguous.

Hatim (2009: 47) maintained that:

> In practice, no text can remain in such a state of relative isolation from the facts of socio-cultural life. To be closer to the life world of the language user and to communicate anything meaning full regarding social, cultural or political issues, texts must involve more than organization and mapping procedures or simply the need to uphold conventionality.

A more extreme view is brought by Trosborg (2000). According to her, talking about translation in relation to discourse analysis, or in her terms, *the study of discourse analysis for translation,* led to a shift of emphasis from viewing language as a group of structures to viewing language as communication. In this way, translation is not only focused on smaller units of language, but also, on whole texts within their cultural and communicative directions.

I.1.6.4. Part of Discourse Analysis in Translation

In her lucid introductory chapter, Schäffner (2002: 3) argued that the aim of applying discourse analysis in translation is "to identify specific textual features which are relevant for the process of translation". The problem that seems to arise, however, is the fact that the analysis is not viewed as a text analysis in its own right, but rather, as a *translation-oriented analysis*. In other words, "discourse analysis can be done for various purposes, where the aim of the analysis could be to identify theme/rheme progression in a text or to see how the logical

flow of some topic or argument (coherence) is reflected in the textual surface structure (cohesion)" (Schäffner, 2002:3). Therefore, the focus of the study varies according to the purpose of analysis; all depends on the requisite depth of analysis. According to Erdmann et al., (1994: 4 in Schäffner, 2002), in the process of translation, the analysis of ST has a particular purpose to identify and highlight "specific textual features which might be expected to present translation problems in order to steer translation decisions."

For the purpose of this thesis and inspired by the text-linguistics and the discourse approach, translations should be examined at the textual level, i.e. the text is the basic unit of analysis. And, since cohesion is one of the necessary elements in the creation of texts, it strongly influences the quality of the translation product. The significance of this concept in the framework of translation studies has attracted the attention of many researchers from different perspectives, e.g. Baker (1992), Blum-Kulka (1986), Hatim and Mason (1990). It is worth reminding, here, that cohesion is examined from the standpoint of translation equivalence in order to demonstrate the similarities and differences of cohesive devices between Arabic and English in the United Nations texts. The main goal is not only to compare between the cohesive devices, but also, to examine how translators cope with the differences. Henceforth, in what follows is a description of aspects of cohesion in one single language, English, as proposed by the first eminent scholars, e.g. Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), as well as the scrutiny of cohesion in translation contexts, as suggested by researchers, e.g. Baker (1992), Blum-Kulka (1986), Hatim and Mason (1990).

I.2. Aspects of Discourse Cohesion

This section bears on a particular aspect of discourse analysis, in addition to some particular features characterising written texts as proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and

de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). Under this theoretical framework, the basic concepts of cohesion and coherence are discussed, revealing the relationship holding between the two concepts and presenting to what extent they are considered as two essential prerequisites for texts' unity. However, the central focus of this study is exclusively on cohesion, i.e. the semantic relations that distinguish a text from a non-text, and connect the sentences to each other grammatically and lexically. The thesis is based on the theory of cohesion as suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976) for two main reasons: first, because it has been widely adopted by numerous researchers and acknowledged as a seminal work in the field, and, second, because it provides a consistent foundation for the contrastive study of cohesive devices between Arabic and English.

I.2.1. Notion of Text according to Halliday and Hasan (1976)

As previously seen in section one, the strong tendency of sentence-based approach to grammar was given much less importance in favour of the text-based approach, in which the linguistic analysis covered the way sentences work in sequence to produce coherent passages referred to as *discourse* or *text*. This resulted in the emergence of discourse analysis, which has become a popular topic in linguistics and helped researchers to overcome the shortcomings of sentence-based approach, which failed to provide satisfactory explanations to many natural phenomena in language. Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) were probably among the prominent scholars to bring new insights to the study of language at the textual level and bring new definitions related to various disciplines. Consequently, the shift towards the study of language at the textual level has, obviously, simplified the understanding and explanation of a number of textual issues, particularly, those related to cohesion and coherence, in addition to their relevance to text typology.

The present study examines the definition of text proposed in Halliday and Hasan's seminal work for the study of cohesion (1976), which signalled the establishment of the cohesion theory. The authors have succeeded to bring a more thorough definition to the notion of *text* at the very beginning of their book. According to them (1976: 1-2):

> A text is unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or sentence; and it is not defined by its size. A text is sometimes envisaged to be some kind of super-sentence, a grammatical unit that is larger than a sentence but is related to a sentence in the same way that a sentence is related to clause, a clause to a group and so on: by CONSISTENCY, the composition of larger units out of smaller ones. But this is misleading. A text is not something like a sentence only bigger; it is something that differs from a sentence in kind.

They (ibid: 2) added, "A text is best regarded as a SEMANTIC unit: a unit not of form but of meaning…. A text does not CONSIST of sentences; it is REALIZED BY, or encoded in, sentences." In Halliday and Hasan's perspective, a text is a semantic unit; it is not simply a kind of sentence, only bigger. A text is made of meanings which are meant to be communicated. Because it is not a unit of form but of meaning, it must be approached from a semantic perspective. And when a text forms a unified whole, it is considered to have *texture*. "The unity that it has is a unity of meaning in context, a texture that expresses the fact that it relates as a whole to the environment in which it is placed" (ibid: 293).

I.2.2.Texture

Halliday and Hasan (1976) attempted to establish the properties of texts in English. They asserted that any piece of text has features of organisation that help people distinguish between a text and a random collection of sentences. The term *texture* refers to "the property of 'being a text' " (ibid: 2), it is derived from the fact that the text functions as a unity with respect to the environment in which it is found. They (ibid: 293) stated: "texture expresses the fact that it relates as a whole to the environment in which it is placed." It is a combination of

two semantic configurations: *register* and *cohesion*. On the one hand, register is the collection of semantic features that is appropriate for a particular context of situation, and which describes the components of text meaning: social, expressive, communicative, as well as representational. On the other hand, cohesion refers to the semantic relations found in a text that differentiate text from non-text and connect the substantive meanings of the text with each other. Cohesion "does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 26).

This concept was further developed by de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), who gave new thoughts for the issue of texture and its constituents. They affirmed that in order to determine a piece of text as a unified and communicative whole, seven standards of *textuality* must be satisfied. According to them (ibid: 3), "If any of these standards is not considered to have been satisfied, the text will not be communicative". The seven standards are: *cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality*.

I.2.2.1. Cohesion

The first standard of textuality is cohesion. It refers to the surface relations between sentences in a text, i.e. it is concerned with "the ways in which components of the SURFACE TEXT, actual words we see or hear, are mutually connected within a sequence" (de Beaugrande & Dressler 1981:3). Cohesion plays a vital role in the unity of texts, in that it helps readers or listeners to follow the writers or speakers' words in a consistent way. In this manner, the communication between participants is best achieved. The texture of any piece of text is formed by means of a collection of syntactical elements, phrases and sentences. It is, thus, formed by means of cohesive devices such as lexical repetition, parallelism, ellipsis, conjuncts, reference, substitution, etc.

I.2.2.2. Coherence

The second standard is coherence, it is a network of conceptual relations which underlies the surface text and which establishes the relevance of sentences to text meaning. "[It] concerns the ways in which the components of the TEXTUAL WORLD, i.e., the configuration of CONCEPTS and RELATIONS which *underlie* the surface text, are *mutually accessible* and *relevant*" (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981:4). That is to say, coherence refers to links beyond the text; it has to do with the cognitive processes, which can be recovered or activated with more or less unity and consistency in the mind.

In addition to cohesion and coherence, which are *text-based* notions, describing procedures directed at the text materials, de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) avowed that the *user-based* notions, i.e. the remaining standards of textuality which influence the activity of textual communication at large both by producers and by receivers, are also required. That is to say, "the interaction of text-presented knowledge with people's stored knowledge of the world" is another prerequisite (ibid: 6). These *user-based* notions are described below.

I.2.2.3. Intentionality

Intentionality, the third standard of textuality, is mainly concerned with the attitude of text producers. Speakers or writers have the intention to produce a cohesive and coherent text that will achieve a particular goal and to communicate their meaning in an appropriate and successful way (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981).

I.2.2.4. Acceptability

The fourth standard is acceptability; it refers to the receiver's attitude towards a text, i.e. the receiver's ability to recognise the relevance of the text, to add any missing or

unmentioned information. This standard is very much related to factors such as text type, social or cultural setting, and the desirability of goals. For example, jokes are not always appreciated by people of different cultures (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981).

It is worth mentioning that intentionality and acceptability are considered as *pair principle*. When the speaker or writer produces a text, the listener or reader (i.e. receptor) has on his/her turn to accept this text as a communicative one (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981).

I.2.2.5. Informativity

Informativity, the fifth standard of textuality, concerns the degree to which texts' information is new or given. There must be a balance in the use of these two. Given information build background which is important for text's comprehension, and new information bring new insights to the text understanding (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981).

I.2.2.6. Situationality

The sixth standard, situationality, focuses on the text relevance to a current situation. That is to say, it is concerned with the factors that render text relevant to a situation of occurrence (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981).

I.2.2.7. Intertextuality

Intertextuality, the seventh standard, pertains to "the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts" (de Beaugrande, 1980:20). It refers to the ways in which the text presupposes knowledge of other texts. For example, text users can recognise a poem, a scientific report or a newspaper on the basis of their previous encounters with materials of the same type. That is why, intertextuality

is considered to be responsible for the development of text types "as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics" (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981:10).Finally, a glance at these seven standards of textuality reveals that "[they] function as the CONSTITUTIVE PRINCIPLES" (SEARLE, 1965), which define and create textual communication. In addition to these constitutive principles, there are also three *regulative principles* such as efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness[2], which control textual communication rather than define it (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981). Nevertheless, of these seven standards, cohesion and coherence are claimed to play the major role in creating texture. Cohesion and coherence were, formerly, suggested as a pair of linguistic units by Widdowson (1973), when he distinguished between *de-contextualised data* and *contextualised data*, in which five pairs of linguistic terms: *use/usage*, *sentence/utterance*, *locution/illocution*, *text/discourse*, and *cohesion/coherence* were suggested. Cohesion and coherence, since then, have become the most important topics in discourse analysis; they have been widely known and have attracted the attention of numerous researchers and linguists from different orientations.

It is worth mentioning that the standards of textuality are of great relevance to translation studies, particularly when the focus of these studies is on texts as units of translation. And, for reasons of peculiarities to the comparison of cohesive devices in Arabic and English, the present study examines carefully one of these textual standards: cohesion.

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[2] The EFFICIENCY of a text depends on its being useful to the participants with a minimum expenditure of effort. The EFFECTIVENESS of a text depends on whether it leaves a strong impression and creates favourable conditions for fulfilling an aim. The APPROPRIATNESS of a text depends on whether there is an agreement between its setting and the seven standards of textuality (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981).

In what follows is an attempt to present a brief discussion of cohesion/coherence relationship.

I.2.3. Cohesion and Coherence

The two linguistic features of text, cohesion and coherence, are the core of the study of discourse analysis. The past four decades have witnessed a growing interest in the study of these two discourse phenomena. A wide range of models, to name but a few, Gutwinski (1976), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Hoey (1988, 1991), Martin (1992), Martin and Rose (2002), Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) have been developed, revealing aspects of discourse cohesion and coherence in different types of spoken and written language. Consequently, this kind of models found their way in various fields of study, and their applications covered a wide range of domains, such as sociolinguistics, teaching, translation, etc.

The two linguistic phenomena of cohesion and coherence help texts appear as one unified whole rather than a jumble of unrelated sentences, since they provide the textual and cognitive means of texts' comprehension. The two terms are closely related. They go back to the Latin *cohaerēre,* which means *to cling* or *to stick*. Cohesion, which refers to the semantic relations that connect parts of text to each other by means of grammatical and lexical items makes the text a unified whole, and, coherence, which exists when the result of communication between the text and its hearer/reader is ensured, plays a crucial role in text comprehension. For further details, it is more useful to present some definitions related to the two concepts as examined in previous research works, revealing how their roles in discourse have been perceived.

I.2.3.1. Cohesion according to Halliday and Hasan (1976)

Although the concept of cohesion was introduced by many researchers in the early 1970s, e.g. Enkvist (1973), Gutwinski (1976), it was not until the publication of Halliday and Hasan's seminal work *Cohesion in English* (1976) that cohesion was thoroughly explored and gained ground worldwide more than ever before. Many scholars believed that cohesion is an indispensable feature of a text. For example, de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) suggested that cohesion represents the first of their seven standards of textuality. However, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 13) asserted that:

> The concept of cohesion accounts for the essential semantic relations whereby any passage of speech or writing is enabled to function as a text. We can systematize this concept by classifying it into a small number of distinct categories […] categories which have in common the property of signaling that the interpretation of the passage in question depends on something else. If that 'something else' is verbally explicit, then there is cohesion.

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), cohesion is expressed through grammar and vocabulary; it can be found in English through four grammatical sources: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction, in addition to lexical cohesion, which is divided into reiteration (repetition, synonymy, etc.) and collocation (co-occurrence of lexical items).

In addition to register, which is a semantic feature referring to the variety of language that is appropriate for a particular situation; cohesion is another aspect of texture. It "does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice" (ibid: 26). Similarly, according to Halliday (1985:311), textual cohesion is one aspect of the study of texture, which is defined as the process "whereby the flow of meaning is channeled into a traceable current of discourse instead of spilling out formlessly in every possible direction." Likewise, Baker (1992) referred to cohesion as the network of lexical and

grammatical relations, in addition to other relations[3] in a text that link its different parts to create one unified whole. She (1992: 180) stated:

> Cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations which provide links between various parts of a text. These relations or ties organize and, to some extent create a text, for instance by requiring the reader to interpret words and expressions by reference to other words and expressions in the surrounding sentences and paragraphs. Cohesion is a surface relation; it connects together the actual words and expressions that we can see or hear.

Hence, cohesion is the aspect of joining parts of text together semantically by means of various relations. These relations or ties are the result of the relationship between the text's components which occur at a linguistic level and which aim to interpret each other; they create a text when readers interpret words and elements by reference to other words and elements in the surrounding sentences and paragraphs. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:4):

> Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of some element 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.

Therefore, we cannot decode a cohesive element in a text without reference to another one that may occur earlier or later. To explain, cohesion as a surface relation attaches together the actual words and expressions with their references in order to form a text. The item *them* in the text "wash and core six cooking apples and put them in a fire proof dish" obviously refers to six cooking apples. The understanding of the second part of the text is dependent on the first one which helps us to know what *them* stands for. Thus, the item *them* is an

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[3]Consistency of style and tense and the use of punctuation can also contribute to the cohesion of a text (Baker, 1992:193).

indication that some linguistic elements in the texts are used for the sake of interpreting some others (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 4).

In Halliday and Hasan's system of language, cohesion is one component in relation to three major functional-semantic components that ensure communication. They are the *ideational*, the *interpersonal* and the *textual* components. The *ideational* component is that part of the linguistic system that expresses the content of the text. The second function is the *interpersonal* component; it is concerned with the social and interpersonal relationship of the speakers, as well as, their attitudes and judgments to each other. The third component, the *textual* function, is "the text forming component in the linguistic system" (ibid: 27). It comprises two constituents, *information structure* and *cohesion*. *Information structure* refers to the "ordering of the text, independently of its construction in terms of sentences, clauses and the like, into units of information on the basis of the distinction into GIVEN and NEW" (ibid:27). *Cohesion*, the second part of the text forming component in the system of language, is defined as "the means whereby elements that are structurally unrelated to one another are linked together, through the dependence of one another for its interpretation[….] without cohesion, the remainder of the semantic system cannot be effectively activated at all" (ibid: 27-28).

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4) viewed cohesion as a semantic relation as it refers to "relations of meaning that exist within a text and that define it as a text", and like any semantic system, cohesion is understood "partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary" of a text (ibid: 5-6). They (ibid: 8) further explained that cohesion is "a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it", and maintained that "cohesion is relational concept" because it is not the presence of a particular class of item that is cohesive, but the relation between one item and

another. That is to say, presupposition (one element presupposes another which exists in the text or in the context of situation, and which is crucial for text interpretation) is realised at three levels: the semantic level as in *reference*, the lexico-grammatical level as in *substitution* and *ellipsis* and the grammatical level as in *conjunction*.

I.2.3.2. Coherence

Coherence, the second important constituent of establishing text unity, is described as a system of conceptual relations created in the hearers'/readers' mind when they determine whether what they have understood represents a single representation or not (Tanskanen, 2006).

As Baker (1992:218) explained, while cohesion is "the network of surface relations which link words and expressions to other words and expressions in a text", coherence is "the network of conceptual relations which underlie the surface text". Coherence in written texts is defined as "a complex concept, involving a multitude of reader- and text-based features" (Johns, 1986:247). In other words, it is defined according to two different perspectives. From the *text-centred* perspective, coherence is a feature of text, either in terms of cohesion (i.e., the linking of sentences) or unity (i.e. the relationships among propositions in the text); from the *reader-centred* perspective, coherence considers the reader's interaction with the text depending on his/her prior knowledge of form and content. Coherence, then, is defined as "the organization of discourse with all elements present and fitting together logically" (Hinkel, 2004: 265).

I.2.3.3. Cohesion vs Coherence

With the development of discourse analysis, researchers showed great interest in the scrutiny of matters related to textual cohesion and coherence occurring in the readers' mind. Almost all researchers agreed that there are differences between cohesion and coherence, but the points that differentiate between the two are not agreed upon. While cohesion refers to the lexico-grammatical features on the surface of a text that link parts of the text together, coherence also called *texture* (in Halliday and Hasan's terms) is the combination of two distinct semantic features: register and cohesion. According to many researchers, e.g. Carrell (1982), Tanskanen (2006), coherence is not inherent in the text, but rather is the result of communication between the text and its reader.

Wide-ranging reviews of previous literature, e.g. Carrell (1983), revealed that there is a firm belief that an important contribution to coherence comes from cohesion, i.e. in addition to other ways of indicating coherence in texts, such as register, cohesion is an essential constituent at play here. One of the main beliefs is Halliday and Hasan's argument that textual cohesion leads inevitably to text coherence. According to them, "the concept of [cohesive] ties makes it possible to analyze a text in terms of its cohesive properties and give a systematic account of its patterns of texture [i.e. coherence]" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:4). They suggested that texts derive coherence from these cohesive relations. That is to say, the cohesive relations existing between linguistic elements in the text and which contribute to its complete unity guarantee the property of texture (coherence). Cohesion, thus, is viewed as the basic constituent of text construction resources. Carrell (1983) pointed out that, apparently, Halliday and Hasan (1976) supposed that the mere coherence of content is not enough to make a text coherent; some linguistic properties, such as cohesive ties, must be incorporated in order to contribute to the coherence of a text.

Nevertheless, this is not always true; the cohesive theory of coherence has been criticised by a number of researchers, e.g. Parsons (1990), Wessels (1993) (both cited in Tanskanen, 2006). Many of their studies indicated that the relation between cohesion and coherence is not so simple. That is to say, the use of cohesive devices is not as meaningful to text coherence as suggested by Halliday and Hassan (1976). Parsons (1990) and Wessels (1993) conducted their experiments on the students' writing and found out that a large number of cohesive devices in texts does not necessarily lead to a higher level of coherence. Nevertheless, Tanskanen (2006) asserted that the results of these studies must not be considered as proof for the insignificance of cohesion; they revealed that cohesion may not distinguish between the perceived coherence of texts produced under *identical* conditions. But cohesion is of great significance if it is *only* able to distinguish between texts produced under *different* conditions.

I.2.3.3.1.Criticism of Halliday and Hasan's Theory of Cohesion (1976)

Halliday and Hasan's strong opinion on perceiving cohesion as an *indispensable* property of text unity received fierce criticisms in the past years. Many researchers, e.g. Enkvist (1978), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Brown and Yule (1983) stressed that cohesion is not a necessary part in text unity, claiming that explicit cohesive devices are not enough to link parts of text together. What is significant is *coherence* between the propositional units in the text: without coherence, the parts of text would not form a unified whole, no matter how many cohesive ties there are between sentences (Tanskanen, 2006).

Enkvist (1978, cited in Tanskanen, 2006), as an instance, suggested an example in which the abundant use of cohesive devices, mainly, repetition, does not ensure text unity, as coherence between the propositions does not exist.

Example1:

- The discussions ended last *week*. *A week* has seven *days*. Every *day* I

    feed my *cat. Cats* have four legs. *The cat* is on the *mat. Mat* has three

    letters.

Likewise, in the example below, Widdowson (1978:26) revealed how a text is coherent despite the non-use existence of cohesive devices, and asserted that a text can be coherent without "overt linguistically signalled cohesion."

Example 2:

    a: That's the telephone.

    b: I'm in the bath.

    a: O.K.

Although there is no textual cohesion in this exchange, readers are able to interpret its meaning, and, thus, there is coherence. The lack of cohesive devices which link texts' components together will not limit the interpretation of discourse meaning; yet, because the situation can be imagined, the three utterances make sense together and guarantee discourse meaning.   Accordingly, Enkvist (1978) and Widdowson (1978) concluded that the overt use of cohesive markers is of less importance in comparison to the covert effect of coherence in the creation of unified wholes (Tanskanen, 2006).

Moreover, Tanskanen (ibid.) asserted that due to the difficulty of finding data that show coherence without cohesion, these two examples have been used extensively in many studies, e.g. Brown and Yule (1983), Lautamatti (1990), in order to illustrate the lack of surface cohesion in a coherent text. Using Widdowson's example (1978), Brown and Yule

(1983) and Lautamatti (1990) maintained that although coherence without cohesion sounds entirely plausible, it is quite infrequent, at least in real language data. Short texts do make sense without textual cohesion, but longer texts, in all probability, exhibit cohesive relations.

Furthermore, other researchers such as Morgan and Sellner (1980) and Carrell (1982) strongly criticised Halliday and Hasan's (1976) theory of cohesion as a measure of textual coherence in the light of the view of schema theory of text processing[4]. According to Morgan and Sellner (1980), understanding and processing a text, e.g. reading, is an interactive process between the text and the reader, i.e. the prior background knowledge or memory schemata of the listener or reader. A text is coherent if the intended meaning and the underlying structures match the background knowledge of the readers and not because of the readers' knowledge of linguistic properties, like cohesion, as Halliday and Hasan (1976) suggested. They argued that coherence of a text is a matter of content which happens to have linguistic consequences. The source of coherence would lie in the content, and the repeated occurrences of certain words would be the consequence of content coherence, not something that was a source of coherence (Morgan & Sellner, 1980 in Carrell, 1982). According to them (ibid:179), "...cohesion, in so far as any sense can be made of Halliday and Hasan's description of it, is an epiphenomenon of content coherence."

A similar criticism was expressed by Carrell (1982), who asserted that cohesion is of little importance in text studies; it is only an illusion created by the text's coherence. According to her, unlike cohesion theory, which works only on the surface structure of a text

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[4]Schema theory is an approach to information processing emanating from research in cognitive science-i.e., research in cognitive psychology, artificial intelligence, linguistics, etc. (Bobrow and Norman, 1975 in Carell, 1982).

to establish cohesive ties as though it occurred in a vacuum, schema theory takes the text processors into account; in the schema theory of text processing, what is important is not only the structure and content of texts, but what readers or listeners do with the text. Carrell's (1982) arguments were adduced against Halliday and Hasan's belief that coherence is located in the text and can be defined as a configuration of textual features. These text-analytic procedures "fail to take the contributions of the text's reader into account", and, hence, "are incapable of accounting for textual coherence" (ibid: 479). She suggested a more effective approach to examining texts that first analysed a text's underlying propositional units and then looked for the cohesive ties. She (ibid: 486) wrote:

> Cohesion is not the cause of coherence; if anything, it's the effect of coherence. A coherent text will likely be cohesive, not of necessity, but as a result of that coherence. Bonding an incoherent text together won't make it coherent, only cohesive.

She further explained (ibid: 484) "when readers are able to connect text's ideas without relying on explicit cohesive devices, explicit cohesive ties are not needed to unify text's ideas". She suggested the following example: "The picnic was ruined. No one remembered to bring a corkscrew" (ibid: 484), in order to clarify that the absence of overt cohesive devices between *picnic* and *corkscrew* does not impede its proper understanding, because we have access to a familiar schema for interpreting it in which *picnics* and *corkscrews* go together. Therefore, prior knowledge is crucial to recognise coherence in texts. This is the point which Halliday and Hasan failed to take into account, i.e. the fact that readers do not only depend on surface text properties but also on the world knowledge. Henceforth, by drawing on schema theory, cohesion is guaranteed once considering the reader's prior knowledge, the ability to reason, the assumption that a particular text is coherent, and the writer's purpose.

I.2.3.3.2. Cohesion and Coherence: Independent but Interrelated

Tanskanen (2006) asserted that the criticism of cohesion mentioned above is insufficient because there are elements in discourse which indicate connections and unity. In addition to cohesion, which is believed to be the most important phenomenon for ensuring the unity of texts in Halliday and Hasan's perspective, coherence is also of great importance and deserves to be investigated in parallel with cohesion as they are both contributing to text unity. For this reason, according to many researchers, the two concepts are examined separately.

As an instance, Blum-Kulka (1986) separated between the two concepts, and argued that cohesion is only a surface relationship that holds the text's elements together; it is not enough for a text to be cohesive. However, coherence is a semantic relationship between elements that aims to interpret meanings expressed by the participants. She (ibid: 17) stated:

> Coherence can be viewed as a *covert potential meaning relationship among parts of a text, made overt by the reader or listener through a process of interpretation…* Cohesion, on the other hand, will be considered as *an overt relationship holding between parts of the text, expressed by language specific markers*

In the same vein, de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) considered cohesion and coherence, the two constituents of the seven standards of textuality, as two distinct phenomena, each having its own role in building unified texts, and without any influence on each other. In their opinion (ibid: 3), cohesion "concerns the ways in which the components of the SURFACE TEXT, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence." Whereas, coherence is described as a "continuity of senses"; i.e. when there is balance between the organisation of concepts and relations expressed and the readers' background knowledge; this "continuity of senses" is defined as "the foundation of coherence,

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being the mutual access and relevance within a configuration of concepts and relations" (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981: 84). Both concepts are "text-centred notions, designating operations directed at the text materials"; yet, coherence is also a reader-centred notion, since "a text does not make sense by itself, but rather by the interaction of text-presented knowledge with people's stored knowledge of the world …" (ibid: 84).

To sum up, there is a clear distinction between the two concepts. The definitions proposed in what follows reveal that cohesion and coherence are still interrelated although they are examined separately. Baker (1992) asserted that both concepts are concerned with the way parts of texts relate to each other. In the case of cohesion, parts of texts relate to each other as a result of *lexical* and *grammatical dependencies*, while in the case of coherence, they are related as a result of *conceptual or meaning dependencies* as recognised by language users. She reinforced her opinion using Hoey's own words (1991: 12):

> We will assume that cohesion is a property of the text and that coherence is a facet of the reader's evaluation of a text. In other words, cohesion is objective, capable in principle of automatic recognition, while coherence is subjective and judgements concerning it may vary from reader to reader.

Hence, since cohesive devices occur at the surface of texts, they can be automatically perceived and analysed, and, thus, are objective. Coherence, on the other hand, is only one aspect of the readers' interpretation of texts; that is why, it is more subjective and readers may recognise them in different ways. She (1992) suggested one example: a conjunction such as *therefore* describes conceptual relations of *reason* and *consequence*. Nevertheless, if readers cannot recognise the underlying semantic relations of reason and consequence between the elements related with *therefore*, they will not be able to understand the meaning of texts; that is to say, "the text will not 'cohere' for [these] particular reader[s]" (Baker, 1992:218).

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Therefore, it can be said that "cohesion is the surface expression of coherence relations, [....] a device for making conceptual relations explicit" (Baker, 1992: 218). However, as Baker (ibid.) disproved, even though the text contains a number of cohesive devices, it might be misinterpreted by some receivers; this confirms that what guarantees texture is not the existence of cohesive devices but rather the receivers' ability to perceive the underlying semantic relations. Henceforth, "the main value of cohesive markers seems to be that they can be used to facilitate and possibly control the interpretation of underlying semantic relations" (ibid: 219).

In the same vein, prior work of Hasan (1984 in Tanskanen, 2006) stressed that coherence is a linguistic feature, which is evaluated in terms of the readers' interaction, because it is a consequence of the *cohesive harmony*. The denser the cohesive harmony of a text, the more coherent it will be judged. Some texts can thus be considered by the receivers as more coherent than others. According to Tanskanen (2006), the importance of cohesive harmony has been refuted by many researchers, e.g. Hoey (1991), Hoover (1997), Martin, (1992), Parsons (1990, 1991), Thompson (1994) ; yet, there is an agreement that "coherence is not inherent in text as such, but rather it is the result of the interpretation process and ultimately depends on the relation between the receiver and the text; and that cohesive devices predispose receivers to find the coherence" (Tanskanen, 2006:20).

In this view, it can be said that the receivers' ability to recognise coherence, and, therefore, to successfully interpret texts depends on their prior knowledge of the world, i.e. their expectations and experience of the world. According to Baker (1992: 220), "the coherence of a text is a result of the interaction between knowledge presented in the text and the reader's own knowledge and experience of the world, the latter being influenced by a variety of factors such as age, sex, race, nationality, education, occupation, and political and

religious affiliations." Hence, in addition to the text itself, the receivers' background knowledge is necessary for ensuring successful coherence and communication.

From what has been discussed above, it seems that there is a clear distinction between cohesion and coherence. Cohesion is a property of the text and coherence is an aspect of the readers' estimation of the text. Although they are kept distinct, they are, nonetheless, related in the sense that the interaction between them is dependent on the interaction of cohesive ties in a text. In other words, it is apparent that cohesive ties are used to facilitate the task of recognising texts' coherence. For Halliday and Hasan (1976), such ties, in English, are referred to as cohesive devices.

I.2.4. Cohesive Devices

As it has been mentioned earlier, *texture* distinguishes a text from a non-text, it is realised in relations existing between parts of a text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), it is a matter of cohesion that *texture* is called so. That is to say, the cohesive relations existing between the linguistic elements in the text, and which contribute to its complete unity, guarantee the property of *texture*. For example, by means of *anaphora*, readers or listeners would be able to associate the actual sentences with the preceding ones. This is explained in the example suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4): "Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fire proof dish." In this example, the element *them* refers to *six cooking apples*; there is a relation between these two sentences that makes them become a text because they hang together semantically and build one unified whole. As a result, the relation between *them* and *six cooking apples* is a *cohesive relation,* and the pair of related items is a *cohesive tie*. These ties are called *cohesive devices,* referring to the occurrence of two related items in a cohesive way. Therefore, as Halliday and Hasan (1989:75) asserted, "such semantic relations form the basis of cohesion between the messages of a text."

They explained (1989: 77):

> Such devices become cohesive - have a cohesive function and so are constitutive of texture- precisely if and when they can be interpreted to some other (explicit) encoding device in the same passage. If the source for their interpretation is located within the text, then a cohesive tie [….] is established; the establishment of such a tie creates cohesion.

The different types of cohesive devices in English, as identified by Halliday and Hasan (1976), are described in chapter three. They refer to the lexico-grammatical features of a text that give it texture, and they comprise five different categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

I.2.5. Aspects of Discourse Cohesion in Translation

The discussion of cohesion within the framework of translation studies implies its language and culture particularity. According to Blum-Kulka (1986:17), cohesion is "an overt relationship holding between parts of the text, expressed by language specific markers." For the purpose of this study, we assume that cohesion differs across languages and cultures; it is defined as a group of overt and language-specific resources that establish text unity. Hatim and Mason (1990) maintained that cohesive devices are language specific because of the languages' different origins; that is why, they may pose great challenges for translators. They (ibid: 194) wrote:

> The various activities of translation criticism, translation assessment and revision all run the risk of concentrating on features of texture without relating them to the communicative process which engendered them. Texture needs to be seen an integral part of what one is doing with one's language.

According to them (ibid.), translators should consider the texture features existing in each language while interpreting the communicative meaning. Likewise, Dooley and

Levinsohn (2001: 27) affirmed that, "each language will, of course, have its own range of devices which can be used for cohesion."

In the same vein, Baker (1992: 220) suggested that "even a simple cohesive relation of co-reference cannot be recognized … if it does not fit in with a reader's prior knowledge of the world." In her analysis of an extract from *A Hero from Zero*, she drew attention to the language specificity of cohesive devices. According to her, in the extract suggested, there is no cohesive relation which explains that *Harrods* and *the splendid Knightsbridge store* refer to the same thing. It is only through prior knowledge that readers would know that *Harrods* is a famous store and that it is in *Knightsbridge*, without inserting any explicit cohesive ties between the two phrases, such as pronominal reference or repetition. However, because readers in a different culture would not be able to make such a link, explicit cohesive ties between *Harrods* and *the splendid Knightsbridge store* should be ensured. For Baker (ibid.), the Arabic translation of this extract provides the repetition of the word store as an explicit cohesive tie.

In his analysis of Chinese texts and their translations into English, Yeh (2004) took into account the cross-linguistic differences in the structures of the languages involved in translation. He (ibid.) concluded that different languages might have different systems of cohesive devices. The cohesive devices suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976) may be found in all languages, but the importance given to some types rather than others is different across languages. That is to say, in a specific language while some cohesive devices are avoided, others are favoured. In the case of Chinese/English comparison, for instance, the third person pronoun is avoided in Chinese and compensated by lexical repetition. He (2004: 249) stated "cohesion of a text in English is constituted by reference items, such as "he" or "they", while cohesion in Chinese might be realized by the existence of a topic chain."

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Similarly, Baker (1992) stressed that thanks to the features of text organisation, i.e. cohesive devices, which are language and culture specific, readers will be able to make a sharp distinction between translations as *natural* texts, which are fluent and accurate, or translations as *foreign* versions. She affirmed that during the process of translation, translators should consider the lexical items and grammatical structures of both ST and TT. Translations should be examined at the textual level, in the sense that the text's unity is guaranteed both at the beginning and the end of the process, and eventually, the target version would appear in a way that makes it a text in its own right.

Henceforth, in order to guarantee a high degree of equivalence at the textual level, translators are requested to adjust some of the features existing in the ST in order to fit the organisation of the TTs. That is why, while translating, it is inevitably important to add or to omit parts of text in order to maintain its cohesiveness; such changes are generally known as *shifts of cohesion* which help translators to create accurate and natural translation products; this fact is reflected in Blum-Kulka's research work (1986).

In her discussion on shifts in cohesion, Blum-Kulka (1986:17) defined cohesion as "an overt relationship holding between parts of the text, expressed by language specific markers." She postulated that the process of translation necessarily involves shifts in textual and discoursal relationships. Her argument is grounded on the perception that translation is viewed as *an act of communication*, and, therefore, "all differences connected to both linguistic and cultural aspects holding between the two languages must be taken into consideration" (ibid: 18).

According to her, shifts of cohesion are evident in translation and fall into two types: *shifts in levels of explicitness* and *shifts in meaning*. She explained that cohesive explicitness

refs to shifts in the type of cohesive devices used. These shifts are achieved through the substitution of cohesive devices with some others which do increase the level of cohesion in the TT. In the second type, i.e. *shifts in meaning*, she explained that the translation product demonstrates a change in the explicitness and implicitness of the meaning of the ST. Factors that explain these phenomena are explication, stylistic preferences or culture-bound translation norms. She (1986: 19) indicated that:

> On textual level, shifts in levels of explicitness through translation have been claimed to be linked to differences in stylistic preference for types of cohesive markers in the two languages involved in translation.

And because in any language transfer there is a tendency to explicate, this strategy has been postulated as a universal strategy used by both novice and professional translators. Blum-Kulka (ibid: 21) noted that "explication is a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation, as practiced by language learners, non-professional translators and professional translators alike."

Therefore, it can be said that translation unescapably implies shifts at the textual level that should take into consideration the linguistic and the cultural differences of cohesion holding between the two languages.

I.2.5.1. Cohesive Devices in Translation

Other studies of cohesion in translation studies include Bystrova-McIntyre (2012), Zhao et al. (2009), Yeh (2004) and Øveras (1998). Bystrova-McIntyre (2012) asserted that the topic of cohesion within the framework of translation studies has gained ground only recently with the introduction of Neubert and Shreve's textual turn (1992), where textual features, including cohesion, were recognised as important features of translation. Yet, a very limited number of studies isolated cohesion of the translated texts since "the qualities that constitute

cohesion are generally difficult to pinpoint and isolate" (Baer & Bystrova, 2009: 163). She added that ensuring cohesion in translated texts may be complicated since the relation between grammar and thematic structure is of high tension requiring some changes to be made not only for semantic purposes, but also for the sake of cohesion.

Bystrova-McIntyre (2012) constructed a three-dimensional multi-genre corpus from Russian into English in order to compare the use of cohesive devices and other global textual features, such as nominalisation, lexical density, average word length, average sentence length, passives, and prepositional phrases. The study examined these features across three sub-corpora: human-translated texts, non-translated texts and machine-translated texts in three genres. The latter are literary, newspaper, and scientific. By shedding light on the characteristics of translated texts, the study contributed to studies of translation universals and laws of translation.

Moreover, prior works of Øveras (1998), Yeh (2004) and Zhao et al. (2009) examined cohesive devices in translation and considered them as important features of translation. Zhao et al. (2009) tried to explore the regularity in shifting cohesive devices from English into Chinese. Through using a parallel corpus, they analysed the similarities and differences of cohesive devices between English medical texts and their Chinese translations. The study revealed that since English medical texts and their translations have great similarity, the majority of cohesive devices were maintained in the Chinese translation for the purpose of precision, clarity and logicality.

Øveras (1998) investigated cohesion in translation in view of translation universals. She examined explicitation (i.e. a rise in the level of cohesion) in translational English and translational Norwegian, based on the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC). Her study

aimed at revealing the particularity of the language of translation irrespective of the contrastive differences existing between the two languages, and, her ultimate objective was to go beyond mere linguistic investigation since it attempts to reach conclusions on the literary translational norms prevailing in the target communities she had studied. Her research tested Blum-Kulka's (1986) explicitation hypothesis in literary translations, and postulated that English and Norwegian TTs are more cohesive than their STs. The empirical study confirmed Blum-Kulka's observations, since the explicitating shifts were found in all texts more than implicitation strategies. In this view, the obtained results confirmed the point that explicitation is an important feature of translated texts.

Finally, Bystrova-McIntyre (2012) criticised the above mentioned studies of cohesion in translation, as they have their limitations. First, the use of small corpora is not adequate, since they do not represent a broader population, and the use of manual annotation of the selected texts is not always suitable for the purpose of analysis. However, this is not always true; human annotation allows also for a thorough analysis of the selected texts as, in the works of Øveras (1998) and Zhao et al. (2009). Second, these studies comprised a limited number of text-types. For instance, Zhao et al. (2009) and Øveras (1998) examined cohesive devices only in medical texts and literary texts, respectively. That is why suggesting a developed model of cohesion in translation with a multi text-type is required.

I.2.6. Cohesion across Genre and Text-type

As far as genre and text-type are concerned, cohesion is viewed as a genre-specific and text-type specific phenomenon. According to Bystrova-McIntyre (2012), investigating cohesive devices implies that their usage differs across genres and text-types. She reinforced her view using Mahlberg's emphasis (2006: 107) that, for example, narrative texts that "deal

with a central character… can provide many examples of reference and chains of reference items", while newspaper articles are "more likely candidates to illustrate lexical relationships where sentences share three or more lexical links" as discussed in Hoey (1991). According to Bystrova-McIntyre (2012), many research works examined the genre-specificity of cohesive devices. For instance, the use of conjunctions in fiction, religious texts, journalism, and science was the focus of Smith and Frawley's study (1983). The results revealed that conjunctions used in fiction and religious texts are more similar than the ones used in journalism and science.

Moreover, Al-Jabr (1987) investigated cohesion in the organisation of three text types: literary fictional narrative texts, newspaper editorials and scientific texts in English and Arabic. He found out that each type makes use of cohesion depending on the texts' readership, reading style and pedagogical purposes. While cohesion is guaranteed in fictional narratives through reference devices, lexical repetition is used more in newspaper editorials and scientific texts.

Furthermore, it is important to mention that cohesion can be also examined across two different mediums: oral vs written discourse. Aaron (1998 in Bystrova-McIntyre, 2012) suggested that "in written language there is a limit to how much repetition can be tolerated by readers." That is why repetition is more frequent in oral discourse than in written discourse. Similarly, Tanskanen (2006) examined the differences in lexical cohesion across different genres on a spoken-written continuum (face-to-face conversations-prepared speeches-mailing list language-academic writing). She (ibid:173) revealed that "some cohesive features can be studied across spoken and written texts as well as across dialogues and monologues, while others are inevitably linked with particular type(s) of discourse only."

Finally, as far as legal discourse is concerned, and to the best of our knowledge, the study of cohesive devices has been scrutinised in very few studies, e.g. Stanojević Gocić (2012), Santaemilia et al. (2013). These studies have been concerned with these devices in English legal discourse. However, the attempt to study these devices in legal discourse across languages have been slightly neglected; only very few research works tackled this issue recently, e.g, Hanting's translation of conjunctive cohesion in legal documents (2013) and FrenÞiu's study on the functions of the cohesive mechanisms in legal texts and their relevance in Romanian-English translation (2005). FrenÞiu (ibid.), for example, focused on the functions of the cohesive mechanisms in legal texts and their relevance in translation. He presented a corpus-based analysis of fragments of legal cases, derived from authentic documents in Romanian and their translations into English. In his paper, FrenÞiu (ibid.) stressed that legal translators should carefully examine all the discursive and textual features of the ST, because sometimes they may cause serious errors. According to him, after determining the real meaning of the document, translators adjust their translation in order to represent properly the reasons that lay behind the English text.

To sum up, we have tried in this section to highlight the significance of cohesion, one linguistic aspect of text unity, in both monolingual and translation frameworks. This section has revealed how the major role of this concept in organising the linguistic elements into unified texts became very pertinent to the study of translation. Various opinions suggested by different researchers have been dealt with concerning this aspect; yet, the main focus was on Halliday and Hasan's theory of cohesion. Although this model may seem incompatible for other languages, as it is based on English language writing, the use of their classification of cohesive devices is appropriate, in the present thesis, since the study deals only with the texts translated into English. Therefore, in chapter three we present a detailed overview of the

different categories of cohesion, in English, as suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and investigate their Arabic counterparts as summarised by Al-Jabr (1987).

Conclusion

This chapter has offered an overview of literature relevant to cohesion aspects in both monolingual contexts, the case of English, and translation contexts. It has introduced some of the key terms that are relevant to the study of discourse analysis. A brief historical review of the emergence of new directions in the study of discourse analysis and the examination of its typology has been provided. It has included further insights as to the relevance of discourse analysis to translation studies. It has also showed that translation theoreticians have been inspired by concepts from discourse analysis in the interpretation of any piece of translated writing or speech. In the second section, the chapter has focused on cohesion as one of the important aspects of discourse analysis; it has described the concept of cohesion in one single language, English, as set forth by some eminent scholars such as Halliday and Hassan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). The concept of cohesion has been further described within the translation framework as it is examined, in this thesis, from the standpoint of translation equivalence. The main goal of this overview has not been only to compare between the cohesive devices used in Arabic and English but also to examine how translators cope with the differences.

Chapter II

Contrastive Linguistics, Translation Studies and Corpora

Chapter II: Contrastive Linguistics, Translation Studies and Corpora

Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the way in which contrastive linguistics (CL) and translation studies (TS) relate to each other, revealing how the emergence of computerised corpora has helped the two disciplines converge and gain more ground than ever. Before dealing with the interconnected relationship holding between the two disciplines in details, it is necessary to address some basic concepts related to the field of corpus linguistics, in general, and to the new corpus-based approach to CL and TS, in particular. The first section of this chapter is aimed at presenting definitions of key concepts that heavily accentuate on corpus linguistics and modern day corpora. The second section will seek to demonstrate how this new intellectual project, corpus linguistics, has strong significance to cross-linguistic studies. First, the different types of corpora used in the two disciplines will be introduced, with a specific focus on parallel corpora, the source data of this study, and comparable corpora, which are quite applicable to cross-linguistic studies. Then, a brief account of the two disciplines, with special emphasis on more recent developments will be presented. The main purpose is to describe the role of multilingual corpora in providing a new stimulus to these two disciplines and bringing them closer together. This will be discussed in the light of how the use of multilingual corpora leads to a shift of research interest, from a theoretical approach to a practical one in both areas. The chapter is concluded by an overview of the interconnected relationship between CL and TS. It will show how the new corpus-based approach has proved fruitful to both disciplines, revealing a close and complementary relationship.

II.1 Brief Introduction to Basic Corpus Linguistics

Before taking steps to present the precise details of the corpus-based approach to CL and TS, some topics related to general corpus studies are first dealt with. Addressing some basic concepts related to the field of corpus linguistics provides a starting point for gathering information about the usefulness of the corpus-based approach to cross-linguistic studies and offers a suitable source of data for embarking upon research.

II.1.1. Principles of Corpus Linguistics

In the last three decades, the collection and scrutiny of corpora stored in computer databases have been subject to a great concern by linguists and have been introduced as a new intellectual project known as corpus linguistics. Henceforth, corpus linguistics commences to tackle the study of language in use through corpora and demonstrates how quantitative analysis can fruitfully contribute to linguistic description (Kennedy, 1998). According to Johansson (1995), corpus linguistics is defined as the branch of linguistics that studies language on the basis of corpora, i.e. bodies of authentic texts which have been assembled according to clear design criteria for a particular purpose.

Though some researchers, such as Newmyer (2003) Widdowson (1991) and Prodrom (1997) (cited in McEnery & Gabrielatos, 2006), believed that the new approach of corpus linguistics is a matter of debate, the corpus-based approach, nevertheless, has significantly influenced English linguistics in particular and linguistics in general. Principally, Sinclair (1991) is considered to be the most eminent scholar to influence many succeeding researchers, such as Leech (1991) Biber et al. (1998) Hunston (2002), in their considerable contributions to the renovation of corpus linguistics. According to Sinclair (1991), a word in and of itself does not carry meaning but that meaning is often made through several words in a sequence;

and this is the building block of corpus linguistics. It is worth noting that it has been referred to as the renovation of corpus linguistics instead of innovation because "corpus linguistics did not begin with the development of computers but there is no doubt that computers have given corpus linguistics a huge boost by reducing much drudgery or text-based linguistics and vastly increasing the size of the databases used for analysis" (Kennedy, 1998:2).

II.1.2. Corpus-based Approach

The corpus-based approach indicates that corpus analysis can tackle new types of research questions and reveal new information about language use that have not been brought to light using traditional approaches. It deals with large amounts of language and monitors many contextual factors at the same time, and, thus, facilitates a range of new investigations of language use (Biber et al., 1998). Moreover, the corpus-based study makes use of corpus data in order to enquire into language theories or hypotheses, so as to authenticate, disprove or enhance them (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). Corpus linguistics as a method reinforces this approach (as to be seen later).

II.1.3. Corpus Linguistics or Computer Corpus Linguistics

As a matter of fact, many of the advantages of the corpus-based approach emanate from the use of computers; that is why, in Leech's words (1992: 106), the term *corpus linguistics* is a synonym of *computer corpus linguistics*. According to Leech (ibid.), the use of computers "gives us the ability to comprehend, and to account for, the content of ….corpora in a way which was not dreamed of… in the pre-computational era of corpus linguistics."

In this sense, the use of computers has become a fundamental property of modern corpus linguistics, in that it has assisted in the identification of tangled patterns of language

use, has helped in the storage of larger databases of natural language, in addition to providing researchers with consistent and reliable analyses. More particularly, the development of the software programmes used to access and analyse the corpus data automatically or semi-automatically has facilitated the collection and storage of large amounts of data and allowed for the checking of the reliability of the statistical results (McEnery & Gabrielatos, 2006).

It is apparent, then, that the merit of computer corpus linguistics reveals itself in its appropriateness for carrying out quantitative analyses (e.g. frequency counts, concordance tools and phraseology) in order to treat the data under investigation. That is to say, the use of corpora which covers the analysis of linguistic features has been considered to belong to the area of quantitative analysis.

One type of processing data is the absolute and proportional frequency of linguistic items, which appear prominently in most corpus studies. The frequency of occurrence is an aspect of language that has a major role to play in many linguistic applications which involve knowledge of what is possible to occur in language. McEnery and Wilson (1996: 12, in Granger, 2002) stressed that even though corpora are considered as one source of evidence among many, such as introspection and elicitation, it is commonly agreed today that they are "the only reliable source of evidence for such features as frequency". Another type of processing data is concordance, the most commonly used format is known as KWIC (key word in context), revealing the immediate contexts in which all the occurrences of a specific search term are displayed in the corpus in an easy-to read format.

As Granger (2002) acknowledged, this quantitative approach brings useful insights to the study of language. By way of illustration, Biber's work (1988, in Granger, 2002) demonstrated how the use of corpus-based methods in the study of language variation can

reveal the distinctive patterns of distribution of each variety. Biber (1988, in Granger, 2002) undertook quantitative comparisons of a vast array of linguistic features in corpora representing different varieties of language, and revealed how different features come together in distinct distributional patterns, generating different text types.

Nevertheless, the qualitative approach cannot be discarded by corpus linguists. The combination of both methods offers reasonable explanations for the linguistic phenomenon under observation. While quantitative analysis "enables one to separate the wheat from the chaff: it enables one to discover which phenomena are likely to be genuine reflections of the behaviour of a language or variety and which are merely chance occurrences" (McEnery & Wilson, 1996: 76). Qualitative analysis "enables very fine distinction to be drawn since it is not necessary to shoehorn the data in a finite number of classifications" (ibid.). Therefore, as Mair (1991, in McEnery & Gabrielatos, 2006) stressed, it can be said that corpus linguistics does not trivialise the qualitative analysis of data, it does; however, concentrate on quantitative analyses.

Additionally, it is worth pointing out that corpus utilities have not only reinforced descriptive linguistics, but have also boosted theoretically-oriented linguistic research. This involvement has been perceived essentially in English linguistics, particularly in English language corpora, such as *the Brown Corpus* (Francis & Kùcera, 1961), the first computer-based corpus, which covered about one-million words in size and comprised samples of written American English. Subsequently, in recent times, the prompt progress of the software tools and the storage process of updated computers have facilitated the emergence of multi-million word corpora, such as *the British National Corpus (BNC)*, which runs to 100 million words, and has simplified the compilation of written and spoken English corpora, specifically *Sinclair's Birmingham Collection of English Text* and *the Longman-Lancaster English*

Language Corpus (McEnery & Gabrielatos, 2006). Sinclair (1991) maintained that building corpora of hundreds of millions of words becomes the norm nowadays. He (ibid: 1) stated:

> Thirty years ago when this research started it was considered impossible to process texts of several million words in length. Twenty years ago it was considered marginally possible but lunatic. Ten years ago it was considered quite possible but still lunatic. Today, it is very popular.

Therefore, it might be said that corpora are notable resources in modern linguistics; thanks to the tools and techniques used to classify, count and display the large amounts of data they cover, the use of corpus-based studies becomes of much importance. It is obvious, then, that the availability of the software packages and the design of multi-million word corpora are becoming the building blocks of corpus linguistics.

II.1.4. Nature of Corpus Linguistics: Method or Theory?

Whether corpus linguistics is a method or a theory is highly debatable. As indicated above, since corpus linguistics maximises the quantitative analysis of data (i.e. it makes a better use of computer tools to classify, count and display the large amounts and diversity of language data they cover), it is, therefore, considered as a *method* of implementing linguistic analyses. And since it examines many topics of linguistics and provides vital and even unpredictable insights about language, it has become one of the most common methods of linguistic investigation in recent years. For Stubbs (1996: 232, in Granger, 2002), "the heuristic power of corpus methods is no longer in doubt". Corpus linguistics has a greater involvement in the discovery of new facts which "have led to far-reaching new hypotheses about language, for example about the co-selection of lexis and syntax" (ibid.). Similar to this viewpoint, most corpus linguists, to name but a few (Biber et al., 1998 and Kennedy, 1998), viewed corpus linguistics as a *methodology*, but not a linguistic theory; it is all a matter of *doing* linguistics.

According to Granger (2002: 4):

Corpus linguistics can best be defined as a linguistic methodology which is founded on the use of electronic collections of naturally occurring texts, viz. corpora. It is neither a new branch of linguistics nor a new theory of language, but the very nature of the evidence it uses makes it a particularly powerful methodology, one which has the potential to change perspectives on language.

In a similar vein, Biber et al. (1998:4) maintained that when analysing language using corpora there is *a method to employ*; they proposed the corpus approach which encompasses four main characteristics:

1. It is empirical, analysing the actual patterns of language use in natural texts.
2. It utilizes a large and principled collection of natural texts, known as a "corpus", as the basis for analysis.
3. It makes extensive use of computers for analysis, using both automatic and interactive techniques.
4. It depends on both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques.

However, it would be misleading to advocate that corpus linguistics is free from any theoretical considerations. As Meyer (2002:2) pointed out:

It is wrong to assume that the analysis of corpora has nothing to contribute to linguistic theory: corpora can be invaluable resources for testing out hypotheses based on more functionally based theories of grammar, i.e. theories of language more interested in exploring language as a tool of communication.

He (ibid.) conducted a functional analysis of *coordination ellipsis* on various genres of the *Brown Corpus* and the *International Corpus of English*, and argued that the variety of text types in modern corpora makes such investigations promising. Hence, the emphasis on the method of research and the type of corpus is influenced by the theoretical orientation of the researchers, and a good instance is Kennedy's (1998: 8) view that corpus linguistics tends "sometimes to focus on lexis and lexical grammar rather than pure syntax."

Tognini-Bonelli (2001, in McEnery & Hardie, 2012), also, distinguished between the terms *corpus-based linguistics* and *corpus-driven linguistics* to explain that the former refers

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to what is described as corpus-linguistics as-method, and the latter refers to the neo-Firthian corpus-linguistics-as-theory position. According to her (2001:1), corpus linguistics concerns itself with a "theoretical status", in the sense that interpretations of language facts give rise to the construction of hypotheses and generalisations that are subsequently fused into a theoretical observation; corpora are not only used to test existing theories, especially those formulated on the basis of intuitions. Similarly, Teubert (2005: 2) focused on the theoretical conceptualisation and described corpus linguistics as a "theoretical approach to the study of language."

It is worth pointing out that corpus linguistics has various definitions offered by many scholars; yet, no exact definition is available; while some definitions have been addressed, some others have been rejected. In addition to being a method or a theory, corpus linguistics is a paradigm, a discipline or a combination of all of these (Taylor, 2008). To explain, because corpus linguistics is based on the combination of data, description, theory and methodology, it was argued that corpus linguistics is more than just a methodology. Laviosa-Braithwaite (1996b:14ff. in Kruger, 2004) argued that it should be characterised as an independent *discipline* within general linguistics. Hence, the interconnected relationship holding between these four elements is "expressed in terms of a continual process involving corpus creation, discovery, hypothesis formation, testing and evaluation." Moreover, some scholars, such as Leech (1992), considered it to be a research *paradigm*, i.e. doing research involves fundamental assumptions as to what the object of study is and how it should be examined. He stated that "computer corpus linguistics defines not just a newly emerging methodology for studying language, but a *new research enterprise*, and in fact *a new philosophical approach* to the subject" (Leech, 1992: 106, emphasis added).

It is noteworthy that the approach that will be taken in this study is that of corpus linguistics as a research methodology, which has the potential to contrast cohesive devices in Arabic and English texts, and to examine its implications to cross-linguistic studies.

II.1.5.The Conception of Corpus

It is important to cast some light in this chapter on the definition of a *corpus* before embarking into the interrelationship between CL and TS using the corpus-based approach.

II.1.5.1. Defining a Corpus

The word *corpus* is a Latin word that signifies *body* referring to merely a collection of authentic texts usually amassed by a specific author. However, within the field of corpus linguistics, the word corpus means essentially a large collection of naturally occurring examples of language (spoken or written) stored electronically and complied for a specific purpose. According to many scholars in the field of corpus linguistics, such as Sinclair (1991), Kennedy (1998) and Hunston (2002), as well as many others, a corpus is a collection of authentic language, which has been assembled according to clear design criteria for a particular purpose.

Hunston (2002: 2), for example, stated that a corpus is defined in terms of both its form and its purpose. It is used "to describe a collection of naturally occurring examples of language, consisting of anything from a few sentences to a set of written texts or tape recordings, which have been collected for a linguistic study." This denotes that the size of the corpus varies from a few sentences to large extracts of texts; it can be of two media, written or spoken collected for one main purpose which is a linguistic study.

Moreover, the word corpus is commonly used in a narrower sense today to refer to systematic text collections that have been computerised. That is to say, it is reserved for a large collection of texts that are stored electronically and processed by computers for some linguistic purposes. Hunston (2002: 2) put it as follows:

> More recently, the word [corpus] has been reserved for collections of texts (or parts of texts) that are stored and accessed electronically. Because computers can hold and process large amounts of information, electronic corpora are usually larger than the small, paper-based collections previously used to study aspects of language.

For Sinclair (2005:16), a corpus in a general way can be defined as "a collection of pieces of language text in electronic form, selected according to external criteria to represent, as far as possible, a language or language variety as a source of data for linguistic research." Collecting texts according to specific external criteria means that the structure and contents of the corpus should adhere to sampling criteria, i.e. criteria on the basis of which the texts included are chosen, several text types and varieties, etc. (as to be seen later).

Equally, according to Graner (2004: 226), "corpus, in modern linguistics, refers to large collections of texts which represent a sample of a particular variety or use of language(s) that are usually stored as an electronic database and are presented in machine readable form." The fact that corpora are collections of natural language held electronically, i.e. in a machine readable form, means that the corpus data are capable to be analysed automatically or semi-automatically, rather than manually (Baker, 1995). Interestingly, machine readable varieties have many advantages over other forms of storage. McEnery and Wilson (1994) stressed that they are explored and operated in ways which are not possible with the other formats, and they can be quickly and easily improved with additional information.

However, it should be noted that the word *corpus* refers to the collections of texts held on computers and processed for particular linguistic purposes, but not for simply accumulating texts. This is the difference between a *corpus* and other types of corpora such as *World Wide Web* texts or *database* (as to be seen in what follows). Kennedy (1998) argued that defining *corpus* as a collection of texts stored electronically is highly contentious because there are numerous kinds of corpora. He disagreed that accumulating corpora with linguistic analysis in mind is a *must*, but maintained that corpus design is still "systematic, planned and structured". He pointed out:

> Some dictionary definitions suggest that corpora necessarily consist of structured collections of text specifically compiled for linguistics analysis, that they are large or that they attempt to be representative of a language as a whole. This is not necessarily so. *Not all corpora which can be used for linguistic (analysis) research were originally compiled for that purpose*. Historically it is not even the case that corpora are necessarily stored electronically so they can be machine reliable, although this is nowadays the norm (Kennedy, 1998: 3, emphasis added).

II.1.5.2. Criteria for Defining a Corpus

In all the above definitions, there is a concentration on one point that corpora aim at providing real and authentic language examples which may constitute a more reliable resource for analysing linguistic phenomena. So, in order to compile any corpus, the collection of texts must be made following some criteria. Common design criteria crucially depend on the idea that corpora should comprise authentic data produced in natural communicative settings, should be collected according to explicit design criteria, and should be representative of a particular language or genre, and, finally, should be designed for a specific linguistic purpose (Flowerdew, 2012). As an instance, McEnery and Wilson (1996) scrutinised four essential characteristics that virtually all modern corpora must have. They are

described as: *sampling and representativeness*, *finite size*, *machine-readable form*, and *standard reference*.

In what follows, some of the most common features that virtually all researchers agreed upon are discussed.

II.1.5.2.1. Representativeness

With the advance brought by computers and the use of sampling techniques in addition to the abundant accessibility of texts, corpus compilation has received great importance and high attention in the last decades. Sinclair (2005) stressed that the design of corpora needs to meet two specific and important criteria. He (ibid. 8) suggested that "the corpus builder should retain, as target notions, representativeness and balance. While these are not precisely definable and attainable goals, they must be used to guide the design of a corpus and the selection of its components." Similarly, McEnery and Wilson (2009) maintained that in order to compile a particular corpus and offer a precise picture of the population under investigation, researchers must assure that corpora should represent, to a feasible extent, the variety or genre of language.

Representativeness refers to the extent to which a sample comprises the huge array of variability in a population. That is to say, a representative corpus is a sample of language use from a particular population which enables results to be generalised to a specific variety or genre of language. As put forward by McEnery and Hardie (2012: 250), a representative corpus is "one sampled in such a way that it contains all the types of text, in the correct proportions, that are needed to make the contents of the corpus an accurate reflection of the whole of the language or variety that it samples." As an instance, the structure of corpora

such as the Brown Corpus and the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus (LOB) aimed principally at representing written American and British English respectively.

Equally, in his definition of representativeness, Biber (1993) tried to suggest a set of rules for making sure that representativeness is part of corpus design, and further explained that creating empirically determined representative corpora must be realised by measuring internal variation within a corpus, "i.e. a corpus is representative if it fully captures the variability of a language" (McEnery & Hardie, 2012:10).

Biber (1993) and Sinclair (2005) proposed seven important steps towards achieving as representative a corpus as possible. As a sampler, you should:

a. decide on the structural criteria that you will use to build the corpus, and apply then to create a framework for the principal corpus components;
b. for each component draw up a comprehensive inventory of text types that are found there, using external criteria only;
c. put the text types in a priority order, taking into account all the factors that you think might increase or decrease the importance of a text type — the kind of factors discussed above;
d. estimate a target size for each text type, relating together (i) the overall target size for the component (ii) the number of text types (iii) the importance of each (iv) the practicality of gathering quantities of it;
e. as the corpus takes shape, maintain comparison between the actual dimensions of the material and the original plan;
f. (most important of all) document these steps so that users can have a reference point if they get unexpected results, and that improvements can be made on the basis of experience (Sinclair, 2005: 8).

II.1.5.2.2. Balance

The second most important feature of corpus design is balance. A balanced corpus includes a variety of text categories and is usually grounded on proportional sampling and text typology. According to McEnery and Hardie (2012: 239), "A corpus is said to be *balanced* if the relative sizes of each of its subsections have been chosen with the aim of adequately representing the range of language that exists in the population of texts being sampled."

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Nevertheless, not all available corpora are balanced. For example, The British National Corpus (BNC) was heavily weighted in favour of written texts; only 10% of the 100 million words were of spoken data representing the total picture of contemporary British English. Whereas, the smaller (ICE), International Corpus of English, is one of the few corpora with the balance weighted in favour of spoken texts, 60% were of spoken texts and 40% of written texts (Kennedy, 1998).

II.1.5.2.3. Machine-readable Form

Another distinguishing feature is the machine-readability of corpora. It is concurred that virtually all modern-day corpora must be machine readable. This form means that the corpus is hold in plain ASCII or Unicode text files that can be inserted, operated, and treated electronically. It is the machine processing that makes corpus analysis feasible and thanks to the reliability of computers that the analysis of corpora became more accurate (Gries, 2009). In other words, the machine processing simplifies the corpus analysis because it opens the way to the quick and easy investigation and manipulation of data, and also allows for further improvement by adding extra information. Basic mark-up way may include *part-of-speech tagging* or *lemmatization* in order to achieve different goals. For example, according to McEnery and Wilson (1996), some corpora are compiled with sophisticated retrieval software that assists in checking precisely the defined syntactic and/or lexical patterns. Moreover, being machine readable involves that corpora must be properly *annotated*; this means that the corpus is stored, also, in text files with XML annotation, which is analytic information about the language (Gries, 2009). According to Hall (2012), the use of annotation varies according to the researchers' goals and tools. Practically, all commercial corpora are annotated, whereas the corpora used for individual purposes are not annotated at all.

II.1.5.2.4. Standard Reference

A corpus is said to comprise a standard reference for the language variety that it represents when it is used as a model of comparison with specialised corpora or when it is used to produce reference materials for language learning or translation (Hunston, 2002). This implies that it will be of a wide ranging availability to other researchers. For example, the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) has been used as the basis of over 400 publications (Learner Corpus Bibliography, 2009 in Hunston, 2002). Hall (2012) affirmed that because this one corpus had become the de facto standard, follow up studies could easily be compared with earlier studies.

II.1.5.2.5. Size of the Corpus

The last relevant and important factor to the definition of corpora is their size. It is not in any way related to the above-mentioned parameters. In fact, the size of the corpus varies according to the researchers' aims and objectives; it may range from hundreds of words to many millions of words. In general, large-scale and general-purpose corpora are composed of 100 million to 500 million words, whereas more specialised and genre-related corpora may range from 50,000 to 250,000 words. For example, the corpus of general written American English, *the Brown Corpus*, contains a million words, whereas, a limited number of words may constitute some specialised corpora; Stubbs (1996), for example, collected and investigated a corpus of the 880 words in two letters from *Lord Baden-Powell*, the founder of *the Boy Scouts* (Hall, 2012).

In general, all researchers agreed that the larger the corpus the easier it is to include a variety of genres, registers or text types. Sinclair (1991) stressed that corpora should be large and should contain many millions of words in order to represent adequately the language used

and to consider sufficiently the specific multiple occurrences of the items under investigation. He (1991: 171) pointed out:

> In modern computational linguistics, a corpus typically contains many millions of words: this is because it is recognized that the creativity of natural language leads to such immense variety of expression that it is difficult to isolate the recurrent patterns that are the clues to the lexical structure of the language.

He (ibid.) underlined that corpora should be considered as a collection of millions of words, presumably because his research main objective was the collection of general-purpose dictionaries and grammars, which necessitated the scrutiny of millions of words, in order to reach an ample description of the system as much as possible. In a similar vein, Sampson (2001: 6, in Flowerdew, 2012) focused on the necessity of a "sizeable sample of real-life usage" to guarantee an ample proof for formulating or testing hypotheses about the language.

However, Biber (1990 in Flowerdew, 2012) criticised the rule *bigger is better*, in that the size of a corpus is significantly dependent on the object of the study and the phenomenon under investigation. That is to say, smaller corpora can be also used to inquire into common features of languages, such as grammatical units. Flowerdew (2012:5) pointed out that for such aims, smaller corpora are perfectly suitable. She wrote:

> Smallish samples of a few thousand words can yield useful insights into the linguistic realization of strategic competence for maintaining interpersonal relations. There is thus a case to be made for using more qualitative data for examining very specific sub- purposes concerning socio- pragmatic behaviour, which could easily be overlooked in larger- scale quantitative analysis.

Therefore, it can be said that there is no basic prerequisite for a definite size in corpora. The corpus size is contingent on its specific purpose, and since there is a great diversity of purposes, different sizes will essentially be found.

To put it in a nutshell, from the above discussion a short definition of modern-day corpora can be suggested: Corpora refer to machine-readable collections of naturally occurring data (spoken or written) which are amassed from different sources on a variety of topics for a specific purpose and according to explicit design criteria, with the intention to be representative of a specific linguistic variety or genre and to be analysed linguistically.

II.1.5.3. What a Corpus is not

As mentioned earlier, corpora differ from other large collections of machine-readable texts. For the sake of terminological clarity, it is important to sharply differentiate between examples of language texts that are confused with corpora, mainly *World Wide Web* and *Database*.

II.1.5.3.1. Corpus vs Web

Although most corpora, as a general rule, are of substantial dimensions they are still definite and well-defined. However, the indefinite and the huge collection of ever-growing data used for the study of language obtainable from the Internet may also act as "a type of corpus [but] for quick and dirty work" (Hall, 2012:41). As an instance, Hall and Lee (2006 in Hall, 2012) displayed the easy methods of the non-native teachers of English to draw upon commercial search engines, such as Google, to examine the language structures, lexical distributions, and syntactic differences in World Englishes.

Nonetheless, many researchers, e.g. Sinclair (2005), Hall (2012), McEnery and Hardie (2012) do cast doubt on the argument that World Wide Web is considered as a type of corpus for a number of reasons. Sinclair (2005) keenly questioned this point and summarised the reasons as follows:

The World Wide Web is not a corpus, *because its dimensions are unknown and constantly changing, and because it has not been designed from a linguistic perspective*. At present it is quite mysterious because *the search engines, through which the retrieval programs operate, are all different; none of them are comprehensive,* and *it is not at all clear what population is being sampled*. (Sinclair, 2005:17, emphasis added)

Moreover, the data obtained from the web are considered as an undifferentiated mass that entails a lot of processing to sort into meaningful groups of texts, this is mainly because the content of the web is not divided by genre. Furthermore, because the web is continuously changing, it is not possible to replicate studies based on the web done few years ago, and this is a major disadvantage to the web as corpus-based study (McEnery & Hardie, 2012).

However, in spite of these uncertainties, Kilgariff and Grefenstette (2003: 334, in Flowerdew, 2012) contended that the Web is seen a corpus only if "[it] is a collection of texts when considered as an object of language or literary study." They maintained that corpus linguists should ask the question "Is corpus x good for task y?" instead of "What is a corpus?" Therefore, they grappled with the problem of absence of representativeness in World Wide Web texts, revealing that this criterion is not clearly evident in the collection of large-scale general corpora either.

It is worth mentioning also that irrespective of the criticism levelled against the web, some of the merits of using the Web as a corpus have been put forward. In addition to using commercial search engines such as Google, *interfaces* have been specifically designed to support the use of Web, permitting users to present more sophisticated inquiries. Such search engines include WebCorp (Renouf et al. 2007, in Flowerdew, 2012).

II.1.5.3.2. Corpus vs Database

Numerous corpus linguists like Leech (1991) and Hunston (2002) pointed out that corpora differ from *databases*, in that they are designed according to clear design criteria for a particular purpose. However, a *database* or *text archive*, is a large unstructured collection of texts, often amassed according to easily accessible data rather than on the basis of systematic sampling techniques. According to Sinclair (2005, 17), "an archive is not a corpus. Here the main difference is the reason for gathering the texts, which leads to quite different priorities in the gathering of information about the individual texts." In a similar vein, Leech (1991:11) suggested that "the difference between an archive and a corpus must be that the latter is designed or required for a particular "representative" function." It is, nevertheless, not always easy to see unequivocally what a corpus is representing in terms of language variety (Kennedy, 1998).

II.1.5.3.3. Corpus vs Other Text Collections

In addition to the *web* and *databases*, other types of text collections, as suggested by Sinclair (2005), include a *collection of citations*, and a *collection of quotations*. These types of texts are rejected from corpus compilation because of a number of reasons. For example, the *collection of citations* is not a corpus because it is a short collection from a text, selected according to internal criteria and decided by human beings and not machines. Likewise, the *collection of quotations*, which lacks the textual continuity and anonymity that characterise the data retrieved from a corpus, sets it apart from a corpus.

II.1.6. Applications of Corpus Linguistics

As Hunston (2002) explained, the application of corpus linguistics has strong significance to a wide range of linguistic enquiries such as for language teaching, translation, lexicography, critical linguistics, literary studies, forensic linguistics, etc. For the purpose of this research, the two fully-fledged disciplines of CL and TS, which are taking great advantage of the merits of corpus linguistics, will be discussed in the second section of this chapter.

II.1.7. Types of Corpora

Corpora are always designed for a specific use, and their types depend heavily on their purposes. They are categorised according to various criteria such as the content, the form of the corpus, and the number of languages incorporated. Some commonly used corpus types include: general, specialised, parallel, comparable, learner, pedagogic, monitor and historical corpora. Based on Hunston (2002), McEnery et al. (2006) and Bennett's typologies of corpora (2010), the following types are briefly demonstrated.

II.1.7.1. General Corpora

A general corpus is a corpus of many texts' types; it may contain written or spoken data or both. It is usually very large, comprising many millions of words, and covering a variety of languages in order to generalise from it some conclusions. Though it is implausible to represent all possible language, it includes a wide range of texts that help users get the complete picture of language.

Occasionally, a *general corpus* is called a *reference corpus* when it is used as a model of comparison with specialised corpora and when it is used to produce reference materials for

language learning or translation (Hunston, 2002). The British National Corpus (BNC) is an example of renowned general corpora; it consists of written texts derived from different sources such as newspapers, magazine articles, and works of fiction, as well as writing for scholarly journals, government proceedings and business meetings. The generality of this corpus makes it a useful source for research purposes in different fields such as linguistics, lexicography, artificial intelligence and literary studies.

II.1.7.2. Specialised Corpora

Specialised Corpora are corpora of texts of a specific type. They can be large or small and often designed to represent and investigate the language of this type. The collection of texts may represent particular text types, genres or topics such as newspaper editorials, academic articles, lectures, casual conversations, essays written by students, etc. Specialised corpora for specific purposes are amassed by researchers in order to describe the type of language under investigation. Examples of specialised corpora include The Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICOSE), which contains only spoken language in a university setting. Other domain specific corpora include, for example, the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Computer Science Corpus (HKUST), which contains one million words of written English from undergraduate textbooks in computer science. It is important to note that specialised corpora can be extracted from general corpora. Because of the variability of domains and genres, specialised corpora offer useful resources for studies in the relevant domain and genres (McEnery et al., 2006).

II.1.7.3. Learner Corpora

A learner corpus is a kind of specialised corpora that is applicable to the classroom settings. The data collected are the L2 writing or speech of learners acquiring a second

language. This type of corpora allows researchers to determine "in what respects learners differ from each other and from the native speakers, for which a comparable corpus of native-speaker texts is required" (Hunston, 2002:15). The International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) (Granger, 2003) is the best known learner corpus; it contains approximately three million words of essays written by English language learners from 14 different language backgrounds (French, Swedish, and German, etc.). There are other learner corpora which are more specialised. For example, the Standard Speaking Test Corpus (SST) contains oral interview tests of Japanese learners (McEnery et al., 2006).

II.1.7.4. Pedagogic Corpora

Pedagogic corpora consist of all the language encountered in classroom settings. They include academic textbooks, transcripts of classroom interactions, written text or spoken transcripts that learners have used or heard in an educational setting. They are used for a wide range of purposes such as to guarantee that students are learning useful language, to increase the students' learning awareness towards all instances of language in different contexts and to study the teacher-student dynamics (Bennet, 2010).

II.1.7.5. Monitor Corpora

A monitor corpus is a corpus where texts can be added or removed. It is designed to track existing changes and identify new words in a language. It is rapidly increasing in size because it increases annually, monthly or even daily. But, the quantity of text types in the corpus is constant, so that each year (or month or day) it is directly comparable with every other corpus (Hunston, 2002). Danielsson (2003:6) explained that "the term monitor corpus was first introduced by Sinclair (1987) in reference to a dynamic, as opposed to static corpus, in which one may study the changing nature of language."

II.1.7.6. Historical or Diachronic Corpora

They are corpora of texts from different periods of time. They are used to find the development of features of a language over a period of time. The Helsinki Corpus is the well-known historical corpus of English; it consists of texts from the period between 700 and 1700 and contains 1.5 million words.

II.1.7.7. Comparable Corpora

They consist of two or more corpora in different languages or varieties of a language. The collections of texts are compiled following the same type of criteria. For example, they contain the same proportions of newspaper texts, novels, casual conversation, etc. While comparable corpora of varieties of the same language can be used to compare those varieties, comparable corpora of various languages can be used "by translators and by learners to identify differences and equivalences in each language' (Hunston, 2002:15).

II.1.7.8. Parallel Corpora

A parallel corpus consists of texts in one language and their translations into another language and which are typically aligned at the sentence or word level such as when a novel in language A is translated into Language B. There are also other texts that are produced concurrently in two or more languages. For example, the EU regulations is a good foundation for parallel corpora. The regulations released in all the official languages of the EU can be used by translators and learners to examine the similarities and differences between languages. Parallel corpora can be *unidirectional* (i.e. the translation from one language into another Language), or *bidirectional* (i.e. into both directions: L1 into L2 and L2 into L1), or *multidirectional* (i.e. when more than two languages are involved) (Hunston, 2002).

Finally, what can be deduced is that the types of corpora depend heavily on the criteria of their design and purpose (i.e. they are contingent on the research questions that users want to investigate), and the wide availability of different types of corpora as linguistic resources is due to the possible combination of the parameters differentiating corpus types. That is why, in addition to the ready-made and available corpora, other self-made corpora can be constructed in order to address the researchers' inquiries.

In this section, some of the key concepts, which are particularly applicable to corpus linguistics, have been briefly outlined; and hence, the necessary information about the usefulness of the corpus-based approach to general linguistic enquiry will prove to offer a suitable source of data for cross-linguistic studies. In view of this, and bearing in mind the aim of the present study (i.e. to discuss the differences and similarities between Arabic and English cohesive devices and examine their effect on translation), building our own unidirectional parallel corpus would meet this objective. Accordingly, in order to better structure this study, the subsequent section will review the two converging disciplines, CL and TS, together with a detailed account of the role of corpus-based approach in bringing them closer together. The main purpose is to bring to light the significance of the use of translation in cross-linguistic relationships, as it seems to be a combining element between the two disciplines, as well as, revealing how CL needs to inform translation research and vice versa.

II.2. The Corpus-based Approach to Contrastive Linguistics and Translation Studies

As previously seen, by drawing on the assets of corpus linguistics, new approaches to the study of language in use emerged and the renovation of a number of linguistic disciplines was not an exception. Consequently, the linguistic disciplines that focus on the relationship

between two or more languages (i.e. CL and TS) have also known an unprecedented development in linguistic analysis thanks to the use of computerised language corpora. However, before examining the corpus-based approach to CL and TS, it is necessary to shed some light on the types of corpora used in these two disciplines.

II.2.1. Corpora in Cross-linguistic Research

As the application of corpus linguistics has strong significance to a wide variety of disciplines, it is of no exception to cross-linguistic studies, i.e. CL and TS. The appropriate types applied for each discipline include, *multilingual*, *parallel* and *comparable* corpora. Unfortunately, bearing in mind the novelty of this research study, it is obvious that no clear-cut terminology of corpus types is available; they are nonetheless interrelated and sometimes leading to considerable uncertainty. For this reason, it is more convenient to organise the typology of corpora in view of the researchers' objectives; i.e., to specify which type of corpus is appropriate for which study. In this view, as Granger (2003) suggested, two main categorisations can be distinguished, one for CL and the other for TS.

First, from the contrastive perspective, contrastive linguists distinguish between two main types of corpora involving more than one language, they are *parallel corpora* and *comparable corpora*, in addition to the combination of the two (Granger, 2003).

A. *Parallel corpora* contain source texts plus their translations into one or other languages. e.g. Canadian Hansard (Brown et al., 1991), CRATER (McEnery & Oakes, 1995).
B. *Comparable corpora* (are usually multilingual) consist of original texts in two or more languages designed using the same sampling frame such as genre, time of publication etc. e.g. The Aarhus corpus of contract law (Faber & Lauridsen, 1991).
C. The combination of *parallel* and *comparable* corpora, e.g. the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC) (Johansson & Hofland, 1994).

On the other hand, from the perspective of translation, translation researchers use many terms to distinguish between the different types of corpora. Various attempts include many studies like Baker (1995), Laviosa (1997, 2002), Zanettin (2000, 2011) and Fernandes (2006). Baker (1995: 230), for example, suggested three main types of corpora, "in anticipation of the surge of activity" in translation research and pedagogy; they are:

i. *Parallel corpora* – "consist of original, source language-texts in language A and their translated versions in language B" (ibid: 230);
ii. *Multilingual corpora* – "refer to sets of two or more monolingual corpora in different languages, built up either in the same or different institutions on the basis of similar design criteria" (ibid: 232);
iii. *Comparable corpora* – (are usually monolingual) "consist of two separate collections of texts in the same language: one corpus consists of original texts in the language in question and the other consists of translations in that language from a given source language or languages" (ibid: 234).

Nevertheless, Baker's threefold classification received some criticism by some researchers, e.g. Fernandes (2006). The main reason is that the field of Corpus Translation Studies (CTS) is in constant development, and, therefore, further improvements must be fulfilled in order to describe precisely all types of corpora, which have recently emerged in the field. Fernandes (ibid: 91) proposed a more flexible way of categorising the different types of corpora in the descriptive and applied branches of this field. He reorganised the taxonomy under only two main categories: *parallel* and *comparable*. The rejection of multilingual corpora is due to the fact that the term *multilingual* does not carry any contrastive feature that differentiates it from *parallel* and *comparable* corpora. He supported his classification with the arguments brought by Teubert (1996) and Kenny (2001) who emphasised that the term *multilingual comparable* corpus has often been used in substitution of multilingual corpora. Similarly, for Olohan (2004), the focus is only on *parallel* and *comparable* corpora, and this may imply a change of perspective on the way the types of corpora are classified.

To explain, given that researchers are dealing with translations means that the corpora used involve more than one language. Corpora consisting of at least three languages are referred to as *multilingual* corpora or *multi-source-language* corpora, while those containing two languages are usually referred to as *bilingual* corpora. To state some research works dealing with this phenomenon: the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC), (Johansson and Hofland, 1994) and the Translation English Corpus (TEC), (Baker, 1995). Thus, it can be said that, the term *multilingual* does not reflect any contrastive feature that differentiates it from the other two types of corpora. The term, however, obtains a contrastive feature only when compared to other corpora in terms of language number, i.e. the corpora used must involve more than one language. In this sense, for Fernandes (2006), what Baker (1995) referred to as *a multilingual corpus* could be categorised according to this new viewpoint as *a linguistic multilingual comparable corpus*. He (ibid: 92) explained:

> *Linguistic* because corpora of this kind are not primarily concerned with the study of translation, *multilingual* because of the number of languages involved and *comparable* due to the fact that the texts comprising this kind of corpus are assembled on the basis of textual resemblance (emphasis added).

In this section, the types of *parallel* and *comparable corpora,* which are very pertinent to CL investigations and TS, will be introduced.

II.2.1.1. Parallel Corpora

Parallel corpora are multilingual corpora which exhibit some kind of parallelism. They can be bilingual or multilingual consisting of texts in one language and translations of those same texts in another language. For this type of corpora, the following terms at least are found in the literature: *A parallel corpus* in McEnery et al. (2006) and in Baker (1993, 1995); *a translation corpus* in Granger (1996) and Johansson (1998), and *a translational corpus* in Lauridsen (1996).

According to Teubert (1996: 245), there are many possibilities for parallel corpora, among which are:

i. A parallel corpus containing only texts originally written in language A and their translations into languages B (and C...).
ii. A parallel corpus containing an equal amount of texts originally written in languages A and B and their respective translations.
iii. A parallel corpus containing only translations of texts into the languages A, B and C, whereas the texts were originally written in language Z.

For Ebeling (1998: 3), parallel corpora suggest

i. that the two subcorpora represent different languages or dialects with the same amount of data drawn from comparable sources; or
ii. that they express the same content in different languages or dialects; or
iii. that the same effect is aimed at using different languages or dialects (or even styles); or
iv. that one subcorpus consists of original text, the other of translated text in the same language.

For the purpose of this research, the focus will be on the first type of Teubert's (1996) classification and the second of Ebeling's (1998) one, since it is most suitable for the study of what seems to be equivalent structures in the two languages. It is, in fact, the most common version, where only two languages are involved; one sub-corpus consists of original texts, while the other of translated texts in a different language.

III.2.1.1.1. Existing Parallel Corpora

Some of the existing parallel corpora have been reported by Kenning (2010: 488). They include:

- The European Corpus Initiative multilingual corpus which contains texts in twenty seven (mostly European) languages;
- Hansard French/English, a collection of parallel texts in English and Canadian French, drawn from official records of the proceedings of the Canadian Parliament;
- Arabic English parallel news, Arabic news stories and their English translations;
- The Hong Kong Laws parallel text (Chinese, English).
- The CRATER project (Spanish, French and English),
- The English– Norwegian parallel corpus (ENPC),

- INTERSECT (English, French and German),
- COMPARA (Portuguese, English),
- JRC–Acquis, a Multilingual Parallel Corpus of EU legislative texts covering over twenty European languages.

However, because of the scarcity of publicly or commercially available parallel corpora, or sometimes the difficulty of having access to both STs and their translations (especially when they do not serve the objectives of corpus users), texts which are produced simultaneously in different languages (e.g. EU Regulations) make an excellent example of the category of parallel corpora and offer a satisfactory solution for translators, since they instantly provide reliable translations (Hunston, 2002). For example, the Open Source Parallel Corpus (OPUS) offers downloadable parallel texts from the European Parliament Proceedings.

Moreover, in the absence of suitable corpora, an easy solution that might be helpful for researchers is to compile one's own parallel corpus. The compilation of such corpora necessitates the use of computational algorithms, such as sentence alignment and parallel concordances. This can be accomplished through the use of some aligner functions of commercially available software such as Scott's WordSmith Tools (2014). It is important to mention that presenting a set of aligned parallel texts, as Barlow (1996 in Danielsson, 2003) reiterated, is very remarkable because it helps users see every sentence with its corresponding translation, and therefore, compare the translated texts with their originals. Therefore, it is inevitable that the equivalence of particular constructions can be obtained through parallel corpora. The sentence alignment functions allow learners to pinpoint all the occurrences of expressions together with the corresponding sentences in the other language. Furthermore, the use of translation memories retrieved from machine translation, for translations, where the STs and the TTs are held in an aligned design can be considered parallel corpora. From these translation memory systems, translators can examine the translated language in order to virtually guarantee prompt, accurate and consistent translations (Kübler & Aston, 2010).

II.2.1.2. Comparable Corpora

A comparable corpus is a multilingual corpus that is developed on the basis of comparability. It can be defined as a collection of texts that are compiled following the same type of criteria i.e. sampling frame and similar balance and representativeness (McEnery, 2003). Unlike parallel corpora, there is no translation relation between the two or several texts in the comparable corpus. Instead, they do entail some different types of equivalence. For example, the same proportions of the texts are combined on the basis of similarity of content, domain, communicative function from a given period. According to Kenning (2010: 487), "the sets themselves, however, remain independent. Newspaper articles, election speeches, job adverts, birth announcements, all of which obey textual conventions that vary across cultures, exemplify the kinds of item of interest to compilers of comparable corpora."

From the contrastive perspective, it is worth pointing out that, in general, large corpora that include texts from a wide range of genres or varieties of the same language collected according to similar criteria can be used to compare those varieties of corpora, and therefore, can be regarded as constituting comparable corpora (Kenning, 2010). Corpora such as the British National Corpus (BNC), the Brown University Standard Corpus of Present-Day American English (Brown), and the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus (LOB), which are well known outside the discipline of CL and designed for representing modern English, contain comparable texts from different varieties of English, thus, permitting for a cross-variety comparison of specific linguistic features. The terms of such corpora tend to be reserved for *specialised corpora* consisting of particular types of text, e.g. Kenning (2010), and are generally referred to as *reference corpora,* e.g. Hunston (2002). However, McEnery and Xaio (2008:20) explained that "[reference corpora] are not comparable corpora because all corpora,

as a source for linguistic research, have 'always been pre-eminently suited for comparative studies' (Aarts, 1998), either intralingual or interlingual."

Moreover, comparable corpora of various languages can be used by learners to identify differences and equivalences in each language. McEnery et al. (2008: 49 in Zanettin, 2011) stressed that "since the sampling frames used for the Korean National Corpus, the Chinese National Corpus and the Polish National Corpus are similar to that of the BNC, these corpora are said to form a balanced comparable corpus that makes contrastive studies for these four languages possible." Similarly, from the perspective of translation, translation researchers do not necessarily have a strong need for only parallel corpora; comparable corpora, especially those of specialised texts, can also be used in translation training. This is for the sake of helping translators understand the terminology of texts, improve their phraseology as well as evaluating the students' translations.

For Teubert (1996: 243),

A corpus that will be exploited with the ultimate goal of facilitating translation should probably contain only texts with features that make them likely to be translated. A good model for comparable corpora are the national reference corpora designed in the project *Network of European textual Reference Corpora* (NERC). These corpora will be of equal size and (on the basis of certain features of central importance) equal composition (Calzolari et al., 1994a).

To summarise, from the angle of the contrastive features of parallel and comparable corpora, it can be said that, in a parallel corpus, texts are collected on the basis of translational similarity (i.e. original texts in one language, together with their translations into another language). On the other hand, in a comparable corpus, texts are gathered on the basis of textual similarity (i.e. similarity of topic, text-type, communicative function, etc.). Nevertheless, from the perspective of translation, the main difference between parallel and comparable corpora is not restricted to the fact that the former comprise translations and the

latter do not, since not all comparable corpora are of naturally occurring language. Kenning (2010:487) stressed that

> What distinguishes parallel from comparable corpora is that parallel corpora imply a common source text. This common source may be part of the corpus, or it may lie outside the corpus… Other possibilities include translations in more than one language, and multiple translations of the same text into one particular target language (resulting in a monolingual parallel corpus if the source text is not included).

As a final point, it would be possible to specify which type of corpus is more appropriate for which type of study. A number of research works, e.g. Teubert (1996), Johansson (2003) and Granger (2003) discussed this idea and agreed that all types of studies require parallel corpora in a way or another. Granger (2003), for example, summarised the different types of cross-linguistic comparison and the disciplines within which they are undertaken. She (ibid: 21) presented the table below:

	Type of Comparison	Type of Corpus	Discipline
1.	$OL_x \Leftrightarrow OL_y$	Multilingual comparable corpus of original texts	CL
2.	$SL_x \Leftrightarrow TL_y$	Multilingual translation corpus	CL & TS
3.	$SL_x \Leftrightarrow TL_x$	Monolingual comparable corpus of original and translated texts	TS & CL
4.	$TL_x \Leftrightarrow TL_y$	Multilingual comparable corpus of translated texts	TS

Table 1: **Types of Corpus-based Cross-linguistic Comparison[7] according to Granger (2003)**

Furthermore, it is evident that the existing technology empowers the combination of several types of corpora. Johansson (2003) indicated that *multilingual corpora* of original texts and their translations, *multilingual comparable corpora* and *monolingual corpora*

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[7] OL = Original Language   SL = Source Language   TL = Translated Language

consisting of original and translated texts can be joined within the same general framework, and the types can be used to manipulate and complement each other. A case in point is the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (Johansson, 1998). In this respect, the same corpus can be used for both CL and TS, and, therefore, it would be possible to avoid problems of *translationeses* (as to be seen later).

It is obvious, then, that parallel and comparable corpora represent a remarkably significant recourse for cross-linguistic studies. Bearing in mind the focus of the present study, to contrast Arabic and English cohesive devices, parallel corpora, which serve as an essential resource for establishing equivalence between the ST and the TT, will prove fruitful.

III.2.2. The Corpus-based Approach: Contrastive Linguistics and Translation Studies Interrelated

By means of the new corpus-based approach to CL and TS, the interrelationship holding between these two disciplines and the need for a common ground to work on became of a pressing necessity. For this reason, what follows is a brief account of CL and TS with particular emphasis on more recent developments. The main purpose is to describe the role of computerised language corpora in providing new stimulus to these two disciplines and bringing them closer together.

II.2.1.1. Contrastive Linguistics

Much of the development of the contrastive analysis approach had been undertaken with foreign language teaching rather than translation in mind. However, some years later, several large contrastive projects were set up, contrasting English with other languages with the purpose of providing input to translation studies. For example, Candlin (1980: iv)

emphasised that the significance of contrastive analysis should not be exclusively related to practical language teaching terms; he said: "there was always more to contrastive analysis than making claims about learner difficulty." Through several contrastive projects, in which James (1980: iv) was a major contributor, contrastive analysis "has had much to offer to translation theory, the description of particular languages, language typology and the study of language universals." Following this tendency, a shift was sensed towards the study of contrastive analysis as the systematic comparison of two or more languages. CL is best defined as "the systematic synchronic study of similarities and differences in the structure and use of two or more language varieties, carried out for theoretical or practical purposes" (Bugarski, 1991:77 in Ramón García, 2002).

It is important to mention that the systematic study of similarities and differences of languages is of great significance in both theoretical and applied perspectives. Fisiak (1981) emphasised that the focus of CL offers a crossing point between theory and application. For the objective of applicability (e.g. foreign language teaching, bilingual analysis or translation), applied contrastive studies draw on the findings of theoretical contrastive studies and provide a framework for the comparison of languages. In a similar vein, Johansson and Hofland (1994: 25) stated:

> Language comparison is of great interest in a theoretical as well as an applied perspective. It reveals what is general and what is language specific and is therefore important both for the understanding of language in general and for the study of the individual languages compared.

Hence, broadly defined, CL is the study of one or more languages for applied or theoretical purposes. The main goal of the comparison may diverge; it may range from understanding languages in general to comparing and contrasting two or more languages, in order to describe the similarities and differences between them. In this view, CL is not viewed

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as an integrated discipline because the scrutiny of language comparison is not limited to only the immediate practical/pedagogical applications (i.e. with the aim of offering better descriptions and improving teaching materials for language learners), but also to some theoretical or applied perspectives (i.e. with a specific purpose in mind) (Johansson, 2008).

Accordingly, Johansson (2008) explained that the comparison across languages is a good way of highlighting, more obviously, the characteristics of each language and a constructive contribution to an improved description of every single language. This type of contrastive analysis is also called *analytic comparison* or *linguistic characterology* in Mathesius' terms (1975). He referred to this type as a means of defining each language feature and gaining a thorough understanding into their specific features. Similarly, Firbas (1992) followed the same model of comparison proposed by Mathesius (1975). He compared an original text in French with its translations into English, German, and Czech, and pointed out that "the contrastive method proves to be a useful heuristic tool capable of throwing valuable light on the characteristic features of the languages contrasted" (Firbas, 1992: 13 in Johansson, 2008).

Furthermore, the substantial contribution of CL extends beyond individual languages. The comparison across a number of languages assists also in the clear description of the characteristic of languages more generally. Through this type of comparison, it will be necessary to identify *universals* of language, i.e. features of language in general (Johansson, 2008).

In what follows, some of the most related features to CL are outlined by Johansson (2008), Ramón Garcia (2002) and Taboda et al. (2012):

a. The scrutiny of language comparison can be carried out at different levels, from phonetics, to grammar, lexis or text linguistics. Early contrastive studies had always focused on the *microlinguistic* approach to language, i.e. the analysis of grammar, phonology and lexis (James, 1980: 61ff.). Examples of research questions include:

- What are the consonant phonemes in languages X and Y? How do they differ in inventory, realization, and distribution?

- What is the tense system of languages X and Y?

- What are the verbs of saying in languages X and Y?

However, with the development of linguistic studies in the 1970s and 1980s, contrastive studies had also been carried out at higher levels. It has become increasingly concerned with *macrolinguistic* contrastive analysis (James, 1980: 98ff.), i.e. the study of discourse analysis and text linguistics. Examples of research questions include:

- How is cohesion expressed in languages X and Y?

- How are the speech acts of apologizing and requesting expressed in languages X and Y?

- How are conversations opened and closed in languages X and Y?

Hence, when contrastive studies covered such questions on a macro-linguistic level; new directions of CL were stuck to a comparison of cultures. At this point, as Gast (2011) maintained, other fields proved to have a close connection with CL bringing about the emergence of novel research fields, such as contrastive sociolinguistics (Hellinger and Ammon, 1996), cross-cultural pragmatics (Wierzbicka, 1985; 1992) and contrastive rhetoric (Connor, 1996).

Moreover, as Johansson (2008) asserted, when such new questions had been addressed, it became increasingly important to base the contrastive study on authentic texts, and this is

where multilingual corpora emerged. Hence, contrastive linguists started to base their contrastive studies on texts that "… may be derived from either (a) a bilingual's use of himself as his own informant for both languages, or (b) close comparison of a specific text with its translation" (Levenston, 1965: 225 in Johansson, 2007). And this justifies the use of translations as a means of establishing cross-linguistic relationships. By drawing on translations, researchers would be able to analyse and contrast languages in use, and answer important questions concerning equivalence. In this view, both disciplines CL and TS share, now, one integrating element, equivalence.

b. Contrastive Linguistics is mostly built upon equivalence:

It is a common fact that any contrastive analysis emphasises on the so called *tertium comparationis* (TC). This means that any two languages must have some shared ground by which they can be used as a point of departure for a contrastive analysis; otherwise such a task will not be possible. The most commonly used measure is *equivalence*, particularly *translation equivalence*. James (1980), in his attempt to thoroughly define translation equivalence, concluded that *translation equivalence* is the best available TC for contrastive analysis. He sees *translation equivalence* in the light of Halliday's three metafunctions of language (1970), and stated that "For two sentences from different languages to be translationally equivalent they must convey the same ideational *and* interpersonal *and* textual meanings" (James, 1980: 178). Therefore, translation as a tool of research in contrastive studies concentrates on the equivalence established between the source language and the target one. This fact is especially notable in studying the relationship between CL and TS, which is a bidirectional one (as to be seen further down). On the one hand, translations may provide data for contrastive analysis; on the other hand, contrastive analysis may provide

justifications of the difficulties encountered in translation (Hoey & Houghton, 1998 in Johansson, 2008).

c. The comparison of two languages can be carried out following any linguistic model, bearing in mind that the same model is required to be applied in both cases. One of the outlined approaches dealing with CL includes *functional models* (Chesterman, 1998); it is a proposal for a methodology for contrastive functional analysis (Johansson, 2008).

d. As mentioned earlier, CL is taking a new shape as a discipline on its own, different from contrastive analysis, the "purely applied enterprise" (Granger, 2010), which focused on the production of more systematic foreign language teaching methods and tools. The discipline has been subjected to both great expectations and severe criticism throughout its appearance.

In the early decades of its appearance it achieved success when it had brought many advantages to the development of students' learning processes. A number of studies carried out by many proponents of contrastive analysis, who were inspired by the behaviourists in psychology, e.g. Lado (1957), stressed that language learning was essentially transfer of the mother tongue habits to the foreign language. Lado (ibid: 2) stated: "Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult." In this sense, the fundamental concepts of negative and positive transfer and their importance in the understanding of learning a second language were essential to this view of contrastive analysis.

However, in the late 60s and early 70s the findings obtained from CL which were the basis of the teaching syllabus revealed some kind of unreliability. Hence, contrastive analysis was no longer focusing on pedagogic considerations as it formerly did. The great limitation of

contrastive analysis, for which it is usually criticised, is its main emphasis on one type of error, interference. Researchers such as Corder (1977) showed that interference of a learner's native language is not the only factor at play here. Other factors causing transfer of errors are: age, learning situation and method of teaching. Corder (1975: 207) wrote: "It is clear that many factors play a part in causing transfer errors: age of learner being the principal one but also the formality of the learning situation and the method of teaching." In response to this type of criticism, error analysis was suggested as an alternative. These concepts of positive and negative transfer, which were believed to be strong and narrow, led to a questioning of the very basis of contrastive analysis. They were rejected in favour of advances in the understanding of second language acquisition (SLA) mechanisms that took into consideration the influence of teaching methods or the motivation of learners (Granger, 2010).

Although contrastive analysis lost its importance for a period of time, there were some efforts to revive it since the 80s when researchers, e.g. Odlin (1989), Selinker (1992), and James (1998) re-established transfer as a key factor in second language acquisition (SLA), giving rise to a progressive return of contrastive considerations in teaching (Granger, 2010). However, the most recent factor which played a key role in the revival of CL was the emergence of corpus linguistics, focusing on cross-linguistic matters. Granger (2010:1) stated that:

> Contrastive linguists now have a way of testing and quantifying intuition-based contrastive statements in a body of empirical data that is vastly superior – both qualitatively and quantitatively – to the type of contrastive data that had hitherto been available to them.

According to her (ibid.), multilingual corpora provide contrastive linguists with a more solid empirical foundation than they had been formerly available. Prior research works of Vinay and Darbelnet (1977) and Malblanc (1968), containing abundant examples of

contrastive statements had been largely intuition-based. However, since intuitions can be ambiguous and a few striking differences can lead to dangerous over-generalisations, this contrastive assertion needs more empirical investigations.

III.2.1.1.1. The Corpus-based Approach to Contrastive Linguistics

As previously seen, the shift of interest from foreign language teaching to translation has brought considerable changes into CL; yet, this is not the only factor leading to a rigorous restructuring in the discipline. The emergence and rapid development of corpus linguistics, which has been increasingly focusing on cross-linguistic matters in the last 20-25 years, is a different factor. The availability of computerised language corpora and particularly the emergence of multilingual corpora have played a major role, though a contentious one, in the resurgence of CL in this period. According to Salkie (1999 in Johnasson, 2003),

> Parallel corpora [i.e. multilingual corpora] are a valuable source of data; indeed they have been the principal reason for the revival of contrastive linguistics that has taken place in the 1990s.

Equally important, the huge number of empirical evidence that multilingual corpora provide is considered to be highly constructive for CL. Because corpora provide a wide range of real examples of one linguistic item or structure, the linguist will have a huge number of pertinent cases from different sources and in different contexts, in the two languages. Consequently, corpora of this kind are seen as useful tools in providing comparisons about all aspects of language, from lexis to syntax and to discourse. It is important to note that the comparison provided by corpora casts light also on differences and similarities across translated and original texts, genres and cultures, in addition to texts written by native and non-native speakers (Taboada et al., 2012).

Within studies on CL, some examples include Ebeling's study of the behaviour of English *there-constructions* and the Norwegian equivalent *det-constructions* (1998); Johansson's examination of the English nouns *person* and *thing* in a contrastive perspective (2007); and Barlow's exploration of the similarities in the paradigms of *go* and *aller*, with special emphasis on collocations and idiomatic uses (2008). These studies are only few examples of the available research projects concerned with the corpus-based approach to CL. They demonstrate the fruitful cooperation between CL and TS, and how the adoption of a common corpus-based methodology, especially the relationship of equivalence, is of great asset for the two disciplines.

II.2.1.1.2. Role of Corpora in Corpus-based Contrastive Linguistics

CL and TS now share a common ground, *the corpus-based approach,* in their analysis of languages. In view of the corpus-based approach to CL, two main types, *comparable and parallel corpora* can be used with different purposes.

II.2.1.1.2.1. Role of Comparable Corpora

Comparable corpora provide linguists with natural language produced by native speakers of those languages. The description of the linguistic structures or items found in both languages must be achieved separately in order to avert the influence of other languages, which is the case of *parallel corpora*, since the ST will obviously apply some kind of influence on the TT. This type of corpora in Lauridsen's view (1996 in Ramón García, 2002) is the most direct approach in standard CL, since it provides results representing real language in use for both languages.

According to Ramón García (2002:399),

> […] the use of these corpora for this type of CL resembles the use of corpora in descriptive linguistics. Monolingual corpora of the general language or of one specific language variety provide the most basic data necessary for carrying out a case study in what we will label **pure or basic CL**. (Bolding in original text)

She (ibid.) explained that the purpose of this type of CL is to describe similarities and differences between languages, but not the translation process between them. Therefore, the results obtained from basic CL will be representative of the two languages and can be used in many fields such as descriptive linguistics, foreign language teaching and translation with a high degree of naturalness in the target language. That is why this genuineness of data for the target language makes it an ideal source for translation.

However, it is worth mentioning that establishing comparability of texts is not always straightforward because some types of texts are culture-specific and no exact equivalents exist in other languages, and this makes it the main shortcoming of comparable corpora. For example, McEnery and Xiao (2004) designed the Lancaster Corpus of Mandarin *Chinese* (LCMC) as a precise copy of the Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English (FLOB) in order to guarantee comparability of the data. However, because the category of *western* and *adventure fiction* has no exact equivalents in Chinese, a category of *martial art fiction* substituted it (Granger, 2010).

III.2.1.1.2.2. Role of Parallel Corpora

Translated texts as a source of data for contrastive analyses have been known for a long time. Previously, as Jakobson (1959: 234 in Johansson, 2008) stated, "[n]o linguistic specimen may be interpreted by the science of language without a translation of its signs into other signs of the same system or into signs of another system"; he added "Any comparison of

two languages implies an examination of their mutual translatability […]."Likewise, Levenston (1965: 225 in Johansson, 2008) suggested that contrastive statements "… may be derived from either (a) a bilingual's use of himself as his own informant for both languages, or (b) close comparison of a specific text with its translation."

In recent years, the emergence of corpus linguistics and the new perspectives adopted for contrastive studies have motivated many linguists to use translations as an ideal resource for establishing equivalence between languages, "since they convey the same semantic content and are pragmatically and textually comparable" (James, 1980:178). Many researchers, e.g. Johansson (2008), Mauranen (2002), claimed that parallel corpora represent a consistent foundation for contrastive studies. Johansson (2008), for example, argued that since translation demonstrates the elements that may be associated across languages, it is convenient to base a contrastive study on parallel corpora. Similarly, Mauranen (2002: 166) maintained that translated language, in spite of its special features, "is part of natural language in use, and should be treated accordingly." In this view, it can be said there is an interconnected relationship between CL and TS, "where the applicability in translation is considered on an *a priori* basis before actually carrying out the contrastive analysis." This type of contrastive approach is called a *translation-oriented CL* (Ramón García, 2002:400).

Nevertheless, it should be noted that the significance of parallel corpora and the importance of translated texts as a suitable source of materials seemed to be contentious all the way through its appearance. Many researchers (e.g. Teubert, 1996) argued that the original text and the translation process do inevitably apply some kind of influence on the TT, and, thus, leading to a high degree of distortion that affects the reliability of the results obtained. And this makes it the main shortcoming of parallel corpora.

a. Parallel Corpora: A Source of Language Corruption?

In his assertive opposition, Teubert (1996: 247) postulated one objection of parallel corpora, and stated that:

> Translations, however good and near-perfect they may be (but rarely are), cannot but give a distorted picture of the language they represent. Linguists should never rely on translations when they are describing a language. [...] Rather than representing the language they are written in, they give a mirror image of their source language.

He (ibid.) added:

> Working with translations means working with distorted mirror images of the source language in the medium of the target language, when the objective is to analyse and describe the language in its own right, not just as a target language.

Thus, being a source of corruption for language study, parallel corpora cannot create a consistent foundation for contrastive analysis. While they are seriously questioned, they can, however, be used as a source of departure for contrastive analysis in complement with comparable corpora. This compromise has been offered in order to reach ideal design criteria of suitable corpora in corpus-based CL. In view of this, Teubert (1996) and Kenning (2010) explained that finding a middle ground of this kind is a good circumvent of the drawback mentioned above. Kenning (2010) argued that comparable corpora contain only naturally occurring examples of language, and because of the greater availability of source materials they collect, they tend to be of greater reliability. In addition, Maurannen (2002:182) recommended that parallel corpora can serve as a useful starting point for CL, they can be "as sources of insights and as bridges between monolingual and comparable corpora." She argued that the exclusive dependence on parallel corpora is not sufficient, because they are in many ways constrained by genre, text type, and size as well.

Another satisfactory remedy of this shortcoming is the use of *bidirectional corpora* or Teubert's type *reciprocal corpora* (1996), i.e. parallel corpora in which all directions of translation are covered for all the languages involved. For Kenning (2010:492),

> … the ability to draw on a wide variety of texts translated by a range of translators provides a useful means of testing hypotheses and confirming (or disproving) contrastive statements based on intuitions and a small number of examples. This is particularly true of bi-directional corpora, which can be used to study the frequency with which two items or categories are translated into each other…

Similarly, McEnery and Xiao (2008) supported the use of a *bidirectional* parallel corpus instead of a *unidirectional* parallel one, which presents a poor basis for cross-linguistic contrast since translated language is *translationeses*, i.e. "deviance in translated texts induced by the source language" (Johansson & Hofland, 1994:26). They argued that with the use of a bidirectional parallel corpus the effect of *translationeses* can be moderately reduced. They (ibid: 24) stated that "a well matched bidirectional parallel corpus can become the bridge that brings translation and contrastive studies together." Examples of research work in this area include Ebeling (1998) and Maia (1998).

Nevertheless, the significance of parallel corpora was defended by many researchers. Mauranen (2002), for example, presented different arguments in refutation of Teubert's (1996) rejection. First, she contended that Teubert (1996) is writing from the viewpoint of a bilingual lexicographer, and if his argument is true of the corrupt nature of translations, they can barely be well founded for linguistic analyses. Second, she explained that the corrupt nature of translations implies the inherent imperfection of translators, and therefore, she questioned how translations are sensed as a distorted picture of language, if their nature is not similar to that of originals. Also, she postulated that the output of translators diverges depending on their different qualifications and standards, as it is the case of any language user, and,

therefore, translators are not worse than bilingual or monolingual users. Finally, she (2002) argued that Teubert (1996) described translation in a narrower sense, when he conceived translations as a mirror image of their source language in the medium of the target language. According to her, translation is not simply a linguistic substitution; it is a complex process of transferring entire texts from one culture to another. Therefore, in her view point, translations are a language of a special kind.

b. Translation: a Language of a Special Kind

In fact, there are two main types of features which separate translations from original texts and make them a language of a special kind. According to Mauranen (2002), the first systematic influence comes from the phenomenon of *translationeses*, i.e. special features which may deviate from original texts in the target language; examples include the works of Gellerstam (1986) and Rayson et al. (2008). The second influence is that parallel corpora display what Baker (1993, 1995) called *translation universals*, i.e. "features which typically occur in translated texts rather than original utterances and which are not the result of interference from specific linguistic systems" (Baker, 1993: 243). In view of her arguments, and in spite of the special features of translation, Mauranen (2002: 165) highlighted two major points: First, translated language "is part of natural language in use, and should be treated accordingly", and, second, similar to other language varieties such as medical language, or women's language, translations are worth to be investigated in their own right.

Another problem that arises with the use of parallel corpora is that mentioned by Malmkjær (1998b: 539) that the translation only represents "one individual's introspection, albeit contextually and cotextually informed." That is to say, they provide only one translation solution of every ST, and the best way to overcome this problem is to include

various versions of the same ST by different translators. According to Mauranen (2002), this solution is certainly of great importance, even though it is more crucial for understanding translation than contrasting languages. The collection of multiple translations on the same texts is undertaken in Norwegian works (see, Johansson et al. 1999/2001).

c. Advantages of Parallel Corpora

Many of the assets of parallel corpora were advocated by Mauranen (2002: 161), who stressed that the use of parallel corpora offers practical and effective advantages for contrastive studies, as they provide "language that has been used in its normal communicative contexts by a large number of users." She (ibid.) added "a parallel corpus can capture relations of sense as well as form, which would be very hard to capture without such data." She (ibid: 182) also emphasised that parallel corpora are a more reliable source for fruitful cross-linguistic contrasts, because they invite "further research with monolingual corpora in both languages." In this view, parallel corpora are "indispensable for contrastive language study."

It is worth pointing out that parallel and comparable corpora "offer specific uses and possibilities" for contrastive and translation studies. According to Aijmer and Altenberg (1996: 12, in McEnery & Xiao, 2008):

> (1) They give new insights into the languages compared - insights that are not likely to be gained via the study of monolingual corpora.
>
> (2) They can be used for a range of comparative purposes and increase our knowledge of language-specific, typological and cultural differences, as well as of universal features.
>
> (3) They illuminate differences between source texts and translations, and between native and non-native texts.

(4) They can be used for a number of practical applications, e.g. in lexicography, language teaching and translation.

To sum up, in the CL framework, translated texts serve as an inconsistent basis for contrastive studies, since the ST and the translation process apply some kind of influence on the TT, and, thus, they lead to serious distortion of the final product. In this sense, parallel corpora present a poor basis for contrastive analysis if they are used separately; yet, if they are used in conjunction with comparable corpora, the problem will be solved. Fortunately, an adequate corpus model would be possible to control the translation-specific features. As Johansson (2007) asserted, it is not necessary to choose between parallel and comparable corpora. Both corpora can be combined, as has been done with the corpus model for English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC) (Johansson & Hofland, 1994).

II.2.1.2. Translation Studies

It was only in the 1980s that translation studies started to be fully established as a distinct academic discipline with its specific aims and methods. Previously, the intense concentration had been on the analysis of the translation process from different perspectives, particularly linguistic ones; and translation was considered as a subdivision of other disciplines such as CL or interlanguage studies. According to Halliday et al. (1964:112 in Ramón García, 2002), "the theory and method for comparing the working of different languages is known either as *comparative descriptive linguistics* or as *contrastive linguistics*. Since translation can be regarded as a special case of this kind of comparison, comparative descriptive linguistics includes the theory of translation."

Subsequently, great efforts were suggested in order to free translation from other disciplines. Translation was no longer regarded as a subdivision of other linguistic fields but rather a distinct academic discipline, which concerns itself with translation as the prime object

of study. Holmes (1988, in Baker, 1993), the first to propose a general framework for this new field, showed some discontent with introspective methods which are sensed by CL and recommended as alternatives to large bodies of translated texts. Holmes (ibid: 101) spelt out that:

> Many of the weaknesses and naiveties of contemporary translation theories are a result of the fact that the theories were, by and large, developed deductively, without resources to actual translated texts in function, or illustration rather than of verification or falsification.

Moreover, one of the developments which are contributory in preparing the ground for the corpus-based approach to translation is the decline of what is called the semantic view of the relationship between STs and TTs, *i.e. the emphasis on equivalence with the ST* (Baker, 1993). In order to discard equivalence, "if seen as a static relationship between ST and TT", Newman (1980:64 in Baker, 1993), suggested that the consideration should be on the actual translations, and on the basis of examples of translations, "the kind of generalities that might form the basis of a theory of competence or systematic description" will be determined. Similarly, theorists such as Toury (1980, 1995) strongly recommended a target orientation in order to break away from prior equivalence-based research. In his view, the shift of focus in translation research from the relationship between STs and TTs into translations themselves has given rise to the development of a different paradigm which is Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS).

Moreover, as Venuti (2000) asserted, this new trend essentially displaces equivalence as a central concept in translation research by orienting the concentration on the TT. Henceforth, the emphasis on the TT brings with it a focus on translations themselves. Even-Zohar (1979, in Ramón García, 2002), for example, considered the translated text as a system in its own right. She examined the role of translations in the target-language *polysystems*, and

clarified that in addition to the importance given to the TT, the importance of the whole target system emerged. This main change in perspective is described by Venuti (2000:123) as follows:

> The literature on equivalence formulates linguistic and textual models and often prescribes a specific translation practice (pragmatic, functional, communicative). The target orientation, in contrast, focuses on actual translations and submits them to detailed description and orientation. It inspires research projects that involve substantial corpora of translated texts.

As a result of this changeover of research interest, corpora have become an essential tool in TS, since they provide substantial amounts of real data, and, therefore, the corpus-based approach to the field of TS developed. At the same time, the target orientation motivated researchers to elaborate projects comprising sizable corpora of translated texts. Pioneering studies into translation-based approach were undertaken by Baker (1993, 1995), who suggested new approaches to be adopted in the field of translation, by integrating the methods and tools of corpus linguistics into Descriptive Translation Studies, and pointing out the difficulties that translation poses for corpus studies. Baker (1993:237) stated:

> The move away from source texts and equivalence is instrumental in preparing the ground for corpus work because it enables the discipline to shed its longstanding obsession with the idea of studying individual instances in isolation (one translation compared to one source text at a time) and creates a requirement which can find fulfilment in corpus work, namely the study of large numbers of texts of the same type. This is precisely where corpus work comes into its own.

III.2.1.2.1. The Corpus-based Approach to Translation Studies

It is Baker (1993) who deserves credit for initiating the corpus-based approach to translation studies in the early 90s. She (1993, 1995) collected corpora of translated texts with the purpose of revealing the distinctive patterns of translation, and, hence, studied the nature of translated texts by means of corpora. In her investigation (1993), she anticipated that the wide accessibility of large corpora of original and translated texts, in addition to the

advances of corpus-driven methodology would facilitate for translators to reveal "the nature of translated text as a mediated communicative event" (Baker, 1993: 242). She (ibid.) put it as follows:

> There is no doubt that the availability of corpora and of corpus-driven methodology will soon provide valuable insights in the applied branch of translations, and that the impact of corpus-based research will be felt there long before it begins to trickle into the theoretical and descriptive branches of the discipline.

Her prediction emanates from Sinclair's point of view (1992), which is probably one of the very few opinions that he has made on translation. From a linguist position, Sinclair (ibid.) expected that the resources of corpora will have a profound effect on the translation of the future. Enhancing the performance of translators and machine translation systems are the prime concern in order to know enough about the languages concerned to fulfil an adequate translation. Baker (1993), however, considered that what Sinclair's referred to as *profound effect* should not be limited to knowing enough about languages to approach to their structures and natural patterns. According to her, since the focus is on translation, approximating to the patterns of the target language is not necessarily as possible as it is expected, and this is not the only influence on determining transitional behaviour. She (ibid: 242-3, emphasis added) put forward that "the profound effect that corpora will have on translation studies will be a consequence of their enabling us *to identify features of translated text* which will help us understand what translation is and how it works."[8] Hence, once the phenomenon of translation is explained in its own right, it would be more possible to improve the final translation product.

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[8] These features are referred to as *universal features of translation* (as to be seen in what follows).

Following this new tendency, many researchers, e.g. Toury (1991) and Malmkjær (1998b) have become well conscious of the significance of the corpus-based approach to TS, and a number of publications have been devoted to theoretical and descriptive studies on topics related to the nature and characteristics of translation. As an instance, in a special issue of Meta: Translators' Journal (1998), which was devoted to a collection of corpus-based studies, Laviosa (1998a:1), the editor, argued that "a growing number of scholars in translation studies have begun to seriously consider the corpus-based approach as a viable and fruitful perspective within which translation and translating can be studied in a novel and systematic way." The studies covered have been concerned with theoretical issues related to the scope, object of study, and methodology of the corpus-based approach, Shlesinger (1998), Halverson (1998), Puurtinen (1998), and Malmkjær (1998b)); empirical and pedagogical studies of translation and translating, e.g. Munday (1998), Øverås (1998), Ebeling (1998), Zanettin (1998) and Bowker (1998)); in addition to Tymoczko's (1998) which discussed the role of computerised corpora in the development of the discipline as a whole.

II.2.1.2.1.1. Corpora and Translation Universals

Baker's research (1993) revealed a novel perspective on the language of translations. She focused on the necessity of developing the corpus techniques in TS in order to clarify the nature of translated text as "a mediated communicative event", and, subsequently, to identify its specific features (ibid: 242). Her investigations (1993,1995) brought to light examples of features of translated texts which are not the result of deviance from original texts or the influence of other linguistic systems; they are, however, patterns of translated language that result from constraints inherent in the translation process. She (1993:243) referred to them as *translation universals*, and described them as "features which typically occur in translated

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texts rather than original utterances and which are not the result of interference from specific linguistic systems."

It is important to mention that the roots of *universals features of translation* originate from Toury's (1991) and Even-Zohar's (1979 in Baker,1993) comments on the idea that the activity of translating functions as a limitation on translational behaviour, leading to patterns which are specific to translated texts. Even-Zohar (ibid: 77) emphasised that "we can observe in translation patterns which are inexplicable in terms of any of the repertoires involved", i.e. patterns which are not the result of interference from the source or target language.

Examples of features which are considered common to all types of translated texts have been suggested by Baker (1993: 243-5), they include: *simplification* (the tendency to simplify texts in order to improve the readability of translations, e.g. breaking up of long sentences); *explicitation* (the tendency to clearly explain contents of the source language text in their translations, e.g. filling out elliptical units, explaining cultural references); *normalisation* (the tendency to conform, to the point of exaggerating, to patterns typical of the target language); and *levelling out* (gravitating around the centre of any continuum).

As an instance of a study of *universal features of translation* is the examination of *explicitation* (i.e. a rise in the level of cohesion). Øveras (1998) investigated this feature in translational English and translational Norwegian, based on the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC). Her study aimed at revealing the particularity of the language of translation irrespective of the contrastive differences existing between the two languages. And, her ultimate objective was to go beyond mere linguistic investigation since it attempted to reach conclusions on the literary translational norms prevailing in the target communities she had

studied. Her research tested Blum-Kulka's (1986) *explicitation hypothesis*[9] in literary translations, and postulated that English and Norwegian TTs are more cohesive than their STs. The empirical study confirmed Blum-Kulka's observations, since the explicitating shifts were found in all texts more than implicitation strategies.

To conclude, it can be said that the ultimate influence of *universal features of translation* originated from two sources: the development of Descriptive Translation Studies and the abundance of electronic corpora. The development of Descriptive Translation Studies, e.g. (Toury 1980, 1995), which encouraged the shift of attention in translation research from the relationship between STs and TTs into translations themselves, aims to identify the distinctive features of translated texts, in order to expect the principles governing their production. In addition, the abundance of computerised corpora, e.g. (Baker 1993, 1995), which have offered substantial examples of translated texts, provides not only suggestions of how words or phrases are translated but also insights into the process of translation itself.

II.2.1.2.2. Applications of Corpora for Translation Studies

As already mentioned the application of the corpus approach to the study of translation is a recent phenomenon and it is increasingly developing. Baker (1999 in Danielsson, 2003) asserted that "Work in this area began in an exploratory fashion in the early nineties and is only now beginning to yield some concrete findings, albeit on a relatively small scale."

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[9]The explicitation hypothesis postulates that a rise in the level of cohesion in the TL text takes place "regardless of the increase traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved" (Blum-Kulka, 1986:19).

As a matter of fact, the application of corpora in translation is covering two wide areas: practical and theoretical. According to Hunston (2002), in theoretical terms, corpora are used to study the translation process by exploring how an idea in one language is conveyed in another language. She (ibid: 123) postulated that "Because corpora can be used to raise awareness about language in general, they are extremely useful in training translators and in pointing out potential problems for translation." In practical terms, the software tools are developed in order to train translators to use corpora as aids in translation.

In other words, at the theoretical level, the availability of large amounts of original texts and their translations in machine readable format, in addition to the abundance of corpus linguistics tools have brought considerable benefits for translators, in solving many translation problems, for lexicography, as well as, terminology extraction. McEnery and Xiao (2008) highlighted a number of instances of theoretical considerations, citing, for example, the works of Laviosa (1997, 1998b), which revealed that the process of translation differs from both the source language and the target language, in that the source language texts diverge markedly from the translated texts into that language. She (1998b) carried out a study that delves into the linguistic nature of English translated text, and examined L1 and L2 English narrative prose. Based on a sub-section of the English Comparable Corpus (ECC) (Laviosa-Braithwaite, 1996), her study revealed that translated L2 language has four patterns of lexical use: a relatively lower proportion of lexical words against grammatical words, a relatively higher proportion of high-frequency words against low-frequency words, relatively greater repetition of the most frequent words, and less variety in the words which are most frequently used. Additionally, beyond the lexical level, *translation universals*, (e.g Baker, 1993 and Øveras, 1998) help translators and trainee translators to become aware of the problems of the translation process (McEnery & Xiao, 2008). Moreover, the features that differentiate

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between translated language and non-translated language are also highlighted. Kenning (2010) cited the work of Baker (2007), who studied the meanings of idiomatic expressions. Based on the Translational English Corpus (TEC) and a comparable subset of the British National Corpus (BNC), Baker (ibid.) found out that translated English reveals a lower occurrence of idioms, with a strong preference for the literal meanings of idiomatic expressions. Only two of the thirteen occurrences of *off the hook* in TEC were idiomatic, versus twenty idiomatic and fifteen literal uses in the British National Corpus (BNC).

At the practical level, computerised corpora are used for the training of translators, translation assessment, as well as for developing machine translation systems. According to McErny and Xiao (2008), the usefulness and versatility of corpora offer effective reference tools for translators and trainees, and provide a good basis for developing applications like Machine Translation (MT) and computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools. The research works of Zanettin (1998) and Bowker (1998), which are directly involved in the applied area of translator training, are only few examples. Zanettin (1998), as an instance, showed how small bilingual corpora of both general and specialised language can be used to develop a variety of structured and self-centred classroom activities that aim at enhancing the students' understanding of the source language text and their ability to produce coherent target language texts. In this respect, Laviosa (1998b) predicted that Zanettin's (1998) idea of giving the translator trainee workstation will become a common feature in more revolutionary and technologically advanced training institutions. Bowker (1998) also reported on the results of an experiment comparing two translations produced by a group of translator trainees. She found that corpus-aided translations, i.e. with the aid of specialised monolingual corpus, using analytical facilities provided by WordSmith Tools, were of a higher quality in connection

with subject field understanding, correct term choice and idiomatic expressions in comparison to those undertaken using traditional resources.

II.2.1.2.3. Role of Corpora for Translation Studies Research

As previously seen, in order to solve translation problems, computerised corpora of different types are used by translators, for theoretical research as well as aids in translation research. These types have been discussed previously in section II.1.

It is worth mentioning that unlike the contrastive-based approach, which makes use of corpora of translated language for the purpose of comparing languages, the translation-based approach investigates corpora of translations for their own sake. In this respect, translations are not considered as a source of corruption for language study, they are the object of study in the field of TS since they help in understanding the process of translation and provide a sound good resource in translation training.

Henceforth, parallel corpora proved to be useful for language learning and the training of translators. As an example, Aston (1999 in McEnery & Xiao, 2008:26) reiterated that parallel corpora provide "[g]reater certainty as to the equivalence of particular expressions", and with the help of appropriate tools (e.g. ParaConc), they allow users to "locate all the occurrences of any expression along with the corresponding sentences in the other language." Thus, parallel corpora help both professional translators as well as trainees to produce more accurate translations, and achieve better precision concerning terminology and phraseology (e.g. Williams, 1996).

Similarly, parallel corpora offer systematic translation strategies for linguistic structures which have no direct equivalents in the target language. Zanettin (1998:2) asserted that:

> the comparison between large numbers of texts and their acknowledged translations can show how equivalence has been established by translators under certain circumstances and provide examples of translation strategies. If such corpora are sufficiently varied and large, looking at recurring linguistic choices made by translators allows general patterns to be perceived. Learners can thus notice "preferred ways of putting things" (Kennedy 1992), and generalize from the aggregation of sets of individual instances.

In the same vein, comparable corpora have brought many advantages to the field of translation. According to Kenning (2010), bilingual comparable corpora work as translation aids: they help translators to benefit from a thorough understanding of STs and their terminology, to determine possible equivalents of the target language and to improve its phraseology. And in the absence of parallel corpora or in fast developing fields, where terminology is probably in constant evolution, these assets are of great advantage to translators working with language pairs. Finally, in addition to the training of translators, *translation evaluation*, as advocated by Bowker (2001), plays a significant role in the teaching/learning of translation. *Evaluation corpora* (i.e. the combination of parallel and comparable corpora) help teachers of translation to evaluate students' translations and afford more objective feedback.

To summarise, it is interesting to quote from Laviosa (1998a:1), "the corpus-based approach is evolving, through theoretical elaborations and empirical realisation, into a coherent, composite and rich paradigm that addresses a variety of issues pertaining to theory, description, and the practice of translation." In this respect, it can be said that the merits of corpus-linguistics, especially, the availability of multilingual corpora make it possible to reorganise the fields of CL and TS. It has been revealed that the use of multilingual corpora in

cross-linguistic studies proved to be useful because they provide the researchers with more solid empirical data about language than the intuition-based approach. The significance of these corpora is summarised by Johannson (2007:67):

> If we are prepared to look energetically into multilingual corpora, we can see correspondences across languages, we can see individual languages in a new light, we can pinpoint characteristics of translation, we can see meanings, we can see grammaticalisation, we can see collocations, we can see the intimate relationship between lexis and grammar. *Seeing through corpora we can see through language.*

It can be observed, indeed, that there was a changeover of research interest, from a theoretical approach to a practical one in both areas. Moreover, the use of multilingual corpora, namely, parallel and comparable corpora, which involve some sort of contrastive procedure between the languages concerned, revealed that there is a close relationship between TS and CL. That is to say, the effectiveness of comparable corpora in translation is apparent, since they assure the naturalness of the target language. The usefulness of parallel corpora in providing translators with equivalent units in different languages, for the sake of explaining the phenomenon of translation, enables translators to improve their final product. Henceforth, it can be said that TS is regarded as a tool for CL, since the translation of specific pieces of text sheds light on the different aspects of CL and provides it with the essential data. In the same way, CL serves as a tool for TS, and accordingly, it is a *must* in its development, since the use of translation equivalence provides data for TS and explains the phenomenon of translation (Ramón García, 2002).

II.3. The Correlation between Contrastive Linguistics and Translation Studies

As a matter of fact, the interconnected relationship between CL and TS was established before the wide-spread development of corpus linguistics techniques and tools. Ramón García (2002) explained that the two disciplines are concerned with languages and

linguistics in general, and with applied linguistics in particular. They examined the characteristics of the languages involved, and, subsequently, afforded constructive contribution to an improved description of every single language; that is why; they are believed to share one common ground. However, it should be noted that, although the two fields share one object of study, i.e. they "are interested in seeing how 'the same thing' can be said in other ways" (Chesterman, 1998: 39 in Granger, 2003); they have different aims: while CL examines the similarities and differences between languages, in TS the consideration is on the actual translations, i.e. on the translation process and its products.

Previously, the interconnected relationship holding between the two disciplines addressed two main concepts: the usefulness of *translation equivalence* as the best available TC for contrastive analysis, and the application of contrastive analysis results, which provides justifications in different aspects of TS. According to Hoey and Houghton (1998: 49, in Johansson, 2008), "The relationship between CA and translation is bidirectional. On the one hand, the translation of specific pieces of text may provide the data for CA […]. On the other, CA may provide explanations of difficulties encountered in translation […]." Ivir (1981:209, in Ramón García, 2002) also wrote:

> Translation can serve as a tool of contrastive analysis, while the findings of contrastive analysis may - in addition to their other practical applications -be applied in the training of translators, preparation of translation manuals, and, most importantly perhaps, in constructing a theory of translation.

However, in recent years, the two fully-fledged fields of CL and TS have started to take great advantage of the merits of the corpus-based approach. As set out by Granger (2010), the wide availability of corpora provide both fields with excellent empirical bases in order to enrich their descriptions, test their theories and enhance the cross-linguistic applications resultant from their corresponding research. Multilingual corpora have the promise for a

closer contact and overlapping of the two disciplines since they "…rely on the same type of data, use the same software tools and are partly interested in the same corpus-based applications, notably reference materials – dictionaries, grammars – and teaching methods" (Granger, 2010: 9).

Hence, thanks to the wide-spread use of corpora in the two fields, numerous publications have brought them closer together, substantiating the importance of the empirical, interdisciplinary and multilingual investigations. Examples of research works include Ebeling (1998), Barlow (2008) and Serpollet (2008).

The two disciplines are interrelated in that, on the one hand, the development of the CL approach shifted from foreign language teaching to translation matters, and the significance of translations as a useful tool for CL lies in the equivalence established between the source language and the target one. On the other hand, TS necessarily involves cross-linguistic analysis, particularly with the new tendency towards the study of real texts based on language corpora. According to Toury (1980: 29), "an exhaustive contrastive description of the languages involved is a precondition for any systematic study of translations." This explains how the corpus-based approach to TS makes use of CL to provide explanations of translational phenomena.

Henceforth, as Ramón García (2002:403) asserted, it is concurred that "corpus-based CL may well exist without considering translation as its most immediate application, whereas any type of approach to translation from a descriptive corpus-based perspective must take into account some kind of contrastive aspect." Consequently, CL is a fundamental component of TS, since "no study into translation can be done ignoring previous contrastive analyses, which constitute a basic starting point for the discipline" (ibid.).

In brief, it can be said that this new interconnected relationship holding between CL and TS, based on computerised corpora, arises from the shift of interest from theoretical to practical perspectives. As far as CL is concerned, a rigorous restructuring in the discipline was sensed, when there was a change of research interest from foreign language teaching to translation, to the point that a new contrastive approach called the *translation-oriented CL* (i.e. translations represent a consistent foundation for CL) developed. On the other hand, the emergence of TS as a distinct academic discipline which concerns itself with real translated texts as the prime object of study required some kind of contrastive analyses. Hence, "In a way we can say that CL and TS have turned to face each other directly and are more interrelated than ever, complementing each other constantly" (Ramón García, 2002:403-4).

Moreover, other motivations which have given rise to this mutual relationship were advocated by Granger (2010), who clarified that, regrettably, both disciplines are usually conjoined together as there are some theoretical aspects in one discipline which are disregarded in the other. Chesterman (1998: 6 in Granger, 2010) asserted that "Although these are neighbouring disciplines, it nevertheless often appears that theoretical developments in one field are overlooked in the other, and that both would benefit from each other's insights." Granger (2010) specified that, on the one hand, the misunderstanding of TS results may lead CL researchers to misinterpret the differences between languages involved, when they result from translation norms or strategies. On the other hand, because of the translators' unfamiliarity of the systematic differences between the languages contrasted, they may misinterpret their data. Likewise, the scarcity of corpora, which significantly hampers cross-linguistic analysis, is another reason of conjoining the two disciplines together. If the two fields' resources are joined together, they will offer a bright future for corpus-based cross-linguistic research and applications.

It is obvious, then, in view of this mutual relationship as well as their different objectives[10], TS is carried out on different grounds. In Johansson's opinion (2008), since TS covers both theoretical and applied approaches, it is, therefore, wider than CL. Yet, as it is restricted to translated texts and the translation process, it is narrower. In the same vein, according to Ramón García (2002), while TS takes the contrast between two languages to a much more specialised ground, CL follows a more general basis. She asserted that the involvement of TS in the research process is more active than that of CL, which is, nevertheless, a key component of the whole system. In her own words, "TS is the part that benefits in a more direct way.……TS makes use of CL as a mere tool that serves its purposes: It feeds in information, has it processed, and then recovers the results for its own use. However, CL is limited to carrying out the parallel description of one particular linguistic aspect" (ibid: 404).

In sum, thanks to the usefulness and versatility of computerised language corpora, CL and TS have known an unprecedented development in the last two decades. CL researchers and translation scholars have become very conscious of the strong significance of the corpus-based approach, to the point that they have succeeded in confirming and enhancing prior theories, and, therefore, pushing these areas towards empirical, interdisciplinary and multilingual investigations. Not only this, but they have also given rise to an exhaustive reorganisation in the two disciplines, and, subsequently, in their interconnected relationship.

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[10] While CL focuses on acquiring knowledge about the languages contrasted, on a descriptive basis, TS focuses on the actual translation process between the languages involved.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have attempted to demonstrate how the two fully-fledged disciplines of contrastive linguistics and translation studies started to take great advantage of the merits of corpus linguistics, in the last two decades. The use of computerised corpora, mainly, parallel and comparable, turned to represent a remarkably significant recourse for cross-linguistic studies. And, some of the research studies, which have been reviewed, revealed that the use of multilingual corpora, gave rise to a shift of research interest, from a theoretical approach to a practical one in both areas. According to Altenberg and Aijmer (2000: 15-16 in Serpollet, 2008), multilingual corpora "have come to be recognised as indispensable resources for cross-linguistic research at all levels of linguistic description, for theoretical as well as practical purposes." We have also showed that by means of the new corpus-based approach to both disciplines, and, in spite of their different aims, they started to converge and complement each other more than ever. The use of multilingual corpora, which involve some sort of contrastive procedure between the languages concerned, revealed that there is a close relationship between CL and TS. While the findings of the corpus-based approach to contrastive analysis offer valuable assistance for both theoretical and practical purposes of TS, the corpus-based approach to TS requires some kind of contrastive analyses, which constitute a basic starting point for the discipline, on different linguistic levels for specific purposes. That is why, it is agreed, now, that CL is a fundamental component of TS. Rabadán (2002, in Ramón García, 2002) indicated that, truly, CL is of key importance in translation theory providing the genuine transition between theory and practice.

Chapter III

Cohesive Devices in English and Arabic

Chapter III: Cohesive Devices in English and Arabic

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to a contrastive study of cohesive devices in English and Arabic. The main objective is to set a theoretical foundation for a contrastive analysis of cohesive devices used in some Arabic and English United Nations texts. The chapter is organised along two sections. The first section presents a detailed overview of the different categories of cohesion, in English, as suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as well as other researchers. The second section outlines these cohesive devices in Arabic as summarised by Al-Jabr (1987), in addition to other researchers.

III.1. Cohesive Devices in English

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:5), similar to other semantic relations, "cohesion is expressed through the stratal organization of language." Language is explained on the basis of three different levels of coding, each of which is realised in the one immediately below it. That is to say, *stratum* represents meanings in language, and it is realised through the *lexicogrammatical system*, which includes *forms* of language. This latter is in turn recoded in *expressions* of language (phonological and orthographic systems). Figure 1, below, represents the three levels of coding in the language as suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976:5).

Meaning   (the semantic system)

Wording   (the lexicogrammatical system, grammar and vocabulary)

Sounding/writing   (the phonological and orthographic systems)
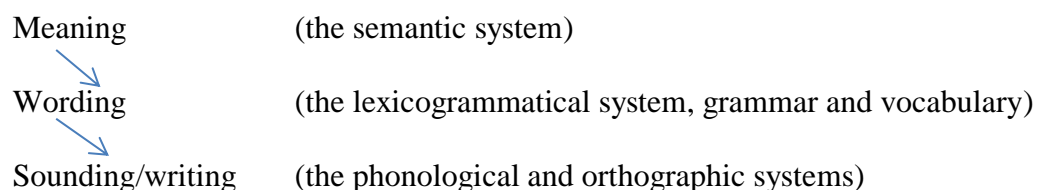
Figure1: The Three Levels of Coding in Language according to Halliday & Hasan (1976:5)

Wording, also referred to as the lexicogrammatical system, includes both the grammar and the vocabulary of language. According to them, there are no clear rules to define the relationship between grammar and lexicon; the basic idea is that the more general meanings are expressed through the grammar, the more specific ones are expressed through vocabulary. Cohesion follows the same pattern; some meanings are expressed through grammar and some through vocabulary. Cohesion expressed through grammar is known as *grammatical cohesion*; it is divided into four types: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction. Cohesion expressed through vocabulary, *lexical cohesion*, is divided into relations of reiteration (repetition, synonymy, etc.) and collocation (co-occurrence of lexical items). Each of these cohesion relations is discussed in details in the following section.

III.1.1. Reference

In Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy, the first source of cohesion in English is reference. According to them, reference is a term used to refer to certain items, which cannot be interpreted semantically in their own right but rather need to make reference to somewhere else in the text for their interpretation. Reference occurs when participants retrieve and identify presupposed information in the immediate context, and in this manner building a cohesive relation. In the example (ibid: 31), "three blind mice, three blind mice, see how they run! See how they run", the pronoun, *they,* refers to *three blind mice* within the textual world itself. They stated:

> *……reference is the specific nature of information that is signalled for retrieval.* In the case of reference the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to; *and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing centres into a discourse a second time.* (ibid: 31, emphasis added)

Although *reference* is expressed by grammatical means, it is a semantic relation "since the relationship is on the semantic level, the reference item is in no way constrained to match the grammatical class of the item it refers to. What must match are the semantic properties" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 32).

Depending on whether the presupposed element occurs within the text or outside it, reference can be exophoric or endophoric. Exophoric reference refers to items outside the text, i.e. the source of information is retrieved from the immediate context of situation, and Endophoric reference or endophora refers to items in the text, i.e. information retrieved from the text itself. Exophoric reference is excluded from the scope of the present study for two main reasons: first, because they do not contribute to the unity of texts, and second, because this study uses corpus analysis tools; the focus is only on overt grammatical relationships that can be detected by computer software. The figure below is a summary of Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 33) types of reference:

Reference:

[Situational]   [Textual]
Exophora   Endophora

[To preceding text]   [To following text]
Anaphora   Cataphora
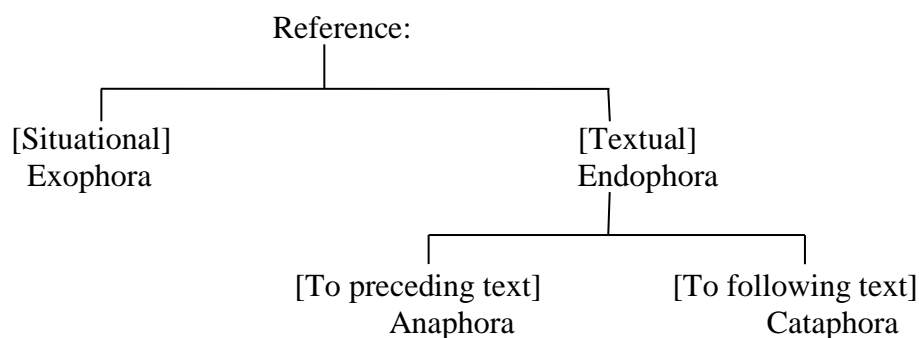
Figure2: Types of Reference according to Halliday & Hasan (1976:33)

Examples:

[1]

   a. For he is a jolly good fellow. And so say all of us (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 17-32).

b. Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:2-18).

c. This is how to get the best results. You let the berries dry in the sun till all the moisture has gone out of them. Then you gather them up and chop them very fine (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 17).

Exophoric reference is represented in example (a). The pronoun *he* does not refer to any element in the text, but rather to an element that occurs in the context of the situation. Though the text does not make it clear who *he* is, participants are able to identify the referent by the context in which the situation occurs. Example (b) is an instance of endophoric reference; the personal pronoun *them* in the second sentence refers back to *six cooking apples* in the first sentence.

Endophoric reference is among the cohesive devices included in the corpus. It is further sub-divided into two types: *anaphoric* reference (reference to the preceding text) and *cataphoric* reference (reference to the following text). In example (b), above, *them* refers anaphorically to *six cooking apples*, whereas, in example (c) the demonstrative pronoun *this* refers forward to the whole sentence. Koch (2001:4) observed that in written discourse, "anaphoric reference is more often used than cataphoric reference."

Nevertheless, Halliday and Hasan (1976) asserted that because cataphoric reference does not always function across sentence boundaries, it does not always play a role in texts' unity. Therefore, it can be said that anaphoric reference is the only type that is applicable to cohesion, as it "provides a link with a preceding portion of the text" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 51). They (ibid: 329) said "The typical direction ... is the anaphoric; it is natural, after all, to presuppose what has already gone rather than what it is to follow". Therefore, reference is a

device which allows the reader/hearer to trace participants, entities, events, etc. in a text. However, in the present research, the type of cataphoric reference is included as the analysis of cohesive devices is not merely restricted to inter-sentential ties. Since the study examines translated texts, in which the punctuation system of Arabic and English is very flexible, and the notion of sentence boundaries is not specific, the analysis of cataphoric reference within sentences, i.e. at the intra-sentential level, is to be covered as well.

II.1.1.1. Types of Reference

In English three types of reference are distinguished: *personal*, *demonstrative*, and *comparative* reference.

III.1.1.1.1. Personal Reference

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:37), *personal reference* is "reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of PERSON." The category of *personals* includes personal pronouns (*I, me, you, he, him, she, her, they, them, etc.*), possessive determiners (*my, your, his, her, etc.*) and possessive pronouns (*mine, yours, his, hers, etc.*). They are considered to be cohesive devices only when they link to some other elements in the text. In what follows, Table 2 demonstrates three classes of personal reference in English (ibid: 38):

Semantic Category	Existential	Possessive	
Grammatical Function	**Head**		**Modifier**
Class	**Noun (Pronoun)**	**Determiner**	
Person : speaker (only) addressee(s), with/without other person(s) speaker and other person(s) other person, male other person, female other person; objects object; passage of text generalized person	I me you we us he him she her they them it one	 mine yours ours his hers theirs [its]	my your our his her their its one's

Table 2: Personal Reference in English (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:38)

The importance of the three classes of pronouns, or in Halliday and Hasan's term (1976) *the person system,* lies in their function as a "means of referring to RELEVANT persons and objects, making use of a small set of options centring around the particular nature of their relevance to the speech situation" (ibid:45). They maintained that *the persons defined* refer to other elements by means of function in the speech situation, and distinguished between them by *their roles* in the communication process as well as all other entities. They referred to the former by *speech roles,* which include speakers (first person forms) and addressees (second person forms), and to the latter by *other roles*, which include all other participants (third person forms). They further made a distinction between the *speech roles* and *other roles*. The first and second person forms do not refer to the text at all but rather to the situation, i.e. the first and second person pronouns do not refer back to other elements or expression in the text, but rather to the speaker and hearer. Nevertheless, the third person form is the only form that is *inherently cohesive* as it refers anaphorically or cataphorically to the text. They (ibid: 48) stated "the first- and second-person forms essentially refer to the situation, whereas those of third person

essentially refer anaphorically or cataphorically to the text". Table 3 below summarises the different roles of reference:

Speech Roles			Other Roles		
	Speaker	Addressee	Specific		Generalized Human
			Human	Non-human	
One	I, me, My, mine	You, you Your, yours	He, him, his, his, She her hers her	It it [its] its	One one-ones
More than one	We, us, ours, our		They, them, theirs, their		

Table 3: Different Roles of Personal Reference in English (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:38)

Halliday and Hasan (1976) concluded that in the absence of any reference to first and second person forms, the text meaning is still complete and true. In written language, first and second person forms are anaphoric when they occur in *quoted direct speech* rather than other examples where writers address their speakers. Consider their example:

[2]

- There was a brief note from Susan. She just said, 'I am not coming home this weekend.' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:49)

This example is an instance of indirect anaphora. While the pronoun *I* in the quoted clause is a first person form, it refers back to *Susan* in the first instance, similar to the preceding third person pronoun form *she*. Although the pronoun *I* refers to the speaker, we need to look in the text for who the speaker is.

On the contrary, in the absence of any reference to third person form, the text meaning is incomplete. According to them (1976: 49), "a third person form, while typically anaphoric, may refer exophorically to some person or thing that is present in the context of situation." They suggested the following example to illustrate how a third person pronoun may refer to an entity which is present in the context of situation rather than in the text:

[3]

- Oh, he's already been? - Yes, he went by about five minutes ago. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 49)

The identity of the third person pronoun *he* is clear. Although it is typically anaphoric, it refers exophorically to a person *present in the context of situation*. That is why Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 49) reiterated that "present in the context of situation does not necessary mean physically present in interactant's field of perception; it merely means that the context of situation permits the identification to be made." Hence, they speculated that the mode of the third person form was situational, and that *endophoric* reference emanates ultimately from *exophoric* reference. Therefore, what makes reference a situational relation is that third personal pronouns do not usually refer merely to other elements in the text but may also be used to refer to other elements, which occur in the immediate context of situation. Baker (1992) stated that although Halliday and Hasan (1976) restricted the concept of reference to textual rather than extra-linguistic relations, they still recognised that the relationship of reference may be established situationally. Yet, it is, of course, true that "the typical instance of third person reference is textual, and therefore cohesive, and in many texts constitutes the most frequent single class of cohesive items" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 49).

It is worth pointing out that another type of reference relation, which was not discussed in Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy of cohesion, is *coreference*. Baker (1992) suggested an example of a chain of co-referential items: *Mrs Thatcher ® The Prime Minister ® The Iron Lady ® Maggie,* in which the relation between these entities depends on the knowledge of the world rather than on textual competence. The type of *coreference* is not strictly textual. Hoey (1988:162, in Baker, 1992) pointed out that *co-reference* "is not strictly a linguistic feature at all but a matter of real world knowledge."

III.1.1.1.2. Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is achieved by means of items which refer to other elements by locating them on a scale of proximity. It is classified semantically into *adverbial demonstratives* (circumstantial) and *nominal demonstratives*.

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 38) differentiated between the dimension of *near* and the dimension of *not near*. According to them (ibid: 57-58), "the adverbial demonstratives *here*, *there*, now, and *then* refer to the location of a process in space or time and they normally do so directly, not via the location of person or object that is participating in the process." Thus, adverbials typically function as *adjuncts* in the clause. They do not function as elements within the nominal group, and they have a secondary function as *qualifier* (e.g. *that man there*). However, "the remaining (nominal) demonstratives *this*, *these*, *that*, *those* and *the*, refer to the location of something … -a person or an object- that is participating in the process; they therefore occur as elements within the nominal group" (ibid: 57-58).

Semantic Category	Selective		Non-selective
Grammatical Function	Modifier/Head	Adjunct	Modifier
Class	Determiner	Adverb	Determiner
Proximity: Near Far Neutral	this, these that, those	here, [now] there, then	 the

Table 4: Demonstrative Reference in English (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:38)

Similar to third person pronouns, demonstratives often refer exophorically to something in the context of situation; they may go with demonstrative actions such as gestures referring to objects. For example:

[3]

    a. Pick these up!

    b. Leave that there and come here!

    c. Look at the flowers!

    d. Don't go; the train's coming. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:58)

The demonstratives *this*, *these* and *here* indicate proximity to the speaker, while *that, those* and *there* indicate distance from the speaker, "which may or may not involve proximity to the addressee" (ibid: 59), i.e. the meaning is near you, or not near either of us, but whatever happens is not near me. Likewise, the definite article *the* is used exophorically, i.e. the situation clarifies what the referent is. In examples (c) and (d), the meaning of definite article *the* is clear as the context of situation specifies the referent. However, as already mentioned, exophoric references are excluded in this study because they are not textually cohesive. Yet, *this* and *that,* which are used in *endophoric* reference, are explainable by reference to *exophora*, and the

definite article *the,* which is used anaphorically or cataphorically, is also interpretable if related to exophora.

1. Selective Nominal Demonstratives

In general, Halliday and Hasan (1976) considered that the selective nominal demonstratives, which occur extensively with anaphoric function in all varieties of English, embody within themselves three systematic distinctions. These distinctions are related to cohesion as they partly describe the use of these items textually (in endophoric reference). They are:

a. **Between Near and not Near:** *this/these* VS *that/those*

Examples:

[4]

   a. There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness.

     - *This* is what I can't understand.

   b. There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness.

     -Yes, *that* is what I can't understand.

   c. We went to the opera last night.

     -*That* was our first outing for months.

   d. We're going to the opera tonight.

     - *This*'ll be our first outing for months. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:60)

In examples (a) and (b), *this* and *that* refer anaphorically to something that has been said before. Demonstrative *this* is used to refer to something the speaker himself has said, and *that* is used to refer to something said by the speaker's interlocutor. So, the distinction is in terms of proximity to the speaker, i.e. it is between near and not near (the speaker). Moreover, proximity

is interpreted in terms of time. Halliday and Hasan (1976) explained that demonstrative *that* is concerned with a past-time referent and *this* for one in the present or future, examples (c) and (d) are good instances.

b. **Between Singular and Plural:** *this/that* VS *these/those*

The distinction is between *this/that* referring to singular or mass nouns and *these/those* to count plural nouns. Plural forms may not merely refer anaphorically to a prior plural noun but also to sets that are plural in meaning. For example:

[5]

- I've ordered two turkeys, a leg of lamb, some cooked ham and tongue, and two pounds of minced beef.
- Whatever are you going to do with all *that* food? (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:62)

In this example, *that food* refers back to the whole set of food: turkeys, a leg of lamb, cooked ham and tongue, and some minced beef. This explains that anaphoric reference items refer to the meanings and not to the forms mentioned before.

c. **Between Head and Modifier:** *this, etc. as pronouns* VS *this, etc. plus* following *noun*

A demonstrative as Head (demonstrative pronoun), which may refer freely to non-humans, refers also with a high restriction to human nouns. Reference to human nouns, whether anaphorically or exophorically, is not possible except in the special environment of an *equative clause*, where one element is providing the identification of the others. Examples:

[6]

- Do you want to know the woman who designed it? -*That* was Mary Smith.

- Who are those colourful characters? -*Those* must be the presidential guards.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:63)

d. Extended Reference and Reference to Fact: *this* and *that*

The use of demonstratives to refer to extended texts (like fact) is quite related to the generalised type of demonstrative reference, but, it pertains only to singular items *this* and *that* without the presence of a subsequent noun. For example:

[7]

- They broke a Chinese vase.

a. That was valuable.

b. That was careless. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:66)

In (a) *that* refers to a *vase.* The sentence could be: *that vase* was valuable. In (b) *that* refers to the whole event of breaking the vase, *i.e.* the breaking of the vase was careless.

e. Anaphoric and Cataphoric Demonstratives

In extended text reference, *that* is always anaphoric, whereas *this* can be both anaphoric and cataphoric. For example:

[8]

a. Viola: I am all the daughters of my father's house

And all the brothers too, -and yet I know not.-

Sir, shall I to this lady?

Duke: Ay, *that*'s the theme.

b. Hamlet: Why, you look there! Look, how it steals away!

My father, in his habit as he liv'd!

Look where he goes, even now, out of the portal!

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Queen: *This* is the very coinage of your brain.

   c. Cassius: That you have wronged me doth appear in *this*:

               You have condemn'd and noted Lucius Pella

               For taking bribes here of the Sardians;

               Wherein my letters, praying on his side,

               Because I knew the man, were slighted off. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:68)

2. Definite Article *the*

Halliday and Hasan (1976) classified the definite article *the* with the determiners, and, in more particular, with the specific determiners: the *demonstratives* and the *possessives*. According to them, the definite article *the* is a reduced form of the demonstrative *that*, unlike the demonstratives which can function as head, *the* functions only as a modifier.

The definite article *the* is viewed as "the most neutral item amongst the demonstratives" (Thompson, 1996: 150). According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:71), it "merely indicates that the item in question is specific and identifiable; that somewhere the information necessary for identifying it is recoverable." The information is found either in the situation or in the text. If it is in the situation i.e. exophoric, the item is distinguishable in one of two ways:

i. A specific item is being referred to and identifiable in the specific situation. For example: Don't go; the train's coming. The noun *the train* is understood as *the train we are both expecting*, but not as *a warning to avoid an accident*.

ii. The referent is identifiable on extra-linguistic bases irrespective of the situation. It occurs in two conditions: First, because there is only one member of the class of objects referred to (e.g. *the sun*). Second, the referent is the whole class (e.g. *the stars*) or it is considered as a representative of the whole class like *the child*, in the example: *As the child*

grows, he learns to be independent. This type of reference is called *homophoric* to distinguish from the situationally specific type (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Nevertheless, the source of identification may be in the text, i.e. endophoric reference. In this case it may be cataphoric or anaphoric. The definite article *the* can never refer forward across a sentence boundary cohesively. It can only refer to some elements within the same nominal group (e.g. the party in power). However, anaphoric reference occurs when the information needed to identify the items is to be recuperated from the previous text, as in: She found herself in a long, low hall…. There were doors all-round *the* hall…. (ibid.)

3. Demonstrative Adverbs

Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) included four items *here*, *there*, *now* and *then* in this category, although the demonstrative adverb *now* is not always cohesive. The three adverbs *there*, *then* and *now* should be differentiated from non-demonstrative forms, i.e. the pronoun *there* and the conjunctions *then* and *now*. Corresponding to demonstrative *this* and *that*, the items *here* and *there* can be both anaphoric and cataphoric, as in:

[9]

- Do you play croquet with the queen today?

- 'I should like it very much' said Alice, 'but I haven't been invited'

- 'You'll see me *there*', said the cat, and vanished. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:74)

The use of the temporal demonstratives *then* and *now* is restricted. While the demonstrative *then* embodies the anaphoric reference to time (i.e. the meaning of *then* is *at the time just referred to),* the meaning of *now* is restricted to the state of affairs having come about.

For example:

[10]

- In my young days we took these things more seriously. We had different ideas *then*.
- The plane touched down at last. *Now* we could breathe freely again. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:75)

It is worth mentioning that there is an overlap between referential items and conjunctions, and this does not force the sharp distinction between them. Since the focus of this study is to reveal the cohesive properties of texts, the decision of classifying these items should follow the semantic consistency.

III.1.1.1.3. Comparative Reference

Comparative reference establishes relations of identity and similarity or difference through the use of adjectives like "*same, identical, different, else, better, more, etc.* and adverbs like *equally, similarly, so, such, more, etc.*" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 39). According to Thompson (1996: 149), comparison "includes two things that are being compared; and any comparative attached to one entity or concept thus implies the existence of the other entity or concept." Table 5 demonstrates Halliday and Hasan's system of comparative reference in English.

Grammatical Function	Modifier: Deictic/Epithet	Sub modifier/Adjunct
Class	**Adjective**	**Adverb**
General comparison: Identity General similarity: Difference (i.e. non-identity or similarity)	same identical equal similar additional other different else	identically similarly likewise so such differently otherwise
Particular comparison:	better, more, etc. [comparative adjectives and quantifiers]	so more less equally

Table 5: Comparative Reference in English (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:39)

In Halliday and Hasan's system (1976), comparative reference is categorised into two types: *general comparison* and *particular comparison*.

a. General Comparison

General comparison is described as a comparison in terms of "likeness and unlikeness, without respect to any particular property: two things may be the same, similar or different (where 'different' includes both 'not the same' and 'not similar')" (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 77). This type of reference is expressed by a certain class of adjectives and adverbs. The adjectives function in the nominal group either as *Deictic* (the adjective *identical* in *the identical two cards* functions as a deictic to the head of the nominal group *cards*) or *Epithet* (the adjective *identical* in *two identical cards*). The adverbs function in the clause as *Adjuncts*, (the adverb *identically* in *the others performed identically*). These types of adjectives and adverbs are called *adjectives of comparison* and *adverbs of comparison* in order to differentiate between them and *comparative adjectives and comparative adverbs* such as bigger, better, more quickly.

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), general comparison expresses the likeness between things; it may take the form of *identity* and *similarity* in addition to the combination of the two (*non-likeness*):

1. Likeness may take the form of *Identity*, where *two things* are *the same thing*:

   Example: It's the *same* cat as the one we saw yesterday.

2. Likeness may take the form of *similarity*, where *two things* are *like each other*:

   Example: It's a *similar* cat to the one we saw yesterday.

3. The combination of the two concepts takes the form of difference (non-likeness):

   Example: It's a *different* cat *from* the one we saw yesterday. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:78)

They (ibid: 78) maintained that "since likeness is a referential property. A thing cannot just be 'like'; it must be 'like something'. Hence comparison is a form of reference alongside personal and demonstrative reference; and it embraces the same set of possibilities." Similar to other types of reference, comparative reference may be exophoric or endophoric. That is to say, the referent of the comparison may be in the situation or in the text. If it is endophoric, the reference may be anaphoric or cataphoric and it may be structural or non-structural (cohesive). Moreover, the comparison can be *internal*, i.e. "the *likeness* expressed as a *mutual* likeness without a referent appearing as a distinct entity" (ibid: 78).

b. Particular Comparison

Particular comparison, on the other hand, is described as a "comparison that is in respect of quantity or quality. It is also expressed by means of adjectives or adverbs, not of a special class, but ordinary adjectives and adverbs in some comparative form" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 77). The adjectives function in the nominal group either as *Numerative* (e.g. *more* as in *more cards*) or as *Epithet* (e.g. *better* as in *better cards*). The adverbs function either as *Adjunct* in the clause (e.g. *better* in *the others performed better*) or as a *Submodifier*, where they occur within an *Epithet* (e.g. *such* in *such good cards*) or a *Numerative* (e.g. *so* in *so many words*), or within an *Adjunct* (e.g. *equally* in *the others performed equally badly*).

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 80), "particular comparison expresses comparability between things in respect of a particular property … [which] is a matter of quantity or quality". The comparison in terms of quantity is expressed in the *Numerative* element in the structure of the nominal group, either by a *comparative quantifier* (e.g. *more* in *more mistakes)* or by an *adverb of comparison* sub-modifying a *quantifier* (e.g. *as* in *as many mistakes*). The comparison in terms of quality is expressed in the *Epithet element* in the nominal group or as *an Adjunct* in the clause. In the epithet element, comparison is further expressed by *a comparative adjective* (e.g. *easier*, *more difficult*) or by an *adverb of comparison* sub-modifying an adjective (e.g. *so* in *so difficult a task*). As an *Adjunct* comparison is expressed by *a comparative adverb* (e.g. *faster* in *Cambridge rowed faster*) or by an *adverb of comparison* sub-modifying an adverb (e.g. *as* in *she sang as sweetly*).

Similar to general comparison, particular comparison is also referential. A standard of reference by which one thing is said to be *superior*, *equal*, or *inferior* in quality or quantity is required in particular comparison. In the exchange below, Alice is demanding for a standard reference (referent) when faced with a comparative of this type. Example:

[11]

- "Take some more tea", the Match Hare said to Alice, very earnestly.
- "I've had nothing yet". Alice replied in an offended tone. "So I can't take more."
  (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:81)

Moreover, particular comparison is either exophoric or endophoric, which can also be either anaphoric or cataphoric.

It is important to mention that there are some words of comparison that require some attention here. Words of comparison like *so, such* and *as* are viewed "as variants of the same word, which takes the form of *such* when it is an adjective, *so* when it is a free adverb, and *as* when it is bound adverb" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 84). In the examples below, *such* and *so* are used as intensifiers, meaning *extremely*:

[12]

- The war scenes in the film were *so* terrifying.

- Our neighbours are *such* a nuisance. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:85)

Another example:

[13]

- *Such* an efficient man as John ⎤

- *So* efficient a man as John ⎬ is unlikely to be mistaken.

- A man *as* efficient as John ⎦

III.1.2. Substitution

Unlike reference, which is a relation between meanings within text, substitution is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases, i.e. it functions as a linguistic link on the lexico-grammatical level. While reference is a semantic phenomenon, substitution, including ellipsis, is a grammatical phenomenon. Substitution is defined as the replacement of one item by another and not to its referent. The substitute item maintains the same grammatical function as that for which it substitutes. It is used in order to avoid the repetition of a particular item; instead, one of the grammatical resources of the language is used to replace the item (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In the following example, the words *one* and *does* are both

substitutes for *axe* and *knows* respectively. It follows that the substituted item is replaced without any effect on the meaning.

[14]

- My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharper *one*.

- You think Joan already knows? – I think everybody *does*. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:89)

III.1.2.1. Types of Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguished three types of substitution: *nominal*, *verbal*, and *clausal*, which reflect its grammatical function. They (ibid: 90) argued that "since substitution is a grammatical relation, a relation in the wording rather in the meaning, the different types of substitution are defined grammatically rather than semantically […] in English the substitute may function as a noun, as a verb, or as a clause."

		Non-prominent (given)	**Prominent (new)**
Nominal	Thing (count noun)	one(s)	the SAME
	Process (nominalized) Attribute Fact	so	do be say ⎫ the SAME
Verbal	Process (+…)	do	Do So
Clausal (β): report, condition, modality	positive	so	SO
	negative	not	NOT

Table 6: **Summary of Substitution Forms in English (Halliday & Hasan 1976:141)**

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III.1.2.1.1. Nominal Substitution

The example below is an example of nominal substitution. The term *ones,* which is the Head of the nominal group *leaden ones,* is a substitute for the Head *bullets* in the nominal group *bullets made of platinum*. Thus, the substitute *ones* assumes the function of the presupposed item. Example:

[15]

> I shoot the hippopotamus
>
> With bullets made of platinum
>
> Because if I use leaden ones
>
> His hide is sure to flatten'em. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:91)

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), the substitute *one* or *ones* are the terms most commonly used for nominal substitution in English. They always function as the head of a nominal group, and can substitute only for an item which is itself a head of a nominal group. The item *ones* substitutes for the noun *bullets* in the first sentence. Therefore, it would possible to repeat the noun *bullets* in the second sentence to appear as *I use leaden bullets*.

III.1.2.1.2. Verbal Substitution

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 112), verbal substitution in English is realised through the verb *do,* which "operates as Head of the verbal group, in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb; and its position is always final in the group." In the following example, the verb *do* substitutes for the previous verbal group *know the meaning of half those long words,* and the presupposed item is in the same sentence. Example:

[16]

- I don't know the meaning of half those long words, and, what's more, I don't believe you *do* either!' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:112)

Moreover, verbal substitution may either function within the same sentence or extend across sentence boundaries, and the verbal substitute *do* can also substitute for a verb plus certain other elements in the clause. For example:

[17]

- He never really succeeded in his ambitions. He might have *done*, one felt, had it not been for the restlessness of his nature. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:113)

In this example, the verbal substitute *done* in the second sentence substitutes not only for the verb *succeeded* in the first sentence but also all the other elements accompanying the verb in the clause *succeeded in his ambitions. Done* substitutes for a verb plus certain other elements in the clause and links the two sentences together anaphorically. Therefore, it would be possible to maintain the elements accompanying the verb *succeeded* to appear as: *He might have succeeded in his ambitions* (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

III.1.2.1.3. Clausal Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (ibid:130) proposed a third type of substitution, clausal substitution. It is a "further type […] in which what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause." The terms used in clausal substitution are *so* and the negative form *not.* They function on the entire clause and they do not presuppose a noun or a verb but presuppose the entire clause. That is to say, in clausal substitution the entire clause is presupposed, and the contrasting element is outside the clause. Examples:

[18]

    a. Is there going to be an earthquake? - It says *so*.

    b. Has everyone gone home? - I hope *not*. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:130)

In example (a), the term *so* substitutes for the previous clause *there is going to be an earthquake* and the contrastive environment is provided by *says* which is outside the clause. In example (b) the negative form *not* is a substitute for the clause *everyone has gone home.*

III.1.3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is a special instance of substitution, in that it is referred as *substitution by zero*. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), ellipsis means something is left unsaid. They (ibid: 142) stated "There is no implication that what is unsaid is not understood; on the contrary, 'unsaid' implies 'but understood nevertheless', and another way of saying ellipsis is in fact as SOMETHING UNDERSTOOD, where understood is in the special sense of 'going without saying'." In simple words, ellipsis is the omission of an item (or items), in which the lexical item mentioned for substitution is replaced by nothing, and without any effect on the meaning. For example:

[19]

   - Four other oysters followed them, and yet another four[10]. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:142)

In the second clause above, the item *oysters* was omitted. Without this kind of omission, the clause would appear as: *and yet another four oysters.* This, however, makes the structure repetitive and redundant.

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[10] Halliday and Hasan's example (1976:142) is from Lewis Carroll (1872).

According to Halliday & Hasan (1976: 142), since language does not operate in isolation but functions as text in actual situation of use, there are always some sources of information available for hearers/readers "to interpret a sentence than is contained in the sentence itself". These sources are required to supply "what is left unsaid". One of these sources is related to ellipsis. Ellipsis arises when a piece of information that is structurally necessary is left unsaid and therefore creates a sense of incompleteness. Where there is ellipsis in the structure, there is some assumption that something is to be supplied or understood, "and in the great majority of instances the presupposed item is present in the preceding text" (ibid: 144). Yet, rarely, the presupposition in an elliptical structure may be exophoric, i.e. in the context of situation. Therefore, ellipsis is a relation within the text. It refers to a presupposed anaphoric item and the presupposed item is understood through its structural link. Its cohesive effect appears in the fact that it recuperates an item from the previous sentence and uses it to fill an empty slot in the following sentence.

III.1.3.1. Types of Ellipsis

Since ellipsis is a special case of substitution, the types of ellipsis are the same: *nominal*, *verbal* and *clausal*. However, "they are two different kinds of structural mechanism, and hence show rather different patterns" (ibid: 142). The difference between these two devices is that in substitution "a substitution counter occurs in the slot, and this must be deleted if the presupposed item is replaced", whereas, in ellipsis, "the slot is empty- there has been substitution by zero" (ibid: 145).

III.1.3.1.1. Nominal Ellipsis

Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) defined nominal ellipsis as the omission of a nominal item from the structure. In other words, nominal ellipsis functions on the nominal group. The logical structure of the nominal group (noun phrase) consists of a head with optional modifier. The

modifying elements include some which precede the head and some which follow it; they are referred to as *pre-modifiers* and *post-modifiers* respectively. The former can be further subcategorised as a *deictic*, *numerative*, *epithet*, or a *classifier*, whereas the latter contains only a *qualifier*. For example:

[20]

- These two fast electric trains with pantographs. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:161)

In the example above, the Head of the nominal group is the noun *trains*. Within the *pre-modifier*s (these two fast electric), *these* functions as a *deictic*, *two* a *numerative*, *fast* an *epithet*, and *electric* a *classifier*, while the *post-modifier* (with pantographs) is a *qualifier*.

It is obvious then that the context allows listeners/readers to understand what is elliptic. The omission of the nominal item, the word *chocolates* in the example below, from the structure and its substitution by nothing in the sentence do not affect the interpretation of meaning. For example:

[21]

- Have another *chocolate*.

- No thanks; I've had my three. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:161)

III.1.3.1.2. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is the omission of a verb or verbal element. For example: *Have you been swimming? Yes, I have.* Here, there is only one lexical element, the verbal form *swimming*, in which the form of the present perfect continuous tense *have been swimming* is omitted. In fact, ellipsis is probably the default case, more so in spoken language (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

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It is worth mentioning that in order to say whether a verbal group is elliptical or not, we should observe its textual environment, i.e. the co-text.

III.1.3.1.3. Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis is the omission of the clause structure. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), it is not very easy to distinguish between clausal ellipsis and verbal ellipsis, which is always accompanied by the omission of other elements in the clause structure in addition to the verbal ones. They (ibid: 194) put forward:

> Verbal ellipsis is always accompanied by the omission of the related clause elements, these that are in the same part of the clause as the relevant portion of the verbal group. So in operator ellipsis, where there is omission of the finite part of the verbal group, the subject is also omitted; in lexical ellipsis, where there is omission of the non-finite part of the verbal group, all complements and adjuncts are also omitted.

For example:

[22]

-   The cat won't catch mice in winter.

    a. Or Ø chase birds.

In (a), the subject *cat* is omitted in addition to the operator *won't*, whereas in (b), the lexical verb *catch,* the complement *mice* and the adjunct *in winter* are altogether omitted.

For Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 195), the other elements in the clause structure are omitted or clearly replaced, the examples below illustrate this:

[23]

-   The cat won't catch mice in winter.

    a. Nor the dog chases rabbits.

    b. It will birds.

c. It will in summer. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 195)

Example (a) is an instance of operator ellipsis; the subject is repudiated, i.e. the subject *cat* is replaced by the noun *dog* to mean: *nor will the dog chase rabbits in winter*. In example (b), which is an instance of lexical ellipsis; the complement *mice* is replaced by the noun *birds* to mean: *it will catch birds in winter*. In (c), which is an example of lexical ellipsis, the Adjunct *in winter* is repudiated by *in summer* to mean *it will catch mice in summer*.

Nevertheless, it is worth emphasising that while Halliday and Hasan (1976) highlighted a clear distinction between ellipsis and substitution, Thompson (1996), for example, considered them as one category. He (ibid: 153) described them as two types of ellipsis, "ellipsis proper ("a gap") and substitution (where a gap is filled with "a substitute form")." Yet, this kind of categorisation is of little influence on the present research since these two devices are very scarce in legal texts.

III.1.4. Conjunction

The last instance of grammatical cohesion is conjunction. It entails the use of conjuncts, or conjunctives, such as *and, yet, so, then, etc.* to link parts of the text to each other. As a grammatical device, it connects what is to follow to what has gone before. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), these expressions indicate a cohesive effect but which is different from other devices; conjunctions are not simply an anaphoric relation, they are rather different in nature from the other cohesive relations: reference, substitution, and ellipsis. They (ibid: 226) stated:

> Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primary devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) explained that conjunction is a different type of semantic relation. Unlike the types mentioned above, the semantic relation is represented in a number of conjunctive elements that are not cohesive in themselves; instead, it is the meanings of these conjunctive elements that create ties between parts of the text. They asserted that conjunction is not a "kind of search instruction" as in reference, or the replacement of some elements by some others as in substitution, or the substitution by zero elements as in ellipsis. With conjunctions, however, the semantic relations are "a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before" (ibid: 227). In other words, conjunctive relations are not related to any specific sequence. If two sentences are joined together as a result of conjunctions, they are not necessarily limited to that specific order. In this view, the same relations are sometimes mutually dependent through the meaning of two continuous parts. They stated:

> The conjunctive relations themselves are not tied to any particular sequence in the expression; if two sentences cohere into a text by virtue of some form of conjunction, this does not mean that the relation between them could subsist only if they occur in that particular order [...] two sentences may be linked by a time relation, but the sentence referring to the event that is earlier in time may itself come later, following the other sentence (Halliday & Hasan,1976:227).

More specifically, as cohesion, which is a relation between sentences in a text, is concerned with sentences alongside their actual sequence, i.e. "the sentences of a text can only follow one after the other", the focus of attention will be on the function of conjunctive devices in "relating linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other, structural means" (ibid: 227), as in the case with substitution, for example. Therefore, conjunctions as cohesive devices are not restricted merely to semantic relations, but also link parts of the text which are not linked through other structural relations. They wrote:

In describing conjunction as a cohesive device, we are focusing attention not on the semantic relation as such, as realized through the grammar of the language, but on one particular aspect of them, namely the function they have of relating to each other linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other, structural means. (Halliday & Hasan,1976:227).

Therefore, conjunctions join the textual elements together in order to a guarantee a coherent semantic unit. Conjunctions are not bound to a particular text element to form a structural semantic relation; the semantic relation is established through their function. Halliday and Hasan (1976) suggested that the semantic relations which apply to un-structurally related sentences are called conjunctions, and the elements which make these relations explicit are called conjunctives, adjuncts or discourse adjuncts. Consider Halliday & Hasan's examples of adversative relations (ibid: 229):

[24]

a. *Although* he was very uncomfortable, he fell asleep.

b. He was very uncomfortable. *Nevertheless* he fell asleep. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:229)

In the second example, the adverb *nevertheless* links two sentences and the link between them is not structural but cohesive. However, the first example illustrates the structural relation within the sentence.

Moreover, while the cohesive devices of reference, substitution, and ellipsis are grammatical, since they comprise systems *of person, number, proximity, degree of comparison, or presence/absence*, conjunction is "on the border-line of the grammatical and lexical" (ibid:303). According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid:303-4), "the set of conjunctive elements can probably be interpreted grammatically in terms of systems, but … some conjunctive expressions involve lexical selection as well, e.g., "moment" in "from that moment on."

III.1.4.1. Types of Conjunction

Halliday and Hasan (1976) divided conjunction into four types, additive, adversative, causal, and temporal, typified by the conjuncts *and*, *yet*, *so* and *then*, respectively. According to them, this fourfold classification is one of many available classifications of conjunctions in English, arguing that "there is no single, uniquely correct inventory of the types of conjunctive relation; different classifications are possible, each of which would highlight different aspects of the facts" (ibid: 238).

As clearly observed, Halliday and Hasan's classification (ibid.) is based on the semantic cohesive relations which are realised by the explicit presence of conjunctions in discourse, rather than on investigating conjunctions as such. Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) extended this four category classification into more complex and detailed sub-classifications, justifying that "a very simple overall framework like this [four category classification] does not ELIMINATE the complexity of the facts; it relegates it to a later, or more 'delicate' stage of analysis" (ibid: 239). That is why their classification is thought to be able to handle all the possible subcategories. They emphasised that:

> [This framework] seems to have the right priorities, making it possible to handle a text without unnecessary complication. A detailed systematization of all the possible subclasses would be more complex than is needed for the understanding and analysis of cohesion; moreover, they are quite indeterminate, so that it would be difficult to select one version in preference to another (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 239).

Moreover, Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) divided conjunctive relations into two levels: external and internal, which are quite hard to distinguish between. They (ibid: 321) stated: "conjunction may be located in the phenomena that constitute the content of what is being said (external), or in the interaction itself, the social process that constitutes the speech event (internal)". The two examples below illustrate the *external* and *internal* relations respectively:

[25]

- They gave him food and clothing. And they looked after him till he was better.

- They gave me fish to eat. And I don't like fish. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 321)

a) Grammatical Features of Conjunctions

In addition to the semantic features of conjunctions, Halliday and Hasan (1976) recognised their syntactic characteristics. The conjunctive taxonomies they suggested were distinguished from other grammatical items, such as coordinators and subordinators.

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), two main grammatical categories, adverb and preposition contribute to the structure of conjunctive expression as cohesive elements. They are categorised into three kinds:

1. Adverbs, including :

    Simple adverbs 'coordinating conjunctions', *e.g.: but, so, then, next*

    Compound adverbs in *-ly e. g.: accordingly, subsequently, actually*

    Compound adverbs in *there-* and *where-* e. g.: *therefore, thereupon, whereat*

2. Other compound adverbs, e. g.: *furthermore, nevertheless, anyway, instead, besides*

    Prepositional phrases e. g.: *on the contrary, as a result, in addition*

3. Prepositional expressions with *that* or other reference item, the latter being

    (i) Optional, e. g.: *as a result of that, instead of that, in addition to that* or

    (ii) Obligatory, e. g.: *in spite of that, because of that*.

It is worth mentioning that many of these conjunctions substitute one another to have the same function in text. For example, the prepositional expression *because of this* can be replaced by the adverb *therefore*. According to to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 232), "This is

because conjunctions express one or other of a small number of very general relations, and it is the conjunctive relation rather than the particular nominal complement following the preposition that provides the relevant link to the preceding sentence."

Generally, the conjunctive adjuncts occupy the first position in the sentence. If the meaning of the conjunction is not limited by another one, it extends to cover the whole sentence. However, many exceptions are found. Because of the flexibility of the punctuation system and the imprecision of the notion of sentence boundaries in written text, the conjunctive adjunct is usually followed by a colon or a semi-colon. Conjunctions can also be found in the middle of the sentence, presupposing a previous clause in the sentence (ibid.).

Nevertheless, Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 238) asserted that the different types of conjunctive relations are not similar to the logical relations that are expressed through coordination. They maintained that the coordinate relation is structural in nature, which occurs between elements of the same sentence, whereas the conjunctive relation is a semantic one, which occurs between sentences. Considering Halliday and Hasan's instance of conjunction *and,* there is *coordinate and* which is structural and *additive and* which is semantic. *Coordinate and* joins elements together within the sentence, while *conjunctive and* joins two independents sentences.

According to them (ibid: 237), logical relations of *and* and *or* differ from other conjunctive relations in the following ways:

1. They are expressed structurally in the form of coordination.
2. They are retrospective since they can link a series of elements related to the same argument.
3. They have correlative forms, *both ... and*, *either ...or*.

4. They have a negative form *nor* (='and not') together with correlative *neither…*
   nor (=both not... and not).

However, unlike *but,* which contains within itself the logical meaning of *and,* and which is similar to *and however,* other conjunctions such as *yet, so* and *then* do not have these properties, i.e. they do not cover this additive meaning. Such words do not include the additive *and*, they are rather combined with *and* to form a single element: *and yet, and so,* and *and then* in order to express addition together with the semantic relation of the conjunction (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Therefore, conjunction is not only coordination functioning between sentences. The closest type of conjunctions to coordination is *additive*, in which the conjunction *and* is the closest among the structural relations. However, the additive relation is more complicated as "it contains components of emphasis which do not exist in *and* relation" (ibid: 238).

Halliday and Hasan concluded that:

Conjunctions are not logical relations but textual; they represent the generalized types of connection that we recognize as holding between sentences. What these connections are depends in the last resort on the meanings that sentences express, and essentially these are of two types: experiential, representing the linguistic interpretation of experience, and interpersonal, representing participation in the speech situation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 238).

III.1.4.1.1. Additive Conjunction

As mentioned above, there is a difference between structural relations which hold within a sentence and cohesive relations which hold within or between sentences. Under the heading of textual cohesion, the coordination elements *and*/*or* are considered as additives. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the additive conjunction is a semantic relation that is based on the words *and*, *or* and *nor*. They (ibid: 249) argued that "these words are all used cohesively, as conjunctions; and all of them are classified here as additive." They may express

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either the *external* or the *internal* type of conjunctive relation. Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) summarised the conjunctive relations of the additive type as follows:

a. Simple Additive Relations (External and Internal)

    i.   Additive: *and; and also, and… too*

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), there is no clear distinction between external and internal relations in the additive context. However, when *and* is used alone as a cohesive item different from *and then*, etc., it is usually internal, having the sense of *there is something more to be said,* as in example 1, or of a different kind as *to link a series of questions*, as in example 2, or *to link dialogue and narrative,* as in example 3:

[26]

1. I was very nearly opening the window, and putting you out into the snow! And you'd have deserved it…

2. Was she in a shop? And was that really- was it really a sheep that was sitting on the other side of the counter?

3. '…Who in the world am I? Ah, that's the great puzzle!' And she began thinking over all the children she knew that were of the same age as herself, to see if she could have been changed for any of them. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 245)

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 235), "the typical context for the conjunctive *and* is one in which there is a total, or almost total shift in the participants from one sentence to the next, and yet the two sentences are very definitely part of a text." For example:

4. He heaved the rock aside with all his strength. And there in the recesses of a deep hollow lay a glittering heap of treasure. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 235)

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The additive *and* in the above example is between two meanings. The two different facts are joined by *and*, which makes it *external*, and by conveying the speaker's meaning, which makes it internal, the two facts are linked in some way.

ii. Negative: *nor, and …not, not…either, neither*

Additive conjunctions signalled by *nor, and...not, not… either, neither* are used to negate the presupposed item. Conjunction *nor* is the simplest item expressing a negative form of the additive relation as in *nor can I.* In addition to *nor* there are different combined expressions with the same meaning *or else,* as extension of *or*, *and...not, not… either, neither*, *and … not … either* (ibid.). Examples 5 and 6 below illustrate this:

5. Perhaps she missed her train. Or else she's changed her mind and isn't coming.

6. I couldn't send all the horses, you know, because two of them are wanted in the game. And I haven't sent the two messengers either. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 247)

Halliday and Hasan (1976) added that the expanded forms with *either* hold an extra element of explicitness in them, revealing a sense of *and what is more*. This is considered as an element of internal meaning because the speaker is using an expression to show his/her attitude to or evaluation of what he/she is saying. Example 6 is a combination of both internal and external conjunctions.

iii. Alternative: *or; or else*

According to Halliday & Hasan (ibid: 246), "the distinction between the external and internal planes, with the 'or' relation, is perhaps more clear-cut. The basic meaning of the conjunctive 'or' relation is ALTERNATIVE."

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In the external sense, the contribution of alternative *or* in addition to its expansion *or else* is generally limited to questions, requests, permissions and predictions (realised in the grammar as interrogative, imperative, and modalised clauses). For example:

7. 'Shall we try another figure of the Lobster Quadrille?', the Gryphon went on. 'Or would you like the Mock Turtle to sing you a song?' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 246)

However, if *or* is related to statements, it has the internal sense of *an alternative interpretation*, *another possible opinion*, *explanation*, etc. in place of the one just given, as in:

8. Perhaps she missed her train. Or else she's changed her mind and isn't coming. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 247)

b. Complex Additive Relations (Internal): Emphatic

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 246), "there are specifically EMPHATIC forms of the 'and' relation occurring only in an internal sense, that of 'there is yet another point to be taken in connection with the previous one'." A large number of expressions that have this meaning include: *further, furthermore, again, also, moreover, what is more, besides, additionally, in addition to this, not only that but*. These expressions give a rhetorical flavour, as in:

[27]

- My client says he does not know this witness. Further, he denies ever having seen her or spoken to her. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 246)

In the above example, the two sentences are linked by the conjunctive expression *further* because "the speaker wants them to be as it were added together and reacted to in their totality"(ibid: 246).

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c. Complex Additive Relations (Internal): De-emphatic

There are some items such as *incidentally* and *by the way* that join together the sense of additive with that of afterthought. Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 249) believed that "they are perhaps on the borderline of cohesion; they may often hardly presuppose any preceding discourse, although in principle one sentence can be incidental only by reference to a previous one." For example:

[28]

- 'You'll see me there', said the Cat, and vanished… While she was looking at the place where it had been, it suddenly appeared again: By the-bye, what became of the baby?' said the Cat, 'I'd nearly forgotten to ask.' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 249)

d. Comparative Relations (Internal)

i. Similar: likewise, similarly, in the same way, in (just) this way

Under the heading of additive Halliday and Hasan (1976) included relations of similarity. According to them (ibid: 247), "the source of cohesion is the comparison of what is being said with what has gone before." Patterns such as *similarly*, *likewise*, and *in the same way,* etc. are related to additive conjunctions in that they are used to emphasise that "a point is being reinforced or a new one added to the same effect; the relevance of the presupposing sentence is its similarity of import to the presupposed one" (ibid: 247). For example:

[29]

- Treating people as responsible citizens brings out the best in them; they behave as such. In the same way if you treat them as criminals they will soon begin to act like criminals. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 247)

ii. Dissimilar: on the other hand, by contrast, conversely

Parallel to similarity, contradistinction or dissimilarity of meaning is part of comparative relations in the additive context. According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), this type of negative comparison is usually expressed by phrases such as *on the other hand*, *by contrast*, *as opposed to this, etc.* For example:

[30]

- Our garden didn't do very well this year. By contrast, the orchard is looking very healthy. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 247)

iii. Appositive Relations (Internal)

Other subcategories of the additive include *expository* and *exemplifactory* relations. Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) believed that both of them are relations of apposition rather than coordination. In the expository sense, the items *I mean*, *that is*, *that is to say*, (or) *in other words, to put it another way*, etc. are usually used to ensure this function. In the exemplificatory sense, the items *for instance*, *for example*, *thus*, in addition to *namely* and the abbreviations: *i.e., viz. e.g.* are used as additive conjunctions. For example:

[31] a. I wonder whether that statement can be backed up by adequate evidence. – In other words, you don't believe me.

b. 'What sort of things do you remember best?' Alice ventured to ask. 'Oh, things that happened the week after next', the Queen replied in a careless tone. 'For

instance, now', she went on…'there's the King's Messenger…(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 248)

III.1.4.1.2. Adversative Conjunction

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the adversative relation signifies *contrary to expectation*. The origin of expectation can be the content of what is being said, and hence, cohesion is on the external plane, or the communication process, i.e. the speaker-hearer situation, in which cohesion is on the internal plane. Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 255-56) summarised the conjunctive relations of the adversative type as follows:

a. Adversative Relation *proper*: External

Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 250) pointed out that "an external adversative relation is expressed in its simple form by the word *yet* occurring initially in the sentence". For example:

[32]

- All the figures were correct; they have been checked. Yet the total came out wrong. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 250)

Similar to *yet*, the conjunctions *but*, *however*, and *though* have the same function: contrary to expectation. These cohesive forms *yet, but, however,* and *though* are used to add another sentence which is contrary to what the preceding sentence implied. The difference between *but* and *yet* lies in the fact that the former contains the element *and* as one of its components, whereas the latter does not. That is why it is very common to find sentences starting with *and yet*, but never *and but.* Unlike the words *yet* and *but*, the conjunction *however* can occur non-initially in the sentence. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 251) added "in some instances the adversative relation between two sentences appears as it were with the sequence reversed, where the second sentence and not the first would correspond to the *although* clause

in a hypotactic structure." In this case, conjunction *yet* is the usual cohesive device. In this view, conjunction *and* is also found in adversative use. For example:

[33]

a. The total came out wrong. Yet all the figures were correct; they have been checked.

b. 'Dear, dear! How queer everything is today! And yesterday things went on just as usual'. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 252)

b. Contrastive Relations *as against:* External

Similar in function to the conjunction *on the other hand*, the elements *but* and *however* can be used to express contrastive relations:

[34]

a. She failed. However she's tried her best.

b. He's not exactly good-looking. But he's got brains.

c. 'I see you're admiring my little box', the knight said in a friendly

tone…'…You see I carry it upside-down, so that the rain can't get in.' 'But

the thing can get out,' Alice gently remarked. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 252)

Halliday and Hasan (1976) explained that in the above examples, the elements *however* and *but* are used to convey the meaning of *as against* and *to be set against* but not *despite*.

c. Contrastive Relations *as against* (internal)

Another form of the adversative relation proper, which is also internal, is equivalent of the contrastive meaning *as against.* Items such as *in fact, as a matter of fact* and *to tell the truth* have the same meaning *as against* what the actual communication process leads listeners to

expect (ibid.).They (ibid: 253) pointed out that "The conjunction takes the form of an assertion of veracity, an avowal". For example:

[35]

'Now the cleverest thing I ever did', he went on after a pause, was inventing a new pudding during the meat-course. In time to have it cooked for the next course? Said Alice, 'well, that was quick work, certainly.'

'Well, not the next course.' The Knight said in a slow thoughtful tone; 'no, certainly not the next course'…. In fact he went on, holding his head down, and his voice getting lower and lower. I don't believe that pudding ever was cooked! In fact I don't believe that pudding ever will be cooked. And yet it was a very clever pudding to cook. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 253)

d. Corrective Relations

Related to the avowal, another type of the adversative relation is correction relations. The general sense of this relation is contrary to expectation with specific sense of *as against what has just been said*. The difference between the avoval *in fact*, for example, and the correction relations is that "the former is an assertion of facts in the face of real or imaginary resistance (as against what you might think), whereas, in the latter one formulation is rejected in favour of another (as against what you have been told)" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 254). In the example below, the contrast is between two alternative phenomena.

[36]

a. He showed no pleasure in hearing the news. Instead he looked even gloomier.

b. I don't think she minds the cold. It's the damp she objects to, rather. (Halliday &
Hasan, 1976: 254)

e. Dismissive Relations

The final type of adversative relations is generalised or dismissive relation (*no …matter,
still*). It refers to some circumstances which have been mentioned earlier but dismissed as
irrelevant later on. Dismissive relations are represented by *in any/either case/event, any/either
way, whichever…, anyhow, at any rate, in any case, however that may be.* For example*:*

[37]

a. We may be back tonight; I'm not sure. Either way, just make yourself at home.

b. Your partner may support you or may change to another suit. In either case you
should respond. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 254)

III.1.4.1.3. Causal Conjunction

Causal conjunction is a cause-effect relation. According to Halliday and Hasan
(1976:256), "the simple form of CAUSAL relation is expressed by *so*, *thus*, *hence*, *therefore*,
consequently, *accordingly*, and a number of expressions like *as a result (of that), in
consequence (of that), because of that*." All these words and expressions occur frequently with
initial *and*. Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) summarised the relations of the causal type as follows:

a. Causal Relations, Specific

Under the heading of causals, specific relations of *result*, *reason* and *purpose* are
included. These relations are not distinguished in the simplest form of causals such as *so, thus*,
hence and *therefore*. As an example, conjunction *so* means *as a result of this*, *for this reason*,

and *for this purpose*. However, when they are conveyed as prepositional phrases, they are likely to be different (ibid.).

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), in the context of causal relations, the distinction between the external and internal types is not clear-cut because the notion of cause already includes partly the interpretation made by speakers. However, there are still noticeable differences. The simple forms *thus*, *hence*, and *therefore* occur frequently on the internal plane; they involve "some kind of reasoning or argument from a premise" (ibid: 257). This is also valid to expressions like *arising out of this*, *following from this, it follows that* and *from this it appears that.*

i.   Reversed Causal Relations, General

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), the reversed form of causal relations, in which the presupposing sentence reflects the effect of cause, is less common as a cohesive device. The reversed form of the words *so, thus, hence* and *therefore* are the words *for* and *because*. Within the sentence, it is very common to find the structural expression of cause going in either direction: both directions.

b. Conditional Relations: (*if …then*) (external and internal)

A different type of conjunctive cohesion included under the heading of causal is the conditional type. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 258), the causal and the conditional types are closely related, linguistically; "where the causal means '*a*, therefore *b*', the conditional means 'possibly *a*; if so, then *b*', and although the 'then' and the 'therefore' are not logically equivalent - *a* may entail *b* without being its cause- they are largely interchangeable as cohesive forms."

They explained that the word *then* is the simple form of the conditional type, meaning *under the circumstances*, as in example 38, and the negative form of the conditional, *under other circumstances*, is expressed cohesively by *otherwise*, as in example 39.

[38]

'Have some wine', the March Hare said in an encouraging tone.

Alice looked all-round the table, but there was nothing on it but tea. 'I don't see any wine', she remarked.

'There isn't any', said the March Hare.

'Then it wasn't very civil of you to offer it', said Alice angrily. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 258)

In this example, causal and conditional relations overlap; the meaning is *if, as is the case ..., then ...*. The corresponding relation could be expressed by either *if* or *since*, as, *seeing that*: *if/since there isn't any, (then) it wasn't very civil of you to offer it*.

[39]

It's the way I like to go to work. One person and one line of enquiry at a time.

Otherwise, there's a muddle. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 259)

c. Respective Relations: *with respect to,* (internal)

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 260), respective relations, represented by expressions such as *in this respect/connection* and *with regard to this,* are the internal analogue of conditional relations. The meaning is "if we have now reached this point in discourse". Being related to the conditional relations, reversed polarity conjunctions such as *otherwise* and *under the circumstances* are also equivalents of *in other respect* and *aside/apart from this*. For example:

[40]

> - One level is the taxation of personal incomes. With regard to this question, the impressions current among members of the public are often very far removed. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 260)

III.1.4.1.4. Temporal Conjunction

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), temporal conjunction is simply a relation of sequence in time. It connects two sentences in terms of their sequence in time (the one is subsequent to the other). The conjunctive relations of the temporal conjunction can be simple or complex, they are expressed by words such as *then*, *and then*, *next*, *afterwards*, *after that*, *sequentially* and a number of other expressions such as *next day*, *five minutes later*, and *five minutes earlier*. Example 41 illustrates how a temporal conjunction *then* joins all sentences together:

[41]

> (Alice) began by taking the little golden key and unlocking the door that led into the garden. Then she set to work nibbling at the mushroom…till she was about a foot high: then she walked down the little passage: and then- she found herself at last in the beautiful garden. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 261)

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), in order to make the temporal relation more specific, the presence of an extra component in the meaning in addition to that of succession in time is possible. For example, the following conjunctions can be found: *then + immediately* (*at once, thereupon, on which*); *then+ after an interval* (*soon, presently, later, after a time*); *then +*

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repetition (*next time, on other occasion*); *then + a specific time interval* (*next day, five minutes later*), etc. Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) suggested the following examples:

[42]

a. 'Tickets, please!, said the Guard, putting his head in at the window. In a moment everybody was holding out a ticket.

b. 'You alarm me!' said the King. 'I feel faint- Give me a hamsandwich!' On which the Messenger, to Alice's great amusement, opened a bag that hung round his neck, and handed a sandwich to the King, who devoured it greedily. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 262)

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 262) stated that:

In all these instances the external temporal relation is paralleled by the sequence of the sentences themselves: the second sentence refers to a later event. But this is not necessarily the case; the second sentence may be related to the first, still by means of temporal cohesion, through an indication that it is SIMULTANEOUS in time, or even PREVIOUS.

In terms of simultaneity, words and expressions, e.g. *(just) then*, *at the same time, simultaneously* can be found, and in the same way simple time relations can be complemented by other elements such as *then + in the interval* (*meanwhile, all this time*), *then + repetition* (*on this occasion, this time*), *then + moment of time* (*at this point/moment*), *then + termination* (*by this time*), etc.. For example:

[43]

'…. That will be a queer thing, to be sure! However, everything is queer today'. Just then she heard something splashing in the pool a little way off… (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 262)

According to Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 263), in the conclusive sense, "the presupposing sentence may be temporally cohesive not because it stands in some particular time relation to the presupposed sentence but because it marks the end of some process or series of processes." Words such as *finally*, *at last*, *in the end* and *eventually* express the external conclusive relations. For example:

[44]

> All this time the Guard was looking at her, first through a telescope, then through a microscope, and then through an opera glass. At last he said 'You're travelling the wrong way', and shut up the window and went away. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 263)

In one sense, what distinguishes temporal conjunctions from other types is their *correlative form,* "with a cataphoric time expression in one sentence anticipating the anaphoric one that is to follow" (ibid: 263). Cataphoric temporals include: *first*, *also at first, to begin with, etc.* Considering one of these conjunctions, the expectation is that items such as *then, next, second or finally* follow them.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), unlike the other relations, in temporal conjunctions the distinction between the external and internal types is obvious. They (ibid: 264) stated "In the internal type the succession is not in the events being talked about but rather in the communication process itself." Words such as *next*, *then*, *secondly*, *thirdly*, etc. reflect the meaning of "next in course of discussion" and expressions such as *finally*, *as a final point*, *in conclusion*, are used to refer to the end of a discussion. For example:

[45]

a. What sort of insects do you rejoice in, where you come from? The Gnat inquired…

Well, there's the horse-fly. Alice began, counting off the names on her fingers

And then there's the Butterfly, Alice went on.

b. Finally we should record that the influence of the humanists contributed a good deal towards the final decay of the plainsong tradition. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 263)

As far as the internal temporal relation is concerned, some conjunctions are "the relating of what is being said to the particular stage which the communication process has reached to the HERE and NOW of the discourse" (ibid: 264). They may take the form of past, present or future. Typical expressions are past: *up to now, up to this point, hitherto, heretofore*; present: *at this point, here*; future: *from now on, henceforward*. For example:

[46]

a. The Middle Ages have become the Renaissance, and a new world has come into being: our world. In what way is it 'our world'? At this point we run into some difficulty. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 264)

The final types included under the heading of temporal relations are the internal summary relations, namely, *culminative* and *resumptive* expressions. In the *culminative* sense, Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) suggested that the meaning of *to sum up*, expressed in items such as *in short* or *briefly*, is also a temporal conjunction . In terms of resumption, they included the sense of *going back to the point;* there is indication of resuming the main purpose of communication. Words such as *to resume*, *to get back to the point*, and *anyway are* resumptive expressions.

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III.1.4.1.5. Other Conjunctive Items (Continuatives)

Halliday and Hassan (1976) also included in their model other items which do not belong to any of the previously identified conjunctive relations, but still have a cohesive force in the text; they are referred to as *continuatives*. The items included are *now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all.* These items are not investigated in this work as they are infrequently used in written discourse; they are rather more related to spoken discourse.

III.1.5. Lexical Cohesion

The last type of cohesive relation is lexical cohesion. It differs from the four preceding cohesive relations in that it is non-grammatical. Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 274) defined lexical cohesion as "the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary." That is to say, it is through the choice of words that lexical cohesion is realised. Under this heading, the authors identified five main types of lexical cohesion, grouped into two basic categories: *reiteration* and *collocation*. Each type of lexical cohesion is discussed in what follows:

III.1.5.1. Reiteration

Halliday and Hasan (1976) defined reiteration as a form of lexical cohesion which is related to the repetition of the same word, the use of a synonym or near-synonym, a superordinate word, or a general and specific word. They (ibid: 278) stated: "Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between the use of a synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate." They suggested the examples below to demonstrate each of the four types of reiteration:

[47]

a. There was a large *mushroom* growing near here, about the same height as herself; and when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look 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,...*

b. Accordingly… I took leave and turned to the *ascent* of the peak. The *climb* is perfectly easy…

c. Then quick rose Sir Bedivere, and ran,

And leaping down the ridges rightly, plung'd

Among the bultush beds, and clutch'd the *sword*

And lightly weel'd and threw it. The great *brand*

Made light'nings in the splendour of the moon…

d. Henry's bought himself a new *Jaguar*. He practically lives in *the car*. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 287)

In example (a) there is repetition of the same lexical item *mushroom*. In (b), the word *climb* refers back to *ascent*, which is its synonym. In (c) *brand* refers back to *sword*, it is a near synonym. In (d), the word *car* refers back to *Jaguar*, which is a kind of car, and *car* is a superordinate of *Jaguar, i.e.* a name for a more general class. All these examples illustrate that one item refers back to another, to which it is related by having a common referent. Generally speaking, the referent is accompanied by a reference item, the definite article *the*, as in: "There is a boy climbing the tree" (ibid: 279).

[48]

a. The boy's going to fall if he does not take care.

b. The lad's going to fall if he does not take care.

c. The child's going to fall if he does not take care.

d. The idiot's going to fall if he does not take care.

Example (a) illustrates a repetition of the same lexical item *boy*. The reiteration is demonstrated: in example (b) in the form of a synonym or near-synonym *lad*, in example (c) in the form of the superordinate of the term *child*, and in example (d) of a general word idiot. Therefore, according to Halliday and Hasan (ibid.), the type of reiteration covers:

a. *Exact repetition*, which takes place when the same word (a noun, verb, adjective or adverb) is repeated throughout the text, e.g.: the boy/the boy;

b. *The use of a synonym, or near synonym*, i.e. words sharing the same or nearly the same meaning. Under this subcategory Halliday and Hasan (1976) included *hyponyms*: words having more specific meanings, e.g.: the boy/the lad;

c. *Superordinates* or *hypernyms*, i.e. words which are more generic than the given words; they are defined as general-meaning words, e.g. (the child/the boy);

d. *General words*, i.e. words with broad meanings used to refer back to previously mentioned lexical items, e.g. (the idiot/the boy, Jaguar/the car). This category of *general words* differs from the superordinates in that, with the aim of achieving cohesion, they need to be preceded by the reference item *the* or a *demonstrative*.

Therefore, as Halliday and Hasan (ibid: 284) maintained, reiteration takes place, on the one hand, through the "repetition of an identical lexical item" and, on the other hand, "through occurrence of a different lexical item that is not identical but that is systematically related to the first one", as a synonym or superordinate.

III.1.5.2. Collocation

Similar to reiteration, collocation, the second aspect of lexical cohesion, depends on interpreting one lexical item through the presence of another. "[It] is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur" within the same text, regardless of the presence of identity of reference (ibid: 274). Collocation takes place when a pair of words is not contingent upon any semantic relationship but rather they tend to share the same lexical environment. In this respect, any pairs of lexical items that are related to each other through collocation, i.e. which have the tendency to appear in similar contexts, create a cohesive force if they occur in adjacent sentences. That is to say, the close co-occurrence of lexical items that tend to appear in similar contexts generates a stronger cohesive effect. In other words, the closer lexical items are to each other between sentences, the stronger the cohesive effect.

It is worth mentioning that the cohesive force achieved by collocation is not restricted to a pair of words. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 286), "it is very common for long cohesive chains that are built up out of lexical relations of this kind, with words chains like 'candle…flame…flicker','hair…comb…curl…wave','poetry…literature…reader…writer… style' 'sky …sunshine…cloud…rain'; these patterns can occur both within and between sentences."

Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) believed that the term lexical cohesion is rather vague. They extended the basis of lexical relationships to include not only *synonyms*, *near-synonyms* and *superordinates* but also three types of semantic relations a) *pairs of opposites of various kinds*, b) *pairs of words drawn from the same ordered series*, and c) *any pairs drawn from unordered lexical sets*. Instances of each subcategory are listed in what follows:

i. **Pairs of opposites of various kinds**:

a. **Complementaries**: boy …girl and stand up …sit down,

b. **Antonyms**: like …hate and wet …dry.

ii. **Pairs of words drawn from the same ordered series:** Tuesday …Thursday, dollar …cent, north …south.

iii. **Any pairs drawn from unordered lexical sets**: basement …roof, road …rail, red …green. The members of such sets often stand in some recognisable semantic relation to one another; they may be related:

a. **As part to whole**: car …brake, box …lid, or

b. **As part to part**: mouth…chin, verse…chorus;

c. **They may be co-hyponyms of the same superordinate term**, i.e. both members of the same more general class: chair …table (both hyponyms of furniture), walk …drive (both hyponyms of go); and so on. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:285)

It is worth mentioning that Halliday and Hasan (1976: 288) asserted that unlike grammatical cohesion, in which the effect is clear and exact, the effect of collocation on texts is not easy to describe or to detect. According to them, unlike reference items, substitutes and conjunctions, which presuppose some other elements in a text, no lexical item bears a sign of functioning cohesively or not, as it is determined only by reference to the text. Apparently, no particular lexical item has a cohesive function in lexical cohesion; lexical cohesion does not convey any meaning.

Halliday and Hasan stated:

> [….] Lexical cohesion carries no meaning; that it is simply an incidental consequence of the fact that 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. In general, of course, this is true; most discourse is well organized, and the patterned occurrence of lexical items is a natural consequence of this but this does not imply that lexical cohesion has no meaning (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 288-89).

They suggested that the cohesive power of the co-occurrence of two or more lexical items is affected by three factors: 1) the frequency of their co-occurrences in texts in general, i.e. a word which enters with equal readiness into collocation with words of every possible range of lexical meaning effects relatively little cohesion with any of them , 2) the frequency of their occurrence in the language as individual words, i.e., there is proximity in the simple sense of the distance separating one item from another, and 3) their physical proximity in a text, i.e. if two items occur in adjacent sentences, they exert a very strong cohesive force, this would progressively weaken the greater textual distance between them.

Therefore, if we want to summarise the authors' words, it can be said that the area of lexical cohesion is vague and confusing. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 292) stated: "The concept of the lexical item … is not totally clear-cut….although clearly defined in the ideal, it presents many indeterminacy…" The main reason is that there are many ways word meanings can be related to one another and can co-occur. Consequently, because of its imprecision, the category of collocation is dropped in this study. The previous overview of lexical cohesion was provided in brevity although it is a rich topic that deserves to be investigated in its own and may be easily dealt with as part of the corpus tools.

III.2. Cohesive Devices in Arabic

Since the present study aims to demonstrate the similarities and differences of cohesive devices between Arabic and English in the United Nations texts and to examine how translators cope with the differences, it is important to review the cohesive devices used in Arabic in order to offer a sound basis for comparison.

It is well known that Arabic and English belong to distinct language families, and therefore, they vary considerably in their cohesive systems for written texts. In this view, it is quite problematic to find a unified descriptive framework to use in contrastive studies, as it is not usual to examine the different features of the various languages according to the same framework. Hence, although the model developed by Halliday and Hassan (1976) may seem incompatible for other languages, e.g. Arabic, as it is based on English language writing, the use of their classification of cohesive devices is appropriate, in the present thesis, since the study deals only with the Arabic texts translated into English. Accordingly, similar to the classification of cohesion proposed by Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) for English, the cohesive devices in Arabic, as summarised by Al-Jabr (1987), are divided into five main categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Nevertheless, this classification exhibits a different presentation and includes also the phenomenon of parallelism, an important feature of Arabic text organisation.

It is worth mentioning that although the study of aspects of cohesion received higher attention in English in the mid-seventies, it did not find the same consideration in Arabic until the eighties. Previous research works include Williams (1982), Koch (1983) and Al-Jabr (1987). For the purpose of this research work, this section examines the major cohesive devices of Arabic as summarised by Al-Jabr (1987).

III.2.1. Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguished three types of reference: *personal*, *demonstrative*, and *comparative*. These types are described in Arabic as follows:

III.2.1.1. Personal Reference (Pronominals)

Two types of pronouns *explicit* and *implicit* are distinguished in Arabic. *Explicit pronouns* (.dma:ʔir alʔibra:z) ضمائر الإبراز, as the name indicates, are entities which are visible in discourse. *Implicit* pronouns (a.d.dama:ʔir almustatira) الضمائر المستترة are entities which have no visible form but are still understood. Each of these types is described below:

III.2.1.1.1. **Explicit Pronouns**

Explicit pronouns may be either *independent* (a.d.dama:ʔir almunfa.sila) الضمائر المنفصلة or *enclitic* (a.d.dama:ʔir almutta.sila) الضمائر المتصلة.

First, independent pronouns may occur individually as detached elements; ''pronouns like أنا، أنت، هو may be used for stylistic purposes of emphasizing the function of a person in a speech situation'' (Al-Shurafa, 1994:19). Independent pronouns can occur in the beginning of the sentence as its subject, for example:

[49]

- أنا، أنت، هو، طالب.

- ʔana: (ʔanta, huwa) .ta:libun.

- *I* am (*you* are, *he* is) a student. (Al-Jabr,1987:66)

Independent pronouns may also follow the nouns they refer back to, for example:

[50]

- أحمد هو طالبٌ مُجِدٌّ.

- ʔa.hmad (huwa) .ta:libun muʒiddun.

- Ahmad (*he*) is the industrious student. (Al-Jabr,1987:66)

Independent pronouns may also occur in final positions, similar to the English reflexive pronouns *myself*, *yourself,* etc. which are expressed in Arabic through the words (binafsi:) بنفسي and (biçajni:) بعيني, the example below illustrates this point:

[51]

- شاهدته أنا.

- ʃa:hadtuhu ʔana:.

- I saw him (*I*) (*myself*). (Al-Jabr,1987:66)

Second, enclitic pronouns (a.d.dama:ʔir almutta.sila) الضمائر المتصلة, unlike the independent ones, do not occur as detached elements by themselves; they are, however, always attached to other words, for example verbs, as illustrated in examples [a-b]:

[52]

	a	**b**
-	رأينا الرجل.	رآها الرجل.
-	raʔayna: arraʒula.	raʔa:ha: arraʒulu.
-	*We* saw the man.	The man saw *her*. (Al-Jabr,1987:67)

III.2.1.1.2. Implicit Pronouns

The second type of Arabic pronominals is *implicit* pronouns (a.d.dama:ʔir almustatira) الضمائر المستترة; as the name indicates, they are elements which have no visible form but are still

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understood; they are rather incorporated into the verb. The verbs inflect for number and gender, and the pronouns attached to the verbs appear as morphemes that help readers find the suitable referent. Therefore, "a native speaker of Arabic can intuitively recognise any implied pronoun and its antecedent" (Al-Jabr, 1987: 68). For example, it is easy to identify and distinguish the implicit pronoun in (kataba) كتب *he wrote* and (katabat) كتبت *she wrote* through the use of the *feminine marker,* the suffix ـت (t): (ta:ʔ attaʔni:θ) تاء التأنيث .

It is worth mentioning that Arabic and English differ considerably in their use of pronouns. Possessive pronouns such as *mine, her, yours*, etc. do not exist in Arabic. The possession in Arabic is indicated by possessive determiners and pronouns, in which the morphemes are attached to the lexical item. The morphemes specify the number and the gender of the possessor; the following phrases demonstrate this: *my* book (kita:bi:) كتابي and *her* book (kita:buha:) كتابها, where the suffixes (ji:) ي and (ha:) ها are used to refer back to their antecedents. In this case, the suffixes (ji:) ي and (ha:) ها function as cohesive devices since they join two sentences together. Similarly, the distinction between pronouns in terms of gender differentiation vary from English into Arabic; while only the third person singular (*she* and *he*) indicates gender differentiation in English, in Arabic the second, the third person singular and the plural pronouns show this distinction (Al-Jabr, 1987).

In addition, Arabic uses special pronouns to refer to two entities (dual), e.g. they (two) went, (ðahaba:) ذهبا vs. they (plural) went (ðahabu:) ذهبوا. However, the category of dual does not exist in English that is why it can be said that English does not have such a variety of pronouns. Moreover, for the third person singular *non-human* pronoun *it,* Arabic does not have a distinct equivalent; it uses the same human pronoun (huwa) هو *he* or (hija) هي *she*. The table below summarises the Arabic explicit pronouns according to Beeston (1970:40 in Al-Jabr, 1987):

	Speech Roles			Other Roles	
	Speaker(s)	Addressee(s)		Human & non-human Entities	
		Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Singular	ana أنا, -ni ني- ,i- ي	anta أنت -ka كـ	anti أنتِ -ki كِ	huwa هو hu هُ	hija هي ha ها
Plural	nahnu نحن , -na نا	antum أنتم kum كم	antunna أنتن kunna كن	hum هم hum هم	hunna هنّ hunna هنّ
Dual		antuma أنتما كُما kuma		huma هُما huma هما	

Table 7: **Arabic Personal Pronouns (Beeston, 1970:40 in Al-Jabr, 1987)**

III.2.1.1.3. Cohesive Function of Arabic Personal Pronouns

The cohesive function of pronominals in Arabic is usually anaphoric. Beeston (1970:41 in Al-Jabr, 1987) explained that "a pronoun always refers to a previously mentioned covert entity". He also recognised the *non-specific* reference of the third person plural *they* when used to refer to *people in general*. For example, "*they* say it will rain tomorrow" يقولون أنها ستُمطر غدا. In addition, the third person singular pronoun can refer to some facts or ideas that have been mentioned, as in "he isn't coming today, and *it* is a great pity" إنه لن يأتي اليوم، إنه أمر مُؤسف حقا (Beeston, 1970:41 in Al-Jabr, 1987). Besides, the cataphoric function (reference to the following text) also exists in Arabic. Beeston (ibid: 41) recognised, for example, the cataphoric function through the use of the same pronoun "to foreshadow any entity term occurring later in the sentence, as in *it's* a great pity that he isn't coming today."

Nevertheless, Beeston (ibid.) overlooked the cohesive function of pronouns across sentence boundaries. He did not specify whether the *previously mentioned overt entity* is located at the inter-sentential or intra-sentential level, but, it holds true of third person reference. The anaphoric function is illustrated in the example below:

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[53]

- جاء رجلٌ. إنه يأتي مبكرا دائما.

- ʒa:ʔa raʒulun. ʔinnahu yaʔti: mubakkiran da:ʔiman.

- A man has come. He always comes early. (Al-Jabr,1987:70)

The cataphoric function exists in Arabic, but, it is not as frequent as anaphora; the example below illustrates this:

[54]

- في خطابه قال الملك...

- fi: χi.ta:bihi: qa:la almaliku...

- In his speech, the King said... (Al-Jabr,1987:70)

In the same way, Arabic implicit pronouns function cohesively; they can function both anaphorically and cataphorically, by making reference to the preceding or the following text. The examples below show the anaphoric and the cataphoric functions respectively:

[55]

- ذهب الولد إلى الدكان، لقد اشترى بعض الحلوى.

- ðahaba alwaladu ʔila addukka:ni, laqad ʔiʃtara: baç.da al.halwa.

- The boy went to the shop. He bought some candy.

- قدم يركض مسرعاً، كان الولد خائفاً.

- qadima jarku.du musriaçan, ka:na alwaladu kha:ʔifan.

- He came running fast; the boy was scared. (Al-Jabr,1987:71)

Implicit pronouns can occur also exophorically, especially when their antecedents are found in the context of situation such as when drawing attention to someone:

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[56]

- سيصطدم بالحائطِ.

- saja.s.tadimu bil.ha:ʔi.ti.

- He will hit the wall. (Al-Jabr,1987:71)

It is worth mentioning that Arabic pronouns function mainly as anaphoric reference in written discourse. Yet, exophoric reference is rather a property of spoken discourse. In addition, cataphoric reference is less frequent than anaphora, except for narrative purposes, i.e. in narrative texts the referent is delayed in order to encourage some suspense (Al-Jabr, 1987). Moreover, the linguistic system of Arabic allows for a variety of pronouns in one sentence and this enriches the amount of pronominals. Al-Jabr (ibid.) suggested the following example to demonstrate that personal pronouns obtain a greater referential significance in Arabic and to determine the intrinsic linguistic potential Arabic has for gathering all types of personal reference in one chunk.

[57]

- فقد زارها مرتان قبل هاته المرة ليسعى حتى لا تنقله الوزارة إلى المدرسة الإلزامية التي هو مدرس فيها

- faqad za:raha: marrata:ni qabla ha:tihi almarrati lijasça: .hatta la: tanquluhu alwazaratu ʔila almadrasati alʔilza:mijjati allati: huwa mudarrisun fi:ha: .

- *He* visited *it* (Cairo) once before this time so that the ministry shouldn't transfer *him* from the compulsory school in which *he* worked as a teacher. (Al-Jabr,1987:72)

Five cohesive devices appear in this example, the italicised pronouns three enclitics (ha: ها and hu ـه) and one independent (huwa) هو, in addition to two implicit pronouns in (za:raha: زارها and jasça: يسعى) are found in one sentence.

III.2.1.2. Demonstrative Reference

Arabic uses demonstrative pronouns in the same way as English does. Arabic demonstratives are classified in terms of proximity into two sets: *near* and *far* from the speaker, as categorised by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Table 8 shows Arabic demonstratives:

Proximal Distance		Near	Far
Singular	Masc.	ha:ða: هذا	ða:lika (or ða:ka) ذلك، ذاك
	Fem.	ha:ðihi (or ha:ði) هذه، هذي	tilka تلك
Plural	Masc. &Fem.	ha:ʔu:la:ʔi هؤلاء	ʔula:ʔika أولئك
Dual	Masc. Fem.	ha:ða:ni هذان ha:ðajni هاذين ha:ta:ni هاتان	ða:nika ذانك ðajnika ذينك ta:nika تانك ta:jnika تاينك

Table 8: Beeston's Classification of Arabic Demonstratives (1970:42 in Al-Jabr, 1987)

The only difference between Arabic and English demonstratives is that Arabic demonstratives are inflected for gender and number: While *this* and *that* in English are used to refer to masculine and feminine elements without gender differentiations, Arabic uses two various demonstratives to achieve this role: *this* (ha:ða: هذا or ha:ðihi هذه, ha:ði: هذي) and *that* (ða:lika ذلك, ða:ka ذاك or tilka تلك). In addition, Arabic allows for special demonstratives for the category of dual (two elements), e.g. هذان (ha:ða:ni) or هاتان (ha:ta:ni) (Al-Jabr, 1987).

III.2.1.2.1. Cohesive Function of Arabic Personal Pronouns

As far as the cohesive function of demonstratives is concerned, similar to their English equivalents, Arabic demonstratives are essentially anaphoric (i.e. they refer back to previous texts). Also, like the English demonstratives, in which *this* is restricted to cataphora and *that* is always anaphoric, Arabic cataphoric reference is typical of (ha:ða:) هذا *this*, whereas (ða:lika) ذلك *that* is anaphoric (Al-Jabr, 1987). The following examples illustrate the anaphoric and the cataphoric reference respectively:

[58]

- يوجد كتاب على الرّف؛ ذلك الكتاب لي.

- juːʒadu kitaːbun ʕala arraffi ; ðaːlika alkitaːbu liː.

- There is a book on the shelf. That book is mine.

- يجب أن يلتزم كلٌّ منا بهذا.

- jaʒibu ʔan jaltazima kullun minnaː bihaːðaː.

- Each one of us should abide by this: (followed by what should be abided by)
  (Al-Jabr,1987:74)

The cohesive function of English plural demonstratives *these* and *those* matches that of Arabic demonstratives (ha:ʔula:ʔi) هؤلاء and (ʔula:ʔika) أولئك respectively. While in English, *these* can function both anaphorically and cataphorically, and *those* is always anaphoric, in Arabic, however, demonstratives (ha:ʔula:ʔi) هؤلاء *these* and (ʔula:ʔika) أولئك *those* are principally anaphoric. Consider the same example:

[59]

- يجب أن يلتزم كلٌ منا بهذا.

- jaʒibu ʔan jaltazima kullun minna: biha:ða:.

- Each one of us should abide by this: (followed by what should be abided by) (Al-Jabr,1987:74)

In this example, the demonstrative pronoun (ha:ðihi) هذه *these* cannot replace هذا (ha:ða:) *this,* because it requires a noun to modify, e.g. (ha:ðihi attaçli:ma:t) هذه التعليمات *these instructions*, and the demonstrative (ha:ʔula:ʔi) هؤلاء *these*, cannot be used in this context.

[60]

- يذهب الأولاد الى المدرسة مبكرين؛ هؤلاء الأولاد مجتهدون.

- jaðhabu alʔawla:du ʔila almadrasati mubakkiri:na, ha:ʔula:ʔi alʔawla:du muʒtahidu:na.

- The boys go to school early. These boys are hardworking. (Al-Jabr,1987:75)

- كان الفراعنة أقوياء؛ أولئك رجالٌ عظُماء.

- ka:na alfara:çinatu ʔaqwija:ʔa , ʔula:ʔika riʒa:lun çuð.ama:ʔu.

- The Pharaohs were powerful. Those men were great. (Al-Jabr,1987:76)

The examples above demonstrate how the plural demonstratives: هؤلاء (ha:ʔula:ʔi) *these* and أولئك (ʔula:ʔika) *those* function anaphorically in Arabic.

In the same way, the dual demonstratives function anaphorically, as illustrated below:

[61]

- جاء الولدان؛ هذان ولدان لطيفان.

- ʒa:ʔa alwalada:ni. ; ha:ða:ni walada:ni la.ti:fa:ni.

- The two boys have come. These (two) boys are nice. (Al-Jabr,1987:76)

According to Al-Jabr (ibid.), demonstrative pronouns: singular, dual or plural function exophorically to refer to an entity in the context of situation:

[62]

- هذا يوم لطيف.

- ha:ða: jawmun la.ti:ffun.

- This is a nice day.

- هذه صور جميلة.

- ha:ðihi .suwarun ʒami:latun.

- These are beautiful pictures.

- هذان ولدان مشاغبان.

- ha:ða:ni walada:ni muʃa:ˆgiba:ni.

- These (two) boys are trouble makers. (Al-Jabr,1987:76)

III.2.1.2.2. Arabic Demonstrative Adverbs

According to Al-Jabr (1987), unlike English which includes four items *here*, *there*, *now* and *then* under the category of *demonstrative adverbs*, Arabic does not include the temporal demonstratives *now* and *then*. These temporals are treated as adverbs of time in Arabic and match their English counterparts in their textual function. They can be anaphoric, as in:

[63]

- لقد حطت الطائرة .الآن يمكننا التنفس بحرية.

- laqad .ha.ttati a.t.ta:ʔiratu. alʔa:ana jumkinuna: attanaffusu bi.hurrijjatin.

- The plane has just landed. Now, we can breathe freely.

- كان يعبث بكل شيء و هو صغير؛ لم يكن عندئذ يعرف قيمة الأشياء.

- ka:na jaçabaθu bikulli ʃajʔin wahuwa .saˆgi:run, lam jakun çindaʔiðin jaçarifu qi:mata alʔaʃja:ʔi.

- He was careless about everything when he was young. He didn't know the value of things then. (Al-Jabr,1987:77)

The Arabic demonstrative adverbs (huna:) هنا *here* and (huna:lika) هنالك *there* demonstrate an anaphoric relation when they refer to previously mentioned items in the text, as in:

[64]

- إنّني في المرأب، سأنتظرك هناك.

- ʔinnani: fi: almarʔabi , saʔantað.iruka huna:k.

- I'm in the garage. I'll wait you here.

- سيتقابل الفريقان في الملعب، سأراك هناك إذن.

- sajataqa:b:alu alfari:qa:ni: fi: almalçabi , saʔara:ka huna:ka ʔiðan.

- The two teams will meet in the stadium. I'll see you there, then. (Al-Jabr,1987:77)

These demonstratives signal exophoric reference as: قف هناك (taça:la huna:!) تعالى هنا and (qif huna:ka!): Come here! Stand there!

III.2.1.2.3. Definite Article الـ (al)

The definite article الـ (al) corresponds to the English definite article *the*; yet; it occurs in contexts which are not tolerated in English. While the definite article *the* modifies only nouns, Arabic الـ (al) can modify nouns, adjectives and gerunds (Al-Jabr, 1987). The following example demonstrates that the Arabic demonstrative الـ (al) modifies the nouns (fata:t) فتاة *girl* and (masra.h) مسرح *theatre*, the adjective (ʒami:la) جميلة *beautiful* and the gerund (ðaha:b) ذهاب *going*:

[65]

- لا ترغب الفتاة الجميلة في الذهاب الى المسرح.

- la:tarˆghabu alfata:tu alʒami:latu fi: aððaha:bi ʔila almasra.hi.

- The beautiful girl doesn't feel like going to the theatre. (Al-Jabr,1987:78)

Nevertheless, the application of الـ (al) at the inter-sentential level is under consideration here, since cohesive devices between sentences are "the only source of texture" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 9), and, that "it is the inter-sentence cohesion that is significant, because that represents the variable aspect of cohesion, distinguishing one text from another" (ibid.). Therefore, despite the variety of use of demonstrative الـ (al), only the examples of this article with nouns referring to elements mentioned in the text or context of situation are considered cohesive. The occurrence of الـ (al) with adjectives and gerunds is, rather, restricted to the intra-sentential level, and therefore, it is not cohesive.

According to Al-Jabr (1987), the cohesive function of demonstrative الـ (al) corresponds also to that of the English demonstrative *the*; it can occur anaphorically and exophorically, as in the two examples below respectively:

193

[66]

<div dir="rtl">

- جاء رجلٌ الى المحطة. استقل الرجل أوّل قطار.

</div>

- ʒaːaʔ raʒulun ʔila alma.ha.t.tati. ʔistaqalla arraʒulu ʔawwala qi.ta:rin.

- A man came to the station. *The* man took the first train.

<div dir="rtl">

- ذهب الى المدرسة.

</div>

- ðahaba ʔila almadrasati.

- He went to *the* school. (Al-Jabr,1987:78)

In the second example, the article الـ (al) is cohesive when the referent is present in the context of situation; here, there is a specific school in the speaker's minds.

Definite article الـ (al) can also be exophoric if the element is recognised on *extralinguistic grounds* (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 71). For example, when it modifies elements which have only one member in their class as in القمر (alqamar) *the* moon; or when it occurs with elements that are generic of their class. For example المرأة (almarʔa) *the* woman in:

[67]

<div dir="rtl">

- المرأة أكثر تحملاً من الرجل.

</div>

- almarʔatu ʔakθaru ta.hammulan mina arraʒuli.

- (The) woman can bear more than the man can. (Al-Jabr,1987:79)

Moreover, Al-Jabr (1987) maintained that the definite article الـ (al) occurs together with a demonstrative in Arabic; this is only tolerated in the linguistic system of Arabic, as in:

[68]

<div dir="rtl">

- إنها سيارة جميلة. أريد أن أشتري هذه السيارة.

</div>

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- ʔinnaha: sajja:ratun ʒami:latun. ʔuri:du ʔan ʔaʃtarija ha:ðihi assajjarati.

- It is beautiful car. I want to buy this (the) car. (Al-Jabr,1987:79)

Hence, from the above mentioned examples, it can be said that the linguistic system of Arabic allows for a number of cohesive devices in discourse that are not possible in English.

III.2.1.3. Comparative Reference

According to Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy (1976)*,* comparative reference is categorised into two types: *general comparison* and *particular comparison*. On the one hand, *general comparison* is described as a comparison in terms of likeness and unlikeness of objects, i.e. two things may be the same, similar or different. *Adjectives of comparison* and *adverbs of comparison*, as Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) labelled, are used to describe this type of comparison. On the other hand, *particular comparison* is described as a comparison in terms of quantity and quality. It is expressed through a class of "ordinary adjectives and adverbs of some comparative form" (ibid: 77).

Particular comparison is the only type of comparison that is used in Arabic. General comparison, however, as suggested by Halliday and Hasan (ibid.) does not exist in Arabic, since there are no a*djectives* and *adverbs of comparison* that express this form of comparison in Arabic; yet, other resources that suit this type of comparison are possibly found (Al-Jabr, 1987).

According to Al-Jabr (ibid: 80), particular comparison is achieved by "a form that can be derived from any dynamic verb." The comparative form takes the form of (a-أ) in addition to the particle (min) مِن *than*, e.g. أفضل من (ʔaf.dal min) *better than* or أكبر من (ʔakbar min) *bigger than*, etc. Example:

[69]

- كريم أذكى من علي. -

- karim ʔaðka min çalij.

- Kareem is cleverer than Ali. (Al-Jabr,1987:80)

General comparison in Arabic can be achieved by means of words such as نفس (nafs) and مطابق (mu.ta:biq) referring to *same,* which take the form of *identity*; likeness through the form of *similarity* can be expressed by words such as مثل (miθl) and مشابه (muʃa:bih), referring to *such* and *similar* respectively; whereas the words which specify the difference are آخر (a:χar) and مختلف (muχtalif) referring to *other* and *different* (Al-Jabr, 1987).

According to Al-Jabr (ibid.), the cohesive function of comparative reference items corresponds to that of English; they can occur anaphorically, cataphorically and exophorically, as in the following examples respectively:

[70]

- لا أريد هذه السيارة أبحث عن واحدة أكبر. -

- la: ʔuri:du ha:ðihi assajja:rata ʔab.haθu çan wa:hidatin ʔakbara.

- I do not want this car. I'm looking for a bigger one.

- السيارة الأخرى مناسبة لكن هذه السيارة صغيرة. -

- assajjar:a alʔuχra muna:sibatu la:kin ha:ðihi assajja:rata .saˆgi:ratun.

- The other car is suitable, but this car is small.

- كنت أتوقع رسالة مختلفة. -

- kuntu atawaqqaçu risa:latan muχtalifatan.

- I've been expecting a different letter. (Al-Jabr,1987:81)

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III.2.2. Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguished three types of substitution: *nominal*, *verbal*, and *clausal*, which perform a cohesive link.

III.2.2.1. Nominal Substitution

According to Al-Jabr (1987), because of the restricted concept of sentence in Arabic, the role substitution plays in the creation of unified texts has not been investigated in Arabic. The phenomenon of substitution has not been scrutinised as a cohesive device; yet, it was treated through other resources that suit the linguistic system of Arabic. For example, the Arabic (wa:.hid) واحد is the corresponding of the English nominal substitution *one*, which can function cohesively, as in:

[71]

- هذا سندويش غير طازج، أعطيني واحدا آخر.
- ha:ða: sandwi:ʃun ˆgajru .t.aziʒin, ʔaça.tini: wa:.hidan ʔa:χara.
- This sandwich is not fresh. Get me another *one*. (Al-Jabr,1987:83)

In this example, the term واحد (wa:.hid) *one* in the second clause is a substitute for the noun سندويش *sandwich* in the first one. Thus, the substitute واحد (wa:.hid) *one* assumes the function of the presupposed item سندويش *sandwich*. Also, the elements, associated with the presupposed item (ˆghajru taziʒ) غير طازج *not fresh* are replaced by the item آخر (ʔa:χar) *another*. Hence, it can be said that the Arabic word واحد (wa:.hid) functions cohesively in the same way as its English equivalent *one*.

Unlike English, the substitute *ones* does not exist in Arabic; the whole nominal group should be repeated. The following example: "These examples are wrong. Give me some new

ones" is not possible in Arabic, as the plural form of *one* does not exist, i.e. there is no plural form of the term (wa:.hid) واحد *one* (ibid.). Therefore, in order to accommodate the Arabic linguistic system, the only possible equivalent would be to rephrase the sentence and to repeat the whole nominal group, as in:

[72]

- هذه الأمثلة غير جيّدة، أعطيني بعض الأمثلة الجديدة.

- ha:ðihi alʔamθilatu ˆɡajru ʒajjidatin, ʔaç.tini: baça.da alʔamθilati alʒadi:dati.

- These examples are wrong .Give me some new examples. (Al-Jabr,1987:83)

Nevertheless, it is important to note that the cohesive function of substitution mentioned above should not be mixed with the other structural functions of its English equivalent *one* (Al-Jabr, 1987). According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the word *one* can be a *personal pronoun*, *cardinal numeral*, *indefinite article* and *pronoun*. These functions are not cohesive; they are illustrated below:

a. **Personal Reference**

- لا يعرف الواحد منا متى سيموت.

- la:jaçrifu alwa:.hidu minna: mata: sajamu:tu.

- One never knows when he'll die. (Al-Jabr,1987:84)

b. **Cardinal Numeral**

- انطلق عشرة ولكن عاد واحد.

- ʔintalaqa çaʃaratun wala:kin ça:da wa:.hidun.

- Ten set out, but only one came back. (Al-Jabr,1987:84)

c. **Indefinite Article**

- أريد فنجانا من القهوة / إذن أسكب لنفسك واحداً.

- ʔuri:du finʒa:nan mina alqahwati /ʔiðan ʔuskub linafsika wa:.hidan.

- I would like a cup of coffee. / Then pour yourself one. (Al-Jabr,1987:84)

In this case, it is equally possible to repeat the word فنجان (finʒa:n) *cup*, instead of using واحد (wa:.hid) *one*. This is also appropriate for the examples where (wa:.hid) *one* is used as a cohesive device as seen above.

d. **A Pronoun**

- إذا كان واحدا مثل هذا مناسبا لأن يحكم، تكلّم.

- iða: ka:na wa:.hidan miθla ha:ða: muna:siban liʔan ya.hkuma, takallam.

- If such a one be fit to govern, speak. (Al-Jabr,1987:84)

In this example the use of *one* is similar to a general noun.

Moreover, the word نفس (nafs) *same* as an element of comparative reference is possible to occur in Arabic, as seen previously, whereas in the case of nominal substitution it is not likely to take place. In the example below, the word شيء (ʃajʔ) *thing* is a substitute of the word *hamburger* and نفس (nafs) *same* is an element of comparative reference, but not a nominal substitute (Al-Jabr, 1987).

- أُريد سندويشا. أريد الشيء نفسه.

- ʔuri:du sandwi:ʃan. ʔuri:du aʃʃajʔa nafsihi.

- I'll have the same thing. But not: I'd like a hamburger. I'll have the same. (Al-Jabr,1987:85)

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III.2.2.2. Verbal Substitution

According to Al-Jabr (1987), verbal substitution, which is realised in English through the verb *do,* is not dealt with in Arabic. Its occurrence is only possible in yes/no answers as in:

[73]

- هل كتبت الدرس؟ نعم لقد فعلت . أو نعم كتبت الدرس.

- hal katabta addarsa:? naçam laqad façaltu. / naçam katabtu addarsa.

- Have you written the lesson? Yes, I have done/written the lesson. (Al-Jabr,1987:85)

In yes/no answers, two choices are possible: a repetition of the same verb كتب (kataba) *have written* or the use of another form (façaltu) فعلت *have done*. However, in some other contexts in English the verb *do* is quite adequate, yet, it is not so in Arabic. In the example below, the only possibility is to repeat the lexical verb *remove* in the second sentence:

[74]

- Have they removed the furniture?

- They have done the desks, but that's all. (Al-Jabr,1987:85)

According to Al-Jabr (ibid.), similar to nominal substitution, the cohesive function of the verbal substitute *do* should not be mixed with its structural functions. These structural functions are *lexical verb*, *general verb*, *verbal operator* and *pro-verb*. The functions that can occur in Arabic are:

a. **General Verb**

- ربما يفعل هذا الدواء الأعاجيب معها.

- rubbama: jafçalu ha:ða: addawa:ʔa alaça:ʒiba maçaha:.

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- This medicine might do wonders for her. (Al-Jabr,1987:86)

b. **Pro-Verb**

- ‫ماذا كانت تفعل؟ لم تكن تفعل أي شيء.‬

- ma:ða: ka:nat tafʕalu ? lam takun ta:fʕalu ajja ʃajʔin.

- What was she doing? She wasn't doing anything. (Al-Jabr,1987:86)

III.2.2.3. Clausal Substitution

The third type of substitution is clausal substitution, it is expressed through the terms *so* and the negative form *not*. The equivalents of the English clausal substitutes are not considered as substitutes in Arabic; they are rather included under the category of reference. The corresponding of the English clausal substitutes *so* in Arabic is the demonstrative reference item (ða:lika) ‫ذلك‬ *that* (Al-Jabr,1987). For example:

[75]

- ‫أعتقد أنه سينجح هذه المرة. آمل ذلك.‬

- ʔaʕtaqidu ʔannahu sajanʒaħu ha:ðihi almarrata. ʔa:mulu ða:lika.

- I think he'll pass this time -I hope so. (Al-Jabr,1987:87)

In Arabic, clausal substitution is likely to occur only in expressions such as ‫أظن ذلك‬ (að.unnu ða:lika) *I believe so*, and ‫يفعل ذلك‬ (jafʕal ða:lika) *do so*, for example:

[76]

- ‫طبعاً تعرف الطريق؟ أظن ذلك.‬

- .tabʕan taʕrifu a.t.tari:qa? ʔað.unnu ða:lika.

- Of course you know the way? I believe so.

- ‫هل أطعمت الطفل ؟ أحدهم فعل ذلك.‬

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- hal ʔa.tçamta a.t.t.tifla ? ʔa.haduhum façala ða:lika.

- Have you fed the boy? -Someone did so. (Al-Jabr,1987:87)

In the same way, the negative form of clausal substitution is not frequent in Arabic, expressions like ربما لا (rubbama: la:) *perhaps not* and بالتأكيد لا (bittaʔki:di la:) *certainly not*, are only possible. For example:

[77]

- لو كنت مكاني ستساعده ؟ ربما لا(لن أساعده).

- law kunta maka:ni:, satusa:çiduhu ? rubbama: la: (lan ʔusa:çiduh).

- Would you help him if you were me? Perhaps not (certainly not). (Al-Jabr,1987:87)

In addition, it is worth reminding, here, that the equivalents of the English clausal substitutes do not function as substitutions in the Arabic examples; they rather exhibit the anaphoric function of these substitute items (this is the only way to replace the previously mentioned items in the text). Moreover, as seen above, in order to accommodate the linguistic system of Arabic, it is also possible to repeat the same items when substitution can be used. This is also valid for ellipsis, as to be seen in the next section (Al-Jabr, 1987).

III.2.3. Ellipsis

Similar to substitution, the notion of ellipsis has not been scrutinised by Arab linguists in view of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification; they instead investigated ellipsis at the intra-sentential level (i.e. within the sentence boundaries: for example, the omission of a subject, verb, adjective, etc.). According to Al-Jabr (ibid.), the elements which are easily

understood from the context are omitted. He illustrated this point using Cantarino's example (1974):

[78]

- أين أمك يا فؤاد؟ مريضة في البيت.

- ʔajna ʔummaka ja: fouʔad ? mari.da fi: albajti.

- Where is your mother, Fouad? Ill at home. (Al-Jabr,1987:88)

In the above example, it can be seen that there is an omitted item, and the context allows for the interpretation of the omitted item as the noun أُمّي (ʔummi) *my mother*. Since the omitted item occurs in the second sentence and refers to a previously mentioned item; this example of ellipsis is considered as a cohesive device (Al-Jabr, 1987).

Similar to substitution, Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguished three types of ellipsis: *nominal*, *verbal*, and *clausal*.

III.2.3.1. Nominal Ellipsis

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), nominal ellipsis functions on the nominal group, and the omitted item may be *deictic*, *numerative*, *epithet*, *classifier* or *qualifier*. Al-Jabr (1987) used Halliday and Hasan's examples in order to determine whether or not Arabic has the same capability for expressing such a relation as English does. Examples:

[79]

- من يدوم زمناً أطول، القُضبان المنحنية أو القضبان المستقيمة؟ المستقيمة لا تنكسر بسهولة.

- man jadu:mu zama:nan ʔa.twal, alqu.dba:nu almun.hanijatu ʔaw alqu.dba:nu almustaqi:matu ? almustaqi:matu la:tankasiru bisuhu:latin.

- Which lasts longer, the curved rods or the straight rods? The straight are less likely to break. (Al-Jabr,1987:89)

In this example, the head of a nominal group is an *epithet*. The epithet المستقيمة (almustaqi:ma) *straight* in the second sentence is elliptical and the noun (alqu.dba:n) القُضبان *rods* is ellipted.

[80]

- أربعة محارات أخرى تبعتهم و أربعة أخرى.

- ʔarbaçatu ma.ha:ra:tin ʔuχra: tabiçathumu wa ʔarbaçatun ʔuχra:.

- Four other oysters followed them, and yet another four. (Al-Jabr,1987:89)

The second example illustrates a *numerative* ellipsis. The second occurrence of أربعة (ʔarbaçat) *four* is the elliptical *numerative,* and the noun محارات (ma.ha:rat) *oysters* is ellipted. It should be noted that the noun cannot be omitted after a deictic in Arabic (Al-Jabr, 1987). The English example illustrated below is not tolerated in Arabic; instead, the ellipted noun *paper* should be repeated:

[81]

- They haven't got my usual morning paper. Can I borrow yours?

- هل بإمكاني أن أستعير صحيفتك؟

- hal biʔimka:ni: ʔan ʔastaçi:ra .sa.hifataka?

- Can I borrow your newspaper? (Al-Jabr,1987:89)

According to Al-Jabr (1987), the category of *classifier*, which "is very rarely left to function as Head" in English (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:153), can occur in certain contexts in Arabic. For example:

[82]

- هذه ربطة العنق الحريرية التي لدي أم إنك تفضل القطنية؟

- ha:ðihi rab.tatu alçunuqi al.hari:rijjati allati: ladajja ʔam ʔinnaka tufa.dilu alqu.tni:jata?

- This is the silk tie I've got. Or would you like the cotton? (Al-Jabr,1987:89)

It is worth mentioning that nominal substitution is used in Arabic instead of nominal ellipsis, when this latter is not tolerated in some contexts. In the previous example, the noun ربطة العنق (rab.tatu alçunuqi) *tie* is deleted from the question, whereas, as illustrated below, the substitute *one* does not have the same function in the two languages:

[83]

- هذه ربطة العنق الحريرية التي لدي أستطيع أن أعيرك واحدة إن أحببت.

- ha:ðihi   rab.tatu   alçunuqi   al.hari:rijjati   allati: ladajja ʔastati:çu ʔan ʔuçi:raka wa:hidatan ʔin ʔa.hbabta.

- This is the silk tie I've got. I can lend you one if you like. (Al-Jabr,1987: 90)

III.2.3.2. Verbal Ellipsis

According to Al-Jabr (1987), verbal ellipsis, i.e. the omission of a verb or verbal element, is very limited in Arabic. There is no direct corresponding of certain English elliptical examples in Arabic, as in: *Have you done the homework? - Yes, I have*. In Arabic, the possible

answer to this question is the use of the verbal substitute or the repetition of the whole clause as illustrated in the following example:

[84]

- نعم لقد فعلت.

- naçam laqad façalt.

- Yes, I have done.

    Or

- نعم لقد عملته (عملت الواجب).

- naçam laqad çamaltuhu (çamaltu alwa:ʒib).

- Yes, I have done it. (I have done the homework.) (Al-Jabr,1987:91)

Nevertheless, verbal ellipsis is possible in certain contexts in Arabic, yet, the repetition of أكتب الدرس (ʔaktubu addarsa) *write the lesson* is more usual:

[85]

- ماذا كنت تكتب ؟ (أكتب) الدرس.

- ma:ða: kunta taktubu ? (ʔaktubu) addarsa.

- What have you been writing? -The lesson. (Al-Jabr,1987:91)

According to Al-Jabr (1987), some types of English ellipsis do not occur in Arabic. For example, *operator ellipsis* and *lexical verbal ellipsis* do not occur in Arabic since Arabic does not have these categories. The examples below, adopted from Halliday & Hasan (1976: 170), present these two categories respectively:

- Is John going to come? He might. He was to, but he may not. He should, if he wants his name to be considered.

And

- Has he sold his collection yet? He has some of the paintings.

In the first example, the repetition of the verb يأتي (jaʕti:) *come* is necessary in rendering the sentence in Arabic. Aljabr (1987) suggested that this example would appear as:

[86]

- هل سيأتي أحمد؟ ربما كان سيأتي لكن ربما لا يأتي.

- hal sajaʕti: ʔa.hamadu? rubbama ka:na sajaʕti: la:kin rubbama: la:jaʕti:.

- Is Ahmad going to come? –Maybe. He was to come, but maybe not (he may not). He should come, if he wants his name to be considered. (Al-Jabr,1987:92)

Similarly, in the second example, the repetition of the verb باع (ba:ça) *sold* is necessary in Arabic. The sentence would be:

[87]

- هل باع مجموعته ؟ لقد باع بعض اللوحات.

- hal ba:ça maʒmu:çatahu? laqad ba:ça baç.da allawah:ati.

- Has he sold his collection yet? He has some of the paintings. (Al-Jabr,1987:92)

III.2.3.3. Clausal Ellipsis

In Arabic, this type of ellipsis is only possible in yes/no answers. For example:

[88]

- ‏هل كتبت الدرس؟ نعم.

- hal katabta addarsa ? naçam.

The clause *I have written the lesson* ‏لقد كتبت الدرس (laqad katabtu addarsa) is ellipted; the answer ‏نعم (naçam) *yes* presupposes the whole clause. Examples of clausal ellipsis which occur in Arabic are illustrated below:

[89]

a. ‏ماذا كان الطالب سيفعل؟ يكتب الدرس.

ma:ða: ka:na a.t.ta:libu sajafçalu? - jaktubu addarsa.

What was the student going to do? - Write the lesson.

b. ‏من كان سيكتب الدرس ؟ الطالب.

man ka:na sajaktubu addarsa?- a.t.ta:libu.

Who was going to write the lesson? - The student. (Al-Jabr, 1987:92)

Example (a) is an instance of *modal ellipsis*, the modal element ‏كان الطالب (ka:na a.t.ta:libu) (the subject and the operator) is deleted. But, example (b) which is an instance of prepositional ellipsis, that requires the omission of the complement, the adjunct and the lexical verb, is not appropriate in Arabic. The prepositional ellipsis, ‏الطالب كان (a.tta:libu ka:na) *the student was*, is not adequate in Arabic (Al-Jabr, 1987).

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Therefore, it can be said that the only possible context for verbal and clausal ellipsis in Arabic is yes/no and WH-questions; yet, they do not occur as freely as in English. For example, the answer *yes it has* instead of *the plane has landed* is not possible in Arabic. The adequate way to answer this question in Arabic is either نعم (naçam) *yes* or نعم لقد هبطت (naçam laqad habatat) *yes it has landed* (Al-Jabr, 1987).

Finally, unlike English, substitution and ellipsis occur in quite restricted contexts in Arabic. What is possible is either the repetition of the item under discussion or its occurrence as an anaphoric reference of the substitute/ellipted item, in order to accommodate the linguistic system of Arabic.

III.2.4. Conjunctions

Conjunction is a term used to refer to elements (words or phrases) that link between parts of discourse together, such as words, phrases, clauses/sentences, paragraphs, or larger units of discourse, and to indicate the relationship between them. Conjunctions in Arabic are known as *conjunctive particles* حروف العطف (.huru:f alçatf) ; the sets of these particles were used, previously, by linguists to connect between elements at the intra-sentential level; yet, the inter-sentential linkage had not been explored. Earlier classifications, such as those suggested by Arab linguists Naser (1976) and Abdullatif (1982) and Western linguists (Wright, 1975), revealed some divergence regarding the terms used to the different sets of conjunctions. These discrepancies led to the lack of agreement among linguists as to what is categorised as conjunctions and what relations are represented by which conjunction.

For example, Abdullatif (1982) presented a set of particles that perform specific relations, as follows: *Addition*: و (wa), *sequence*: ف (fa-) ثم (θumma), *sequence and grading: ف* (fa), *purpose:* حتى (.hatta), *alternative:* أو (aw), *specification and equation:* أم (am), *negation*:

لكن (la:kin), *partial contrast*: لا (la:), *complete contrast*: بل (bal). However, he did not investigate the behaviour of these particles across independent sentences, as his study was restricted to only complex sentences (Al-Jabr, 1987).

Although these classifications represent to some extent the Arabic conjunctions, Al-Jabr (1987) proposed a more detailed taxonomy that corresponds to most of Halliday and Hasan's classification (1976). In his taxonomy, Al-Jabr (ibid.) took into consideration the function of conjunctions in texts, regardless of what labels they are given, being either an adverb or prepositional phrase; what really matters is what relations are embodied by which conjunction. Following Halliday and Hasan's model to examine conjunctions in view of their functions, and using the English-Arabic dictionary *Al-Mawrid*, as a reference to provide the most adequate equivalents in Arabic, Al-Jabr (1987: 96-97) presented the list of conjunctions as follows:

Additive

و (wa) *and*; وأيضاً (wa ʔaj.dan) *and also*; ولا (wala:) *nor, and not*; وإلاّ (waʔilla:) *or else*; علاوة على ذلك (çala:watan çala ða:lika) *furthermore, in addition, besides*; بدلا من ذلك (badalan min ða:lika) *alternatively*; بالمناسبة (bilmuna:saba) *by the way*; أي أنّ (ajj ʔanna) *that is*; بمعنى آخر (bimaçna a:χar) *in other words*; على سبيل المثال (çala: sabi:li almiθa:l) *for instance* ; من ناحية ثانية (min na:.hijatin θa:nija) *on the other hand*; في المقابل (fi: almuqa:bil) *in contrast*; ثم (θumma) *then*.

Adversative

على أية حال مع ذلك (maça ða:lika) *yet, though, nevertheless*; لكن (la:kin) *but*; على أية حال (çala ʔajjati .ha:l) *however, anyhow*; بالرغم من ذلك (birraˆgmi min ða:lik) *despite this*; في الواقع (fi: alwa:qiçi) *in fact, actually, as a matter of fact*; في نفس الوقت (fi: nafsi alwaqti) *at the same*

time; بدلا من (badalan min) *instead*; بالأحرى (bilʔa.hra) *rather*; على العكس (çala alça:ks) *on the contrary*; على الأقل (çala ʔalʔaqal) *at least*; على أية حال (çala ajjati .ha:l) *in any case*; في أي الأحوال (fi: ʔajji alla.hwa:l) *in either case*; بأية طريقة كانت (biʔajjati .tari:qatin ka:nat) *whichever way it is*; مهما يكن الأمر (mahma: jakun alʔamr) *however it is*.

Causal

لذلك (liða:lika) *so, therefore, consequently*; إذن (ʔiðan) *hence*; بسبب ذلك (bisababi ða:lik) *because of this, on account of this*; لهذا السبب (liha:ða assabab) *for this reason*; نتيجةً لذلك (nati:ʒatan liða:lika) *as a result of this, in consequence*; آخذا بعين الاعتبار (ʔa:χiðan biçajni alʔiçtiba:r) *with this in mind*; لهذا الغرض (liha:ða alˆgara.d) *for this purpose*; بسبب (bisabab), لأن (liʔana) *for, because*; على هذا الأساس (çala ha:ða: alʔas:as) *on this basis*; لهذه الغاية (liha:ðihi alˆga:ja) *to this end*; إذن (iðan) *then*; في تلك الحالة (fi:tilka al.ha:la) *in that case*; في مثل هذا الظرف (fi: miθli ha:ða: að.ð.arfi) *in such an event*; تحت هذه الظروف (ta.hta ha:ðihi að.ð.uru:f) *under the circumstances*; وإلاّ (waʔilla:) *otherwise*; تحت ظروف أخرى (ta.hta ð.uru:fin ʔuχra) *under other circumstances*; بهذا الخصوص (biha:ða: alχu.su:.s) بهذا الشأن (biha:ða: aʃʃaʔan) *in this respect*; عدا ذلك (çada: ða:lika) *aside from this*.

Temporal

عندئذ (çindaʔiðin) *just then*; ثم (θumma), بعد ذلك (baçada ða:lik) *next, after that*; في نفس الوقت (fi: nafsi alwaqti) *at the same time*; سابقا (sa:biqan), آنفا (ʔa:nifan) *previously*; قبل ذلك (qabla ða:lika) *before that*; أخيرا (ʔaχ:iran) *finally, at last*; في حال (fi:.ha:l) *at once*; (çalaða:lika) *after a time*; في المرة التالية (fi: almarrati atta:lija) *next time*; في مناسبة أخرى (fi: muna:sabatin ʔuχra) *on another occasion*; في اليوم التالي (fi: aljawmi atta:li:) *next day*; بعد ساعة (baçda sa:ça) *an hour later*; في غضون ذلك (fi: ˆgu.du:ni ða:lika) *meanwhile*; حتى ذلك الحين (.hatta ða:lika al.hi:n) *until then*; في هذه اللحظة (fi: ha:ðihi alla.hð.a) *at this moment*; لغاية الآن (liˆga:jati alʔa:n) *up to now*; هنا (fi: ha:ðihi alla.hð.a) *then*; في هذه اللحظة

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(huna:) *here*; من الآن فصاعدا (mina alʔa:na fa.sa:çidan) *from now on, henceforth*; باختصار
(biχti.sa:r) *in short*, *briefly*; قريبا (qari:ban), عاجلا (ça:ʒilan) *soon*; بعد قليل (baçada qali:l) *after a time*.

Continuative

الآن على أية (alʔa:n) *now*; طبعا (.tabçan) *of course*; (.hasanan) حسناً *well*; (çala ʔajjati .ha:l) على أية حال *anyhow*; بالتأكيد (bittaʔki:d) *surely*; على العموم (çala: alçum:um) *after all*.

Commenting on this list of conjunctions, Al-Jabr (1987) stressed that conjunctions have other synonyms not mentioned in his classification, which comprise only the commonest ones. Moreover, conjunctions in Arabic bear a multifunctional nature more than their English counterparts do. For example, the conjunction *then* in addition to its temporal function can be also additive, which is not the case in English. Also, some Arabic conjunctions can accommodate more than one English equivalent, for example, لذلك (liða:lika) is an equivalent of *so*, *therefore* and *hence*.

Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that the main difference between Arabic and English lies in the degree to which these two languages make use of conjunctions. While English employs a variety of conjunctions, Arabic uses a restricted number of conjunctions, but, with greater frequency, especially, the particles: و (wa), فـ (fa) and لكن (la:kin). Yet, of course, this does not prevent the occurrence of other conjunctions.

The most commonly used conjunctive particles in Arabic are: و (wa), فـ (fa), ثم (θumma), لكن (la:kin) and بل (bal). Most of these conjunctive particles have attracted the attention of many researchers, e.g. Wright (1975), Cantarino (1975), Williams (1989), Holes (2004) and Fareh (1998). These particles are dealt with below:

III.2.4.1. و (wa)

The conjunctive particle و (wa) is the most commonly used particle in Arabic. Holes (2004:267) noticed that "*wa* is the primitive conjunctive particle: it is the most commonly encountered sentence connective and has the widest variety of uses, analogous in these aspects to English *and*. Unlike English *and*, however, *wa* regularly functions as a textual, as well as a sentence connective."

Many linguists examined the redundancy of و (wa) in Arabic and explained that a number of factors contribute to its high frequency. According to Dudley-Evans and Swales (1980 cited in Al-Jabr, 1987), in addition to other things, the lengthy sentences that characterise Arabic generate the abundant use of و (wa). Also, the trend of Arabic towards using coordination as a favoured structural device enriched the use of conjunction و (wa). Williams (1982:119) observed that "wa is used not only as a coordinator but also as a subordinator." Moreover, Holes (1983 in Al-Jabr, 1987) affirmed that the English punctuation system is challenging for Arab writers. Although the use of the comma and the full-stop was introduced to Arab writers, they still use only و (wa) and ف (fa) to separate between clauses. This is due to new development of the punctuation system in Arabic. Baker (1992:193) explained that while English depends heavily on the punctuation marks "to signal breaks and relations between chunks of information", Arabic "prefers to group information into very large grammatical chunk" mainly through the use of conjunctions و (wa) and ف (fa).

Furthermore, the occurrence of و (wa) with other conjunctions such as the additive أيضاً (ʔaj.dan) and adversative لكن (la:kin), which is very usual in Arabic, enhances its frequency. But, it is the other conjunction, أيضاً (ʔaj.dan) or لكن (la:kin), that joins parts of discourse together instead of و (wa). Equally, the conjunction *and* occurs with other conjunctions in English, for example *and also*, but does not occur with *but*, since it contrasts with the meaning

of *and*. In terms of functions, the conjunctive particle و (wa) has diverse functions. According to Holes (1983: 234 in Al-Jabr, 1987), "*wa* can mark temporal sequence, simultaneous action, semantic contrast and semantic and temporal sequence, logical sequence, purpose, result or concession."

The behaviour of و (wa) in Arabic texts has been pointed out and illustrated by a number of researchers, e.g. Holes (2004), Fareh (1998), Al-Azzawie (2014). For reasons of viability, the most frequent functions that appear in Holes (2004: 267-71) are demonstrated. Holes (ibid: 267) specified that و (wa) may express one of the following relations:

a. Introductory و (wa)

This particle, also known as introductory و (wa), commonly occurs in the initial position of sentences or paragraphs. In simple narrative, the conjunctive particle و (wa) serves a general introductory function for beginning a topic, i.e. it is sometimes used to signal the beginning of every paragraph except the first one. For example[11]:

- *wa* there were a few women, some of them revealing dainty arms which carried handbags resembling shoe- or jewel-boxes. *wa* there was not a single peasant woman among them.(Holes, 2004: 268)

b. Temporal و (wa) (X then Y)

The conjunctive particle و (wa) can also introduce a temporal relation between the clauses it joins, i.e. و (wa) functions as an adjunct to link the successive events, as in:

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[11] The Arabic examples suggested by Holes (2004) do not appear in the original text.

- They brought out the pot *wa* took the mashed dates *wa* threw them into the middle of the pot *wa* mashed them. (Holes, 2004: 268)

c. Simultaneous و (wa) (X at the same time as Y)

The Arabic particle و (wa) can be used to express simultaneous actions, as in:

- I watered the crops *wa* ate. (Holes, 2004: 268)

In this example, the particle و (wa) joins the two clauses, without indicating which one takes place first (the watering or the eating).

d. Circumstantial و (wa) (X in circumstance Y)

The conjunctive particle و (wa) can be used to indicate circumstantial relations between clauses. For example:

- He abandoned them *wa* they were small. (Holes, 2004: 268)

In this example, the conjunctive particle و (wa) is used to join the two clauses in order to show the circumstances in which the action of *abandoning them* took place. This case of و (wa) is similar to another use of و (wa) in Arabic, which is called circumstantial و (wa) or (wa:w al.ha:1) واو الحال (when/while).

e. Adversative و (wa) (X but Y)

The conjunctive و (wa) is used to express an adversative relation between the clauses. According to Holes (2004: 271), "without any adverbial support, *wa* may link two sentences

that are overtly or implicitly mutually inconsistent or when the second implies a restriction or concession of some kind on the first." For example:

- As if (she) was in the city, *wa* (yet) out of it.

- You do not know today, *wa* (but) you will tomorrow. (Holes, 2004: 268)

In this view, it can be said that the extensive usage of و (wa), in addition to this variety of functions (working as additives, temporals, adversatives, etc.), increases the frequency of this particle.

III.2.4.2. ﻓ (fa)

The conjunctive particle ﻓ (fa), the second most frequent conjunction, occurs rather less than و (wa). According to Holes (2004: 271), the main difference between و (wa) and ﻓ (fa) in Arabic is that "*fa* usually betokens a relationship between [two clauses] or between the paragraphs of a text such that the [second clause] describes a state or an action which occurs as a consequence of the [first one]." He presented the following examples to illustrate this[12]:

[90]

- I discovered from the first puff that smoke was escaping from lots of holes *fa* I stubbed it out in the ashtray.

- I think *fa* I am. (Holes, 2004: 271)

Similar to the conjunctive particle و (wa), ﻓ (fa) can indicate different relations between discourse units. Many researchers have tackled its various functions in Arabic texts, e.g. Holes

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[12] The Arabic examples suggested by Holes (2004) do not appear in the original text

(2004), Thabit and Fareh (2006). Following Thabit and Fareh's description (2006:23-25), ـف (fa)

holds five functions as illustrated in what follows:

a. Sequential ـف (fa)

Similar to the conjunctive و (wa), the particle ـف (fa) can be used to express sequential

and temporal relations. However, unlike و (wa) which connects two elements, events or

propositions without indicating the order of occurrence of one over the other, ـف (fa) signals

different relationships, in that, what comes before ـف (fa) has a priority over what follows it. In

other words, ـف (fa) guarantees a consecutive relation between the two events. For example:

- ذهبت إلى بغداد فالبصرة.

- ðahabtu ʔila baˆgda:da *fa*lba.srata.

- I went to Baghdad, *fa* (then) to Basra. (Thabit & Fareh, 2006: 23)

In this example, sequential ـف (fa) links the two events *going to Baghdad* and *going to*

Basra, which are time related, occurring one after another. According to Thabit and Fareh

(2006), *sequence* refers to the order of time and events.

b. Resultative ـف (fa)

The conjunctive particle ـف (fa) signals also a resultative function or (a consequence)

between clauses, where the second clause is a consequence of the first one. For example:

- أحب أحمد المسرح فأبدع فيه.

- ʔa.habba ʔa.hmadu alma.sra.ha *fa* ʔabdaça fi:hi.

- Ahmad loved theatre *fa* (and so) he excelled in it. (Thabit & Fareh, 2006:23)

In this example, ـف (fa) functions as a resultative conjunction as the second clause *his*

excellence in theatre is the result of *Ahmad's passion for theatre*.

c. Causal ﻓ (fa)

In the same way, the conjunctive particle ﻓ (fa) is an indicator of cause between clauses. The clause which is introduced by ﻓ (fa) provides a reason for the first clause as in:

- لا تبكي فإن البكاء ضعف.

- la: tabki: *fa*inna albuka:ʔa .duçfun.

- Do not cry *fa* (because) crying is weakness. (Thabit & Fareh, 2006:24)

In this example, ﻓ (fa) ensures a causal relation between the two clauses, in that; it joins the two clauses together by making the second the cause of the first one. That is to say, because crying is weakness, he/she should not cry.

d. Explanatory ﻓ (fa)

The particle ﻓ (fa) may express an explanation, in that it indicates that the second sentence is an explanation of the first one. For example:

- هناك أخطاء تاريخية كثيرة في مسلسل عمر الخيام فاغتيال الملك كان طعنًا و ليس سُمًّا.

- huna:ka ʔaχta:ʔun tariχijjatun kaθi:ratun fi: musalsali çumar alχajja:m

  *fa*ʔiˆgtija:lu almaliki ka:na .taçnan wa lajsa summan.

- There are various historical mistakes in the series of Omar Al-Khayam that should have been checked. *fa* (For example), the king was stabbed not poisoned. (Thabit & Fareh, 2006:24)

In this example, the sentence *the king was stabbed not poisoned* is one example of *the various historical mistakes in the series of Omar Al-khayam* as stated in the first sentence.

e. Adversative ﻓ (fa)

Similar to و (wa), the conjunctive particle ﻓ (fa) can express an adversative relation or (a contrast) between the two clauses or sentences it connects. For example:

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- دعاني صديقي فلم أجب دعوته.

- daça:ni .sadi:qi: *fa*lam ʔuʒib daçwatahu.

- My friend invited me to visit him, *fa* (but) I turned down his invitation. (Thabit & Fareh, 2006:25)

In this example, ف (fa) connects the two clauses *my friend invited me* and *I turned down his invitation*, that are in an adversative relationship. The particle ف (fa) introduces the second clause, which expresses an unexpected result.

Therefore, it can be said that this variety of functions signalling five different semantic relations (a sequence of time, cause, result, explanation and concession) explains the high frequency of ف (fa) in Arabic.

III.2.4.3. ثم (θumma)

The conjunctive particle ثم (θumma) is one of most commonly used particles in Arabic. It signals a consecutive action, coming after the action in the preceding clause/sentence. According to Holes (2004:272-273), "like *wa*, *thumma* indicates a sequence action"; yet, the difference between و (wa), ف (fa) and ثم (θumma) is that

> *thumma* marks a new development, event, or change of direction in the action described in the narrative [...] *thumma* acts as a superordinate staging marker for the narrative as a whole, *wa* adds information within each of the narrative frames thus created without taking the narrative forward, and *fa* introduces sentences that describe outcomes or results.

In other words, ثم (θumma) differs from و (wa) and ف (fa), in that the former highlights "the sequence existing between two structurally independent statements as a pause or an interval" (Tahaineh & Tafish, 2011: 231), contrary to *and,* which has the additive function, and contrary to ف (fa), which stresses the connected series indicating an immediate succession of events without any delay or pause of time between the two events. Thus, "*θumma* links

clauses/sentences by specifying how one clause/sentence is related to another in terms of time"
(ibid: 231).

In terms of functions, ثم (θumma) is essentially a temporal conjunction, yet, it can appear in various contexts. Tahaineh and Tafish (2011:230-1) highlighted that ثم (θumma) holds five functions. They are illustrated as follows:

a. Sequential Function with Span of Time

The main function of ثم (θumma) is to signal a temporal relation. The sequential ثم (θumma) signals that the two actions included in the sentence occurred consecutively, with a pause or an interval of time in the sequence. The interval of time between the two actions is, usually, indeterminate, but in some cases, it can be also specified, as in:

- تزوج علي ثم رُزِقَ بمولود.

- tazawwaʒa çalijjun *θumma* ruziqa bimawlu:d.

- Ali got married *θumma* (and then) he got a child. (Tahaineh & Tafish, 2011:230)

In this example, there is a logical sequence of the two events: *getting married* and *getting a child*, the period of time between the two events is logically understood, but the time between the two actions is not specified; the length of the period of time is determined according to the context and meaning the discourse marker signals. Another example:

- أمضى زيد عشر سنوات في الغربة ثم عاد إلى وطنه.

- ʔam.ḍa ʒajdun çɑʃru sanawa:tin fi alˁgurbati *θumma* ça:da ʔila wa.tanihi.

- Zayd had spent ten years abroad *θumma* (and then) he returned to his home.

    (Tahaineh & Tafish, 2011:230)

In this example, the time between the two events is specified, Zayed had stayed *ten years abroad* continuously and then *he returned to his home*. So, there is an interval of time between the two events. Hence, as Baker (1992) suggested, what determines the function of discourse markers is frequently determined by the context in which they are used. In this example, the context is a logical sequence of two actions with a period of time of ten years between them.

b. Sequential with Immediacy or with a Short Span of Time

The particle ثم (θumma) can also indicate a sequence (in order) with no interruption between the two events, i.e. an immediate sequence of the two actions that come before and after ثم (θumma).

- استيقظت من النوم ثم رتّبت فراشي.

- ʔistajqað.tu mina annawmi *θumma* rattabtu fira:shi:.

- I woke up from sleeping *θumma* (*and then*) I tidied my bed. (Tahaineh & Tafish, 2011:230)

The particle ثم (θumma) in this example indicates a sequential and temporal relation. It implies that after the action (waking up) has been accomplished, the new action (tidying the bed) is immediately (or without much delay) introduced.

c. Resumptive Function

The Arabic particle ثم (θumma) is often used at the beginning of clauses, sentences and paragraphs, but not the first. It holds a *resumption* function, known in Arabic as ثم الاستئنافية (θumma alʔistiʔna:fijja). The resumptive particle ثم (θumma) comes after a clause/sentence that had been completed and introduces another one in order to serve the sequential function with a span of time (whether it is short or long). For example:

- استرد زيد ماله ثم عاد علي إلى البيت.

- ʔistaradda ʒajdun ma:lahu. *θumma* ça:da çalijun ʔila albajti.

- Zayd restored his money. θumma (*Then*) Ali returned home. (Tahaineh & Tafish, 2011:231)

In this example the two sentences, which are syntactically inappropriate, are joined by the particle ثم (θumma). Two messages can be understood from these two independent sentences: In the first one, *Zayd got his money back*, while in the second, which begins with ثم (θumma), the meaning is resumed by introducing a new topic: *Ali returned home*.

In similar instances, there is an assumption that the two sentences are derived from texts, which are known by the participants: both speakers and hearers. In order to convey the meaning, Arabic makes use of extracted clauses or sentences rather than using the whole text, and the particle ثم (θumma), which has a presumptive function, is used to signal speech continuity (Tahaineh & Tafish, 2011).

d. Adversative Function

Similar to و (wa) and ف (fa), the particle ثم (θumma) can signal an adversative function between the two clauses or sentences it connects. In Arabic, ثم (θumma) is used to denote the general meaning of what is called الاستدراك (alʔistidra:k), i.e. the particles used to signal an adversative meaning. For example:

- استيقظ زيد مبكرا ثم تأخر في الوصول الى عمله!

- ʔistajqað.a zajdun mubakkiran *θumma* taʔaχara fi: alwu.su:li ʔila çamalihi̧

- Zayd woke up early; *θumma* (however/but) he arrived to his work late! (Tahaineh & Tafish, 2011:231)

In this example, ثُم (θumma) joins the two clauses, *Zayd woke up early* and *he arrived his work late,* that are in an adversative relationship. It introduces the second clause which expresses an unexpected result. The adversative attitude in the second clause signals a negative feeling, such as (shock, surprise, astonishment, or anger, etc.).

e. Consequential Function

The particle ثُم (θumma) signals also a resultative function or a consequential function between clauses, where the second clause is a consequence of the first one. In Arabic, ثُم (θumma) is called ثم السببية (θumma assababijja) or (the consequential θumma). For example:

- استيقظ عليٌّ مبكرا ثم وصل إلى المدرسة مبكرا.

- ʔistajqaðˤ.a çalijjun mubakkiran *θumma* wa.sala ʔila almadrasati muba:kkiran.

- Ali woke up early; θumma (consequently), he arrived to the school very early. (Tahaineh & Tafish, 2011:232)

In this example, as a result of his waking up early, Ali arrived to school very early. That is to say, the second clause of this sentence (arriving to school very early) is a consequence of the first one (waking up early).

From this brief review of Arabic conjunctions, it is obvious that several relations can be expressed by the same conjunction in various contexts. Al-Jabr (1987) affirmed that this is similar to Abdullatif's belief (1982) that the function of conjunctions is frequently determined by the context in which they are used. English conjunctions have also this multiplicity of functions, when the conjunction *then* signals temporal and causal relations in various contexts. However, the multiplicity of conjunctions in one sentence, as in Arabic, e.g. ولكن (wala:kin) وأيضاً (waʔaj.dan) is not usual in English.

III.2.5. Lexical Cohesion

The phenomenon of repetition and parallelism are two important features of Arabic text organisation. Repetition in Arabic has been discussed from different perspectives such as traditional grammar, literary studies and text linguistics. Many studies have broadly examined the rhetorical and the textual functions of repetition in Arabic. As far as rhetoric is concerned, repetition is used artistically and rhetorically as a stylistic preference of language; it may be part of *aesthetic devices* in discourse or المحسنات البديعية (almu.hassina:t albadi:çijja). However, repetition as a textual device functioning in a way so as to realise lexical cohesion is used to join the different parts of a text through the recurrence of words.

Many modem researchers have studied the phenomenon of repetition, e.g. Koch (1981), Williams (1982), Al- Jubouri (1983), Holes (2004), Abdel-Hafiz (2003), and Monassar (2014). Koch (1983) was among the first researchers to investigate repetition as a device of lexical cohesion in contemporary Arabic. In Koch's analysis of persuasive texts in modern Arabic, she (ibid: 47) pointed out that repetition is employed "to provide far more than ornamental intensification in Arabic prose; it is the key to the linguistic cohesion of the texts and to their rhetorical effectiveness." She emphasised that repetition, as a *mode of argumentation,* is a consequence of the cultural importance of the Arabic language in the Islamic society. Similarly Al-Jubouri (1983 in Al-Jabr, 1987) investigated the role of repetition in Arabic argumentative discourse. He presented three levels of repetition: morphological level, word level, and the chunk level.

In the same vein, Monassar (2014) suggested a close textual investigation of repetition in the various linguistic levels and in three Arabic varieties: Classical Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic, and Yemeni Adeni Arabic dialect. Unlike the previous works of Koch (1981), who

focused on repetition in a specific genre of writing in Modern Standard Arabic, and Al-Jubouri's view on repetition as a rhetorical tactic used for persuasion (1983), Monassar (2014) examined the purposes and motivation of repetition in the three Arabic varieties, emphasising that it is a cohesive device that enhances textuality. In Monassar's terms (ibid.), repetition in Arabic is called parallelism. He excluded the term repetition in order to avoid any negative implications, as repetition may imply redundancy. He identified four types of parallelism, which pervade throughout the various linguistic levels: morphological, lexical, syntactic and textual. These types are *duplication*, recurrence of root; *replication*, recurrence of the same thought in different forms; *reiteration*, recurrence of the same word; and *alternation*, recurrence of alternatives.

For a detailed description of the different types of repetition, in what follows is a presentation of Al-Jubouri's taxonomy (1983) as summarised in Al-Amri (2007):

III.2.5.1. Repetition at Morphological Level

According to Al-Jubouri (1983:100), "Morphological repetition is enhanced in words that lie in close syntactic proximity, and [it] is manifested in their root or pattern similarity". He differentiated between the root and the pattern repetition[13].

Root repetition is used to generate many derivatives. The lexical elements, which are derivatives of one root, are repeated in one sentence. Koch (1981 in Al-Jabr, 1987) illustrated that the words تجرف (taʒrufu) *sweeps* and جرفا (ʒarfan) *sweeping* are derivatives of the word جرف (ʒaraf). On the other hand, pattern repetition is used to describe the words that have the same morphological patterns. In the example: المنحنيات التي تعرجت داخلها هبوطاً و صعودًا

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[13] The root system in Arabic is known as alʒuð.u:r, while the patterns of the derived form are called alʔawza:n (Al-Jubouri, 1983).

(almun.hanaja:tu allati: taҫarraʒat da:χilaha: hubu:.tan wa .suҫu:dan), the words هبوط (hubu:.t) and صعود (.suҫu:d) end with the (fuҫu:l) pattern. In fact, the final أ (ʔalif) indicates the adverbial حال (.ha:l) or (circumstantial role) in the sentence.

In addition, there are some different collocational pressures that influence morphological repetition. These collocational pressures are "the sequences of verbs and their verbal nouns which habitually co-occur and whose constituents are semantically cohesive" (Al-Amri, 2007:61). For example:

[91]

- لا تربطهم روابط وطنية

- la: tarbi.tuhumu rawa:bi.tun wa.tanija ...

- … are not linked by national links and....

- لقد آن الأوان لتصحيح الخطأ

- laqad .ha:na alʔawanu lita.shi:hi alχ.ta:ʔi

- (the) time is timed to redress the wrongs (Al-Amri, 2007:61)

III.2.5.2. Repetition at Word Level

There are two types of repetition at the word level: *word repetition* and *word strings*. While the former involves the use of the same lexical item several times in one paragraph, the latter is achieved through the use of various lexical items, which are put together to form one set. These lexical items are of the same syntactic category and share the same meaning (Al-Amri, 2007).

The combination of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs generates the word strings and create a semantic elaboration as illustrated below:

[92]

- حروب و منازعات .huru:bun wa muna:zaça:tun	wars and conflicts
- ناقش و باحث na:qiʃ wa ba:hiθ	debated and discussed
- واضح و قاطع wa:.di.hun wa qa:.tiçun	clear and decisive
- ساخطا و حاقدا .sa:χi.tan wa .ha:qidan	grudgingly and maliciously

(Al-Amri, 2007:63)

According to Al-Amri (2007), because the components of word strings share a similar semantic spectrum, the relations of synonymy, near synonymy, implication, antonymy, etc. are realised and guaranteed in one text. Eight categories of the word strings are suggested in Al-Jubouri (1983: 102). They are illustrated in the following:

a. The word string is composed of components which are synonymous. For example:

- تضحيات و بذل و فداء

- ta.d.hija:tun wa baðlun wa fida:ʔun

- [Sacrifice and sacrifice and sacrifice]

b. The word string is composed of components which are near-synonyms, and which offer also, to some extent, two different views of the referent. For example:

- الصواعق و الضربات

- a.s.sawa:çiqu wa a.d.daraba:tu

- The thunderbolts and the blows

c. The two components of the word strings are related through implication. The two components can lead to one another, i.e. the former can lead to the latter or vice versa. For example:

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- استغلالا و مكاسبا

- ʔistiˆglaːlan wa makaːsiban

- Exploitation and gains

d. The two components of the word strings share to some extent a common meaning, but they are different; while the first is more precise, the second is more general. For example:

- الحرية و حقوق الانسان

- al.hurriːjjati wa .huquːqi alʔinsaːn

- Liberty and human rights

e. One of the components of the word strings modifies the meaning of the other. For example:

- الاقناع و الحجة و الدليل

- alʔiqnaːçu wa al.huʒʒatu wa addaliːlu.

- Persuasion, proof and evidence

f. The components of the word strings indicate a shift of meaning and form a kind of semantic scale. For example:

- العمدة و الشيخ و الغفير و المحافظ

- alçumdatu wa aʃʃajχu walˆgafiːru walmuhaːfiðˠu

- The mayor, the chief, the guard and the governor

g. The components of the word strings are antonyms or near-antonyms. For example:

- حكمت ثم حوكمت

- .hakamat θumma huːkimat

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- Ruled then got-ruled

h. The components of the word strings are freezes, or near-freezes. For example:

- اليوم و كل يوم

- aljawma wa kulla jawm

- Today and every day

III.2.5.3. Repetition at Chunk Level

The phenomena of parallelism and paraphrase are two manifestations of repetition at the chunk level. While parallelism has to do with repetition of form, paraphrase refers to repetition of substance. They are described as follows:

III.2.5.3.1. Parallelism

Al-Jubouri (1983 in Al-Amri, 2007) asserted that in addition to its rhetorical function, parallelism is considered also a cohesive device that guarantees the semantic unity of texts. Unlike Halliday and Hasan (1976) who disregarded parallelism in their taxonomy of cohesive devices, many researchers, e. g. Holes (2004), Beeston (1966), Kaplan (1966), Koch (1981), and Williams (1982), added this process in their studies in Arabic. Two types of parallelism can be identified: complete parallelism and incomplete parallelism.

a. Complete Parallelism

According to Al-Jubouri (1983: 105), complete parallelism occurs when "there is total, or almost total, coincidence between parallel forms". For example:

[93]

- وكم من أحزاب حكمت ثم حوكمت وتولت ثم اندثرت و ارتفعت ثم سقطت.

- wa kam min ʔa.hza:bin .hakamat θumma .hu:kimat, wa tawallat θumma indaθarat, wa ʔartafaçat θumma .saqa.tat.

- and how many parties ruled then got-ruled, and took power then perished, and rose then fell. (Al-Jubouri, 1983: 107)

From the above examples, Al-Jubouri (ibid.) explained that, in terms of the structural parallelism, there are three parallel word strings joined by the conjunction *wa*. The word strings themselves are composed of two components joined by the conjunction ثم (θumma). These components are verbs in the past tense inflected to the feminine gender, i.e. they end with a feminine marker, (ta:ʔ attaʔni:θ) تاء التأنيث. In terms of the flow of ideas, the components of the three word strings share a similar meaning. The first components share a positive meaning, that of strength حكمت (.hakamat) *ruled*, تولت (tawallat) *took-power*, and إرتفعت (ʔirtafaçat) *rose*, whereas, the second components share a negative meaning, that of weakness حوكمت (.hu:kimat) *got-ruled*, إندثرت (ʔindaθarat) *perished*, and سقطت (saqa.tat) *fell*.

b. Incomplete Parallelism

As the name implies, incomplete parallelism occurs when there is a partial coincidence between parallelistic forms. Al-Jubouri (1983:108) explained that "both complete and incomplete parallelism give the effect of commutation of claims which makes the argument more persuasive". For example:

[94]

- إذا دافع عن قضية الحريات و حقوق الانسان

- iða: da:faça çan qa.di:jati al.hurri:jja:ti wa .huqu:qi alʔinsa:ni

- [if defended issue the-liberty and rights the-man]

- إذا احتضن كل مظلوم

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- iða: ʔi.hta.dana kulla maðˤ.lu:m

- [if embraced every unjustly-treated]

- إذا قاوم الفساد

- iða: qa:wama alfasa:da

- [if resisted the corruption]

- إذا ضرب الأمثلة في القدوة الصالحة

- iða: .daraba alʔamθilata fi: alqudwati a.s.sa:li.hati

- [if gave the-examples in the-exemplification the-good] (Al-Jubouri, 1983: 108)

According to Al- Jubouri (1983), the examples above are four instances of the conditional construction reiterated. The constructions begin with إذا (iða:) *if* followed by a verb in the past tense and an implicit subject. "The repetition begins with a relatively long conditional clause [...] It is followed by two short clauses and two longer ones, the last being composed of two parallelistic phrases combined with 'wa'" (Al-Jubouri, 1983: 108).

III.2.5.3.2. Paraphrase

AI-Jubouri (1983: 110) explained that "paraphrase refers to a repetition of substance. It involves a restatement of a certain point or argument a number of times." He affirmed that this type of repetition reflects of the writers' tendency towards forceful assertion. Under this heading, Al-Jubouri (ibid.) identified two types:

a. Paraphrase Type One

This type refers to "an action or event which is described a number of times from one perspective. It is similar to a rephrasing of a statement" (ibid: 110). For example:

[95]

<div dir="rtl">

- الكلمات الى أفعال و الوعود إلى حقائق

</div>

- alkalima:t ʔila afʔa:l wa alwuçu:d ʔila .haqa:ʔiq

- The words into actions and the promises into realities (Al-Jubouri, 1983: 108)

b. Paraphrase Type Two

This type is ''an action or event which is described from two opposite perspective'' (AI-Jubouri, 1983: 110). The following example illustrates this type:

[96]

<div dir="rtl">

- لا قيمة لحزب إن هو فوق الكراسي

- و قيمته الحقيقية فتظهر عندما ينقد السلطان

</div>

- la: qi.mata li.hizbin ʔin huwa fawqa alkara:si:, wa qi:.matuhu al.haqi:qijjatu fatað.haru çindama: janqudu assulta:na

- (no value to party as it in the power seats)

- (and as for value his, the true appears when criticizes the ruler)(Al-Jubouri, 1983: 110)

Conclusion

As the main goal of this research is to compare and contrast the cohesive devices used in the United Nations texts between English and Arabic, we have discussed in details the five types of cohesive devices in English as suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and presented a parallel discussion of these devices in Arabic as summarised by Al-Jabr (1987). The main objective was to study the cohesive functions of Arabic devices and to highlight the aspects of similarities and differences in the two languages. In addition, the phenomena of parallelism and

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paraphrase, which are typical of Arabic text organisation and which do not appear in Halliday and Hasan's model (1976) have also been examined. However, the major aspects of cohesion that are pertinent to legal discourse and which do not exist in Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy (e.g. the subcategories of reference: blend words, numbering and articulation) are to be covered in the subsequent chapters.

Chapter IV

Methodology of the Study

Chapter IV: Methodology of the Study

Introduction

This chapter offers a description of the corpus linguistics methods and tools used in this thesis to analyse the translation of cohesive devices in some United Nations texts. The chapter presents the framework adopted for the analysis and the procedure used to identify the cohesive devices and to detect examples of shifts of cohesion in the translated corpus.

To this aim, this study makes use of quantitative and qualitative analyses of cohesive devices in the Parallel Corpus of the United Nations Texts (PCUNTs). The corpus frequency counts and the statistical analysis of data are presented in order to demonstrate the extent to which source language norms and conventions influence the use of cohesive devices in translation. The qualitative descriptive method is employed to describe the accuracy of the translation of these devices and how translators cope with the differences.

The chapter is structured as follows: Section one presents the corpus design and the procedure of its construction. The background to the corpus, its content and size, and the tools used for data analysis are also provided. By suggesting a sample of analysis, section two briefly summarises how the data used in the present thesis are linguistically and statistically analysed. The linguistic analysis is based on the semantic framework for identifying and classifying cohesive devices, as proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), and depends on the explicitation hypothesis for explaining occurrences of shifts of cohesion in the translation product, as indicated by Blum-Kulka (1986). Finally, section three presents the hypotheses and research questions of this study.

IV.1. Design and Compilation of the PCUNTs

To begin with, a description of the corpus data and tools used to test the present hypotheses is provided. As previously mentioned, the methodology adopted for this study requires the use of parallel corpora, which are the most suitable resources for both the contrastive and the translation study. Therefore, the Arabic/English Parallel Corpus of the United Nations is designed particularly to achieve this objective. The corpus is a unidirectional parallel corpus; it consists of texts in one language, Arabic, and their translations into another language, English. The aim of building a unidirectional parallel corpus (Arabic texts and their translations in English) is to examine the similarities and differences between Arabic and English cohesive devices and to observe their possible influence on the translation product.

Nevertheless, although the significance of parallel corpora in finding equivalents has been questioned by some researchers, as they are believed to be inconvenient sources of data for translators, in this study, the translations the corpus contains are authentic documents produced by competent legal drafters.

This section outlines the background to the PCUNTs, its content and size, the steps and procedures of data compilation and the tools used for data analysis.

IV.1.1. Description of the United Nations Documents

First of all, it is important to start with a presentation of the nature of the UN documents and their structures in order to offer a background to the PCUNTs. The reason behind this is that legal documents differ significantly from other genres, such as fiction, science or journalism. Legal texts in general and the UN texts, in particular, as one type of

institutionalised language, require the use of specific conventions governing the preparation of legal resolutions and rules, display different structures, and follow rigid methods of dividing documents into parts or paragraphs. These particular aspects are specifically preserved for purposes of formality, accurateness and transparency that characterise legal discourse. In fact, these characteristics of legal discourse make it a distinctive type of language for specific purposes. Formality is preserved in legal discourse, because legal documents are generated in official situations and used in formal settings. The style of legal texts is particularly deemed precise and accurate, as it aims at achieving exactness of meaning and reducing any possible ambiguity that may affect the information. Transparency is another important feature of legal documents. Since resolutions, reports and official letters are supposed to take firm decisions and impose obligations on the member states, these types of documents are written with high degrees of clarity.

The structure of the UN documents, as presented in the UN website [14] and in Rafalovitch and Dale's paper (2009), is summarised below:

IV.1.1.1. Overview of the United Nations

The United Nations is an international organisation established in 1945. It is composed of 193 Member States, which have the opportunity to express their views and decisions in the six main organs of the UN. The main organs are the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice, and the UN Secretariat.

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[14] UN Overview: http://www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/overview/index.html

The UN bodies address important questions and take firm decisions concerning the challenges that face humanity, such as peace and security issues, disarmament, terrorism, climate change, human rights, etc. These bodies generate a considerable amount of documents, which are available in the six official languages of the UN[15]. These documents comprise various categories, such as official resolutions, reports of previously achieved works or summaries of the decisions taken by the originating bodies, letters from the Member States to the organisation, and internal records such as daily journals, daily bulletins, agendas and draft resolutions.

The documents selected for this study are official correspondences from the Arab representatives to the General Assembly (GA) and the Security Council (SC) organisations. The GA is the main deliberative and representative organ of the UN; it is the only UN organisation with universal representation. The SC comprises 15 Members: 5 permanent and 10 non-permanent members. Because of its responsibility in preserving worldwide peace and security, the SC determines the presence of any menace or act of aggression that threatens countries and calls for both peaceful means and, sometimes, the use of force for a necessary compromise.

IV.1.1.2. Structure of the United Nations Documents

UN resolutions are formal texts presenting the opinions and decisions of the UN organs. They are composed of three main parts: a heading, a preamble and an operative part. First, the heading includes four parts:

1. The name of the organ issuing the resolution : e.g. the SC and the GA;

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[15] There are six official languages of the UN. These are Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish.

2. The title of document: e.g. 1) Identical letters from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the UN addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the SC;

3. Other information: e.g. a list of the Member States that voted on the resolution;

4. Document symbols identifying the resolution: They consist of specific numbers referring to the relevant sessions, e.g. (S/2011/286 or A/66/338).

Second, the preamble is usually written in English; it presents the context of the resolution, i.e., the context of the actions taken, the opinions expressed and the instructions issued. In general, preambles comprise previous UN resolutions, treaties, statements made by the Secretary-General, replies of UN bodies or Member States concerning the relevant topics, or basically general information about the topic. As an instance[16], the preamble of the report of the Secretary-General contains a reply received from the Syrian Arab Republic in response to the *note verbale* dated 12 May 2011 from the Secretary-General concerning the implementation of the relevant provisions of the GA resolutions 65/17, entitled "Jerusalem", and 65/18, entitled "The Syrian Golan".

Third, the operative part is the core of the resolution; it proclaims the opinions of the organ and the actions or decisions the organ wants to implement. It necessarily addresses the topics mentioned in the preamble.

In addition to these parts, the UN documents may be more complex, comprising additional sections, such as annexes, enclosures and tables.

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[16] The example selected is text n° 14: see Appendix A.

IV.1.2. Data Collection

In what follows, a description of the main points that are taken into consideration during the design stage of the PCUNTs is presented, dealing, in particular, with the selection of texts for the parallel corpus, its content and size.

IV.1.2.1. Selection of Texts for the PCUNTs

The selection of texts for the PCUNTs is mainly determined by two main criteria: reputation and availability. In terms of reputation, the texts are exclusively extracted from the correspondences of the Arab representatives to the SC and the GA; the two main organs of the UN organisations and institutions. Because of their legal significance, UN documentations undergo various levels of translations and authentication, and, therefore, the translations are believed to be of great proficiency and of a high degree of reliability. In terms of availability, the texts are available online and downloadable via the official website of UN Documentation (The ODS)[17].

IV.1.2.2. Corpus Content and Size

The PCUNTs is a self-built Arabic/ English corpus consisting of 40 UN documents. It is a specialized one, since it focusses on one specific genre: legal translation. It consists of 9 GA Resolutions and 11 SC Resolutions published over a period of three years (2011-2013), and related to the most relevant events in the Middle East and North Africa, tackling mainly issues related to the crises in Syria, Iraq and Libya. The documents selected are *letters* and

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[17] http://documents.un.org/

their *annexes* from the Member States to the UN organisations, in addition to *reports* summarising the decisions taken and the works done by the originating bodies.[18]

The majority of the documents selected are: 1) Letters from the permanent representatives of the member state Syrian Arab Republic to the UN addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the SC; 2) Reports of the Secretary-General to the GA containing a reply from the Syrian Arab Republic concerning the implementation of the GA resolutions.

It is important to note that letters to the UN bodies are short and informative; they serve to transmit the Members States' position on the UN reports or to express their governments' opinions and concerns about a specific topic or crisis. The letters provide examples of legal language and specialised translation. The translations are believed to be accurate and good, as the documents in the TT legal system are interpreted in the same way as in the ST legal system. That is to say, the same legal effect in the TT is observed in the ST. Similarly, the TT is to be read by the target-language audience as the ST is read by the source-language audience.

The PCUNTs consists of two sub-corpora, Arabic source texts (AUNTs) and their English translations (EUNTs). It encompasses a total of 40 texts, organised in an aligned paragraph pattern where the Arabic sub-corpus is established along with its translational counterpart in English; that is to say, 20 AUNTs and 20 EUNTs are covered. The wording of texts ranges from 200 to 2000 word tokens per text. The whole corpus contains around 31,045

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[18] See Appendix A for the list of corpus texts.

word tokens; the Arabic sub-corpus has fewer word tokens (13,753) in comparison to the English one, 17,292 word tokens.

It is worth mentioning that because the methodology adopted in this study requires more in-depth analysis, all texts are read and analysed manually. Moreover, for practical considerations, this corpus is built according to explicit criteria. Features of representativeness, balance, machine readable form and size are ensured. Likewise, the publication years and lengths of samples are carefully chosen in the compilation of the corpus. Given these important considerations, the two sub-corpora are to a feasible extent representing the genre of law. Also, since the size of specialised and genre-related corpora can be relatively small, and because cohesive devices tend to be more frequent in the two sub-corpora, it can be said that the size of the present corpus seems to be sufficient and adequate for the purpose of analysis.

IV.1.3. Collection Procedure

The following part is devoted to the main steps taken during the collection of data.

IV.1.3.1. Preparation and Compilation

Since the availability of the software tools and techniques helps researchers classify, count and display large amounts of data, the design of one's self-built corpus allows for extracting and analysing the samples under investigation before starting the comparisons.

Typically, the texts are available online as PDF files, and for the purpose analysis, the texts are converted, first, into Microsoft Word 2010 files, in order to analyse the cohesive devices in the STs and TTs, and then, converted into Plain Text format (UT-F8), in order to be processed in the software tools. The documents are saved as Arabic STs and English TTs

files; they are named, respectively, as ArbST and EngTT. For example, EngTT 15 represents the English translations of the Arabic text ArbST 15 (i.e. its counterpart). Each pair of documents is saved in one folder, e.g. Folder 15, and includes both Word and Plain Text formats.

It is important to mention that in the process of corpus compilation, some basic editions, i.e. changes and additions to the documents are ensured, leaving only the operative part for the purpose of analysis. The documents' symbols, names of the organs and page numbers are removed. Titles of documents, preambles and lists of the Member States are, in the same way, excluded from the samples, since they are originally written in English and have their specific characteristics. Moreover, special characters, such as *bold* and *italics* are not entered in Plain Text. The conversion involved also some manual analysis. For the purpose of presenting the corpus in an automatic paragraph alignment pattern, the organisation of texts involves a division or sometimes a combination of paragraphs in TTs in order to get parallel paragraphs in STs.

IV.1.3.2. Corpus Alignment and Annotation

The concluding step in building the corpus is the alignment process. The corpus files are processed automatically with paragraphs aligned across Arabic and English. That is to say, the AUNTs are aligned at the paragraph level along with their counterparts, EUNTs. Barlow (1996) reiterated that presenting a set of aligned parallel texts is very remarkable because it helps users see every sentence with its corresponding translation, and therefore, to compare the translated texts with their originals. It is important to note that the paragraph alignment pattern is chosen instead of the sentence one, as the concept of sentence boundaries is not specific in Arabic.

Finally, for the purpose of this study, the corpus is not automatically annotated. It is sufficient to generate the list of the cohesive devices in Plain Texts using software tools without any linguistic annotation.

IV.1.4. Tools of Research

Three main software tools are used in this study: Anthony software tools andSoftware Package for Social Sciences. The Anthony software tools, including the Anthony Concordancer (AntConc) and the Anthony Parallel Concordancer (AntPconc), are used for the linguistic analysis and the frequency count of data. The Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is used for the statistical analysis and the comparison of the two sub-corpora; it is employed to examine whether or not significant differences exist between the two sub-corpora.

IV.1.4.1. Anthony Software Tools

For the purpose of analysis, the two software tools, AntConc and AntPConc, developed by Anthony (2011, 2013) are used. The software tools are freeware concordance programs intended for research in corpus linguistics and Data-driven Learning.

First, the AntConc (2011) consists of seven tools: *Concordance Tool*, *Concordance Plot Tool*, *File View Tool*, *Clusters/N-Grams*, *Collocates*, *Word List* and *Keyword List*. Only two tools of these seven are used: the *Word List* and the *Concordance Tool. The Word List* function of AntConc counts all the words in the corpus and presents them in an ordered list; it allows for the creation of the list of the most frequent cohesive devices in the PCUNTs, and the comparison of the two sub-corpora in terms of the types of cohesive devices used. The *Concordance Tool* displays a list of words extracted from the selected texts in a KWIC (Key

Word in Context) format and shows how cohesive devices are commonly used in the PCUNTs.

Second, the AntPConc (2013) is used in order to examine the differences and similarities between Arabic and English cohesive devices. Through the parallel concordance function of AntPConc, the differences between Arabic and English are distinguished in real context, and therefore, shifts of cohesive patterns in the translated corpus are detected.

The following figures represent the Word List function of AntConc (2011) and the KWIC concordance lines of AntPConc (2013):
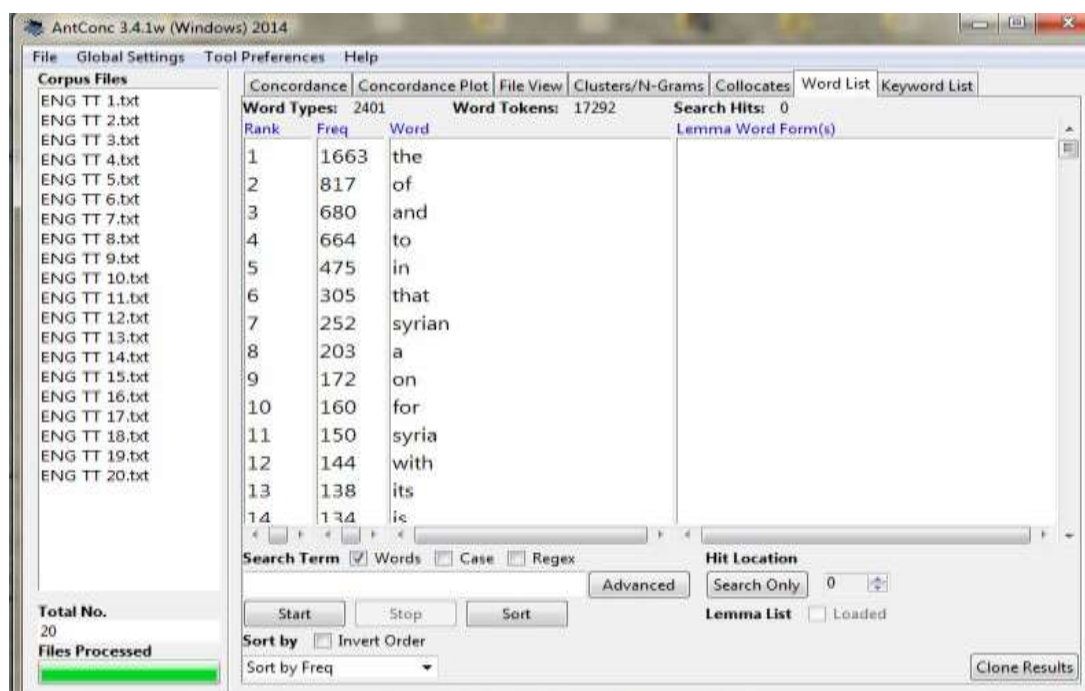
Figure 3: Word List Function of AntConc (2011)

Figure 4: Screenshot of AntPConc (2013)

IV.1.4.2. SPSS 22

SPSS stands for *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences;* it is a software package used for the statistical analysis of data, developed by IBM SPSS Inc. It is used to analyse the samples under investigation statistically and test the validity of the present hypotheses.

For the purpose of comparing cohesive devices between Arabic and English texts, i.e. for testing the null hypothesis, a Paired t-test, which is a powerful method for detecting differences between data, is employed.

IV.2. Procedure of Analysis: Linguistic and Statistical Analysis

The methodology adopted for this study combines linguistic and statistical analyses, with a view to investigating the differences between Arabic and English UN texts, in terms of the cohesive devices used and their semantic relationships, as well as the possible occurrences of cohesion shifts in the translated texts. Drawing specifically on the taxonomy of Halliday and Hasan (1976), both quantitative and qualitative factors are considered in order to identify the data under investigation.

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The first step in the analysis is the identification of cohesive devices in the two sub-corpora, in which the frequency data, i.e. wordlists of cohesive types are extracted. The analysis of the most frequent devices is carried out in order to identify the various categories of cohesive devices used in the UN texts. Then, based on the analysis of concordance functions of AntConc (2011) and AntPConc (2013), the contextual analysis allows for the comparison of cohesive devices between Arabic and English sub-corpora and allows also for the identification of shifts of cohesion in the translation product. Finally, descriptive statistical investigation and significance testing are performed using SPSS22.

IV.2.1. Framework of the Study

As mentioned previously, the framework used for the analysis of cohesive devices in this thesis is based on the taxonomy of Halliday and Hasan (1976). Based on this framework, the sources of cohesion that are examined in the selected UN texts are *reference*, *substitution*, *ellipsis*, *conjunction* and *lexical cohesion*, each with its subcategories. A summary of Halliday and Hasan's cohesion and coding scheme (1976) is presented as follows:

I.   **Reference: R.1/R.2/R.3**

    1. **Pronominals: R.1**

        a. Sing masculine: *he- him- his*

        b. Sing Feminine: *she –her- hers*

        c. Sing Neuter: *it- its*

        d. Plural: *they- them- their- theirs*

    2. **Demonstratives and Definite Article: R.2**

        a. Demonstratives near: *this- these- here*

        b. Demonstratives far: *that- those- there- then*

    c. Definite article: *the*

3. **Comparatives (not complete lists): R.3**

    a. Identity: *same–identical*

    b. Similarity: *similar(ly)- such*

    c. Difference: *different/other, else*

    d. Comparison- quantity: *more/less; as many, ordinals*

    e. Comparison- quality: *as+ adj/comparatives and superlatives*

II.   **Substitution: S.1/S.2/S.3**

    1. **Nominal Substitute: S.1**

        a. for noun head: *one/ones*

        b. for nominal complement: *the same*

        c. for attribute: *so*

    2. **Verbal Substitute: S.2**

        a. For verb: *do- be- have*

        b. For process: *do the same- likewise*

        c. For preposition: *do so, be so*

        d. Verbal reference: *do it/that -be it/that*

    3. **Clausal Substitute: S.3**

        a. Positive: *so*

        b. Negative: *not*

III.   **Ellipsis: E.1/E.2/E.3**

    1. **Nominal Ellipsis: E.1**

        a. Deictic as head : *specific, nonspecific, post (deictic)*

        b. Numerative as head: *ordinal, cardinal, indefinite*

        c. Epithet as head: *superlative, comparative, others*

2. Verbal Ellipsis: E.2

    a. Lexical ellipsis

    b. Operator ellipsis

3. Clausal Ellipsis E.3

    a. Propositional ellipsis

    b. Modal ellipsis

    c. General ellipsis

    d. Zero entire clause omitted ellipsis

IV.   Conjunction: C.1/C.2/C.3/C.4/C.5

1. Additive: C.1

    a. And, and also, nor, and not, or else

    b. Furthermore, add to that, alternatively

    c. By the way, incidentally

    d. That is, in other words, e.g., thus

    e. Likewise, in the same way, on the other hand, by contrast

2. Adversative : C.2

    a. Yet, though, only, but, however, even so, all the same

    b. In point of , in fact, actually

    c. But, and, conversely, on the other hand

    d. Instead, on the contrary, rather

    e. At least, I mean, or rather

    f. In any case, either case, in any case, any how

3. Causal: C.3

    a. So, then, therefore, consequently

    b. On account of this, in consequence, with this in mind

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    c. For, because

    d. It follows, arising out of this, to this end

    e. Then, in that case, in such event, under the circumstances, otherwise

    f. In this respect, here, otherwise, apart from this, in other respects

4. Temporal: C.4

    a. Then, next, just then, before that, hitherto

    b. In the end

    c. First-then, at first, originally, formerly, finally, now

    d. At once, soon, next time, next day, meanwhile, until then, at this moment

    e. Then, next, finally, in conclusion

    f. First-next, in the first place, to conclude with

    g. Up to now, at this point, for now on

    h. To sum up, to resume

5. Other Types: C. 5: Now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all

V.   Lexical Cohesion: L.1/L.2

1. Reiteration: L.1

    a. Repetition**:** of same item, but not necessary of the same word class

    b. Synonymy or near synonymy

    c. Superordinate or hypernym**:** notion of inclusion e.g.: car/jaguar

    d. General Term**:** general words always preceded by article 'the' or demonstratives

2. Collocation: L.2

    a. Relation of *antonomy* : opposite meanings : e.g., like/hate

b. Relation of complementarity: in contrast to each other: e.g., girl/boy, stand up/sit down

c. Relation of part to whole or *meronymy*: eg, Aminoacids part of proteins; car/box

d. Relation of part to part. e.g., mouth/chin, verse/chorus

e. Relation of *co- hyponymy*: e.g., chair/table hyponyms of furniture

f. Words from same ordered series: e.g., dollar-scent, north-south

g. Tuesday-Thursday

It is important to emphasise that according to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesive devices between sentences are "the only source of texture" (1976: 9), and, that "it is the inter-sentence cohesion that is significant, because that represents the variable aspect of cohesion, distinguishing one text from another" (ibid: 9). However, in this thesis, the analysis of cohesion is not merely restricted to inter-sentential ties for one main reason which is that the punctuation systems in Arabic and English are very flexible, and the notion of sentence boundaries is not specific. For example, one whole paragraph in Arabic may contain one single sentence, whereas its translational counterpart in English definitely differs, and sometimes vice versa. Hence, the analysis of cohesive devices within sentences, i.e. at the intra-sentential level, is covered as well.

Moreover, for the discussion of shifts of cohesion in translation and the discussion of explicitation, in particular, the methodology put forward by Blum-Kulka (1986) is adopted. This methodology detects shifts of cohesion in translation by observing the omission, substitution or addition of new cohesive devices in the translated texts. Therefore, all the translations of these devices in the TTs are examined, revealing all possible occurrences of shifts of cohesion in the translated sub-corpus.

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IV.2.2. Linguistic Analysis

After reading the corpus carefully, a manual analysis of the texts is carried out. All the types of cohesive devices and the occurrences of shifts of cohesion, especially, explicitation, are identified according to the framework provided in the previous section. The types of cohesive devices identified in the corpus are represented by specific symbols; for example, near demonstrative *this* and *definite article the* are represented as *R.2*. Similarly, as an example, occurrences of shifts of cohesion detected by the addition of a new cohesive device in the translated text are represented as *cohesive-explicitation-added*.

It is worth mentioning that the types of cohesive devices are linguistically analysed and compared across the two sub-corpora in order to find out the differences between the systems of the two languages, and the shifts of different types are examined in order to understand the decisions that translators have taken, (i.e. when and why translators have the tendency to explicitate).   In other words, the analysis of these devices helps show the differences between the two languages and justifies the occurrences of shifts of cohesion. The linguistic analysis of these devices in AUNTs and EUNTs is carried out as follows:

First, all the types of cohesive devices used in AUNTs are identified, and then, their equivalents in EUNTs are analysed. Second, the frequency list of different types of cohesive devices in the two sub-corpora is created through the frequency count function of AntConc. Only the most prevailing cohesive devices, which are of a high frequency of occurrence, are recorded and viewed as key words for the semantic analysis. Third, instances of shifts of cohesion that occurred in the translations (i.e. additions, omissions or substitutions of cohesive devices), are presented. The additions, omissions or substitutions of these devices, operating at both the intra-sentential and the inter-sentential level, are signalled by means of

(+), (−) or (<->) respectively. The detailed quantitative and qualitative analyses of data will be presented in the following chapter.

IV.2.3. Statistical Analysis

The aim of this part is to give a brief description of how to analyse the samples under investigation statistically using the Word Frequency Count of AntConc (2011) and the latest version of SPSS, SPSS 22 (2013). The statistical analysis of the cohesive devices in AUNTs and EUNTs is carried out as follows:

The first step is to calculate the descriptive statistics of cohesive devices, including the frequencies of occurrence, the most basic corpus-based statistics, as well as the mean number of cohesive devices, median, and standard deviation. The statistical results of the five categories of cohesive devices will be presented and discussed in the following chapter.

It is worth pointing out that when comparing corpora of different sizes, the Arabic ST sub-corpus (13,753 word tokens) and the English TT sub-corpus (17,292 word tokens), the percentage is not calculated based on the number of tokens of the whole corpus but rather based on the amount of times the same items are recurrent throughout each text. The percentages, therefore, reveal the frequency of use of a semantic category compared to the other semantic categories in the same text. The higher or lower frequency of cohesive devices reveals to what extent the authors or the translators resorted to some semantic categories rather than others. A table listing the word tokens in each pair of texts is found in Appendix C.

The second step is the use of inferential statistical tests to draw conclusions from the sample data. These statistics are used to find out if there are significant differences between the variables of the two sub-corpora. Because it is possible that the differences identified

between the two sub-corpora may be due to chance, a statistical index used to find the significance of the difference between the means of two samples is required. The required level of the statistical significance is less than 0.05 (p-value <0.05). That is to say, if the p-value is less than 0.05, there is a significant difference between the two sub-corpora. This analysis aims to discover how similar are the two sub-corpora and in what way they differ with respect to the use of the cohesive devices.

It is important to bear in mind that in order to interpret the statistical results and reach conclusions, in this study, a statistical hypothesis testing was used. The statistical decisions were made through rejecting the null-hypothesis (H_0), which takes the form of: *there is no difference among the two sub-corpora*. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (H_1) would be: *the values are not equally distributed within the two sub-corpora*. In this view, the statistical hypothesis testing demonstrates that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two sub-corpora. The formula is: H_0: $\mu 1 = \mu 2$, whereas, H_1: not all μs are equal[19].

IV.2.4. Sample of Analysis

In order to describe the process of analysis in more details, a sample of Arabic UN documents and its English equivalent is randomly selected. The sample of analysis is a document issued by the SC (S/2011/286); it is an annex to the identical letters from the permanent representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the UN addressed to the Secretary-General and the president of the SC[20].

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[19] $\mu 1$ is the mean of 1st population (Arabic sub-corpus); and $\mu 2$ is the mean of 2nd population (English sub-corpus).

[20] The sample of analysis is provided in Appendix B (text n°1).

The document describes the position of the Syrian Arab Republic on the semi-annual report of the Secretary-General on the implementation of SC resolution 1559 (2004) (S/2011/258). The author, Bashar Ja'afari, Ambassador and Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic in the UN, transmitted this letter and stressed the support of Syria for the stability and security of Lebanon, for its efforts to liberate the parts of its territory occupied by Israel, and for its territorial integrity, sovereignty and independence.

The style of writing is an example of institutionalised language. The document includes a variety of text types: *exposition*, *argumentation and narration.* It is descriptive and argumentative, since it aims at presenting facts and persuading not only the UN authorities but also readers. Also, the document exhibits the narration of the successions of events or precise reports that have taken place. Hence, it becomes very obvious that cohesive devices of various categories play a vital role in the organisation of the document's information. Dealing with the five types of cohesive devices, the textual analysis, as to be seen in the following chapters, will prove that cohesion is not only an essential feature for the creation of texts, but also, an important aspect that influences the quality of the translation product.

As previously emphasised, cohesive devices in AUNTs and EUNTs are identified and classified according to the taxonomy of Halliday and Hasan (1976). The analysis is applied both within sentences, i.e. at the intra-sentential level and between sentences, i.e. at the inter-sentential level. That is to say, cohesive devices are observed across clauses and sentences. The following procedure is applied for all the selected texts of the PCUNTs. First, in the selected document, the AUNT and the EUNT are provided with sentence numbers, (appearing at the end of each sentence). Second, all the types of cohesive devices and their subcategories are identified. Third, the total number of cohesive devices in the AUNT and the EUNT is counted.

In this analysis, the initials *R*, *S*, *E*, *C* and *LC* stand, respectively, for the five types of cohesive devices: *reference*, *substitution, ellipsis*, *conjunction* and *lexical cohesion*, along with their subcategories. Besides, in order to make the interpretation of results more practical and much easier, in the selected document, the types of these devices are highlighted in different colours and their presupposed elements are emphasised, according to the framework mentioned previously[21]. The following analysis deals with only one paragraph extracted from the selected document (S/2011/286).

1. Arabic Paragraph (AUNT)

إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن١٥٥٩(٢٠٠٤) هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار ، / ومن غير المقبول الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار ١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤) بالرغم من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه (1) .فقد أشاد التقرير ليس فقط بإجراء انتخابات رئاسية ونيابية حرة ونزيهة في لبنان (أي من غير تدخل أو نفوذ أجنبي) ، وبجهود سوريا حول سحبها لقواتها ومعداتها العسكرية من لبنان، وإنما أشاد أيضا بإقامة علاقات دبلوماسية كاملة بين سوريا ولبنان (2) .وإن تناول التقرير الجهود المشتركة السعودية ـ السورية المبذولة لمعالجة تصاعد الأزمة السياسية في لبنان، لهو دليل آخر على حرص سوريا لبذل كل جهد ممكن للحفاظ على أمن واستقرار لبنان (3) .

Table 9 shows the specific cohesive items, their types and numbers in each sentence, as well as their presupposed items in the above Arabic paragraph:

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[21] See section (IV.2.1.) for the summary of these devices.

Sentence N°	N° of CD	Cohesive Item	Type	Presupposed Item
1	18	ذكره	R.1	التقرير
		التقرير	R.2 / L.1	التقرير
		السورية pargraph 1	L.1	السورية
		لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن١٥٥٩(٢٠٠٤)	L.1	لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن: pargraph 1
		هو	R.1	ما ذكره التقرير
		سوريا	L.1	سوريا
		بتنفيذ	L.1	تنفيذ
		ما يخصها	R.1	سوريا
		هذا القرار	R.1/ L.1	القرار
		و	C.1	Clause1
		سوريا	L.1	سوريا
		تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار ١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤)	L.1	تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار: pargraph 1
		بالرغم من أن	C.2	Clause 2
		سوريا	L.1	سوريا
		بتنفيذ ما يخصها	L.1	بتنفيذ ما يخصها
		أحكامه	L.1/R.1	أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن١٥٥٩
2	14	فقد	C.1	Sentence1
		التقرير	L.1.	التقرير
		بإجراء	L.1	Synonym of تنفيذ
		ليس فقط .... وإنما أشاد أيضا.....	C.1/ L.1.	Sentence 2
		نيابية	L.2	رئاسية
		أي	C.1	Preceding clause
		أو	C.1	Preceding clause
		و	C.1	Preceding clause
		بجهود سوريا	L.1	بجهود سوريا
		أشاد	L.1	أشاد
		سحبها لقواتها ومعداتها	R.1	سوريا
		لبنان	L.1	لبنان
		سوريا	L.1	سوريا
		لبنان	L.1	لبنان
3	14	و	C.1	Sentence2
		التقرير	R.1/L.1	التقرير
		الجهود	L.1	الجهود
		السورية	L.1	السورية
		لبنان	L.1	لبنان
		لهو دليل آخر	C.3 R.1.R.3	تناول التقرير الجهود المشتركة السعودية ـ السورية
		سوريا	L.1	سوريا
		لبذل	L.1	المبذولة
		جهد	L.1	جهود
		استقرار	L.1	Synonym of أمن
		لبنان	L.1	لبنان

Table 9: Cohesive Items, Types and Presupposed Items in the Arabic Paragraph

In sentence one, 18 cohesive devices are used (i.e. 10 lexical items, 6 reference items and 2 conjunctions occur). While some of these devices link the sentence with the preceding paragraph, some others join the two clauses together. Lexical repetition is the mostly used cohesive device in this sentence (i.e. 10 repetition items are employed). In fact, the abundant use of lexical repetition is typical in AUNTs, since the stylistic features of language are abandoned for the purpose of transparency and accurateness of meaning. In this sentence, occurrences of reference items are mainly exemplified in pronominals. Both Arabic explicit and implicit pronouns function cohesively, either anaphorically or cataphorically, e.g., ذكره التقرير (ðakarahu attaqr:ir), بتنفيذ ما يخصها (bitanfi:ði ma:jaχu.s.suha:). However, the enclitic pronoun (i.e. the suffix تـ (t) in قامت qa:mat) is not considered cohesive, as it is limited to the structure of the sentence.

14 cohesive devices are identified in the second sentence. Similar to the first sentence, a high level of lexical repetition appears in this sentence: 7 elements of these devices are repetition items referring back to the same items in the previous sentence. In this sentence, 5 conjunctions are used. The conjunctive item فـ (fa) joins the two sentences together by making the second an explanation of the first one. The other conjunctive devices are also used cohesively, and they are classified as additives. One reference item, the enclitic pronoun ها (ha:) in سحبها لقواتها ومعداتها, (sa.habiha: liquwwa:tiha: wa muçidda:tiha:) is counted. The other pronouns in لقواتها ومعداتها (liquwwa:tiha: wa muçidda:tiha:) are not considered cohesive since they refer to the same unit سوريا (su:rija:). Only one example of synonymy takes place in this sentence; the word إجراء (ʔiʒra:ʔ) and the word تنفيذ (tanfi:ð), in the preceding sentence, share nearly the same meaning.

In the third sentence, there are 9 reiteration items, 3 reference items and 2 conjunctions. In addition to the 8 occurrences of repetition of the same items, the words (ʔamn) أمن and استقرار (ʔistiqra:r) are synonyms. In this sentence, the types of reference which play a cohesive role include: the definite article الـ (al) in التقرير (attaqri:r), independent pronoun هو (huwa) and comparative reference آخر (ʔa:χar).

The following paragraph is the English parallel translation of the Arabic paragraph.

2. English Paragraph (EUNT)

The references made in the report to the Syrian Arab Republic's efforts to implement the provisions of Security Council resolution 1559 (2004) are an explicit acknowledgement that Syria has fulfilled all obligations incumbent on it under that resolution (1). It is therefore no longer acceptable for the Secretary-General to introduce Syria into his reports on the implementation of resolution 1559 (2004) (2). The report notes not only that presidential and parliamentary elections took place in a free and fair manner in Lebanon (i.e., without foreign interference or influence), but also that Syria had withdrawn its troops and military equipment from Lebanon and established full diplomatic relations with Lebanon (3). The reference made in the report to joint efforts by Syria and Saudi Arabia to address the Lebanese political crisis is yet another indication that Syria is doing its utmost to preserve the security and stability of Lebanon (4).

Similar to the analysis of the Arabic paragraph, the specific cohesive items, their types and numbers in each sentence, as well as their presupposed items in the English paragraph are shown in Table 10:

Sentence N°	N° of CD[22]	Cohesive Item	Type	Presupposed Item
1	6	The	R.2	References
		The	R.2	Report
		Syria	L.1	Syria
		It	R.1	Syria
		That resolution	R.2/ L.1	Security Council resolution 1559 (2004)
2	5	Therefore	C.3	Sentence1
		Syria	L.1	Syria
		His	R.1	The Secretary-General
		Reports	L.1	Reports
		The implementation of resolution 1559 (2004)	L.1	To implement the provisions of Security Council resolution 1559 (2004)
3	10	The report	L.1	Report
		Not only… but also	C.1	Sentence2
		Parliamentary	L.2	Collocation :Presidential
		i.e.	C.1	Sentence 3
		Or	C.1	Sentence3
		Syria	L.1	Syria
		Its	R.1	Syria
		Lebanon	L.1	Lebanon
		And	C.1	Preceding clause
		Lebanon	L.1	Lebanon
4	9	The reference made in the report	L.1	The references made in the report: 1st sentence
		Efforts	L.1	Efforts
		Syria	L.1	Syria
		Lebanese	L.1	Lebanese
		Yet	C.2	Preceding clause
		Syria	L.1	Syria
		Its	R.1	Syria
		Stability	L.1	Synonym of security
		Lebanon	L.1	Lebanon

Table 10: **Cohesive Items, Types and Presupposed Items in the English Paragraph**

Unlike the Arabic paragraph, the English paragraph consists of four sentences, with a total of 30 cohesive devices. In sentence number one, two types of cohesive devices occur: reference and lexical repetition. Reference items include the definite article *the,* personal

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[22] CD refers to Cohesive Devices.

pronoun *it,* and demonstrative *that.* The definite article *the* indicates that the items *references* and *report* are identifiable in the text. The selective demonstrative *that* occurs with anaphoric function; it refers anaphorically to the *Security Council resolution 1559 (2004).* Personal pronoun *it* in this sentence refers to the item *Syria.*

5 cohesive devices are identified in the second sentence: 3 lexical repetitions, 1 conjunction and 1 reference. In addition to repetition of the same lexical items, *Syria* and *reports*, there is one phrase repetition; the phrase '*the implementation of resolution 1559 (2004)*' refers back to '*to implement the provisions of Security Council resolution 1559 (2004)*' in the precedent sentence. In this sentence, the conjunction *therefore* expresses a relation of result, and personal pronoun *his* refers anaphorically to the Secretary-General.

In the third sentence, 10 cohesive devices are used: 5 lexical items, 4 conjunctions and 1 reference. The 5 lexical cohesive devices are 4 repetitions of the same items and 1 collocation. 4 conjunctive additives are used to link these sentences closely. The subcategories of this type include complex additive *not only ... but also*, exemplificatory *i.e.*, alternative *or* and additive *and.* Only one reference item occurs in this sentence; the possessive pronoun *its* functions cohesively, as it refers anaphorically to *Syria.*

In sentence number four, 9 cohesive devices occur: 1 reference item, 1 conjunction and 7 lexical cohesive items. 6 occurrences of repetition of the same items and one example of synonymy (security=stability). The conjunctive device *yet* plays a cohesive role of adversative in this sentence and the possessive pronoun *its* refers back to the item *Syria.*

Regarding the analysis of the sample, the Arabic and English paragraphs are examined, with a view to examining the translations of cohesive devices and defining cross-language differences in the UN texts. In the following chapter, the detailed textual analysis will include

the frequency of occurrence of these devices in the two languages, the linguistic analysis and statistical interpretation of the results.

IV.3. Research Hypotheses and Questions

Two hypotheses are investigated in this study. First, since each language has its own cohesive devices and employs them following its rules, this includes the frequency of using such devices, English and Arabic would reveal differences in the types of cohesive devices and in the frequency of their use, which would considerably affect any attempt at converting a text from one language into another. Second, because Arabic and English belong to different language families, many considerable difficulties would appear when it comes to translation. Based on the latter hypothesis, shifts of Arabic cohesive devices would occur instead of being preserved in English; they would most often succeed in establishing textual equivalence. These shifts would be motivated by the translators' correct interpretation of cohesive devices at the discourse level, since they intend to produce natural products that fulfil the accuracy, transparency and formality of the UN texts.

The questions asked in this study are:

a. Are there any significant differences in the frequency of occurrence of cohesive devices between Arabic and English in the Parallel Corpus of the United Nations Texts?

b. Do the differences between Arabic and English conventions affect the choice of cohesive devices in the translation of the United Nations texts?

c. When and why do translators shift the Arabic cohesive ties into English, and do these shifts establish equivalence at the discourse level in the target language?

The questions presented above represent the working hypotheses that are tested concerning the Arabic/English translation of cohesive devices in some UN texts. The first two questions test the first hypothesis, and the third question tests the second hypothesis.

Conclusion

This chapter has summarised the methods of corpus linguistics used to investigate cohesive devices in the UN Arabic texts and their English translations. The tools and data employed in this study as well as the framework and the procedure of analysis have been presented in details. The study aims basically 1) to retrieve the cohesive devices used in the two sub-corpora and to observe variation in the way each language makes use of these devices to signal cohesion relations, and 2) to identify instances of cohesion shifts, at the textual level, in the English translations of some Arabic UN texts, in addition to justifying their occurrences.

Chapter V

Corpus Analysis

Chapter V: Corpus Analysis

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the analysis of the texts which make up the parallel corpus. It deals with both descriptive statistics for cohesive devices and significance testing for differences between these devices across the two sub-corpora (AUNTs and EUNTs). The chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section deals with the results of the semantic analysis of cohesion, in which the frequency of occurrence and percentages of these devices in each pair of texts, as well as the total number of occurrences and the average percentage of the whole corpus (PCUNTs) are recorded and presented in details. The second section presents the statistical results of the corpus. By using SPSS, the differences in the averages are subjected to a paired t-test in order to find out whether or not they are statistically significant. But, prior to providing the findings about the use of cohesive devices in the investigated UN texts, it is worth making some observations about cohesion analysis.

V.1. Analysis of the Cohesive Devices

The main points that have been taken into consideration in identifying the cohesive devices in the parallel corpus are listed in what follows:

First, regarding the reference devices, Arabic and English pronouns are examined in the same way. In both Arabic and English, when more than one pronoun refers to the same element in the previous unit, only one device is considered cohesive irrespective of how many times the pronoun is repeated. In addition, it is important to mention that not all personal pronouns are considered cohesive. The existential *it* is not considered a reference cohesive device in phrases, such as *it is clear from the paragraph*, *it should be noted*, *it is essential to say*, etc. The item *it* is cohesive only when it refers to some other items in the text. Out of 126

occurrences of the reference *it*, 86 items are considered cohesive. The following example is a screenshot of the concordance lines of the PCUNTs, which illustrates the differences. The first occurrence of *it* exemplifies the use of a *third personal reference*, while the second one is an *existential* item.

File View Hits 10   File   ENG TT 1.txt

The references made in the report to the Syrian Arab Republic's efforts to implement the provisions of Security Council resolution 1559 (2004) are an explicit acknowledgement that Syria has fulfilled all obligations incumbent on it under that resolution_ It is therefore no longer acceptable for the Secretary-General to introduce Syria into his reports on the implementation of resolution 1559 (2004)_

Figure 5: Concordance Sample of the Reference Item *it* in the PCUNTs

Moreover, the Arabic and English definite articles الـ (al) and *the* are examined in the same way. While Arabic allows definiteness before nouns and adjectives in a nominal group, English tolerates only one definite article in each nominal group. That is why only one definite article is counted regardless of how many times it occurs in the nominal group. Williams (1989) suggested that in the case of the nominal group, for example, الحزب الحاكم (al.hizb al.ha:kim) *the ruling party*, only one definite article is counted.

Furthermore, it is worth noting that while investigating the examples of demonstrative reference, demonstrative items in expressions, such as *in this regard, in this way, before that*…etc. are considered as conjunctions in this analysis. In fact, taking up this point is based on Halliday and Hasan's idea (1976) that reference devices and conjunctions sometimes overlap in meaning; that is why, in order to make it easy to analyse and compare the cohesive properties of texts, selecting one category would maintain the line of semantic consistency.

Second, as far as conjunctions are concerned, many steps have been initiated in order to identify their cohesive function in the parallel corpus. Instances of these devices at both intra-sentential and inter-sentential levels are examined. With the help of concordances, all

conjunctions are scrutinised with a view to eliminating occurrences of non-conjunctive items. For example, all occurrences of coordinators و (wa) and *and* are double-checked in order to exclude instances of enhancements (i.e. when the texts list long sequences of nouns separated from each other by means these coordinators).

The following example is an excerpt of the AUNTs sub-corpus, presenting the occurrences of the non-conjunctive device و (wa).

تؤكد الجمهورية العربية السورية، مجددا، على احترام سيادة لبنان و سلامته الإقليمية -
و وحدته و استقلاله السياسي، و على التزام سوريا بتقديم الدعم و المساعدة الممكنة
لدعم سلطته و سيادته على أنحاء الأراضي اللبنانية كافة.

Figure 6: Example of Non-cohesive Function of Arabic و (wa)

In addition, because of the multi-functional nature of few conjunctions, such as و (wa) and ف (fa), the different meanings of these items are distributed according to their appropriate functions in the texts. The following excerpts show respectively instances of resultative and explanatory ف (fa):

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، فإنني أود أن أبين موقف حكومة الجمهورية العربية
السورية من التقرير الدوري السابع عشر للأمين العام حول تنفيذ قرار مجلس الأمن رقم
١٧٠١ (٢٠٠٦):

و كانت السلطات الإسرائيلية ألقت القبض على ماجد وفداء في شهر تموز /يوليه من
العام الماضي، و هما رهن الاعتقال منذ ذلك الحين، فقد تم اعتقال فداء مباشرة عند نزوله من
الطائرة في مطار "بن غوريو ن" عائدا من فرنسا لقضاء العطلة الصيفية في الجولان بعد انتها ء
السنة الدراسية هناك، ثم قامت باعتقال والده ماجد بعد يومين من ذلك.

Figure 7: Instances of Arabic Conjunction ف (fa)[25]

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[25] Because the AntConc Software tools are not designed to handle right to left languages, the Arabic texts could not be aligned to the right correctly.

Similarly, some conjunctions, such as *since* and *then,* which hold both causal and temporal relationships depending on the context in which they occur, need to be sorted out. For example, in the parallel corpus, the conjunction *since* appears only 2 times as a causal subordinator, while in the remaining samples, it is used as a temporal conjunction (9 times). The following is an excerpt of the concordance lines of the PCUNTs which explains the differences:

The Israeli authorities arrested Majid and Fida in July 2010 and they have been in detention since that time. Fida was incarcerated from the moment he stepped off the aircraft in Ben Gurion airport. He was returning from France to spend the summer holidays in the Golan, having completed the academic year in France. His father Majid was arrested two days later.

It is of the greatest importance to Iraq that it should be able to obtain a copy of those archives, since it was on the basis of their contents that huge sums of money have been paid out, having a negative impact on the economy of the country that continues to the present day. We ask for your support in our request for access to

Figure 8: Concordance Sample of the Conjunction *since* in the PCUNTs

Third, a further factor to be taken into account in this research is the identification of lexical cohesion, particularly the occurrences of repetition items. The verb form or the plural form of one word, e.g. *work* and *works*, are considered repetition items of the same noun *work*. Phrase repetition and same word repetition are also under investigation. Other types of lexical cohesion, scrutinised in this study, include synonymy, superordinate and general terms. However, collocations are not examined because of their very low frequency in the PCUNTs. They are, nevertheless, occasionally, referred to in this study whenever it is necessary.

V.2. Semantic Analysis of the Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

This section analyses the cohesive devices in the PCUNTs. The overall frequency and distribution of the identified cohesive devices across the two sub-corpora AUNTs and EUNTs are sorted out in Table 11. Then, the different categories of cohesion are examined separately in more details. The figures listed in the following table present the overall results of the cohesive analysis. It shows a total of 7131 of the five types of cohesive devices in AUNTs, and a total of 5597 in EUNTS.

Corpus	AUN Texts		EUN Texts	
Cohesive Devices	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Reference	2528	35.40	1169	20.88
Substitution and Ellipsis	143	02.00	86	01.53
Conjunction	895	12.55	596	10.64
Lexical Cohesion	3565	49.99	3746	66.92
Total	**7131**	**100%**	**5597**	**100%**

Table 11: Cohesive Devices Frequencies and Percentages

The word frequency analysis reveals that the two sub-corpora follow the same descending orders in terms of their frequencies. In the AUNTs, lexical cohesion is the most frequently used device (49.99%) followed by reference (35.40%) and conjunction (12.55%). Both substitution and ellipsis (02.00%) appear with very low frequencies. Similar to the AUNTs, the mostly used devices in EUNTs are lexical cohesion (66.92%), followed by reference (20.88%) and then conjunction (10.64%). Both substitution and ellipsis are also of very low in frequency (01.53%). Therefore, it can be said that the three mostly used cohesive devices are lexical cohesion, reference and conjunction. The distribution of these devices in

the two sub-corpora follows the same pattern, though the differences appear in their frequency of occurrence. It is evident also that substitution and ellipsis are of little use and are rather secondary phenomena in the two sub-corpora.

V.2.1. Semantic Analysis of the Individual Categories of Cohesion

What follows is the analysis of the semantic relationships of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Each group of devices is discussed separately. The frequency of occurrence of these devices and their subcategories are counted and then calculated as a percentage in each pair of texts. The average percentage of the whole corpus is also calculated in order to reveal to what extent the corpus depends on those particular types of cohesive devices. The results of the parallel corpus analysis are as follows:

V.2.1.1. Reference Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

As previously examined in Chapter Three, reference is the relationship which holds between linguistic expressions and their representations in the real world. In this study, however, reference is limited to the relationship between two expressions in the same context. The categories of reference include pronominals (R.1), demonstratives and the definite article *the* (R.2), comparatives (R.3), and other types (R.4), i.e. *blend words* and *numbering references*, which are attributed to the language of the UN texts. The following table presents the overall frequency of occurrence and percentage of the four subcategories of reference in each pair of texts in the whole corpus:

Corpus Reference	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	103	19.84	45	07.74
Text 2	90	21.95	45	09.49
Text 3	118	29.72	37	07.29
Text 4	48	24.61	25	09.92
Text 5	147	17.60	84	08.56
Text 6	151	19.04	66	07.09
Text 7	81	23.54	48	10.43
Text 8	189	18.84	90	07.90
Text 9	90	16.94	34	05.91
Text 10	148	15.57	95	07.61
Text 11	76	18.58	33	06.93
Text 12	66	12.74	24	05.04
Text 13	64	16.84	43	09.47
Text 14	228	14.02	114	07.17
Text 15	115	17.24	48	06.18
Text 16	265	14.26	117	09.36
Text 17	116	25.10	33	06.39
Text 18	209	16.46	71	05.68
Text 19	104	11.07	60	05.67
Text 20	120	17.06	57	06.50

Table 12: Reference Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

The table reveals that reference devices are much more used in the Arabic STs than in the English translated texts. For most of the occurrences, the Arabic STs display about a double of what is displayed in the English translated texts. This is most notable in texts 3 and 17. The average percentage of the use of reference in the two sub-corpora is provided in the following table:

Reference	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	2528	1169
Average Percentage	18.55	07.51

Table 13: Reference Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

As gleaned from Table 13, AUNTs exhibit a total of 2528 of four types of reference devices, whereas EUNTs show a total of 1169. By comparing the average use of reference in the Arabic STs and the English TTs, it can be said that there is a considerable difference in the

use of this category between the two sub-corpora. Reference items are relatively more frequent in Arabic than in English. The results of this comparison will be confirmed when dealing with their statistical significance later in section V.3.

V.2.1.1. Subcategories of Reference as a Cohesive Device in the PCUNTs

A detailed analysis of the subcategories of reference items is provided in Table 14 below:

Corpus	AUN Texts		EUN Texts	
Reference	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Pronominals	1390	54.98	500	42.77
Demonstratives	982	38.84	459	39.26
Comparatives	53	02.09	92	07.86
Others	103	04.07	118	10.09
Total	2528	**100%**	1169	**100%**

Table 14: Subcategories of Reference Frequencies and Percentages

As it is apparent from these figures, while the two sub-corpora display fairly obvious differences in terms of the frequency of reference relations, they reveal an identical distribution of these subcategories. Pronominals or personal reference (54.98% in AUNTs and 42.77% in EUNTs) is the most prevalent subcategory of reference in the parallel corpus, followed by demonstratives (38.84% in AUNTs and 39.26% in EUNTs), and then, other types of reference (*blend words* and *numbering references*), which characterise the language of legal texts, (04.07% in AUNTs and, 10.09% in EUNT). Comparatives, however, occur with very low frequencies (02.09% in AUNTs and 07.86% in EUNTs). Thus, it can be said that while AUNTs depend on pronominals and demonstratives more than EUNTs do, comparatives and other types are found in EUNTs more frequently than in AUNTs.

a) Pronominal Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

The category of pronominals or personal reference includes personal pronouns (I, me, you, he, him, she, her, they, them, etc.), possessive determiners (my, your, his, her, etc.) and possessive pronouns (mine, yours, his, hers, etc.). Their equivalents in Arabic are found in section III.2.2. For the purpose of analysis, these reference devices are included under one category when calculating their frequency of occurrence and percentage. The frequency of pronominal reference items in this corpus is demonstrated in the following table:

Corpus Pronominals	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	66	12.71	25	04.30
Text 2	43	10.48	09	01.89
Text 3	55	13.85	14	02.76
Text 4	23	11.79	10	03.96
Text 5	95	11.37	32	03.26
Text 6	87	10.97	23	02.47
Text 7	39	11.33	22	04.78
Text 8	121	12.06	44	03.86
Text 9	55	10.35	14	02.43
Text 10	74	07.78	35	02.80
Text 11	44	10.75	15	03.15
Text 12	44	08.49	07	01.22
Text 13	39	10.26	18	03.96
Text 14	136	08.36	48	02.39
Text 15	70	10.49	30	03.86
Text 16	147	07.91	44	02.02
Text 17	47	10.17	14	02.71
Text 18	102	08.03	33	02.64
Text 19	43	04.57	31	02.93
Text 20	60	08.53	32	03.65

Table 15: Pronominal Reference in the PCUNTs

The table shows that the two sub-corpora display quite obvious differences in terms of the frequency of pronominals. The frequency of use of the Arabic STs pronominal reference is higher than the English TTs. The most marked differences appear in texts 2 and 3.

Pronominal Reference	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	1390	500
Average Percentage	10.01	03.05

Table 16: Pronominal Reference Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

Table 16 reveals that the average use of pronominals in the Arabic sub-corpus is greater than the one in the English one. This implies that Arabic relies on pronominal reference much more than English does.

b) Demonstrative Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

The results include both demonstratives (this, that, these, those, here and there) and the definite article *the*. Their frequency and percentage are computed under this one category. These two subcategories density and distribution across the two sub-corpora are as follows:

Demonstratives	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	30	05.78	15	2.58
Text 2	45	10.97	28	5.9
Text 3	59	14.86	18	3.55
Text 4	22	11.28	11	4.36
Text 5	50	05.98	37	3.77
Text 6	49	06.18	28	3.01
Text 7	41	11.91	22	4.78
Text 8	61	06.08	30	2.63
Text 9	32	06.02	13	2.26
Text 10	59	06.21	47	3.76
Text 11	28	06.84	14	2.94
Text 12	21	04.05	10	1.74
Text 13	26	06.84	20	4.40
Text 14	65	03.99	35	1.74
Text 15	40	5.99	15	1.93
Text 16	91	4.89	36	1.65
Text 17	59	12.77	24	4.65
Text 18	98	7.72	24	1.92
Text 19	53	5.64	18	1.70
Text 20	53	7.53	14	1.59

Table 17: Demonstrative Reference in the PCUNTs

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The figures listed in Table 17 indicate that the Arabic sub-corpus exhibits a greater use of demonstrative items compared to the English translated sub-corpus. All the twenty Arabic STs show a higher percentage of use of this subcategory in comparison to their English counterparts. More than half of the Arabic STs show a higher use of demonstratives with almost a double, and the greater differences are found in texts 3, 7 and 17. The differences between Arabic STs and English TTs are evident in the comparison of their mean values, as demonstrated in the table below:

Demonstrative Reference	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	982	459
Average Percentage	7.57	3.04

Table 18: Demonstrative Reference Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

The data listed in the table show that the average use of demonstratives is relatively higher in Arabic than in English.

c) Comparative Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

Comparative reference includes lexical items which are being compared, either through identity, similarity or difference. They include: *same*, *identical*, *different*, *else*, *better*, *more*, etc. and adverbs like *equally*, *similarly*, *so*, *such*, *more*, etc. These devices and their equivalents in Arabic have been discussed previously in Chapter Three. The comparison between the frequencies of occurrence of comparatives across the pair of texts yields the following results:

Comparatives	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	1	0.19	2	0.34
Text 2	3	0.73	2	0.42
Text 3	3	0.75	4	0.78
Text 4	0	0.00	1	0.39
Text 5	2	0.23	4	0.40
Text 6	3	0.37	3	0.32
Text 7	1	0.29	4	0.87
Text 8	1	0.10	4	0.35
Text 9	0	0.00	1	0.17
Text 10	6	0.63	5	0.40
Text 11	1	0.24	2	0.42
Text 12	0	0.00	4	0.70
Text 13	1	0.26	1	0.22
Text 14	7	0.43	11	0.54
Text 15	2	0.30	4	0.51
Text 16	5	0.26	13	0.59
Text 17	1	0.21	1	0.19
Text 18	6	0.47	9	0.72
Text 19	5	0.53	7	0.66
Text 20	5	0.71	10	1.14

Table 19: Comparative Reference in the PCUNTs

Unlike pronominal reference items and demonstratives, which come out with high frequencies in the two sub-corpora, comparative items appear with very low frequencies. That is to say, all the English TTs contain very few items of this category (the maximum number of comparatives contained in EUNTs is 13 items per text), whereas the frequency of these devices in AUNTs is not only much less frequent (only 6 comparative items can be found per text as a maximum), but also equals to zero in three texts (texts 4, 9 and 12). The differences between the two sub-corpora are shown in the following table:

Comparative Reference	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	53	92
Average Percentage	0.33	0.50

Table 20: Comparative Reference Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

The data in Table 20 show that although comparatives are very few in the two sub-corpora, the average use of this sub-category is relatively higher in English than in Arabic.

d) Blend Words and Numbering Reference in the PCUNTs

Blend words and numbering references, which do not appear in Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy (1976), are classified here under a separate category (other types). Their analysis is very important because it is a specificity of the language of law. Blend words, such as *hereby*, *herewith*, and *herein* are essential to ensure the accuracy of legal texts. It is through a specific reference to the whole text or to any of its parts that textual cohesion is maintained in the UN texts. Also, the use of articulation and numbering, as in *the Security Council resolution 497 (1981)* and *resolution 65/18*, demonstrate that the numbers of resolutions significantly refer to specific and prior resolutions. The frequency and percentage of this category in the PCUNTs are in the following table:

Other Types	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	6	1.15	3	0.51
Text 2	3	0.73	4	0.84
Text 3	1	0.25	2	0.39
Text 4	3	1.53	4	1.58
Text 5	10	1.19	11	1.12
Text 6	12	1.51	12	1.29
Text 7	0	0.00	2	0.43
Text 8	12	1.19	12	1.05
Text 9	2	0.37	4	0.69
Text 10	10	1.05	10	0.80
Text 11	4	0.97	3	0.63
Text 12	3	0.57	3	0.52
Text 13	4	1.05	4	0.88
Text 14	20	1.23	20	0.99
Text 15	3	0.44	3	0.38
Text 16	12	0.64	12	0.55
Text 17	1	0.21	1	0.19
Text 18	3	0.23	5	0.40
Text 19	3	0.31	4	0.37
Text 20	1	0.14	1	0.11

Table 21: Blend Words and Numbering References in the PCUNTs

The table shows that blend words, articulation and numbering are typical of legal texts. It demonstrates that AUNTs use these items quite similarly to the EUNTs (half of the texts display equal number of items; yet, slight differences can be found in the remaining texts).

Other Types	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total Occurrence	103	118
Average Percentage	0.73	0.68

Table 22: Blend Words and Numbering References Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

The data in Table 22 show that the average use of blend words and numbering references in the Arabic sub-corpus is almost identical to the ones in the English sub-corpus.

V.2.1.2. Substitution and Ellipsis in the PCUNTs

Because of their very low frequencies of occurrence compared to the three mostly used cohesive devices (lexical cohesion, reference and conjunction), the resulting substitution and ellipsis are displayed, here. The frequency and percentage of these two categories in this corpus are shown in the following table:

Corpus	AUNTs			EUNTs		
	N° of Occurrences		Percentage	N° of Occurrences		Percentage
S and E	Substitution	Ellipsis	%	Substitution	Ellipsis	%
Text 1	4	8	8.39	4	1	5.81
Text 2	3	3	4.19	3	1	4.65
Text 3	2	3	3.50	0	0	0.00
Text 4	3	0	2.09	2	2	4.65
Text 5	9	7	11.18	8	0	9.30
Text 6	11	3	9.79	7	0	8.13
Text 7	1	3	2.80	2	0	2.32
Text 8	10	2	8.39	5	0	5.81
Text 9	0	1	0.70	3	1	4.65
Text 10	0	4	2.80	4	5	10.46
Text 11	3	1	2.80	6	1	8.13
Text 12	6	1	4.89	1	1	2.32
Text 13	5	1	4.19	3	1	4.65
Text 14	10	5	10.49	6	0	6.97
Text 15	3	3	4.19	0	0	0.00
Text 16	5	3	5.59	6	0	6.97
Text 17	6	1	4.89	3	0	3.49
Text 18	4	2	4.19	5	0	5.81
Text 19	5	0	3.49	2	0	2.32
Text 20	1	1	1.40	3	0	3.48

Table 23: Substitution and Ellipsis in the PCUNTs

As the table shows, substitution and ellipsis are quite scarce in the two sub-corpora; they are of little use and may be considered marginal phenomena. These categories are found with a very low frequency in all the selected texts. It is evident from the table that the frequency of substitution is higher than that of ellipsis. As far as ellipsis is concerned, its frequency of occurrence is the lowest in comparison to all the subcategories of cohesion. The figures listed show that most of the texts do not contain any ellipsis item (only in eight out of

twenty texts, instances of ellipsis are identified in English TTs), while in the remaining ones they are of very low frequencies.

Substitution and Ellipsis	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total Occurrence	143	86
Average Percentage	4.99	4.99

Table 24: Substitution and Ellipsis Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

As previously seen in Table 11, the results show that substitution and ellipsis account for 2% of all occurrences of cohesive devices in AUNTs, while they stand for 1.53% in EUNTs. Because they are very infrequent in the two sub-corpora, it is not important to discuss their occurrences in the PCUNTs or to provide a justification of their use.

V.2.1.3. Conjunction Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

Conjunction is the third most widely used semantic category in the parallel corpus. The types of conjunctive relations, additive, adversative, causal, and temporal, occurring at both intra-sentential and inter-sentential levels are considered important. Similar to the analysis of reference, the results of conjunction as a cohesive device in the UN texts are presented in Table 25.

Conjunction	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	33	6.35	21	3.61
Text 2	26	6.34	14	2.95
Text 3	27	6.80	17	3.35
Text 4	13	8.17	11	4.36
Text 5	52	6.22	33	3.36
Text 6	53	6.68	39	4.19
Text 7	25	7.26	24	5.21
Text 8	66	6.58	46	4.04
Text 9	28	5.27	18	3.13
Text 10	53	5.57	49	3.92
Text 11	26	6.35	16	3.36
Text 12	23	4.44	14	2.44
Text 13	31	8.15	16	3.52
Text 14	91	5.59	60	2.99
Text 15	25	3.74	21	2.70
Text 16	109	5.86	69	3.17
Text 17	23	4.97	16	3.10
Text 18	98	7.72	41	3.28
Text 19	48	5.11	34	3.21
Text 20	45	6.40	37	4.22

Table 25: Conjunctive Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

The table reveals that conjunctions are comparatively higher in use in the Arabic STs than in the English TTs. All occurrences of conjunction are of a high frequency in the Arabic sub-corpus compared to its English counterpart. The highest use of conjunctions in Arabic STs is found in text 18 (Appendix A), whereas its English counterpart is considerably lower. The average percentage of the use of this category in the two sub-corpora is provided in what follows:

Conjunction	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	895	596
Average Percentage	6.17	3.50

Table 26: Conjunction Frequency and Average Percentage of in the PCUNTs

In Table 26, AUNTs shows 895 of the five types of conjunctions, whereas EUNTs show 596. By comparing the average use of this category in the Arabic STs and the English TTs, it can be said that there is a major difference in the use of this category between the two

sub-corpora. Conjunctions are relatively more frequent in Arabic than in English. The results will be confirmed when dealing with the statistical significance in section V.3.

V.2.1.3.1. Subcategories of Conjunctive Devices in the PCUNTs

Comparing the frequencies of use of conjunction in the AUNTs and EUNTs reveals some interesting details. The subcategories of conjunctive items are shown in Table 27:

Corpus	AUN Texts		EUN Texts	
Conjunctive Devices	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Additive	585	65.36	303	50.83
Adversative	27	03.01	21	03.52
Causal	136	15.19	102	17.11
Temporal	96	10.72	83	13.92
Others	52	05.81	89	14.93
Total	895	**100%**	596	**100%**

Table 27: Frequencies and Percentages of Subcategories of Conjunction

A glance at the table reveals that additives (65.36% in AUNTs and 50.83% in EUNTs) are the most frequent devices of conjunctions, followed by causals (15.19% in AUNTs and 17.11% in EUNTs) and temporals (10.72% in AUNTs and 13.92% in EUNTs). Adversatives, however, are found to be the least frequently used in the PCUNTs (03.01% in AUNTs and 03.52% in EUNTs). Other types of conjunctions, i.e. continuative conjunctions are also of low frequencies (05.81% in AUNTs and 14.93% in EUNTs); they rank fourth and third, respectively, in the two sub-corpora.

a) Additive Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

In Table 27, the overall percentages of additive conjunctions in the PCUNTs constitute half the overall occurrences of conjunctive devices (65.36% in AUNTs and 50.83% in EUNTs).

Additives	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	15	2.89	11	1.89
Text 2	18	4.39	7	1.47
Text 3	15	3.77	5	0.98
Text 4	8	4.10	5	1.98
Text 5	32	3.83	17	1.73
Text 6	30	3.78	12	1.29
Text 7	11	3.19	9	1.95
Text 8	42	4.18	22	1.93
Text 9	19	3.57	6	1.04
Text 10	38	4.00	24	1.92
Text 11	18	4.40	6	1.26
Text 12	16	3.08	6	1.04
Text 13	20	5.26	9	1.98
Text 14	62	3.81	36	1.79
Text 15	16	2.39	14	1.80
Text 16	69	3.71	38	1.75
Text 17	17	3.67	10	1.93
Text 18	67	5.27	15	1.20
Text 19	38	4.04	23	2.17
Text 20	34	4.83	28	3.19

Table 28: Additive Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

In the table above, the most noticeable difference between the two sub-corpora lies in the frequency of additives, which seems to be more frequent in Arabic than in English. The figures show that all the Arabic STs exhibit higher use of additives than English TTs do. The greater occurrence of additives in the two sub-corpora appears in text 18, in which 67 instances of additives are located in Arabic, whereas only 15 additive items are found in its English counterpart.

Additive Conjunctions	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	585	303
Average Percentage	3.90	1.66

Table 29: Additive Conjunctions Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

As the table shows, the average use of additives in the Arabic sub-corpus is greater in comparison to the one in the English one. It is important to mention that one striking difference between the two sub-corpora lies in the frequency of use of Arabic conjunction و (wa) and its English equivalent *and*. The distribution of these conjunctions in the PCUNTs is shown in what follows:

i) Distribution and Occurrence of the Conjunctions و (wa) and *and* in the PCUNTs

The wordlist function of the AntConc Software tool reveals that the most remarkable difference between the two sub-corpora lies in the frequency of additives و (wa) (1167 word tokens) and *and* (680 word tokens), which are significantly different. In fact, the Arabic و (wa) as shown in Figure 9 is the most frequent of all conjunctions in this language and ranks first in all Arabic words, whereas English *and* ranks third in the English words. As the results of the corpus analysis show, the conjunctions و (wa) and *and* appear to be the most significant additive in the parallel corpus. This finding corroborates with a number of previous studies, e.g. Williams (1989) and Al-Jabr (1987), on the occurrences of these conjunctions as the most frequent devices in Arabic and English texts. However, a close examination of the concordances shows that only 404 of instances of و (wa) are considered cohesive, and a total of 198 relevant instances of *and* as a cohesive device are extracted by the concordancer.

Figure 9: **Frequency Distribution of Additives** و **(wa) and** *and* **in the PCUNTs**

b) Adversative Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

This subcategory is the least conjunctive device used in the parallel corpus. The frequency of occurrence and average percentage of this semantic relation in the PCUNTs are shown in the following table:

Adversatives	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	2	0.38	1	0.17
Text 2	0	0.00	0	0.00
Text 3	2	0.50	2	0.42
Text 4	0	0.00	0	0.00
Text 5	1	0.11	1	0.10
Text 6	1	0.12	1	0.10
Text 7	1	0.29	0	0.00
Text 8	3	0.29	2	0.17
Text 9	1	0.18	1	0.17
Text 10	4	0.42	5	0.40
Text 11	0	0.00	0	0.00
Text 12	2	0.38	2	0.34
Text 13	0	0.00	1	0.22
Text 14	3	0.18	1	0.05
Text 15	2	0.30	2	0.25
Text 16	2	0.10	1	0.04
Text 17	0	0.00	0	0.00
Text 18	2	0.15	1	0.08
Text 19	1	0.10	0	0.00
Text 20	0	0.00	0	0.00

Table 30: Adversative Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

As the table shows, adversative conjunctions are quite scarce in the two sub-corpora. Occurrences of this category are very few in both AUNTs and EUNTs. In AUNTs adversative conjunction makes up only 03.01% of all the conjunctive devices, and in EUNTs adversative conjunction has only 03.52%. In the Arabic sub-corpus, most of the occurrences (fourteen out of twenty texts) exhibit instances of adversatives, while the remaining occurrences (six out of twenty) equal to zero. Similarly, the English sub-corpus displays very few adversative items; while adversatives are found in thirteen out of twenty texts, their occurrences equal to zero in seven out of twenty texts.

Adversative Conjunctions	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	27	21
Average Percentage	0.17	0.12

Table 31: Adversative Conjunctions Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

It is evident from Table 31 that the average use of adversatives in the two sub-corpora is scarce and almost identical. Because this semantic category is very infrequent in the parallel corpus, it is not important to provide an explanation of their occurrences.

c) Causal Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

Causal conjunctions are the second most widely used conjunctive devices in the parallel corpus. The comparison between the frequencies of occurrence of causals in the parallel corpus yields the following results:

Causals	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	1	0.19	7	1.20
Text 2	4	0.97	1	0.21
Text 3	5	1.25	3	0.59
Text 4	3	1.53	2	0.79
Text 5	15	1.79	8	0.81
Text 6	15	1.89	11	1.18
Text 7	9	2.61	10	2.17
Text 8	16	1.59	8	0.7
Text 9	3	0.56	6	1.04
Text 10	2	0.21	7	0.56
Text 11	3	0.73	3	0.63
Text 12	2	0.38	2	0.34
Text 13	3	0.78	2	0.44
Text 14	13	0.8	9	0.44
Text 15	2	0.30	1	0.12
Text 16	16	0.86	7	0.32
Text 17	2	0.43	1	0.19
Text 18	15	1.18	8	0.64
Text 19	5	0.53	3	0.28
Text 20	2	0.28	3	0.34

Table 32: Causal Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

From the table above, the two sub-corpora display slight differences in terms of the frequency of occurrence of causals. The frequency of use of causals in Arabic STs is higher than in the English TTs. The most obvious differences appear in texts 5, 8 and 18.

Causal Conjunctions	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	136	102
Average Percentage	0.94	0.65

Table 33: Causal Conjunctions Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

The figures in the table show that the average use of causal conjunctions in the Arabic sub-corpus is slightly higher than the one in the English sub-corpus. Although the frequency of occurrence is not quite high, it can be said that there are obvious differences between Arabic texts and their English translations. This will be confirmed in section V.3.

d) Temporal Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

The frequency and percentage of temporals in the PCUNTs are in the following table:

Temporals	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	2	0.38	1	0.17
Text 2	3	0.73	4	0.84
Text 3	2	0.50	4	0.78
Text 4	5	2.56	4	1.58
Text 5	2	0.23	1	0.10
Text 6	5	0.63	9	0.96
Text 7	2	0.58	3	0.65
Text 8	6	0.59	4	0.35
Text 9	4	0.75	2	0.34
Text 10	5	0.52	6	0.48
Text 11	2	0.48	4	0.84
Text 12	2	0.38	3	0.52
Text 13	5	1.31	4	0.88
Text 14	8	0.49	4	0.20
Text 15	1	0.15	3	0.38
Text 16	14	0.75	9	0.41
Text 17	3	0.64	3	0.58
Text 18	11	0.86	10	0.80
Text 19	10	1.06	3	0.28
Text 20	4	0.56	2	0.22

Table 34: Temporal Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

The table demonstrates that the two sub-corpora tend to use temporal conjunctions quite similarly (most of the texts display almost the same number of items; yet, slight differences can be found in text 19).

Temporal Conjunctions	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	96	83
Average Percentage	0.70	0.56

Table 35: Temporal Conjunctions Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

The figures in the table reveal that the average use of temporal conjunctions in the Arabic sub-corpus is almost the same compared to the one in the English sub-corpus.

e) Continuative Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

The comparison between the occurrences of continuatives yields the following results:

Corpus Continuatives	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	2	0.38	1	0.17
Text 2	1	0.24	2	0.42
Text 3	3	0.75	2	0.39
Text 4	0	0	0	0
Text 5	2	0.23	6	0.61
Text 6	2	0.25	6	0.64
Text 7	2	0.58	2	0.43
Text 8	2	0.20	10	0.87
Text 9	1	0.18	3	0.52
Text 10	4	0.42	7	0.56
Text 11	3	0.73	3	0.63
Text 12	1	0.19	1	0.17
Text 13	0	0	0	0
Text 14	5	0.30	10	0.49
Text 15	3	0.44	4	0.51
Text 16	8	0.43	14	0.65
Text 17	1	0.21	1	0.19
Text 18	5	0.39	7	0.56
Text 19	4	0.42	6	0.56
Text 20	3	0.42	4	0.45

Table 36: Continuative Conjunctions in the PCUNTs

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As gleaned from Table 36, the two sub-corpora display slight differences in terms of the frequency of occurrence of continuatives. The frequency of use of this category in the English TTs is higher than the Arabic STs. The most obvious difference appears in text 8. It is evident, therefore, that continuatives are used much less frequently in the parallel corpus.

Continuative Conjunctions	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	52	89
Average Percentage	0.33	0.44

Table 37: Continuative Conjunctions Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

Table 37 shows that the average use of continuative conjunctions in the English sub-corpus is slightly higher than the one in the Arabic sub-corpus. Again, because this difference is not quite obvious, it cannot be said that there are significant differences between Arabic texts and their English translations. This will be confirmed in the section V.3.

V.2.1.4. Lexical Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

Lexical cohesion refers to the semantic relations between lexical items so as to form a text, and create cohesion. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:274) "[It is] the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary." Therefore, lexical cohesion plays an important role in joining the text together, as it is concerned with the relationships between words. Lexical cohesion is classified into two subcategories: *reiteration* and *collocation*. In what follows, and for the purpose of this research, only the first category is under investigation, while the latter is overlooked, as it appears with very low frequencies.

V.2.1.4.1. Subcategories of Lexical Cohesive Devices

The comparison of the frequencies of lexical cohesion in AUNTs and EUNTs reveals some interesting details. The frequency of occurrence and percentage of this device in the PCUNTs are shown in the following table:

Corpus	AUN Texts		EUN Texts	
Lexical Cohesion	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Reiteration	3232	90.65	3089	82.46
Collocation	333	09.34	657	17.53
Total	**3565**	**100%**	**3746**	**100%**

Table 38: Lexical Cohesion Frequencies and Percentages

As shown in Table 38, reiteration is the dominant device in AUNTs and EUNTs in terms of occurrence (90.65% in AUNTs and 82.46% in EUNTs), while collocation shows a very low frequency (9.34% in AUNTs and 17.53% in EUNTs). The data accumulated in this corpus show that lexical reiteration is much more frequent in AUNTs, whereas lexical collocation is employed more frequently in EUNTs. Lexical reiteration appears with higher frequencies, since it uses lexical relationships by repeating the same items in the text or by reasserting their meanings through the use of synonyms, superordinate or general words.

a) Reiteration in the PCUNTs

Lexical reiteration is divided into the following cohesive relations: repetition, synonyms (or near-synonyms), superordinate and general words. The frequency of occurrence and percentage of this lexical device in the PCUNTs are as follows:

Lexical Reiteration	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	119	22.92	118	20.30
Text 2	79	19.26	81	17/08
Text 3	68	17.12	68	13.41
Text 4	33	16.92	34	13.49
Text 5	213	25.50	190	19.36
Text 6	217	27.36	225	24.19
Text 7	69	20.05	68	14.78
Text 8	237	23.62	246	21.61
Text 9	115	21.65	90	15.65
Text 10	174	18.31	161	12.91
Text 11	104	25.42	83	17.43
Text 12	103	19.88	115	20.10
Text 13	89	23.42	87	19.16
Text 14	284	17.46	314	15.64
Text 15	127	19.04	122	15.72
Text 16	455	24.48	469	21.60
Text 17	96	20.80	80	15.50
Text 18	308	24.27	192	15.36
Text 19	174	18.53	182	17.21
Text 20	168	23.90	164	18.72

Table 39: Lexical Reiteration in the PCUNTs

Table 39 reveals that reiteration items are more used in the AUNTs than in its English counterpart. For most of the occurrences of reiteration, the Arabic STs comparatively display higher use of reiteration items than the English translated texts. The highest use of this device in Arabic STs is in texts 5, 6 and 11 (which consist of more than 25% of total words); whereas in English TTs, the highest percentage of reiteration does not exceed 21% .The average percentage of the use of reiteration in the two sub-corpora is provided in Table 40:

Reiteration	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	3232	3089
Average Percentage	21.51	17.46

Table 40: Lexical Reiteration Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

The above table shows that the proportion of lexical reiteration in AUNTs is higher than that of EUNTs. It is evident that AUNTs exhibit a total of 3232 of four types of

reiteration devices, whereas EUNTs show a total of 3089. By comparing the average use of lexical reiteration in the Arabic STs and the English TTs, it can be said that a considerable difference is found in the use of this category between the two sub-corpora. Whereas reiteration relations are relatively more frequent in Arabic, they are less frequent in English. The results of comparison will be confirmed when dealing with the statistical significance later in section V.3.

The subcategories of this device are revealed in Table 41below:

Corpus	AUN Texts		EUN Texts	
Reiteration	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Repetition	2725	84.31	2500	80.93
Synonyms	157	4.85	217	7.02
Superordinate	187	5.78	197	6.37
General Words	163	5.04	155	5.01
Total	**3232**	**100**	**3089**	**100**

Table 41: Reiteration Devices Frequencies and Percentages

As it can be seen from the table above, the two sub-corpora follow different decreasing orders in terms of frequency of use. In the AUNTs, lexical repetition is the most prevalent subcategory of reiteration in the parallel corpus (84.31%), followed by superordinate terms (5.78%) and general words (5.04%). However, the category of synonyms (4.85%) appears to be the least used lexical reiteration device; it occurs with very low frequencies. Unlike the AUNTs, the mostly used devices in EUNTs are lexical repetition (80.93%), followed by synonyms (7.02%) and then superordinate terms (6.37%). The category of general words is the least used lexical reiteration device in the English sub-corpus (5.01%).

It is evident therefore that both AUNTs and EUNTs depend heavily on repetition. In fact, these results are not unusual as they are in line with other studies, e.g. Hoey (1991), Williams (1989) and Giannossa (2012), who demonstrated that lexical repetition shows the highest frequency of use of all lexical cohesion devices. Henceforth, the data obtained reveal that lexical repetition is the most important device. The percentages of other relations are less dense in the two sub-corpora; yet, the category of synonyms is slightly higher than that of superordinate and general words in EUNTs.

i) Repetition in the PCUNTs

The occurrence of lexical repetition, the most prevailing type of reiteration, is as follows:

Repetition	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	93	17.91	81	13.94
Text 2	57	13.90	57	12.02
Text 3	48	12.09	38	7.49
Text 4	25	12.82	23	9.12
Text 5	170	20.35	140	14.27
Text 6	167	21.05	161	17.31
Text 7	58	16.86	55	11.95
Text 8	199	19.84	188	16.52
Text 9	96	18.07	73	12.69
Text 10	156	16.42	136	10.90
Text 11	81	19.80	68	14.28
Text 12	85	16.40	92	16.08
Text 13	74	19.47	68	14.97
Text 14	251	15.43	272	13.55
Text 15	110	16.49	91	11.72
Text 16	404	21.74	423	19.48
Text 17	71	15.36	61	11.82
Text 18	280	22.06	171	13.68
Text 19	155	16.50	161	15.23
Text 20	145	20.62	141	16.09

Table 42: Repetition in the PCUNTs

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The figures listed in Table 41 show a total of 2725 of repetition in AUNTs, whereas EUNTs show a total of 2500. In other words, AUNTs tend to use repetition (84.31%) more than their English counterparts (80.93%). Thus, it can be said that lexical repetition is of a high frequency and inevitable in the organisation of UN texts across the two languages. The highest occurrence of repetition in AUNTs is indicated in text 18, while in EUNTs it appears in text 16.

Repetition	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	2725	2500
Average Percentage	17.65	13.65

Table 43: Repetition Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

As the figures show, the average use of repetition in the Arabic sub-corpus is slightly higher than the one in the English one. Although this difference is to some extent considerable, it cannot be said if there are significant differences between the Arabic texts and their English translations. The findings will be confirmed in the analysis of inferential statistics in section V.3.

ii) Synonyms

Synonyms are the second most widely used reiteration devices in the English sub-corpus and the least frequently used in the AUNTs. The comparison between the frequencies of occurrence of synonyms in the parallel corpus yields the following results:

Synonymy	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	14	2.69	22	3.78
Text 2	6	1.46	10	2.10
Text 3	9	2.26	13	2.56
Text 4	2	1.02	2	0.79
Text 5	15	1.79	20	2.03
Text 6	15	1.89	21	2.25
Text 7	0	0.00	0	0.00
Text 8	17	1.69	27	2.37
Text 9	4	0.75	7	1.21
Text 10	6	0.63	6	1.26
Text 11	6	1.46	5	1.05
Text 12	8	1.54	8	1.39
Text 13	5	1.31	5	1.10
Text 14	12	0.73	20	0.99
Text 15	11	1.64	18	2.31
Text 16	13	0.69	24	1.10
Text 17	9	1.94	3	0.58
Text 18	2	0.15	1	0.08
Text 19	2	0.21	1	0.09
Text 20	1	0.14	4	0.45

Table 44: Synonyms in the PCUNTs

The table shows that the two sub-corpora display slight differences in terms of the frequency of synonyms. The frequency of use of the Arabic STs synonyms is lower than the English TTs. The most marked differences appear in texts 1, 8 and 17.

Synonymy	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	157	217
Average Percentage	1.19	1.37

Table 45: Synonyms Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

The average use of this category in the English sub-corpus is greater than the one in the Arabic sub-corpus as demonstrated in the figures in the table above. This implies that English relies heavily on synonyms more than Arabic does. Arabic instead shows preference for repetition as already seen.

iii) Superordinate Terms

The superordinate terms occurrence frequency and average percentage in the PCUNTs are in the following table:

Superordinate Terms	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	9	1.73	10	1.72
Text 2	10	2.44	7	1.47
Text 3	7	1.76	3	0.59
Text 4	4	2.05	1	0.39
Text 5	5	0.59	13	1.32
Text 6	17	2.14	24	2.58
Text 7	2	0.58	5	1.08
Text 8	6	0.59	18	1.58
Text 9	12	2.25	7	1.21
Text 10	7	0.73	8	0.64
Text 11	8	1.95	4	0.84
Text 12	5	0.96	11	1.92
Text 13	3	0.78	6	1.32
Text 14	19	1.16	18	0.98
Text 15	2	0.30	11	1.41
Text 16	18	0.96	11	0.50
Text 17	11	2.38	7	1.35
Text 18	15	1.18	13	1.04
Text 19	11	1.17	15	1.41
Text 20	16	2.27	15	1.71

Table 46: Superordinate Terms in the PCUNTs

In the table above, the two sub-corpora display slight differences in the superordinate occurrence frequency. Their frequency of use in the English TTs is higher than in the Arabic STs. Their highest use in English TTs is found in text 6, whereas in Arabic STs, it is found in text 2. The most obvious differences between the two sub-corpora appear in texts 5, 8 and 15.

Superordinate Terms	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	187	197
Average Percentage	1.35	1.25

Table 47: Superordinate Terms Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

It is evident from Table 47 that the average use of superordinate terms in the two sub-corpora is almost identical. Although the frequencies of occurrence in the two sub-corpora show very slight differences, it cannot be said that no significant differences are found between AUNTs and EUNTs. This will be confirmed in section V.3. In addition, because this semantic category is very scarce in the parallel corpus, it is not important to discuss their occurrences or to provide an explanation of their use.

iv) General Words

This subcategory is the least used lexical cohesion device in the English sub-corpus, while it ranks third in the Arabic one. The comparison between the frequencies of occurrence of general words in the parallel corpus yields the following results:

General Words	AUNTs		EUNTs	
	N° of Occurrences	Percentage	N° of Occurrences	Percentage
Text 1	3	0.57	5	0.86
Text 2	6	1.46	7	1.47
Text 3	4	1.00	14	2.76
Text 4	2	1.02	8	3.17
Text 5	23	2.75	17	1.73
Text 6	18	2.26	19	2.04
Text 7	9	2.61	8	1.73
Text 8	15	1.49	13	1.14
Text 9	3	0.56	3	0.24
Text 10	5	0.52	11	0.88
Text 11	9	2.20	6	1.26
Text 12	5	0.96	4	0.69
Text 13	7	1.84	8	1.76
Text 14	2	0.12	4	0.19
Text 15	4	0.60	2	0.25
Text 16	20	1.07	11	0.50
Text 17	5	1.08	9	1.74
Text 18	11	0.86	7	0.56
Text 19	6	0.63	5	0.47
Text 20	6	0.85	4	0.45

Table 48: General Words in the PCUNTs

The table reveals that the two sub-corpora tend to use general words in the same way, (most of the texts display almost the same number of items; yet, very slight differences can be found in texts 3 and 4).

General words	AUNTs	EUNTs
Total of Occurrences	163	155
Average Percentage	1.22	1.19

Table 49: General Words Frequency and Average Percentage in the PCUNTs

The figures listed in the table show that the average use of general words in the Arabic sub-corpus is almost the same compared to the one in the English sub-corpus. Because this semantic category is very scarce in the parallel corpus, it is not important to provide an explanation of its use.

V.2.2. Summary of the Semantic Analysis

Based on the results of analysis of the parallel corpus, some conclusions can be drawn:

Arabic and English exhibit different proportions in the occurrence of cohesive devices in the UN texts though the similarities obviously appear in the types of cohesive devices used and their subcategories.

It is evident from the analysis that while some cohesive devices are considered to be marginal phenomena in the parallel corpus, some others are widely used. Cohesive devices, such as substitution, ellipsis, adversative conjunctions and collocations are considered to be marginal phenomena, and, therefore, avoided in the parallel corpus; however, some others are favoured and widely used, such as reference devices, additive conjunctions and lexical cohesion, particularly repetition.

Regarding reference devices, the analysis have shown that while Arabic depends heavily on pronominal reference and demonstratives, comparative devices are more frequently used in English. In addition, as for the category of conjunctions, additives are found to be the most widely used conjunctions in the PCUNTs; Arabic texts are found to use additives more frequently than English. Finally, the findings have shown that lexical repetition is highly used in Arabic and English. This device contributes largely to the surface connectivity and semantic continuity of the UN texts.

V.3. Statistical Analysis of Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

This section deals with the statistical results of the corpus analysis. By using SPSS, the results analysed are subjected to a paired t-test, in order to find out whether or not there are significant differences between the two sub-corpora. The paired t-test is conducted with a view to clearly compare the effect of language (Arabic or English) on the amount of use of cohesive devices in some UN texts. Thus, if the p-value is ($p<0.05$), it will be concluded that the differences between the use of cohesive devices in the two sub-corpora are statistically significant, and if it is not, the two sub-corpora are similar in terms of use of those devices. The paired samples t-test results are presented in what follows:

V.3.1. Statistical Results of the Five Categories of Cohesion

The following table illustrates the parallel corpus statistical data. The mean number (M) and standard deviation (SD) of the five categories of cohesive devices used in AUNTs and EUNTs are presented below:

Semantic Category	AUNTs Sub-corpus		EUNTs Sub-corpus	
Categories of Cohesion	M	SD	M	SD
Reference	18.55	04.56	07.51	01.57
Substitution and Ellipsis	04.99	03.04	04.99	02.84
Conjunction	06.17	01.15	03.50	00.65
Lexical Cohesion	21.59	03.15	17.46	03.08
Total	51.30	11.65	33.46	07.88

Table 50: Statistical Results of the Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

The total analysis of cohesive devices demonstrates that although the distribution of cohesive devices in the two sub-corpora is the same, obvious differences appear in the mean number of cohesive devices used in the PCUNTs. Apart from substitution and ellipsis, the mean number of reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion is higher in AUNTs than in EUNTs. The results reveal that there are significant differences in the use of all cohesive devices in the parallel corpus. The research null hypothesis (H_0), which takes the form of *there is no difference among the two sub-corpora* in the use of cohesive devices, is, therefore, rejected. In a more particular way, from the five categories of cohesion, statistically significant differences exist between AUNTs and EUNTs in the case of reference, conjunctions and lexical cohesion.

The detailed analysis of the subcategories of each cohesive device is provided in what follows:

V.3.1.2. Reference

The following table summarises the results of analysis of reference devices in the PCUNTs:

Semantic Category	AUNTs Sub-corpus		EUNTs Sub-corpus		Paired Samples Test	
Subcategories of Reference	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig.(2-tailed)
Pronominals	10.01	2.11	3.05	0.89	16.06	0.000
Demonstratives	7.57	3.04	3.06	1.28	8.52	0.000
Comparatives	0.33	0.23	0.50	0.24	-3.119	0.006
Other Types	0.73	0.48	0.68	0. 37	0.983	0.338

Table 51: T-test Results for the Subcategories of Reference Devices in the PCUNTs

As it is apparent in Table 51, significant differences between the two groups are identified in three subcategories of reference, namely pronominals, demonstratives and comparatives, validating that while AUNTs favour the first two devices compared to EUNTs, EUNTs tend to favour the two latter.

The statistics report that there are dissimilarities in the use of pronominals in the two sub-corpora (t =16.06, p = 0.000<0.05). Regarding the use of demonstratives, it is evident that the AUNTs display significantly more demonstratives than their English counterparts; (t = 8.52, p = 0.00 < 0.05). In the same way, in the case of comparatives, the proportion of p is less than 0.05 (t = -3.119, p= 0.006); it is considered a statistically significant relation and, therefore, there are significant differences in the use of comparatives between AUNTs and EUNTs. As far as the last subcategory of reference, *blend words and articulation*, is concerned, no statistically significant differences between the two sub-corpora are identified (t = 0.983, p= 0.338 > 0.05).

V.3.1.3. Substitution and Ellipsis

The following table presents the results of substitution and ellipsis analysis in the PCUNTS:

Semantic Category	AUNTs Sub-corpus		EUNTs Sub-corpus		Paired Samples Test	
Categories of Cohesion	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig.(2-tailed)
Substitution and Ellipsis	10.01	2.11	3.05	0.89	0.02	0.998

Table 52: T-test Results for Substitution and Ellipsis in the PCUNTs

Substitution and ellipsis are the least frequently used categories in the two sub-corpora. As the table reveals, there are similarities in the use of these two categories in AUNTs and EUNTS. The statistics report that there are no significant differences in the use of these subcategories between the two sub-corpora (t =0.02, p= 0.998 > 0.05).

V.3.1.4. Conjunction

The following table presents the results of conjunction analysis in the PCUNTs:

Semantic Category	AUNTs Sub-corpus		EUNTs Sub-corpus		Paired Samples Test	
Subcategories of Conjunction	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig.(2-tailed)
Additives	3.90	0.72	1.71	0.50	12, 11	0.000
Adversatives	0.17	0.16	0.12	0.13	2,220	0.039
Causals	0.94	0.65	0.64	0.47	2,651	0.016
Temporals	0.70	0.50	0.56	0.35	1.762	0.094
Continuatives	0.33	0.20	0.44	0.22	-1,963	0.065

Table 53: T-test Results for the Subcategories of Conjunction in the PCUNTS

The results presented in table 53 show that statistically significant differences between the two sub-corpora are identified in two subcategories of conjunction: additives (t =12, 11, p= 0.000 < 0.05), and causals (t =2,651, p= 0.016 < 0.05). Thus, the results reveal that these two types are considered as statistically significant relations. However, in the case of adversative, temporal and continuative devices, no statistical significant differences exist between AUNTs and EUNTs. The proportion of p is higher than 0.05 in these three sub-

categories: adversatives (t =2,220, p= 0.039> 0.05), temporals (t =1.762, p= 0.094> 0.05) and

continuatives (t = -1,963, p= 0.065> 0.05).

V.3.1.5. Lexical Reiteration

The following table summarises the results of lexical reiteration analysis in the parallel

corpus:

Semantic Category	AUNTs Sub-corpus		EUNTs Sub-corpus		Paired Samples Test	
Subcategories of Reiteration	M	SD	M	SD	t	Sig.(2-tailed)
Repetition	17.65	2.91	13.65	2.82	9.592	0.000
Synonyms	1.19	0.76	1.37	0.98	-1.486	0.154
Superordinate	1.53	0.82	1.25	0.52834	1.350	0.193
General words	1.22	0.74	1.19	0.84554	0.157	0.877

Table 54: T-test Results for Lexical Reiteration in the PCUNTs

According to Table 54, the data illustrate that statistically significant differences

between the two sub-corpora are identified in only one category, repetition (t = 9.592,

p=0.000< 0.05). In the case of the three other sub-categories, there are no significant

differences in the use of these devices between the two sub-corpora: synonyms (t = -1.486,

p=0.154), superordinate (t = 1.350, p= 0.193) and general words (t = 0.157, p=0.877).

Therefore, it can be said that repetition is considered as a statistically significant

relation, and therefore, there are differences in the use of repetition in the parallel corpus. The

results show that Arabic tends to favour repetition compared to English. However, in the case

of synonyms, superordinate and general words, the two sub-corpora show great similarities in

their use.

V.3.2. Summary of the Statistical Results

The statistical analysis employed in this section, in order to examine the differences or similarities between Arabic UN texts and their English counterparts, in terms of the use of cohesive devices, have revealed significant differences. The results have shown that from the five categories of cohesion, significant differences between AUNTs and EUNTs exist in the categories of reference, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Moreover, a detailed analysis of the subcategories of these semantic relations has revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the use of the subcategories of pronominals, demonstratives, comparatives, additives, causals and lexical repetition.

Conclusion

To sum up, this chapter has dealt with the semantic analysis of data, covering both descriptive statistics for cohesive devices and statistical significance testing for differences between AUNTs and EUNTs. The findings obtained have revealed that, in general, there are significant differences in the use of cohesive devices in Arabic and English UN texts. These findings answer the first research question, stated in the introductory section of this thesis, which is whether there are any significant differences in the frequency of occurrence of cohesive devices across Arabic and English, and confirm the corresponding hypothesis, which is that Arabic and English reveal differences in the types of cohesive devices and in the frequency of their use (since each language has its own cohesive devices and employs them following its rules).

The next chapter, in which there is a discussion of the results obtained, attempts to account for some linguistic interpretations related to the cross-linguistic analysis of cohesion in the UN texts.

Chapter VI

Qualitative Analysis

Chapter VI: Qualitative Analysis

Introduction

Based on the data extracted from the PCUNTs in the previous chapter, the findings have revealed some beneficial information on the legal genre characteristics in translation, and have shown the major differences between the cohesive devices used across the Arabic and English sub-corpora. Such an account would make it useful to see to what extent cohesive devices are employed in the UN translated texts and to examine how these devices can render the source language texts and the target ones into both cohesive and coherent products. As the study aims basically to observe variation in the way each language makes use of these devices to signal cohesion relations, and to identify instances of shifts of cohesion, this chapter is divided into two sections. The first section aims at presenting an interpretation of the results of the contrastive analysis of the cohesive devices in the Arabic and English UN texts, and the second one intends to carry out an analysis of the shifts of cohesion that occurred in the translations of these texts and justify their occurrences.

As far as the contrastive analysis undertaken in this study is concerned, the following linguistic interpretations show the differences between Arabic and English cohesive devices used in the selected texts. The interpretations from this analysis will confirm some prior research works such as Johnstone (1983), Al-Jabr (1987), Williams (1989), Karakira (1997), Jawad (2007,2009) and El-Farahaty (2015). Accordingly, this contrastive analysis proves that cohesion is not only an essential feature for the creation of texts, but also, an important aspect that influences the quality of the translation product.

VI.1. Contrastive Analysis of Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

As previously revealed in the findings, the overall results show that the categories of reference, conjunction and lexical repetition are the mostly used cohesive devices in the UN texts. However, substitution and ellipsis are of little use and are considered as secondary phenomena in the two sub-corpora. These findings are due to the following factors:

First, because the UN texts are descriptive and argumentative in nature aiming at presenting facts and persuading readers, lexical cohesion, particularly repetition, plays a vital role in the organisation of information. Besides, since the documents of the UNs exhibit the narration of the successions of events or precise reports that have taken place, reference and conjunction are said to be very frequent in the parallel corpus. It becomes, therefore, very obvious that cohesive devices of these particular categories play a vital role in the organisation of the UN documents' information. Finally, similar to all legal texts, the UN texts always require a lot of formality, transparency and precision; these characteristics explain overtly the scarce use of substitution and ellipsis, which may cause misunderstanding and ambiguity.

As already mentioned, the distribution of these devices in the two sub-corpora displays many similarities in the choice of the types of cohesive devices; both AUNTs and EUNTs exhibit a preference for lexical cohesion, reference and conjunction. Nevertheless, significant differences appear in the frequency of occurrence of these types across the two sub-corpora. The differences in textual cohesion are said to be due to language particular preferences and legal genre specificity. That is to say, they are due to the two languages internal rules and

stylistic preferences in employing their cohesive devices, which, as a result, represent tendencies typical of each language.[26]

A close look at the individual categories of cohesion is suggested in what follows. The main focus is provided for the implications of the most prevailing cohesive devices, which are of a high frequency of occurrence whereas minor cohesive devices regarding adversatives, continuatives and collocations are not examined in this discussion. The cohesive categories are discussed and illustrated in this section with examples from both the AUNTs and EUNTs. The examples are given in pairs with (a) indicating Arabic STs and (b) their English translations. Because of lack of space the transliteration of the Arabic examples is found in Appendix D.

VI.1.1. Reference Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

Despite the same distribution of the subcategories of reference, significant differences exist in the occurrence frequencies of three out of four types of reference devices between AUNTs and EUNTs ($p<0.05$). The findings reveal that while AUNTs depend heavily on pronominals and demonstratives more than do EUNTs, comparatives and other types are found in EUNTs more frequently than in AUNTs.

For this reason, it can be said that AUNTs are more explicitly cohesive than their English counterparts through the use of pronominals; EUNTs, however, exhibit, occasionally, more emphasis on repetition for the aim of accuracy instead of reference, as to be seen later. In fact, the high frequency of pronominal reference items in the two sub-corpora is attributed to the organisation of the narrative text types, which characterise some of the UN documents.

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[26] This result confirms the first hypothesis.

The narration of the successions of events or precise reports that have taken place requires the use of specific devices, which uphold the continuity of participants and events. As Al-Jabr (1987) argued, pronominal reference items maintain this continuity, since they represent suitable devices for specifying characters and events. They help readers attribute referents for pronouns, even if they reside in far removed sentences, as they are more transparent. Therefore, pronominal reference items are crucial for the organisation of narrative texts, and, hence, their occurrences facilitate the processing and comprehension of this type of texts.

VI.1.1.1. Cross Language Interpretation

With regard to cross language differences, the results obtained reveal that Arabic texts employ pronominals and demonstratives more frequently than their English counterparts. That is why Arabic texts are considered more explicitly cohesive than their English counterparts through the use of these two semantic categories. This is attributed to the following reasons:

VI.1.1.1.1. Pronominals

First, Arabic has three types of pronouns: *independent*, *enclitic* and *implicit*. English, however, does not have such a variety of pronouns; that is why pronominals are found considerably more in the Arabic texts. Williams (1982) maintained that the high frequency of pronominals in Arabic argumentative texts is attributed to the nature of Arabic verbs which contain an *implicit pronoun*. Also, the high frequency of occurrence of pronominals in Arabic is due to their fully inflected nature for number and gender. In addition to the singular and the plural pronouns, there are special pronouns for the category of dual. Consider the following example:

Example 1-b	Example 1-a[27]

On instructions from my Government, I have the honour to transmit herewith a table listing the names of the four foreign journalists who entered Syrian territory illegally without the knowledge of the Syrian authorities (see annex). Two of those journalists died while in the company of armed groups in Syria. The two others infiltrated Syria via the Turkish-Syrian border in early March 2012 and were recently handed over to their country's authorities. (Text 9)

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، أتشرف بأن أرفق لكم طيا جدولا يتضمن أسماء أربعة صحفيين أجانب دخلوا إلى الأراضي السورية بطرق غير مشروعة ودون علم السلطات السورية (انظر المرفق)، حيث لقي اثنان من هؤلاء الصحفيين حتفهما خلال تواجدهما مع المجموعات المسلحة في سوريا . في حين أن الصحفيين الآخرين تسللا إلى سوريا عبر الحدود التركية ـ السورية في بداية شهر آذار/مارس ٢٠١٢ ، وقد تم، مؤخرا، تسليمهما إلى سلطات بلادهم[28].

Two types of pronominals are identified: *explicit* and *implicit* pronouns. *Explicit* pronouns, particularly, *enclitic* ones illustrated in the use of pronominal suffix determiners, such as لكم (lakum), حتفهما (ħatfahuma:), تواجدهما (tawaӡudihima:), تسليمهما (tasli:muhuma:) and بلادهما (bila:dihima:) are demonstrated in example 1-a. *Implicit* pronouns, which are typical of Arabic texts, as in أرفق (ʔataʃarrafu) أتشرف (huku:mati:.) حكومتي (tasallala:) تسللا (ʔurfiqa) يتضمن (jata.dammanu) are also established in this example. Instances of possessive determiners, where the suffixes are used to refer back to their antecedents, show that the suffix determiner ي (ji:) refers exopohorically to the writer of the letter and the suffix لا (la:) anaphorically to the two other journalists. This is illustrated in حكومتي (huku:mati:.) and تسللا (tasallala:). In this case, the suffixes ي (ji:) and لا (la:) function as cohesive devices, as they join the two clauses together.

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[27] The translations of the selected texts are not without shortcomings.

[28] The error in the use of the dual pronoun هما (huma:) is in the original text.

Unlike the Arabic version, the English one does not exhibit the same number and variety of pronominals. In Arabic, all enclitic personal pronouns هما (huma:) in حتفهما (.hatfahuma:), تواجدهما (tawaʒudihima:) and تسليمهما (tasli:muhuma:) refer back to two of the journalists anaphorically, whereas in English only one possessive pronoun *their* does so in referring back to *the four journalists*. What is obvious is that, instead of using personal reference, the passive voice is favoured in English. Therefore, it becomes obvious that the reference expressions used in Arabic are more explicit than their English counterparts, and hence, more transparent and more easily recoverable.

It is important to note that this example obviously illustrates the difference between the two languages with regard to the use of pronominal reference. In fact, it does not only show that the clauses and sentences are cohesively interconnected with regard to the ideas they express, but also reveal how the context of Arabic texts guarantees the consistent flow of these ideas. The referent *two of the journalists* is cohesively related to the *four journalists* stated by the writer. In identifying referents, t*wo of the four foreign journalists,* who entered the Syrian territory illegally, are referred to as *their* in *their country's authorities*. However, in Arabic they are referred to as possessive determiners لا (la:) and هما (huma:), as in تسللا (tasallala:) and تواجدهما (tawaʒudihima:), since Arabic inflects for dual numbers. It is obvious, then, that individuals are being referred to in each clause/sentence. The considerable use of reference devices in Arabic can be explained by the fact that the Arabic verb always carries a pronominal item.

Second, in the EUNTs, there is a tendency to use widely the third person singular non-human pronoun *it*, at the expense of other personal pronouns, such as *they*, *we*, *he* or *she*. This item is believed to be referent to impersonal elements, such as *governments*, *UN organisations*, *committees* or *activities*. In example 2, the personal pronoun *it* refers

anaphorically to the government of *Syria*. Arabic, however, does not have an equivalent; it rather resorts to repeating the same element, *Syria,* instead of using the alternative pronoun هي (hija:), which would not reflect its referent. For this reason, the referent instead is explicitly identified by the repetition of the term *Syria*. Accordingly, the clauses in Arabic are cohesively interrelated thanks to the repetition of a similar propositional content.

Example 2-b	Example 2-a
Syria reiterates that it does not accept the references that were made in paragraphs 8, 10, 13 and 48 of the report to the delineation of the Syrian-Lebanese border, which is a bilateral matter. It reaffirms that the real obstacle to the final delineation of the Syrian-Lebanese border is Israel's continued aggression and its occupation of the Syrian Golan and the Shab'a Farms. (Text 5)	تكرر سوريا عدم قبولها بإشارات هذا التقرير، في الفقرات ٨ و ٤٨ و ١٠ و ١٣ إلى ترسيم الحدود بين سوريا ولبنان، باعتبار أن هذه المسألة أمر ثنائي بين البلدين. وتؤكد سوريا مرة أخرى أن العائق الحقيقي الذ ي يقف أمام ترسيم الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية بشكل تام، هو استمرار العدوان والاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان السوري المحتل ولمزارع شبعا.

In sum, it can be said that these factors explain the significant differences between AUNTs and EUNTs in terms of using the category of pronominals. The abundant use of pronominals in AUNTs is a consequence of the legal texts' deep concern to preserve maximum levels of precision and reduce misunderstanding whereas in English legal texts more emphasis is laid on repetition as to be seen later.

VI.1.1.1.2. Demonstratives

The second mostly used reference device in the parallel corpus is the category of demonstratives and the definite article *the*, which are essentially identifying means used to determine the selected nouns. They are employed more frequently in Arabic texts than in their

English counterparts. The high frequency of demonstratives in AUNTs is ascribed to the following factors:

In Arabic, the definite article الـ (al) goes together with nouns, adjectives and gerunds in one sentence; yet, in English, this is not the case, the definite article *the* occurs only once. In addition, the definite article الـ (al) can occur with elements already modified by a demonstrative; a case which is not tolerated in English. An example is demonstrated below:

Example 3-b	Example 3-a

Those blasts come on the heels of the tragedy caused by armed terrorist groups when they bombard Aleppo University. The death toll from that attack now stands at 87 persons, including students and civilians who had been forcibly removed from their homes by armed groups and had taken shelter in the student dormitories. (Text 17)

ويأتي هذان التفجيران بعد المأساة التي أسفر عنها قصف المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة لجامعة حلب الذي أسفر عن بلوغ عدد الذين تم استشهادهم ٨٧ شهيدا من الطلبة والمواطنين الذين هجروا من قبل هذه المجموعات المسلحة من منازلهم وأقاموا مؤخرا في سكن الطلاب الجامعي.

As illustrated in example 3, two occurrences of the definite article الـ (al) with elements modified by other demonstratives are identified in هذان التفجيران (ha:ða:ni attafʒi:ra:ni) and هذه المجموعات المسلحة (ha:ðihi almaʒmu:ɛat almusalla.ha), whereas their English equivalents display no use of definite articles, as illustrated in *those blasts* and *armed groups*.

Al-Jabr (1987) asserted that similar to pronominals, the high frequency of demonstrative reference across sentences in the Arabic texts simplify their processing and comprehension. What is noteworthy about Arabic texts in this concern is that references are very definite and sometimes doubly modified by adding the definite article الـ (al) and another

demonstrative (as suggested in example 3). This justifies the high frequency of demonstratives in AUNTs more than their English translations.

It is worth mentioning that another type of demonstrative reference, *extended reference*, widely occurs in the parallel corpus. In English, demonstratives *this* and *that* are employed in order to refer to the entire preceding or subsequent proposition; the same applies to Arabic texts. In example 4 below, the demonstrative *this* refers to the entire fact of the Israeli occupation forces' provocative acts and violations of human rights.

Example 4- b	Example 4-a
The Israeli occupation forces are continuing to show total disregard for human rights. In an act of provocation, the Israeli police searched the prisoners' house and fired huge amounts of tear gas at the families gathered around the house. Syrian prisoner Faris al-Sha'ir was kept for five months in the prisons of the occupation on a pretext that is often used against the Syrian population of Golan. He was forced to live outside the occupied Golan, in a house in the occupied territories, and was prohibited from leaving it or returning to the Golan before his subsequent sentencing. This is all part of Israel's tyrannical policy towards the population of the occupied Syrian Golan. (Text 13)	إن قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي تتابع تحديها للحد الأدنى من احترامها حقوق الإنسان، حيث فتشت الشرطة الإسرائيلية منزل المعتقلين بصورة استفزازية، وأطلقت الغاز المسيل للدموع بكثافة ضد الأهالي الموجودين حول المنزل، وبقي الأسير السوري فارس الشاعر لمدة خمسة أشهر في سجون الاحتلال بتهم اعتادت سلطات الاحتلال تلفيقها ضد المواطنين السوريين في الجولان، وفرضت الإقامة الجبرية عليه خارج الجولان المحتل ضمن بيت في الأراضي المحتلة، ومنعته من الخروج منه ومن العودة إلى الجولان تمهيدا لمحاكمته لاحقا، وذلك استكمالا لسياستها التعسفية بحق أبناء الجولان السوري المحتل.

Last but not least, it can be said that for the aim of accuracy and transparency, the UN documents display a wide use of demonstrative reference, which reinforces the importance of the propositions in those documents.

VI.1.1.1.3. Other Types

The use of other cohesive devices, such as *blend words, articulation and numbering references*, which are pertinent to legal discourse, is believed to play an important role in the organisation of the UN texts.

First, the use of blend words such as *hereby* and *herewith* is very essential to ensure the accuracy of legal texts (Karakira, 1997). This kind of reference is widely utilised in the UN texts. It is through a specific reference to the whole text or to any of its parts that textual cohesion is maintained in the UN texts. An extract from the PCUNTs presenting the reference device *herewith* is displayed below:

> On instructions from my Government, I have the honour to transmit herewith a table listing the names of the four foreign journalists…
>
> بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، أتشرف بأن أرفق لكم طيا جدولا يتضمن أسماء أربعة صحفيين أجانب دخلوا إلى الأراضي السورية...

The blend word selected in this extract demonstrates how two meanings are packed into one word. The item *herewith* serves as a reference cohesive device; it is used for reference to non-human element, particularly the table that constitutes the annex of the letter. The Arabic text, however, does not exhibit an equivalent word; the collocation أرفق طيا (ʔurfiqa .tajjan) is used to maintain reference to the table.

Second, the feature of articulation and numbering is another cohesive device, which is significant in the UN texts. Karakira (1997) asserted that because legal texts follow rigid methods of dividing documents into parts or paragraphs, references are clearly made throughout the text. Thus, it can be said that this elaborate referencing system within the one

text is a strong cohesive feature shared by all legal texts. This type of cohesive reference is significantly found in the parallel corpus. Consider the following example:

Example 5-b

In response to Security Council resolution 1970 (2011) of 26 February 2011, which decided that the Libyan authorities should cooperate fully with the International Criminal Court (ICC) and with the Prosecutor of the Court, and pursuant to its commitments in respect of the Court, the Government of Libya, having secured the approval of the Public Prosecutor, received a delegation from the Court on 6 June 2012. (Text10)

Example 5-a

استجابة لقرار مجلس الأمن رقم١٩٧٠(٢٠١١) بتاريخ ٢٦ شباط/فبراير ٢٠١١ الذي نصّ على تعاون السلطات الليبية تعاونا كاملا مع المحكمة الجنائية الدولية، ومع المدعي العام للمحكمة، وإيفاءً بالتزاماتها تجاه المحكمة، قامت الحكومة الليبية باستقبال وفد من المحكمة بناء على موافقة معالي النائب العام في ليبيا ابتداء من ٦ حزيران/يونيه ٢٠١٢.

This extract explicitly shows the use of articulation and numbering in the PCUNTs. The number of the Security Council resolution (1970 (2011) of 26 February 2011), is significantly referring, exophorically, to specific and prior resolutions established by the UN authorities.

Finally, another category of reference devices is manifested in the use of adjectives, such as *aforementioned* and *aforesaid*. Consider the following example:

Example 6-b

As you are aware, President Bashar Al-Assad, in his statement of 20 June 2011, set out a package of significant reforms concerning a number of aspects of public life in Syria and, in particular, the political aspect,

Example 6-a

وتعرفون أن الرئيس بشار الأسد طرح في خطابه بتاريخ 20 حزيران/يونيه 2011 حزمة إصلاحات هامة تتعلق بعدد من مناحي الحياة العامة في سورية، ولا سيما منها الجانب السياسي في قانوني الأحزاب والانتخابات العامة، وقد نص القانونان على جوانب هامة تستجيب للمطالب الشعبية

in the laws governing parties and general elections. Those two laws make important provisions that respond to the demands of the people and lay the foundations for political plurality and democracy. It has already been announced that general elections will be held before the end of 2011 and that political affairs will be decided through the ballot box.

I have referred above to just a few of the plans and ideas that were announced by President Al-Assad in the aforementioned statement. (Text 3)

وتؤسس للتعددية السياسية وللحياة الديمقراطية. وقد تم الإعلان أن الانتخابات العامة سوف تجري قبل نهاية العالم الحالي، وسيكون القرار في الشأن السياسي لصندوق الاقتراع.

ما ذكرته آنفا هو بعض من التوجهات والأفكار التي أعلن عنها الرئيس الأسد في خطابه الذي أشرت إليه. والقيادة السورية ما زالت ترى أن الحوار الوطني هو الطريق الأمثل لحل الأزمة التي تعيشها البلاد.

The item *aforementioned* refers back to the previously indicated statement of 20 June 2011 delivered by President Al-Assad. Arabic, however, does not have such adjectives, the use of the phrase أشرت إليه (ʔaʃartu ʔilajhi) *I indicated* maintain the meaning of reference.

To end this discussion, it can be said that the UN texts make use of a variety of reference devices, which are believed to be strong cohesive features for the creation of texts. However, it should be borne in mind that sometimes the high frequency of use of these devices may affect the natural flaw of the two languages.

VI.1.2. Substitution and Ellipsis in the PCUNTs

The analysis reveals that substitution and ellipsis are quite infrequent in the two sub-corpora, making up only 2% of the total of the cohesive devices in the UN texts. In fact, the use of this kind of semantic relations is not favoured in legal texts, since the substitution of particular elements with some others or the complete omission of elements may reduce the

comprehensive flow of ideas and impede the easy retrieval of information from the context in which they occur.

The scarcity of cohesion relations of substitution and ellipsis in written discourse has been confirmed by many researchers. Williams (1989), for example, pointed out that Arabic tends to avoid ellipsis. This is also proved in the parallel corpus, in which it has been revealed that EUNTs tend to use these devices more frequently than AUNTs.

VI.1.2.1. Substitution

With the help of the concordance software AntConc, the identification of substitution devices in the two sub-corpora shows that while Arabic tends to maintaining repetition of the same items, rephrasing the whole sentence or finding other mechanisms to express ideas, English translations resorts to substitution in order to avoid repetition and keep the texts cohesive. That is why it is apparent that EUNTs tend to use substitution more than AUNTs. In this corpus, three types of substitution are distinguished, nominal, verbal, and clausal, represented in the items *one, same*, *do, so*.

In what follows, three examples taken from the PCUNTs illustrate the differences between the two languages with regard to this cohesive device.

Example 7-b	Example 7-a
The Syrian Government believes that the issue of the so-called Syrian refugees is, to a large extent, a fabricated one. It hopes that they will return to their homeland and that their presence will not	كما أن الحكومة السورية تؤمن بأن مشكلة ما يسمى بالنازحين السوريين هي مشكلة مفتعلة إلى حد كبير وتأمل عودتهم إلى وطنهم وعدم استغلال وجودهم لأغراض سياسية، وقد أدى التحسن الملحوظ في الوضع الأمني إلى عودة مجموعات كبيرة منهم إلى بلدهم ومزاولتهم لأعمالهم

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be exploited for political purposes. The notable improvement in the security situation has led sizeable groups to return to their country and resume their work, which the terrorist groups had prevented them from doing. (Text8)

التي منعتهم منها المجموعات الإرهابية.

It is evident from example 7 that in Arabic, the term مشكلة (muʃkila) *issue*, i.e. the head of the nominal group مشكلة ما يسمى بالنازحين السوريين (muʃkilat ma:jusamma binna:zi.hi:n assu:rijji:n), is not ellipted or replaced by another equivalent; the writer instead repeated the same item, in order to accommodate the Arabic linguistic system. However, the solution adopted in the English translation is an instance of nominal substitution. The term *one,* which is the Head of the nominal group *a fabricated one,* is a substitute for the Head *issue* in the nominal group *the issue of the so-called Syrian refugees*. Thus, the substitute *one* assumes the function of the presupposed item *issue*.

Regarding the second occurrence of substitution in example 7-b, it is an instance of verbal substitution. The variation of the verbal substitute *do, doing,* substitutes the verbs *to return* and *to resume*. The item *doing* substitutes a verb and certain other elements accompanying the verb in the clause and links the two sentences together anaphorically. That is to say, the verb form *has led sizeable groups to return to their country and resume their work* is ellipted and substituted by *doing*. Therefore, it would be possible to maintain the elements accompanying the verbs *to return* and *to resume,* but at the expense of the naturalness and stylistic smoothness of the English language, to appear as:

The notable improvement in the security situation has led sizeable groups
to return to their country and resume their work, which the terrorist groups

had prevented them from *returning to their country and resuming their work.*

| Example 8-b | Example 8-a |

It is also very important to note that the terrorist attacks in Idlib were acts of vengeance against its citizens, who two days prior to this massacre had participated in protest marches demanding that the terrorists leave their city. In order to silence the free voices of those demanding an end to the violence and terrorism in Syria, the terrorist groups have threatened to wage an unrelenting campaign of suicide attacks against the residents of other Syrian cities and villages that have rejected their presence. Those residents have also called on the regional and international powers that are supporting the terrorists and justifying their crimes to desist from doing so. (Text 18)

كما أنه من الهام جدا أن نشير إلى أن العمليات الانتحارية في مدينة إدلب أتت انتقاما من مواطني هذه المدينة الذين كانوا قد قاموا قبل يومين من هذه المجزرة بمسيرات احتجاجية طالبوا خلالها الإرهابيين بالرحيل عن مدينتهم وقد هدد الإرهابيون سكان وقرى المدن السورية الأخرى الذين يرفضون تواجد هذه المجموعات في مدنهم وقراهم بالقيام بعمليات انتحارية إرهابية مستمرة بهدف إسكات الأصوات الحرة المطالبة بوقف الإرهاب والعنف في سوريا. كما طالب هؤلاء المواطنون القوى الإقليمية والدولية التي تدعم الإرهاب وتبرر للإرهابيين جرائمهم التوقف عن ذلك .

In example 8-b, the type of substitution is clausal. The term *so* substitutes for the previous clause: *to desist from supporting the terrorists and justifying their crimes*. In Arabic, the occurrence of clausal substitution is not possible, that is why the corresponding of the English clausal substitutes *so* in Arabic is the demonstrative reference item ذلك (ða:lika) *that.* This type of reference functions anaphorically; it is similar to *the extended reference and reference to fact 'that'* in English suggested in Halliday and Hasan (1976), as it refers to the whole fact *to desist from supporting the terrorists and justifying their crimes.*

Example 9-b	Example 9-a

By calling for jihad against the Syrian State, they facilitate the recruitment of thousands of *takfirists* from various countries and rally them to fight the Syrian State and shed the blood of the Syrian people. In so doing, they clearly violate the principles of the Islamic faith and humanitarian and ethical values. They are a blatant infringement of the authoritative international resolutions, including the Security Council resolutions on counter-terrorism, which set forth an obligation to combat terrorist financing, recruitment and incitement. (Text 19)

كما يقوم نظام الحكم في السعودية باستغلال وجود المقدسات الإسلامية الدينية في أراضي المملكة لمحاولة إضفاء الشرعية على الإرهاب في سوريا عبر نشر الفكر التكفيري في القنوات الفضائية وتشجيع إصدار فتاوى مشوهة تزخر بها المواقع الإلكترونية، وهي أبعد ما تكون عن الإسلام السمح، للدعوة إلى ''الجهاد'' ضد الدولة السورية مما يسهل تجنيد الآلاف من التكفيريين من مختلف الدول، والزج بهم لمحاربة الدولة السورية، وسفك دماء الشعب السوري، في مخالفة واضحة لمبادئ الدين الإسلامي والقيم الإنسانية والأخلاقية، وفي انتهاك فاضح لقرارات الشرعية الدولية، بما فيها قرارات مجلس الأمن حول مكافحة الإرهاب والتي نصت جميعها على الالتزام بمكافحة تمويل وتجنيد الإرهاب والتحريض عليه.

In example 9, the substitute *in so doing* functions on the entire sentence. That is to say, the entire sentence (*By calling for jihad against the Syrian State, they facilitate the recruitment of thousands of takfirists from various countries and rally them to fight the Syrian State and shed the blood of the Syrian people*) is presupposed, and the contrasting element (*they clearly violate the principles of the Islamic faith and humanitarian and ethical values)* is outside the sentence. The only possible solution in Arabic would be to rephrase the sentence and to repeat the whole nominal group. The tendency of Arabic to repeat the sentence differently helps establish the referent immediately. For this reason, it can be said that while this mechanism of the Arabic language prompts repetition of elements, in order to avoid any possible ambiguity that may affect the information in the same situations, the English language resorts to substitution.

As it can be seen from these examples, three types of substitution are exhibited in the UN texts. Despite their obvious scarcity in the two sub-corpora, the English texts contain more substitution items than the Arabic ones. This reflects the greater variety of these items available in English.

VI.1.2.2. Ellipsis

A very small number of occurrences of ellipsis are found in the PCUNTs. For this reason, only one example is demonstrated to describe this sub-category. Most cases of ellipsis clearly show that this semantic category is no more than a peripheral element of legal discourse. The following example illustrates the type of nominal ellipsis of English cohesion. In example 10, the omission of the nominal item *countries* from the structure in the sentence does not affect the interpretation of meaning. In Arabic, however, the term البلدين (albaladajn) *the two countries* is maintained.

Example 10-b	Example 10-a
The Syrian Arab Republic reiterates its firm commitment to the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of Lebanon. It remains committed to cooperation with the Lebanese side in order to ensure respect for the national sovereignty and territorial integrity of the two kindred countries, for the benefit of the security and stability of both. (Text 11)	تؤكد الجمهورية العربية السورية موقفها الثابت والمتمثل في التزامها بسيادة لبنان ووحدة وسلامة أراضيه واستقلاله السياسي، وتؤكد في هذا الصدد التزامها بالتعاون مع الجانب اللبناني لضمان احترام السيادة الوطنية وسلامة أراضي البلدين الشقيقين بما يخدم أمن واستقرار كلا البلدين.

To sum up, it is obvious that substitution and ellipsis are considered to be peripheral phenomena in both Arabic and English UN texts; however, English tends to use them more

frequently than Arabic. Such scarcity of use of these devices is due to the nature of the UN texts, which are particularly precise, aiming at achieving exactness of meaning and reducing any possible ambiguity that may affect the information.

VI.1.3. Conjunction Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

For the most part of analysis, conjunctions are not employed in AUNTs as frequently as in EUNTs. Significant differences are found in two out of five subcategories, namely, additives and causals in terms of their frequency of occurrence ($p>0.05$), but no significant differences are identified in the statistical result of adversatives, temporals and continuatives ($p<0.05$). In fact, because the UN texts are consistent in logic and well structured, conjunctions are predominantly used to display the logical relations between propositions. The high or low frequency of subcategories of conjunctions in the two sub-corpora is attributed to the following aspects, which characterise the organisation of the UN documents:

The nature of the UN documents, which is typically descriptive and rigid, explains the remarkable predominance of additives in the PCUNTs. In fact, the prevalence of additives is ascribed to the writers' intention to add information, clarify ideas or opinions of their governments, and support the facts or events that took place.

In addition, the importance given to causals and temporals in the second and third ranking respectively is due to, first, the argumentative characteristics of the UN texts that aim to persuade readers, and, second, to their narrative function of successions of facts, events or precise reports that have taken place.

Moreover, the use of continuatives justifies the importance of logical relations in the PCUNTs. The two languages highlight the explicit means to show semantic relations at the

inter-sentential level, that is why continuatives are clearly employed. Continuatives like in *this regard* and *with reference to* are maintained in English in order to show clearly the semantic relations of sequence. The same applies to their Arabic counterparts.

However, the category of adversatives is the least frequently employed conjunction in the parallel corpus. Adversatives are employed essentially with the aim of highlighting contrasts, drawing conclusions or providing details. For the aim of precision and accurateness, this category is avoided in the two languages, suggesting that adversativity is not significant for legal texts, and the use of contrasting conditions is not typical for this type of texts. In what follows, two excerpts, extracted from (text 8), illustrate the occurrences of adversative conjunction *however* in the PCUNTs:

> The notable improvement in the security situation has led sizeable groups to return to their country and resume their work, which the terrorist groups had prevented them from doing. There are, however, terrorist groups that flee to neighbouring states claiming to be innocent refugees who have been attacked by the security forces.

> Syria has long reiterated its position that Syrian citizens, who have suffered at the hands of armed terrorist groups, should be allowed to return safely to their homes without being harassed by the armed groups, the States that fund and arm terrorists, or the media propagandists. However, certain organizations and individuals in Lebanon and elsewhere want to exploit the humanitarian dimension for political purposes with the aim of damaging and destabilizing Syria.

In the first occurrence, the adversative *however* has an explanatory function by clarifying the details of the fact; it further explains that terrorist groups run away to

neighbouring states claiming to be innocent refugees. In the second occurrence, *however* is used to express a contrastive relation and indicate that contrary to expectation, other organisations and individuals in the region aim at damaging and destabilising Syria.

VI.1.3.1. Cross Language Interpretation

As far as cross language differences are concerned, the distribution of conjunctions in the Arabic and English sub-corpora is the same. The only difference lies in the frequency of occurrence of those relations. It seems that Arabic texts are more explicitly cohesive than their English counterparts through the use of additives, causals and temporals.

The prevalence of these three subcategories of conjunction in the Arabic sub-corpus is attributed to the narrative function of successions of facts, events or precise reports that have taken place in some of the UN texts. Williams (1989) argued that Arabic is close to the human lifeworld; it uses the narrative form in texts of any type, more than English does. This explains why all argumentations in Arabic are expressed through narrative structures.

Regarding additives, Al-Jabr (1987:147), who examined narrative texts, maintained that this category "incorporates 'right branching' and highlights the seriation of events in this type of discourse." The frequent use of causals is ascribed to the argumentative characteristics of the UN texts, which aim to convince readers. Smith and Farwley (1983, in Al-Jabr, 1987) explained that causality is predominantly employed in the English texts, as it serves a useful function in narrative texts. Moreover, temporals are found to be of high frequency of occurrence as Arabic uses narration more than English does. Williams (1989) suggested that showing a higher employment of temporals and a smaller one of causals is typical in Arabic texts than is the case in English.

VI.1.3.1.1. Additive Conjunctions

The analysis of the two sub-corpora shows that the two languages differ in the frequency of use of additive cohesion. Significant differences between the two sub-corpora are identified in this subcategory ($p<0.05$). It is evident that this semantic relation has a higher percentage than the other subcategories in each of the twenty AUNTs. While Arabic cohesion relies mostly on additives, English cohesion relies more on causal, temporal and continuative relations.

The in-depth analysis of data reveals that the mostly used additive devices in the parallel corpus are conjunctions و (wa) and its English equivalent *and*, expressing the semantic relation of addition. The comparison between the Arabic STs and their English translations reveals also that Arabic texts use a much larger number of additive و (wa) than their English counterparts *and*.

In fact, many linguists, e.g. Dudley-Evans and Swales (1980), Holes (2004), Al-Jabr (1987), and Williams (1983), examined the redundancy of و (wa) in Arabic and explained that a number of factors contribute to its high frequency. These factors are summarised as follows:

First, the lengthy sentences that characterise Arabic generate the abundant use of و (wa). Despite the introduction of some punctuation markers, such as the comma and full stop in Arabic, punctuation in Arabic is often arbitrarily applied. The full stop, in particular, does not mark only the end of a sentence, a comma is more frequently opted for. There is a tendency for Arab writers to write very long sentences, some of which could be extended to long paragraphs with only one full stop and so many commas separating the clauses. That is why conjunction و (wa) is rather used to connect consecutive parallel clauses. Consider this example:

Example 11-b	Example 11-a
The Israeli occupation forces are continuing to show total disregard for human rights. In an act of provocation, the Israeli police searched the prisoners' house and fired huge amounts of tear gas at the families gathered around the house. Syrian prisoner Faris al-Sha'ir was kept for five months in the prisons of the occupation on a pretext that is often used against the Syrian population of Golan. He was forced to live outside the occupied Golan, in a house in the occupied territories, and was prohibited from leaving it or returning to the Golan before his subsequent sentencing. This is all part of Israel's tyrannical policy towards the population of the occupied Syrian Golan. (Text 13)	إن قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي تتابع تحديها للحد الأدنى من احترامها حقوق الإنسان، حيث فتشت الشرطة الإسرائيلية منزل المعتقلين بصورة استفزازية، وأطلقت الغاز المسيل للدموع بكثافة ضد الأهالي الموجودين حول المنزل، وبقي الأسير السوري فارس الشاعر لمدة خمسة أشهر في سجون الاحتلال بتهم اعتادت سلطات الاحتلال تلفيقها ضد المواطنين السوريين في الجولان، وفرضت الإقامة الجبرية عليه خارج الجولان المحتل ضمن بيت في الأراضي المحتلة، ومنعته من الخروج منه ومن العودة إلى الجولان تمهيدا لمحاكمته لاحقا، وذلك استكمالا لسياستها التعسفية بحق أبناء الجولان السوري المحتل.

It is obvious, then, that the frequency of و (wa) in Arabic is ascribed to the indeterminacy of sentence boundaries; in English, however, sentence boundaries are more defined.

Second, the trend of Arabic towards using coordination as a favoured structural device enriches the use of conjunction و (wa). Unlike the English *and*, the Arabic و (wa) is repeated before every item coordinated with the one before, no matter how many items are listed.Williams (1989) showed that Arabic has a larger proportion of cohesive items of instances of و (wa) used cohesively than English does of *and*. This is due to the nature of the Arabic language system, which uses more coordinative structures than English does. This explains why Arabic is described as coordinative, while English is characterised as subordinative. Consider this example:

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Example 12-b	Example12-a

Example 12-b

As regards the contents of paragraphs 39 and 42, on the arms embargo and border control, the Secretary-General's representative, although claiming omniscience, is ignorant of the fact that the arms, as everyone knows, are being smuggled from Lebanon into Syria by particular groups in Lebanon involved in attempts to destabilize Syria by supplying armed terrorist groups in Syria with weapons and funds. (Text 6)

Example12-a

وحول ما جاء في الفقرتين ٣٩ و ٤٢ حول الحظر المفروض على السلاح ومراقبة الحدود، فقد تجاهل ممثل الأمين العام، وهو العارف بكل شيء، كما يدعي، بأن تهريب السلاح، كما يعرف الجميع هو من لبنان إلى سوريا، ومن قبل فئات معينة في لبنان تشارك في محاولات زعزعة الاستقرار في سوريا من خلال تزويد المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة في سوريا بالأسلحة والأموال للنيل من استقرار سوريا.

In example 12, the Arabic excerpt opts for coordination when English tends to use subordination. The clauses in Arabic are interrelated using coordinator و (wa) while in English through subordinating conjunction *although*.

Third, the extensive use of additive و (wa) compared to its English counterpart *and* is explained by the tendency of Arabic to use this conjunction in cases which are not possible in English, since و (wa) introduces the majority of Arabic sentences. That is to say, و (wa) commonly occurs in the initial position of sentences in order to signal the beginning of every paragraph except the first one. These are some examples:

Example 13-b

The National Transitional Council affirms that the danger that justified the call for a no-fly zone over Libya no longer exists, and that the new Libyan authorities are able to protect civilians without outside assistance. It therefore requests the Security Council to

Example 13-a

ويؤكد المجلس الوطني الانتقالي أن الخطر الذي استدعى حظر الطيران على ليبيا قد زال، وأن السلطات الليبية الجديدة قادرة على حماية المدنيين دون مساعدة أجنبية، ويطلب من مجلس الأمن اتخاذ الإجراء اللازم لإنهاء الولاية الواردة في قرار مجلس الأمن . ١٩٧٣ ، بشأن فرض الحظر الجوي وحماية المدنيين بحلول ٣١ تشرين

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take the measures necessary to terminate by 31 October 2011 the authorization provided under Security Council resolution 1973 (2011) relating to the imposition of a no-fly zone and the protection of civilians.

الأول/أكتوبر ٢٠١١.

The National Transitional Council would like to thank the United Nations Secretary-General and all the States that contributed to the implementation of the Security Council resolutions on Libya for supporting the Libyan people from the inception of their uprising to the day on which they rid themselves of the tyrant.

ويوجه المجلس الوطني الانتقالي الشكر إلى الأمين العام للأمم المتحدة وكل الدول التي شاركت في تنفيذ قرارات مجلس الأمن بشأن ليبيا على وقوفهم مع الشعب الليبي منذ بداية انتفاضته وحتى تخلصه من الطاغية.

I should be grateful if you would have this letter circulated as an official document of the Security Council. (Text 4)

وأرجو ممتنا تعميم هذه الرسالة بوصفها وثيقة رسمية لمجلس الأمن.

Fourth, the occurrence of و (wa) with other conjunctions such as the additive أيضاً (ʔaj.dan) and the adversative لكن (la:kin), which is very usual in Arabic, enhances its frequency. Equally, the conjunction *and* occurs with other conjunctions in English, e.g. *and also*, *and because*, but does not occur with *but*. Such occurrences of و (wa) express the various conjunctive relations of additives, adversatives, causals and temporals. Consider this example:

Example 14-b

Example14-a

However, the difficulty of conducting that dialogue, which is caused by the negativity of the opposition stance, will not divert us from moving along the path of the reform

ولكن تعذر إجراء هذا الحوار بسبب سلبية مواقف المعارضة لا يثنينا عن السير في طريق الإصلاح الذي نريده والذي لن نترك للتخريب والتآمر على مصالح سورية أن تحول دون مواصلة سيرنا في طريق تحقيقه.

which we desire; we will not allow
subversion and conspiracies against the
interests of Syria to prevent us continuing
towards our goal. (Text 3)

Finally, the multifunctional nature of و (wa) working as causals, temporals or adversatives increases its frequency; this is also valid for the conjunction *and* but with lower frequencies. In this case, multifunctional و (wa) is translated according to its function, and for this reason its extensive use makes texts more cohesive.

VI.1.3.2. Causal and Temporal Conjunctions

The analysis of causal conjunctions shows that statistically significant differences between the two sub-corpora are identified in this sub-category ($p< 0.05$). The findings reveal that Arabic uses a greater proportion of causals than English. This is attributed to the fact that Arabic tends to make relationships between sentences more explicit, and finds it important to clarify this relation more than English.

Regarding temporal conjunctions, the UN texts employ these items in the two sub-corpora, quite similarly. This is ascribed to the tendency of writers and translators to make the sequential/chronological relationships between sentences explicit, as they reflect the narrative function of successions of facts, events or precise reports that have taken place. The significant proportion of temporal conjunctions in the UN texts is, therefore, used mainly to express the external time form rather than how the writers/translators organised their thoughts.

Briefly said, it is obvious that the accurate use of conjunctions of various categories plays an important role in the organisation of legal documents, particularly the UN texts, as it

guarantees the configuration of the logical flow of Arabic original texts and their English translations.

VI.1.4. Lexical Cohesive Devices in the PCUNTs

From the results obtained in chapter five, it appears that there is a great tendency in the UN texts to avoidance of ambiguity through the abundant use of repetition and the scarce use of superordinate terms, general words and collocations. Previous research works of Hoey (1991), for example, demonstrated that approximately 50% of a text's cohesive devices are lexical cohesion, making it the highest frequency of use among all the cohesive devices.

Lexical cohesion is considered as one of the main resources for text organisation and for the specificity of legal discourse, which is a complex and very specific linguistic type. It is achieved partly through reiteration and partly through collocation. Regarding the subcategories of lexical cohesion, the lexical features of reiteration and collocation reinforce the conservative and highly cohesive nature of legal texts. The results obtained reveal that lexical reiteration is much more frequent in AUNTs, whereas lexical collocation is employed more frequently in EUNTs.

Lexical reiteration contributes significantly to the cohesion of the UN texts, in the sense that patterns of repetition, synonymy, superordinate or general words are included for the sake of emphasis and for guaranteeing a consistent flow of ideas. Apart from the category of repetition, which is very abundant in the corpus, other reiteration devices tend to be infrequent. This distribution is due to the very specificity of legal discourse, which favours the recurrence of lexical items and which carefully avoids superordinate terms and general words. The use of general words such as *people*, *matter, person*, *thing*, and *child* appear to be

very scarce; yet, more specific and specialised words, such as *security*, *government, council*, *republic* and *occupation,* which are only applicable to the UN context, are prevalent.

As far as collocation is concerned, though it is much less used than reiteration in the two sub-corpora, it still plays a vital role at the inter-sentential level; it exceeds the boundaries of sentences and even paragraphs in order to guarantee the required accurateness and clarity of texts. Relations of antonomy, meronymy or co-hyponymy do exist but with lower frequencies; that is why they are not included in the analysis.

VI.1.4.1. Lexical Repetition

In what follows, repetition, the most prevailing type of lexical reiteration, is discussed. As shown in the previous chapter, significant differences exist in the occurrence frequencies of repetition between AUNTs and EUNTs ($p < 0.05$).

It is suggested that because of the type of legal discourse, both Arabic and English texts tend to favour lexical repetition. The abundant use of repetition items in the corpus is ascribed to the nature of legal texts, which requires a deep concern to preserve the highest levels of accuracy and eliminate ambiguity. In other words, the repetitive use of identical lexical items guarantees the specificity and clarity of texts, and, therefore, helps writers to convey the message in those texts properly.

In fact, lexical repetition meets certain conditions related to the extracting of legal knowledge. Characteristics of legal texts, which involve imposing obligations and informing readers, dictate that lexical repetitions must be widely used in order to guarantee higher degrees of clarity and precision. Consider this example:

Example 15-b	Example 15-a

Example 15-b

Those who claim to care about Lebanon's stability and territorial integrity should also care about its security and independence. Therefore, effective pressure must be brought to bear on Israel in order to compel it to withdraw from the Lebanese territory it continues to occupy. Steps must be taken to prevent and put an end to Israeli violations.

(Text 5)

Example 15-a

إن مَن يدعي الحرص على استقرار لبنان ووحدة أراضيه يجب أن يكون حريصا على أمنه واستقلاله أيضا، وبالتالي يجب العمل على الضغط الفعلي على إسرائيل للانسحاب من باقي الأراضي اللبنانية المحتلة، وعلى اتخاذ إجراءات رادعة لمنع الانتهاكات الإسرائيلية ووقفها .

Repetition of previously mentioned items in the text is clearly observed in this excerpt. Examples of the same word repetition as in أمنه و استقلاله (ʔamnih wa ʔistiqla:lih), same phrase repetition as وحدة أراضيه (wi.hdat ʔara:.di:h), استقرار لبنان (ʔistiqra:r lubna:n), الأراضي اللبنانية المحتلة (alʔara.dhi: allubna:nijja almu.htalla), and word root repetition as in الإسرائيلية (alʔi.sra:ʔi:li:jja), الأراضي (alʔara:.di:) are illustrated. This variety of repetitious elements is employed by the writer to accentuate on the necessity of taking the steps required to liberate the parts of Lebanon territory occupied by Israel and for its territorial integrity, sovereignty and independence.

In this view, it can be said that the semantic stability of this text is established via the relatedness of lexical items throughout the text. Al-Jabr (1987) stressed that this semantic stability relies on the precise repetition of previously mentioned items occurring at both the intra-sentential and inter-sentential levels. Hence, it becomes obvious that the use of lexical repetition is inevitable for achieving cohesion in legal discourse.

In the UN documents, the prevailing type of reiteration devices is *simple lexical repetition*. The recurrence of the same lexical items signals cohesion relation between the

sentences and makes the text more explicit and coherent. In example 16-b, repetition of the lexical items المحكمة (alma.hkama) *the Court* and محامي دفاع (mu.ha:mi: di:fa:ç) *counsel for the defence* demonstrate the simple lexical repetition. It is described as identical recurrence of previous elements, which guarantees a cohesive referential link.

Example 16-b	Example 16-a
In response to Security Council resolution 1970 (2011) of 26 February 2011, which decided that the Libyan authorities should cooperate fully with the International Criminal Court (ICC) and with the Prosecutor of the Court, and pursuant to its commitments in respect of the Court, the Government of Libya, having secured the approval of the Public Prosecutor, received a delegation from the Court on 6 June 2012.	استجابة لقرار مجلس الأمن رقم ١٩٧٠، ٢٠١١ بتاريخ ٢٦ شباط/فبراير٢٠١١ الذي نصّ على تعاون السلطات الليبية تعاونا كاملا مع المحكمة الجنائية الدولية، ومع المدعي العام للمحكمة، وإيفاءً بالتزاماتها تجاه المحكمة، قامت الحكومة الليبية باستقبال وفد من المحكمة بناء على موافقة معالي النائب العام في ليبيا ابتداء من ٦ حزيران يونيه ٢٠١٢29.
The basic purpose of the visit was to provide the ICC-appointed counsel for the defence with an opportunity of meeting with the accused, Saif al-Islam Gaddafi, at his place of detention in the city of Zintan and to discuss the possibility of designating another counsel for the defence, one of his own choosing. (Text 10)	كان الهدف الأساسي من الزيارة إتاحة الفرصة لمحامي الدفاع المعيّن من قبل المحكمة للقاء المتهم سيف الإسلام القذافي في مقر اعتقاله بمدينة الزنتان، وكذلك مناقشة إمكانية تعيين محامي دفاع آخر من اختياره.

Lexical cohesion is also maintained through repetition of the same phrase across parts of the text; it joins a number of sentences together. The repetition of the noun phrase *the Government of the Syrian Arab Republic* is demonstrated in example 17.

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[29] Some parts of the original texts have no equivalents in the translated texts.

Example 17-b	Example 17-a

The Government of the Syrian Arab Republic rejects the Israeli claims concerning the transfer of weapons to Lebanon. Those claims are a desperate attempt to distract attention from the real threat, namely Israel's own aggressive policies, which endanger international peace and security in the region as a whole.

وترفض حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية الادعاءات الإسرائيلية حول نقل السلاح إلى لبنان، والتي تأتي في إطار محاولة بائسة لتشتيت الانتباه عن الخطر الحقيقي المتمثل في السياسات العدوانية الإسرائيلية التي تهدد الأمن والسلم الدوليين في المنطقة ككل.

The Government of the Syrian Arab Republic affirms that the Syrian Arab Army has continued to defend all Syrian territory and respond to terrorist groups, which are armed and funded by States and actors that are now well known.

وتؤكد حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية أن الجيش العربي السوري ماض في الدفاع عن كامل الأراضي السورية وفي تصديه للمجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة المدعومة والممولة من دول وجهات أصبحت معروفة.

The Syrian Arab Republic reiterates that the delineation of the border is a question of sovereignty and a bilateral issue that should be decided by the States when the conditions on the ground permit. The delineation of borders in the Shabʿa Farms area should take place after the Israeli occupation of that area has come to an end in accordance with the authoritative international resolutions. (Text 11)

وتجدد حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية التأكيد على أن مسألة ترميم الحدود هي شأن سيادي ثنائي يقرره البلدان حينما تتيح الظروف على الأرض ذلك، وأن ترسيم الحدود في منطقة مزارع شبعا يتم بعد إنهاء الاحتلال الإسرائيلي لتلك المنطقة، وفقا للقرارات الشرعية الدولية.

Similarly, long paragraphs and larger chunks of text are interconnected by this type of repetition. In example 18, the phrase ونؤكد مجددا (wa nuʔakkidu muʒaddadan) *we affirm once more* is an instance of phrase repetition.

Example 18-b	Example 18-a
We affirm once more that the statement in paragraph 72 about the drawing of the border being critical for the positive relationship between the two countries is unacceptable. The relationship which currently exists between the two countries is positive and casting doubt on it is interference in the internal affairs of the two countries.	ونؤكد مجددا بأن ما ورد في الفقرة ٧٢ حول "أن ترسيم الحدود أمر حاسم لعلاقة إيجابية بين البلدين" غير مقبول، وأن العلاقة القائمة الآن بين البلدين إيجابية وأن التشكيك بذلك يعتبر تدخلا في الشؤون الداخلية للبلدين.
We affirm once more that the international community, if it wishes to play a positive role on the Lebanese scene, must strive as a matter of urgency to end the Israeli occupation of Lebanese territory. This will, of itself, bolster the security and stability of Lebanon and have a positive impact on Syria and the entire region. (Text6)	نؤكد مجددا أنه يجب على المجتمع الدولي، إذا أراد أن يلعب دورا إيجابيا في الساحة اللبنانية، العمل السريع لإنهاء الاحتلال الإسرائيلي للأراضي اللبنانية ، الأمر الذي من شأنه أن يدعم أمن واستقرار لبنان وانعكاس ذلك إيجابيا على سوريا والمنطقة كلها.

To sum up, it can be said that the occurrence of the same word or same phrase more than one time in the text, at both the intra-sentential and inter-sentential levels, is in order to keep the semantic stability of texts and to maintain precision. Al-Jabr (1987:153) suggested, "[in scientific texts] lexical repetition keeps the semantic identity of reference alive in the text and this facilitates connecting new anaphors with previous antecedents, which facilitates integrating new information in memory…" This is also valid for legal texts, in which lexical repetition can also have a facilitator effect, on the processing of texts.

VI.1.4.2. Synonyms

A close look at the corpus reveals that synonyms are the second most widely used reiteration devices in the English sub-corpus and the least frequently used in the Arabic one.

The results show that no significant differences are identified in the use of these devices between the two sub-corpora (p>0.05).

It is noteworthy that the category of lexical synonyms in legal texts is viewed as another case of sense relations when a cohesive tie is established. It holds between two or more lexical items, which have more or less the same meaning and which can be used interchangeably. What is important is that they establish the same legal effect.

In fact, while synonymy represents the lowest density of lexical reiteration devices in AUNTs, the occurrences of lexical repetition demonstrate a higher ratio. The occasional use of synonyms instead of repetition is ascribed to the writers' tendency to ensuring a variation of devices to the texts and avoiding boredom. It is obvious then that although the use of synonyms is not so abundant in the parallel corpus, the vocabulary of this discourse relies also to some extent on this category. The tendency to using synonyms does not affect the cohesive unity of texts, as the modifications made in texts do not lead in any way to ambiguity of concepts or to confusions in meanings. For this reason, it is important to justify occurrences of this category in the corpus.

The type of synonyms that is prominently used in the parallel corpus is manifested in the use of consecutive lexical units that share the same conceptual meaning. They are labelled as *lexical doublets* in Jawad (2007) and *lexical couplets* in Johnstone (1983). Jawad (2007) asserted that alternatives forming the lexical doublets are also used as they reflect wordiness and rhetorics of legal discourse.

In example 19, the type of lexical doublets is manifested in the simultaneous occurrence of two near synonyms أمن واستقرار (ʔamn wa ʔistiqra:r) and الدعم والمساعدة (addaçm walmusa:çada). The two words of these two pairs are employed to complement each other;

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they are believed to have more or less the same meaning referring to one single element, *peace* in the first pair and *help* in the second one. The recurrence of the two words across the text contributes to the clarity of meanings and guarantees a cohesive effect, as it interconnects the various parts of text together.

Example 19-b	Example 19-a
They should also not continue to overlook that, in order to ensure Lebanon's security and stability, it must act swiftly to put an end to the Israeli occupation of Lebanese territory, which would bolster Lebanon's security and independence.	وكذلك عدم الاستمرار في تجاهل أن العنصر الجوهري للأمن والاستقرار اللبناني هو ردع إسرائيل عن انتهاكاتها المستمرة وإنهاء احتلالها للأراضي اللبنانية الأمر الذي من شأنه أن يدعم أمن واستقرار لبنان وانعكاس ذلك إيجابيا على سوريا والمنطقة كلها.
Lastly, the Syrian Arab Republic reaffirms its support for the stability and security of Lebanon, for its efforts to liberate the parts of its territory occupied by Israel, and for its territorial integrity, sovereignty and independence.	وأخيرا تجدد سوريا التأكيد على دعمها لاستقرار و أمن لبنان ودعم جهوده لتحرير أرضه التي تحتلها إسرائيل ولسلامة لبنان الإقليمية وسيادته واستقلاله.
The Syrian Arab Republic reaffirms respect for the sovereignty, territorial integrity, unity and political independence of Lebanon. Syria further reaffirms its commitment to providing all possible support and assistance to consolidate the authority and sovereignty of Lebanon over all Lebanese territory. (Text 6)	تؤكد الجمهورية العربية السورية، مجددا، على احترام سيادة لبنان وسلامته الإقليمية ووحدته واستقلاله السياسي، وعلى التزام سوريا بتقديم الدعم والمساعدة الممكنة لدعم سلطته وسيادته على أنحاء الأراضي اللبنانية كافة.

It is worth mentioning that in addition to the cohesive effect resulting from the choice of synonymous elements, writers or translators resort to using synonyms in order to express similar ideas or reinforce what has been said before. For example:

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Example 20 –b	Example 20- a
The Syrian Arab Republic stresses the need for the international community to take genuine, responsible action to contain Israel and prevent any further infringement of the rights of the inhabitants of the occupied territories in Syria, Lebanon and Palestine. (Text 6)	إن الجمهورية العربية السورية تؤكد على ضرورة التحرك الجدي والمسؤول من قبل المجتمع الدولي لردع إسرائيل ومنعها من الاستمرار في انتهاكها لحقوق أصحاب الأراضي المحتلة في سورية ولبنان وفلسطين...

In example 20, the lexical items ردع (radç) and منع (manç) in the second clause refer back to *put an end* mentioned anaphorically in the first sentence, and these two lexical items are used synonymously.

VI.1.4.3. Cross Language Interpretation

The findings of this study reveal that significant differences are found in the occurrence frequencies of two subcategories of lexical cohesion between AUNTs and EUNTs ($p < 0.05$). As far as the prevailing lexical cohesive devices used in the parallel corpus are concerned, significant differences between the two sub-corpora are identified in the category of repetition ($p < 0.05$).

The results show that despite the high frequency of use of repetition in both Arabic and English, Arabic uses them more frequently than English as they are used in occasions which are not tolerated in English, and this justifies the significant differences between the two sub-corpora. Williams (1983:126 quoted in Al-Jabr, 1987) maintained that "in Arabic 'the same theme' is repeated in 'successive clauses...more frequently than English does, even when it is grammatically possible to omit it'." In other words, what can be considered as a semantically redundant expression in English may not be so in Arabic; that is why Arabic is believed to derive much cohesion from this redundant device. It is important to note that this

form of redundancy is not characterised as wordiness or unnecessary repetition as it is usually believed to be so; this functional redundancy in Arabic is acceptable and very possible.

Similar to the role that pronominal reference plays in the processing of texts, lexical repetition can have a faciliatory effect on the processing of Arabic texts; the recurrence of the same lexical items keeps the semantic identity of reference alive in the reader's mind. As Al-Jabr (1987) argued, this factor is of a particular relevance to the efficient processing of Arabic texts in which this identity of reference may become ambiguous because of their dense information load.

Two main factors that contribute to the abundant use of lexical repetition in Arabic are suggested below:

First, the tendency to using lexical repetition is ascribed to its nature as a feature of written Arabic that appears in many forms, including word root repetition and phrase repetition. That is to say, the abundant word root, which can generate many derivatives, is one essential feature of the tendency to use this device very frequently in Arabic. For example, Al-Jabr (1987) suggested that the words تعليم (taçli:m) *education*, عالم (ça:lim) *scientist*, يعلم (juçallim) *to teach* and معلم (muçallim) *teacher*, are all derivatives of the word علم (çilm) *science*. El-Farahaty (2015) proposed also some instances of root repetition, which are employed to add force to the verb; they include the words طلب طلبا (.talaba .talaban) and رفض رفضا باتا (rafa.da raf.dan ba:ttan). The following excerpts include the different types of repetition occurring in the PCUNTs:

Example 21-b	Example 21-a
It recalls that the political programme put forward by President Bashar Al-Assad to resolve the crisis in Syria includes guarantees for all Syrian citizens who wish to return, as well as measures to facilitate their return. (Text 11)	وتذكر حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية، بأن البرنامج السياسي الذي طرحه السيد الرئيس بشار الأسد، رئيس الجمهورية العربية السورية، لحل الأزمة في سوريا، تضمن ضمانات لكافة المواطنين المهجرين الراغبين بالعودة وتقديم التسهيلات اللازمة لعودتهم.

Repetition of the same word root is very abundant in the AUN texts. Two occurrences of this type in example 21-a are manifested in ضمانات تضمن (ta.dman .dama:na:t) and لعودتهم العودة (çawdatihim/alçawdati). The two words share the same root and lexical morpheme, but have different grammatical functions.

In example 22-a, there are two types of repetition, repetition of the same word الاحتلال (alʔi.htila:l) *occupation* and root repetition المحتلة (almu.htalla) *occupying*. The two occurrences of repetition in the English translations are the exact equivalents of the repetitious words which occur twice.

Example 22-b	Example 22-a
Since the Israeli occupation of the Syrian Golan in 1967, the international community has consistently maintained its forceful rejection of that occupation, demanding that occupying Israeli forces should be withdrawn from all of the Syrian Golan. (Text 16)	منذ الاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان السوري عام ١٩٦٧ والمجتمع الدولي يكرر رفضه الشديد لهذا الاحتلال مطالبا بانسحاب القوات الإسرائيلية المحتلة من كامل الجولان السوري.

Second, repetitions of any kind usually serve some rhetorical purposes. In addition to the textual function that lexical repetition serves in joining the different parts of text together,

lexical repetition has also some rhetorical functions to serve. Jawad (2009: 762-763) asserted that:

> The rhetorical function of repetition is concerned with the meaning that formal repetition invokes in the mind of the reader. By the recurrence of certain lexical items in a short piece of text, a foregrounded image is projected on the surface of the text signalling a semantic weight that goes beyond the mere senses of the repeated utterances.

This rhetorical technique is obviously used in the UN texts, since there is a strong trend towards description and argumentation. The use of lexical repetition which is ascribed to rhetorical devices, such as assertion التوكيد (attawki:d) and exaggeration المبالغة (almuba:laĝa), aims at persuading readers. Koch (1981 in Al-Jabr, 1987) examined repetition in argumentative discourse. She (ibid: 82-83) wrote: "repetition of form and content yields much cohesion to Arabic texts. Repetition is a means of persuasion in Arabic argumentative discourse." This view is also affirmed by Baker (1992: 236):

> Arabic is well known to use repetition as a major rhetorical device. This includes repetition of both form and substance, so that the same information is repeated again and again in a variety of ways in an effort to convince by assertion.

Rhetorical repetition is used in example 23 to add emphasis and power to the meaning of texts. It helps readers remember and recognise the importance of the message conveyed by the authors of documents in transmitting their Members States' positions on the UN reports or in expressing their governments' opinions and concerns about a specific topic. In what follows is an extract from the PCUNTs, showing the term *Syria* reappearing in every sentence, in order to put emphasis on *Syria the Republic*:

Example 23-b	Example 23-a
The references made in the report to the Syrian Arab Republic's efforts to implement the provisions of Security Council resolution 1559 (2004) are an explicit acknowledgement that Syria has fulfilled all obligations incumbent on it under that resolution. It is therefore no longer acceptable for the Secretary-General to introduce Syria into his reports on the implementation of resolution 1559 (2004). The report notes not only that presidential and parliamentary elections took place in a free and fair manner in Lebanon (i.e., without foreign interference or influence), but also that Syria had withdrawn its troops and military equipment from Lebanon and established full diplomatic relations with Lebanon. The reference made in the report to joint efforts by Syria and Saudi Arabia to address the Lebanese political crisis is yet another indication that Syria is doing its utmost to preserve the security and stability of Lebanon. (Text 1)	إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن ١٥٥٩ـ ٢٠٠٤ هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، ومن غير المقبول الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار١٥٥٩ـ ٢٠٠٤ بالرغم من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه . فقد أشاد التقرير ليس فقط بإجراء انتخابات رئاسية ونيابية حرة ونزيهة في لبنان أي من غير تدخل أو نفوذ أجنبي، وبجهود سوريا حول سحبها لقوّاتها ومعدّاتها العسكرية من لبنان، وإنما أشاد أيضا بإقامة علاقات دبلوماسية كاملة بين سوريا ولبنان . وإن تناول التقرير الجهود المشتركة السعودية – السورية المبذولة لمعالجة تصاعد الأزمة السياسية في لبنان، لهو دليل آخر على حرص سوريا لبذل كل جهد ممكن للحفاظ على أمن واستقرار لبنان.

In the Arabic extract, the term *Syria* and its derivative recur in each sentence in order to convince readers that *Syria the Republic* had drawn attention to fulfilling all obligations incumbent on it. This recurrence of the term *Syria* aims at putting emphasis on the main point that Syria is doing its utmost to preserve the security and stability of Lebanon in that document and that *Syria* is still a republic despite all. Therefore, it can be said that repetition

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is prominently used to put emphasis on the same point of view. The employment of this cohesive device is not at random; it is rather dictated by overall rhetorical purpose.

As far as English is concerned, Wright and Hope (2005) asserted that lexical explicitness, the most remarkable feature of texts, is contingent on lexical repetition rather than reference, such as pronominals. Such evidence is demonstrated in the English UN texts, in which the organisation of lexical cohesion, achieved by abundant use of lexical repetition is remarkably used more than that of personal reference devices. The lower employment of pronominal devices is ascribed to the writers/translators' aim at avoiding any ambiguity, which may hinder the clarity of texts.

In brief, it can be said that only one type of lexical reiteration, repetition, is widely distributed in the two sub-corpora; no variation in the use of different types of lexical cohesion is demonstrated in the parallel corpus. This finding is attributed to the fact that repetition guarantees to a great extent the exact reference to the most important points in the text, and conveys strong emphasis on the ideas or facts that writers want to accentuate. The remaining lexical cohesive devices such as superordinate terms and general words, which are believed to add variation to the textuality of language, are not favoured in legal discourse; they are avoided since writers aim at reducing any possible ambiguity that may affect the information or cause confusion of meanings for the target audience.

It is evident therefore that lexical repetition plays an important role in the organisation of legal texts, in general, and the UN texts in particular. Repetition is considered as one of the favourable textual issues that lead to much clarity and effectiveness in the two languages. However, Arabic tends to favour this device far more than English does. As Williams (1989)

asserted, this abundant use is far from being a trivial linguistic resource or an ornamental device in Arabic, but it is essentially an important feature of textuality.

VI.1.5. Summary

This section has revealed that there are more similarities than differences in terms of the types of cohesive devices used between the Arabic and the English sub-corpora. The similarities are significantly preserved for the purpose of accurateness, transparency and formality that characterise the language of the UN texts. However, due to the stylistic preferences of each language, differences markedly occur in their frequencies of occurrence.

What is noteworthy in this study is that there is a great reliance on lexical cohesion, particularly, repetition, displayed by both languages; yet, Arabic seems to use this category more than English does. This is attributed to the fact that lexis establishes the necessary links between propositions in texts, and it is through their relation to lexis that grammatical cohesive devices obtain their meaning. In addition, the results have shown that Arabic seems to display a lower occurrence of synonyms than English. Also, pronominal reference is more frequently used in Arabic than English, which rather resorts to repetition. Moreover, the categories of substitution and ellipsis are not favoured in the parallel corpus; yet, English uses them more frequently than Arabic. Furthermore, the results have shown that Arabic texts are more explicitly cohesive than their English counterparts through the use of additives; while Arabic seems to be coordinative, English tends to be subordinative. Finally, it should be borne in mind that these characteristics are restricted to legal texts, particularly, the UN texts.

VI.2. Analysis of Shifts of Cohesion in Translation

Based on the contrastive analysis of the AUNTs and the EUNTs undertaken in the previous section, the analysis of shifts of cohesion in translation is carried out. The results of analysis are discussed in the light of the *explicitation hypothesis* suggested by Blum-Kulka (1986), in order to describe the accuracy of the translation of these devices and to examine how translators cope with the differences.

As previously examined in chapter one, explicitation is a frequently observed phenomenon in translation. It is detected in the higher level of explicitness of certain elements in the TT, either by adding, omitting or substituting cohesive devices with some others. Blum-Kulka (1986) stated that in the process of translation there is a tendency to explicate. This strategy is achieved as a result of the interpretation carried out on the ST which leads to a more redundant TT than the ST. This redundancy might be attributed to the imposed restrictions of the translation process, which lead translators to explicitate a text in order to facilitate the message and make it more intelligible to readers. This process of linguistic modifications into the TT may help explain a tendency in translation towards not only explicitation but also sometimes simplification, normalisation and levelling out in an attempt to ease the processing effort for readers, as suggested by Baker (1993).

With the help of the AntPConc software, the detection of the techniques of explicitation phenomena in the English translated texts become possible. The explicitation hypothesis is tested by contrasting all instances of cohesion relations in the STs along with their English translations in the UN texts, in order to determine the frequent occurrence of this translation phenomenon in the translated texts.

The results of analysis indicate obvious stylistic, syntactic and lexical differences between the two languages. The results are categorised into three main types of explicitation, as suggested in Al-Amri (2004). Shifts ascribed to stylistic differences, are mainly discussed in what follows, whereas those ascribed to systematic differences and the nature of the translation process itself are reviewed when necessary. It is worth mentioning that these types of shifts are in turn influenced by a number of translation actions, such as additions, omissions or substitutions of the semantic features. The additions, omissions or substitutions of these devices, operating at both the intra-sentential and the inter-sentential level, refer, respectively, to the establishment of new cohesive devices, omission of existing cohesive devices and substitution of the types of cohesive devices.

It is important to note that the decisions that translators have taken, either consciously or subconsciously, in their use of the explicitation techniques, are due to some basic triggers, such as avoiding ambiguity, adding further explanations and considering culture-bound translation norms/features. In fact, these shifts are prompted as a result of the translators' aims to produce natural translation products that fulfil the accuracy, transparency and formality of the UN texts. Nevertheless, because sometimes the reasons of the occurrence of instances of cohesive explicitation seem to be difficult to determine, what follows is an attempt at suggesting some possible explanations for when and why translators tend to produce shifts of cohesion in the translation product.

VI.2.1. Results of Analysis of Shifts of Cohesion

The qualitative analysis of the various pairs of texts is carried out sentence by sentence, showing the main patterns of shifts of cohesion in the English translations of the AUNTs. This analysis explains not only the differences between the Arabic STs and their English

translations, with respect to the various cohesive devices used, but also, answering the research questions: when and why translators shift the Arabic cohesive devices into English, and do these shifts establish equivalence at the discourse level in the target language? And, accordingly, confirming the corresponding hypothesis[30].

It is worth mentioning that the interpretation of results does not cover instances of the explicitation phenomenon in all the twenty pairs of texts. Only randomly selected samples, including *ten* texts, which are representative of the different sub-techniques of explicitation, and which are not repeated, are demonstrated in the following excerpts. A closer analysis of the concordance lines shows that while in most cases the examples reveal a number of patterns of explicitation, some others reveal observed patterns of implicitation. Consider the following examples.

VI.2.1.1. Addition of New Cohesion

This type of shifts demonstrates why translators add new cohesive relations in the TTs not found in the STs. The following examples selected from the investigated corpus illustrate that shifts of this kind occur as a result of the translators' tendency to perform some various actions, such as rendering an ST non-cohesive relation by a cohesive relation in the TT, adding new information, or dividing the ST complex construction into several independent sentences.

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[30] Because Arabic and English belong to different language families, many considerable differences may appear when it comes to translation. Therefore, shifts of Arabic cohesive devices would rather occur instead of preserving them in English; they would most often succeed in establishing textual equivalence.

1. The results obtained suggest that translators have the tendency to explicitate through adding conjunctions, reference devices, particularly, comparatives and demonstratives on every possible occasion. Consider the examples 1 to 8:

(1-a) **Arabic ST 2**

كما شهدت تلك الفترة انفتاحًا سياسيًا ودبلوماسيًا عربيًا وأجنبيًا على العراق، الأمر الذي دل على صحة النهج الذي تسير عليه العملية السياسية، ومنح حكومة العراق مصداقية أكثر على الصعيد العربي والإقليمي والدولي.

(1-b) **English TT 2**

> Political and diplomatic relations between Iraq, on the one hand, and Arab and foreign countries, on the other, flourished in that period, thereby validating the course of the political process in Iraq and giving the Government of Iraq greater credibility at the Arab, regional and international levels.

In example 1, the writer resorts to clarification, which is indicated by means of the noun الأمر (alʔamr) *the matter* followed by the relative clause الذي (allaði:) *which*. This kind of explanatory construction provides some additional information on the first clause. It is evident, therefore, that the ST sets up a resultative relation between the two clauses via a non-cohesive element الأمر الذي (alʔamr allaði:), whereas in the TT, a cohesive device is established by means of the resultative conjunction *thereby*. Consequently, it can be said that explicitation of apparent implicit resultative conjunction in the ST in joining the two clauses is established in the TT. That is why the conjunction *thereby* in the TT is inserted where there is none in the ST.

(2-a) **Arabic ST 2**

وسيشمل التعاون بموجب هاتين الوثيقتين مجالات الحياة المختلفة لما فيه مصلحة الاستقرار
والتنمية في العراق و *ستنعكس* آثاره الإيجابية على المنطقة عموما .

(2-b) **English TT 2**

In the interest of the stability and development of Iraq, cooperation
will cover all aspects of life under those agreements. Such cooperation
will also have a positive impact on the entire region.

In example 2, cohesion is set up via the finite verb ستنعكس (satançakis) *will be*
reflected, which involves the underlying semantic relation of result, and the two clauses are
interconnected without an overt cohesive device in the ST. However, a cohesive tie is
established in the TT by inserting a comparative reference *such* (i.e. an adverb of particular
comparison), along with the repetition of the word *cooperation*. In addition, the ST structure
is changed to become two sentences in the TT. Thus, explicitation shift is established in the
translated text via the addition of new cohesion.

(3-a) **Arabic ST 7**

كما نود الإشارة إلى أن العراق قد فقد جزءا كبيرا من وثائقه المتعلقة بملف التعويضات
نتيجة الأحداث التي مر بها، وأن قرارات مجلس إدارة لجنة الأمم المتحدة للتعويضات قد
أعطت الحق للعراق في الاطلاع على المطالبات المقدمة إلى لجنة الأمم المتحدة للتعويضات
وإبداء الرأي فيها وتزويده بنسخ منها،...

(3-b) **English TT 7**

We should also like to refer to the fact that Iraq has lost many of the
documents relating to the compensation file as a consequence of the

events that have taken place in the country, and that decisions made by the Governing Council of the United Nations Compensation Committee gave Iraq the right to see requests submitted to the Committee, express an opinion thereon and be advised in that regard.

In example 3, the addition of new cohesion is manifested in the insertion of the blend word *thereon*, which is added optionally by the translator where there is no equivalent expression in the ST. The use of the prepositional form of وإبداء الرأي فيها (wa ʔibda:ʔ arraʔji fi:ha:) in addition to the use of enclitic pronoun ها (ha:) in referring back to the clause maintain the reference relationship holding between clauses.

(4-a) **Arabic ST 2**

لقد تكللت جهود الكتل السياسية خلال السنة الماضية، بتشكيل حكومة الشراكة الوطنية، بعد فترة طويلة من المشاورات التي أكدت على رغبة تلك الكتل في أن يتم انتقال السلطة في العراق بشكل ديمقراطي وسلمي ووفق الآليات الدستورية...

(4-b) **English TT 2**

Thanks to their efforts in the previous year, the political blocs succeeded in forming a national partnership Government. This achievement came after prolonged consultations which affirmed their desire that power in Iraq should be transferred democratically and peacefully and in accordance with the Constitution.

In example 4, the translator seems to opt for adding some information not found in the ST. It becomes possible for the translator to explicate through the addition of the word *achievement* and the use of the singular demonstrative pronoun *this* in the TT, apparently, without any loss or change of meaning. In addition, the ST structure is changed to become two sentences in the TT. Thus, explicitation shift is established in the translated text via the

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addition of new cohesion; the addition of noun *achievement* makes reference to *the efforts of the political blocs* evident and easier for readers.

(5-a) **Arabic ST 1**

إن التواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان تضمه اتفاقات لبنانية ـ فلسطينية ولا علاقة لسوريا بها، وأما بالنسبة لما ذكره التقرير حول مواقع فلسطينية تقع على الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية، فإننا نجدد التأكيد أن جميع هذه المواقع تقع ضمن الأراضي اللبنانية، وبالتالي فإن سوريا لن تتدخل بهذا الأمر، وإن السبب الرئيسي للتواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان وغيره من دول الجوار، ومنها سوريا، هو استمرار احتلال إسرائيل للأراضي الفلسطينية ورفضها تنفيذ قرارات الشرعية الدولية لا سيما قراراي مجلس الأمن رقم (٣٣٨) ١٩٦٧ و(٢٤٢) ١٩٧٣ الذي يكفل حق عودة اللاجئين إلى أراضيهم التي تم طردهم منها وقرار الجمعية العامة رقم ١٩٤(III) .

(5-b) **English TT 1**

The Palestinian presence in Lebanon is governed by Lebanese-Palestinian agreements which do not concern Syria. With respect to the Palestinian positions located along the Syrian-Lebanese border that are noted in the report, we reiterate that all those positions lie within Lebanese territory. Therefore, Syria will not intervene in this matter. We also reiterate that the primary reason for the Palestinian presence in Lebanon and other neighbouring States, including Syria, is the continued occupation by Israel of Palestinian territory and its refusal to implement United Nations resolutions, including General Assembly resolution 194 (III), which guarantees the Palestine refugees the right to return to the homes from which they were expelled.

In example 5, three cohesive conjunctions are set up in the ST: adversative construction وأما- ف (waʕamma:-fa), resultative وبالتالي (wabitta:li:) and additive و (wa). However, in the English translation, new cohesion is achieved by rendering the ST structure of one long sentence into four independent sentences, and joined by continuative *with respect to*, resultative conjunction *therefore* and additive conjunction *also*, along with the use of

personal pronoun *we* in *we also reiterate*. Therefore, expansion of information, through inserting these devices, explicitly indicates the underlying semantic relations between the sentences, with no loss of meaning.

(6-a) **Arabic ST 1**

يجب على معدي التقرير الالتزام باحترام استقلال لبنان وسيادته وعدم التدخل في شؤونه الداخلية تحت أي ذريعة كانت، وكذلك عدم الاستمرار في تجاهل أن العنصر الجوهري للأمن والاستقرار اللبناني هو ردع إسرائيل عن انتهاكاتها المستمرة وإنهاء احتلالها للأراضي اللبنانية.

(6-b) **English TT 1**

The authors of the report should respect the independence and sovereignty of Lebanon and should not interfere in its internal affairs on any pretext whatsoever. They should also not continue to overlook that, in order to ensure Lebanon's security and stability, it is vital to deter Israel's continual violations and end its occupation of Lebanese territory.

In example 6, a cohesive relation in the ST is maintained through the use of the conjunction وكذلك (wakaða:lika) *also*, which joins the two clauses together. However, in the English translation, a new cohesion is ensured by dividing the ST sentence into two independent sentences joined by the personal pronoun *they* and the repetition of modal *should*. In fact, the use of personal reference explicitly signals the underlying semantic relation between the two sentences.

(7-a) **Arabic ST 3**

<div dir="rtl">

ولكن تعذر إجراء هذا الحوار بسبب سلبية مواقف المعارضة لا يثنينا عن السير في طريق الإصلاح الذي نريده والذي لن نترك للتخريب والتآمر على مصالح سورية أن تحول دون مواصلة سيرنا في طريق تحقيقه.

</div>

(7-b) **English TT 3**

However, the difficulty of conducting that dialogue, which is caused by the negativity of the opposition stance, will not divert us from moving along the path of the reform which we desire; we will not allow subversion and conspiracies against the interests of Syria to prevent us continuing towards our goal.

In example 7, the underlying semantic relation of addition is explicitly set up in the ST to join the two clauses by inserting the conjunction و (wa) *and*. However, in the TT the two clauses are not linked by a conjunction but through inserting a punctuation mark, a semicolon. That is to say, a semicolon, which is used to separate the pair of adjacent sentences, is probably accurate for the clarification and logical explicitation of the text.

(8-a) **Arabic ST 6**

<div dir="rtl">

تؤكد الجمهورية العربية السورية، مجددا، على احترام سيادة لبنان وسلامته الإقليمية ووحدته واستقلاله السياسي، وعلى التزام سوريا بتقديم الدعم والمساعدة الممكنة لدعم سلطته وسيادته على أنحاء الأراضي اللبنانية كافة.

</div>

(8-b) **English TT 6**

The Syrian Arab Republic reaffirms respect for the sovereignty, territorial integrity, unity and political independence of Lebanon. Syria further reaffirms its commitment to providing all possible

support and assistance to consolidate the authority and sovereignty of Lebanon over all Lebanese territory.

In example 8, a cohesive relation of addition in the ST is established between the two clauses via the insertion of the additive conjunction و (wa) *and*, while in the TT two cohesive devices are inserted, as the ST structure is changed to become two sentences in the TT. Therefore, the underlying semantic relation of addition is maintained through the insertion of the conjunction *further* along with the repetition of the verb phrase *Syria reaffirms*.

2. A similar strategy is adopted in the TT where translators opt for changing the structure of one single sentence in the ST into a string of two adjacent sentences, thereby inserting additive conjunctions between the sentences. In so doing, they facilitate the processing and comprehension of texts, and hence, help increase the readers' understanding and reduce further processing effort. This strategy is exemplified in 9 and 10.

(9-a) **Arabic ST 6**

يجب على معدي التقرير الالتزام باحترام استقلال لبنان وسيادته وعدم التدخل في شؤونه الداخلية تحت أي ذريعة كانت وكذلك عدم الاستمرار في تجاهل أن العنصر الجوهري للأمن والاستقرار اللبناني هو ردع إسرائيل عن انتهاكاتها المستمرة وإنهاء احتلالها للأراضي اللبنانية.

(9-b) **English TT 6**

The compilers of the report must undertake to respect the independence and sovereignty of Lebanon and not interfere in its internal affairs under any pretext. Furthermore, they must not continue to turn a blind eye to the fact that the essential element for the security and stability of Lebanon is deterring Israel from its ongoing violations and ending its occupation of Lebanese territory.

In example 9, shifts of additive relations are motivated by changing the structure of one single sentence in the ST into two adjacent sentences and, thereby, inserting the additive conjunction *furthermore* between the two sentences, as well as adding the personal pronoun *they* in referring back to the antecedent *the compilers of the report*. The same holds for example 10 below:

(10-a) **Arabic ST 7**

ورغم حصول موافقة اللجنة المذكورة على تزويدنا بأرشيف المطالبات فقد قامت بتزويدنا بمعلومات عن مطالبات الدول والمؤسسات من الفئات (E,F) فقط دون مطالبات الأفراد من الفئات (A,B,C,D) حيث أجابت بأنها لا تستطيع تزويدنا بها نتيجة تنفيذ سياسة الأرشفة والتخلص منها بعد مرور سبع سنوات من تاريخ دفع مبلغ التعويض، فضلا عن أن هناك بعض القيود على المعلومات التي يمكن توفيرها نظرا لسرية مطالبات الأفراد.

(10-b) **English TT 7**

> While the Committee agreed to provide us with the claims archives, it has only given us information on claims from States and institutions in groups E and F, and none on claims from the individuals in groups A, B, C and D, saying that it was unable to do so because of the implementation of the archive policy and its destruction seven years after payment of the compensation. Furthermore, there were certain restrictions on the information that could be provided because of the need to respect confidentiality.

In example 10, the addition of *furthermore* makes the semantic relation between sentences obvious and makes it an instance of explicitation shift. Apparently, shifts of additive relations are motivated by changing the ST structure of a single sentence into two adjacent separate sentences in addition to inserting the additive conjunction *furthermore* between the two sentences.

3. The results of analysis suggest that translators tend to add demonstrative devices in every occasion possible in order to remove any referential ambiguity. In this manner, the translated texts become cohesively more explicit than their STs do. This strategy is exemplified in 11, 12 and 13.

(11-a) **Arabic ST 8**

لقد أجمع الخبراء والمسؤولون والمراقبون على وجود حركة تهريب سلاح إلى الداخل السوري من دول حدودية بينها لبنان، وقد أعلنت الأجهزة المختصة في سوريا مرارا عن مصادرة أسلحة ومتفجرات وأدوات تفخيخ، تم تهريبها من لبنان إلى سوريا من قبل بعض القوى السياسية اللبنانية، عائدة للمجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة الممولة والمسلحة من الخارج، والتي تفتعل حوادث إطلاق نار تودي بحياة الكثيرين من المدنيين وعناصر الجيش والأمن.

(11-b) **English TT 8**

Experts, officials and observers are unanimous that weapons are being smuggled into Syrian territory from bordering States, including Lebanon. The competent authorities in Syria have repeatedly announced confiscations of weapons, explosives and explosive devices smuggled from Lebanon to Syria by certain Lebanese political forces linked to terrorist groups funded and armed from abroad. Those groups fabricate shootings that cost the lives of numerous civilians and members of the Army and security forces.

In example 11, the semantic relation of addition in the ST is maintained through the insertion of the conjunction و (wa) *and,* in joining the three clauses together. However, in the English translation, a new cohesion is ensured by dividing the ST sentence into three separate sentences, joined by the plural demonstrative pronoun *those,* which refers back to the nominal group *terrorist groups* in the preceding clause. The use of demonstrative reference explicitly signals the underlying semantic relation between the two adjacent sentences. However, in the

ST, the nominal group المجموعات الإرهابية (almaӡmu:ça:t alʔirha:bijja) is replaced by a personal pronominal, enclitic ـتـ (t) in والتي تفتعل (wallati: taftaçil).

(12-a) **Arabic ST 11**

وترفض حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية الادعاءات الإسرائيلية حول نقل السلاح إلى لبنان، والتي تأتي في إطار محاولة بائسة لتشتيت الانتباه عن الخطر الحقيقي المتمثل في السياسات العدوانية الإسرائيلية التي تهدد الأمن والسلم الدوليين في المنطقة ككل.

(12-b) **English TT 11**

The Government of the Syrian Arab Republic rejects the Israeli claims concerning the transfer of weapons to Lebanon. Those claims are a desperate attempt to distract attention from the real threat, namely Israel's own aggressive policies, which endanger international peace and security in the region as a whole.

In example 12, a cohesive device is established in the TT via the plural demonstrative pronoun *those*. The demonstrative reference is added by the translator in reference to the noun phrase *the Israeli claims*, while in the ST no equivalent expression is found. The writer rather opts for using implicit personal pronominal enclitic ـتـ (t) in والتي تأتي (wallati: taʔti:) to maintain reference to الادعاءات الاسرائيلية (alʔiddiça:ʔa:t alʔisra:ʔilijja). A new cohesion, therefore, is achieved by changing the ST structure of one long sentence into two separate sentences. As a result, explicitation shift is established in the translated text via the addition of a new cohesive device: reference.

(13-a) **Arabic ST 12**

ولا أدل على تهرب إسرائيل من التزاماتها ومسؤولياتها إزاء المجتمع الدولي و انسحابها من الأراضي العربية المحتلة من قرار الكنيست الإسرائيلي الأخير، والذي دعا إلى إجراء استفتاء عام قبل الانسحاب من الجولان السوري المحتل والقدس الشرقية، مما يؤكد عدم

جدية إسرائيل في التحرك نحو السلام العادل والشامل في المنطقة القائم على أساس قرارات مجلس الأمن ذات الصلة ومبدأ الأرض مقابل السلام.

(13-b) **English TT 12**

> The Israeli Knesset recently decided that a referendum should be held before any withdrawal from the occupied Syrian Golan or East Jerusalem. That decision is the clearest possible sign that Israel is disregarding its commitments and responsibilities before the international community, which require it to withdraw from the occupied Arab territories. Israel clearly has no genuine intention of moving towards a just and comprehensive peace in the region on the basis of the relevant Security Council resolutions and the principle of land for peace.

In example 13, the TT sets up a new cohesion relation not found in the ST. The demonstrative pronoun *that* is used to join the two sentences together. Therefore, explicitation shift is created in the translated text by splitting the ST structure of a single sentence into two separate sentences via the addition of a new cohesive device: reference.

4. The results have also shown that some instances of explicitation occur as a result of rendering the non-cohesive relations in the ST by new cohesive ones in the translated texts. This is exemplified in 14 and 15.

(14-a) **Arabic ST 12**

> كما تم استقطاب ثلاثة آلاف عائلة إسرائيلية جديدة للاستيطان في الجولان المحتل تلبية لهذه الحملة الجديدة التي أطلقها المستوطنون الإسرائيليون والتي استمرت طوال شهر كانون الأول/ ديسمبر ٢٠١٠ تحت إشراف ما يسمى مجلس المستوطنات الإقليمي في الجولان المحتل، وذلك في إطار تشجيع اليهود على الاستيطان في الأرض السورية المحتلة.

(14-b) **English TT 12**

> An additional 3,000 Israeli families have been attracted to the
> settlements in the occupied Golan as a result of the Israeli so-called
> Golan Regional Council settler campaign, which continued through
> December 2010 with the aim of encouraging Jews to settle on
> occupied Syrian territory.

In example 14, a resultative conjunction *as a result* is added by the translator, where no equivalent device is found in the ST. The TT explicitly sets up the semantic relation of result in linking the two clauses, by inserting this conjunction, while a nominal sentence تلبية لهذه الحملة الجديدة (talbijatan liha:ðihi al.hamla alʒadi:da) holds the meaning of result in the ST. Explicitation shift is, therefore, established in the translated text via the addition of new cohesion: conjunctions.

(15-a) **Arabic ST 13**

> إن هذه المعلومات تثبت وبالدليل القاطع أن إسرائيل ماضية في سياستها العدوانية الاستيطانية، من خلال تجاهلها لقرارات الشرعية الدولية التي تدين استمرار إسرائيل ببناء المستوطنات في الأراضي العربية المحتلة بما في ذلك الجولان السوري المحتل.

(15-b) **English TT 13**

> That information is conclusive evidence that Israel is moving ahead
> with its aggressive settlement policy in the occupied Arab territories.
> In so doing, it is ignoring international resolutions which condemn the
> continuation of settlement construction in those territories, which
> include the occupied Syrian Golan.

In example 15, the substitute *in so doing,* functioning on the entire sentence is set up as a cohesive device in joining the two sentences together. This device substitutes the nominal

group: *That information is conclusive evidence that Israel is moving ahead with its aggressive settlement policy in the occupied Arab territories*. Therefore, explicitation shift is established in the translated text via the addition of new cohesion: substitution. However, in the ST, the writer opts for clarification through the insertion of Adjunct of means من خلال (min χila:l) in من خلال تجاهلها لقرارات الشرعية الدولية (min χila:l taʒa:huliha: liqara:ra:t aʃʃarçija adduwalijja).

VI.2.1.2. Omission of Cohesion

Omission of cohesion is achieved by partial or complete elimination of ST cohesive devices. The following examples, selected from the investigated corpus, illustrate that shifts of this kind occur as a result of the translators' tendency to perform some various actions, such as rendering an ST cohesive relation by a non-cohesive one in the TT, omitting existing information units, or collecting several independent sentences/clauses of the ST into complex constructions in the TT, along with the insertion of necessary elements.

The results obtained suggest that the most obvious instances of shifts of cohesion, occurring in the corpus are manifested in the omission of conjunctions and the elimination of some information mentioned in the ST, especially of repetitious elements and demonstrative reference. It is worth noting that, in so doing, translators reduce cohesive explicitness as they opt for implicit connections between sentences with little or no loss of meaning.

1. The following examples represent instances of cohesive implicitation through the omission of conjunctions in the English translations of the Arabic Texts. Instances of shifts of cohesion are evident in the omission of multifunctionals و (wa) and ﻓـ (fa), explanatory حيث (.hajθu), additive كما (kama:), resultative conjunctions لذلك (liða:lika) and مما (mimma:), adversative construction وأما- ﻓ (waʔamma:-fa), temporal conjunction ثم (θumma) and causal conjunction إذ (ʔið).

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(16-a) **Arabic ST 1**

إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن ١٥٥٩(٢٠٠٤)
هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، ومن غير المقبول
الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار ٢٠٠٤(١٥٥٩) بالرغم
من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه . فقد أشاد التقرير ليس فقط بإجراء
انتخابات رئاسية ونيابية حرة ونزيهة في لبنان(أي من غير تدخل أو نفوذ أجنبي) وبجهود
سوريا حول سحبها لقواتها ومعداتها العسكرية من لبنان، وإنما أشاد أيضا بإقامة علاقات
دبلوماسية كاملة بين سوريا ولبنان .

(16-b) **English TT 1**

The references made in the report to the Syrian Arab Republic's
efforts to implement the provisions of Security Council resolution
1559 (2004) are an explicit acknowledgement that Syria has fulfilled
all obligations incumbent on it under that resolution. It is therefore no
longer acceptable for the Secretary-General to introduce Syria into his
reports on the implementation of resolution 1559 (2004). The report
notes not only that presidential and parliamentary elections took place
in a free and fair manner in Lebanon (i.e., without foreign
interference or influence), but also that Syria had withdrawn its troops
and military equipment from Lebanon and established full diplomatic
relations with Lebanon.

In example 16, a cohesive device is established in the ST by inserting an explanatory conjunction ف (fa), which indicates that the second sentence is an explanation of the first one. That is to say, the sentence introduced by the conjunction ف (fa) provides clarification of the proposition in the first sentence. This is attributed to the nature of the Arabic particle ف (fa) which is a cohesive device that generally occurs at the beginning of sentences to join parts of texts together. However, in the TT no overt cohesive device is used to convey this relation. This is attributed to the preference of English towards using coordinate constructions lacking

overt coordinator, i.e. *asyndetic coordination*, when the semantic relation between elements is obvious.

(17-a) **Arabic ST 6**

وحول ما جاء في الفقرتين ٣٩ و ٤٢ حول الحظر المفروض على السلاح ومراقبة الحدود، فقد تجاهل ممثل الأمين العام، وهو العارف بكل شيء، كما يدعي، بأن تهريب السلاح، كما يعرف الجميع هو من لبنان إلى سوريا، ومن قبل فئات معينة في لبنان تشارك في محاولات زعزعة الاستقرار في سوريا من خلال تزويد المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة في سوريا بالأسلحة والأموال للنيل من استقرار سوريا . وقد ضبطت السلطات اللبنانية وكذلك السلطات السورية العديد من عمليات التهريب هذه، وتم الإعلان عنها رسميا وإعلاميا من كلا الجانبين السوري واللبناني، وهناك بعض الأشخاص أمام المحاكم اللبنانية الآن.

(17-b) **English TT 6**

Regarding the contents of paragraphs 39 and 42, on the arms embargo and border control, the Secretary-General's representative, although claiming omniscience, is ignorant of the fact that the arms, as everyone knows, are being smuggled from Lebanon into Syria by particular groups in Lebanon involved in attempts to destabilize Syria by supplying armed terrorist groups in Syria with weapons and funds. The Lebanese and Syrian authorities have intercepted many of these smuggling operations and statements have been made officially and in the media in both Lebanon and Syria; there are several individuals currently before the Lebanese courts.

In example 17, five occurrences of additive و (wa) are identified in the ST. Based on the conjunction و (wa), the semantic relation of addition expresses some kind of elaboration. It is used to join a series of actions and to point out that the clauses and sentences are an explanation and a narration of the succession of events that have taken place. However, in the

TT no overt cohesive devices are used to convey this relation. This is attributed to the nature of the Arabic language system, which uses more coordinative structures than English does.

The first occurrence is an introductory و (wa); it is used at the beginning of the sentence to introduce the topic in question, and this is typical of Arabic. It is noteworthy that, the occurrence of و (wa) in the initial position of sentence signals the beginning of the paragraph in the ST, that is why it functions as a cohesive conjunction. The second occurrence of و (wa) adds a descriptive aspect to the primary clause. The three remaining occurrences of و (wa) provide instances of sequential relations between sentences. Marked by this conjunction, the temporal relation, particularly of sequence, is maintained throughout the text; the consecutive clauses containing و (wa) provide some kind of enhancement.

(18-a) **Arabic ST 13**

وكانت السلطات الإسرائيلية ألقت القبض على ماجد وفداء في شهر تموز/ يوليه من العام الماضي، وهما رهن الاعتقال منذ ذلك الحين، فقد تم اعتقال فداء مباشرة عند نزوله من الطائرة في مطار'' بن غوريون ''عائدا من فرنسا لقضاء العطلة الصيفية في الجولان بعد انتهاء السنة الدراسية هناك، ثم قامت باعتقال والده ماجد بعد يومين من ذلك.

(18-b) **English TT 13**

The Israeli authorities arrested Majid and Fida in July 2010 and they have been in detention since that time. Fida was incarcerated from the moment he stepped off the aircraft in Ben Gurion airport. He was returning from France to spend the summer holidays in the Golan, having completed the academic year in France. His father Majid was arrested two days later.

In example 18, a cohesive device is established in the ST by inserting the particle ف (fa), which is used to express sequential and temporal relation between clauses. The

sequential conjunction ـف (fa) guarantees a consecutive relation between the events. Such a relation is not explicitly demonstrated in TT, in that, no overt cohesive device is used to convey this relation. In addition, the TT structure is changed to become four independent sentences without the presence of any conjunctive device in the TT.

To explain, the explicit use of ـف (fa) in Arabic is attributed to the narrative function of texts, which necessitates this kind of devices for textual unity. However, in the TT no overt cohesive device is used to convey this relation. The translator opts for implicitation, here, as it does not lead in any way to loss of meaning given that the use of temporal adjuncts, such as *since that time* and *two days later* reflect the narrative function of succession of events. In addition, the fact that English favours coordinate constructions lacking overt coordinator, i.e. *asyndetic coordination*, when the semantic relation between the elements is obvious, does explain the absence of conjunctive devices.

(19-a) **Arabic ST 7**

ورغم حصول موافقة اللجنة المذكورة على تزويدنا بأرشيف المطالبات فقد قامت بتزويدنا بمعلومات عن مطالبات الدول من الفئات (E,F) فقط دون مطالبات الأفراد من الفئات والمؤسسات (A,B,C,D) حيث أجابت بأنها لا تستطيع تزويدنا بها نتيجة تنفيذ سياسة الأرشفة والتخلص منها بعد مرور سبع سنوات من تاريخ دفع مبلغ التعويض، فضلا عن أن هناك بعض القيود على المعلومات التي يمكن توفيرها نظرا لسرية مطالبات الأفراد.

(19-b) **English TT 7**

While the Committee agreed to provide us with the claims archives, it has only given us information on claims from States and institutions in groups E and F, and none on claims from the individuals in groups A, B, C and D, saying that it was unable to do so because of the implementation of the archive policy and its destruction seven years after payment of the compensation.

In example 19, an additive relation is established in the ST by inserting an explanatory conjunction حيث (.hajθu), indicating that the second clause is an explanation of the first one. That is to say, the clause introduced by the conjunction حيث (.hajθu) clearly elaborates the primary clause and provides clarification of the proposition. However, in the TT, no overt cohesive device is used to convey this relation; this relation is expressed through paraphrasing in *saying that it was unable*. This is attributed to the tendency of English towards using coordinate constructions lacking overt coordinator, i.e. *asyndetic coordination*.

(20-a) **Arabic ST 1**

تكرر سوريا عدم قبولها بإشارات هذا التقرير إلى ترسيم الحدود بين سوريا ولبنان، باعتبار أن هذه المسألة أمر ثنائي بين البلدين . وتؤكد سوريا مرة أخرى أن العائق الحقيقي الذي يقف أمام ترسيم الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية بشكل تام، هو استمرار العدوان والاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان السوري المحتل ولمزارع شبعا . ولذلك فإن الترسيم في هذه المنطقة في ظل الاحتلال هو أمر مستحيل، وعلى المجتمع الدولي أن يقوم بالجهد المطلوب لإجبار إسرائيل على الانسحاب من الأراضي اللبنانية والسورية المحتلة استنادا إلى قرارات الشرعية الدولية لا سيما قراري مجلس الأمن رقم (٢٤٢) ١٩٦٧ و(٣٣٨)١٩٧٣ ومبدأ الأرض مقابل السلام لإنجاز السلام العادل والشامل في المنطقة.

(20-b) **English TT 1**

Syria reiterates that it does not accept the references that were made in the report to the delineation of the Syrian-Lebanese border, which is a bilateral matter. It reaffirms that the real obstacle to the final delineation of the Syrian-Lebanese border is Israel's continued aggression and its occupation of the Syrian Golan and the Shab'a Farms. This occupation makes it impossible to delineate the border in those areas. The international community must take the steps required to compel Israel to withdraw from the Lebanese and Syrian territory which it occupies, in accordance with internationally recognized resolutions, including Security Council resolutions 242 (1967) and

338 (1973), and the principle of land for peace, in order to achieve a
just and comprehensive peace in the region.

In example 20, two occurrences of omission of cohesion are identified in the translated
text. First, shift of reference relation is detected in the TT. While the demonstrative pronoun
هذه (ha:ðihi), in هذه المسألة (ha:ðihi almasʔala) *this matter*, is used to join the two clauses
together, the English equivalent *this* is ellipted in the TT. An instance of implicitation is
therefore created as a result of the omission of demonstrative *this*. Second, omission of causal
relation is evident in the TT. While the conjunction ولذلك (waliða:lika) is inserted in the ST to
signal the semantic relation of result between the two sentences, no equivalent conjunction is
used to convey the same meaning in the TT; a different structure is used mainly through
paraphrasing. It is worth mentioning that although the use of this conjunctive device increases
the explicitation of semantic relations between sentences in the ST, its missing equivalent in
the TT does not lead in any way to ambiguity of meaning.

(21-a) **Arabic ST 12**

إن هذه المعلومات تثبت وبالدليل القاطع أن إسرائيل ماضية في سياستها العدوانية
الاستيطانية، من خلال تجاهلها لقرارات الشرعية الدولية التي تدين استمرار إسرائيل ببناء
المستوطنات في الأراضي العربية المحتلة بما في ذلك الجولان السوري المحتل.ولا أدل على
تهرب إسرائيل من التزاماتها ومسؤولياتها إزاء المجتمع الدولي وانسحابها من الأراضي
العربية المحتلة من قرار الكنيست الإسرائيلي الأخير، والذي دعا إلى إجراء استفتاء عام قبل
الانسحاب من الجولان السوري المحتل والقدس الشرقية، مما يؤكد عدم جدية إسرائيل في
التحرك نحو السلام العادل والشامل في المنطقة القائم على أساس قرارات مجلس الأمن ذات
الصلة ومبدأ الأرض مقابل السلام.

(21-b) **English TT 12**

The Israeli Knesset recently decided that a referendum should be held
before any withdrawal from the occupied Syrian Golan or East

Jerusalem. That decision is the clearest possible sign that Israel is disregarding its commitments and responsibilities before the international community, which require it to withdraw from the occupied Arab territories. Israel clearly has no genuine intention of moving towards a just and comprehensive peace in the region on the basis of the relevant Security Council resolutions and the principle of land for peace.

In example 21, a cohesive device is established in the ST by inserting the conjunction مما (mimma:), which indicates that the second clause provides a consequence and an explanation to the primary clause. That is to say, the clause introduced by the conjunction مما (mimma:) provides clarification of the proposition in the first clause. However, in the TT no overt cohesive device is used to convey this relation. This is attributed to the tendency of English towards using coordinate constructions lacking overt coordinators.

(22-a) **Arabic ST 13**

ومع استمرار احتلال إسرائيل للأراضي العربية واعتبار إسرائيل نفسها فوق كل القرارات والقوانين والأعراف الدولية، فإن الوضع في المنطقة سيزداد سوءا و تدهورا، مما ينعكس سلبا على السلم والأمن في المنطقة والعالم، و على الجهود الدولية المبذولة للحد من الانتهاكات الخطيرة والممنهجة لحقوق الإنسان، وعلى تعزيز سيادة القانون بما يحترم كرامة الشعوب في العالم.

(22-b) **English TT 13**

As Israel continues to occupy Arab territory and to consider itself to be above all international resolutions, laws and norms, the situation in the region is steadily deteriorating, which has a negative impact on safety and security in the region and the world, as well as on international efforts to end grave and systematic human rights violations, strengthen the rule of law and ensure respect for all the peoples of the world.

In example 22, two semantic relations are established in the ST by inserting two conjunctive devices ﻓ (fa) and ﻣﻤﺎ (mimma:). The first conjunction signals a resultative function between the two clauses, where the second clause is a consequence of the first one. The second conjunction ﻣﻤﺎ (mimma:) marks an explanation to the primary clause; it is used to maintain a semantic relation that is not ensured in the TT. Clarification, however, is created in the TT through making the second dependent clause a relative clause.

(23-a) **Arabic ST 2**

وسيشمل التعاون بموجب هاتين الوثيقتين مجالات الحياة المختلفة لما فيه مصلحة الاستقرار والتنمية في العراق وستنعكس آثاره الإيجابية على المنطقة عموما. فضلا عن ذلك، فإن التغييرات السياسية والتطورات التي تشهدها المنطقة، والتي أطلق عليها اسم الربيع العربي، قد أكدت مصداقية التوجه السياسي الذي جرى في العراق عام ٢٠٠٣، ...

(23-b) **English TT 2**

> In the interest of the stability and development of Iraq, cooperation will cover all aspects of life under those agreements. Such cooperation will also have a positive impact on the entire region. The political changes and developments in the region known as the Arab Spring have confirmed the credibility of the political change that took place in Iraq in 2003.

In example 23, a cohesive device ﻓﻀﻼ ﻋﻦ ﺫﻟﻚ، ﻓﺈﻥ (fa.dlan çan ða:lika faʔinna) is omitted in the TT. The additive relation, which denotes a cohesive extension of information in the ST, is not ensured in the TT. This is attributed to the fact that English favours using coordinate constructions lacking overt coordinators, and ascribed to the fact that the Arabic ﻓ (fa) is used, here, to reinforce the structural link between the two clauses, as it is a non-essential and an optional indicator of the continuity of ideas.

(24-a) **Arabic ST 2**

<div dir="rtl">

كما أن حكومة العراق في الوقت الذي تجدد رغبتها في تمديد ولاية يونامي وفق الضوابط المعتمدة في قرار مجلس الأمن ١٧٧٠ لسنة ٢٠٠٧ بالنص والمضمون، فإنها تأمل في أن يكون تقديم الدعم والمساعدة وفق آليات محددة وبموافقة مسبقة من الحكومة العراقية، وعلى النحو المشار إليه في رسالتي الموجهة إلى سعادتكم بتاريخ ٦ آب /أغسطس ٢٠٠٧.

</div>

(24-b) **English TT 2**

> The Government of Iraq, while reiterating its wish that the Mission's mandate should be extended in accordance with the letter and spirit of the conditions set out in Security Council resolution 1770 (2007), hopes that the provision of assistance will be in accordance with specific mechanisms and with the prior approval of the Government of Iraq, in the manner referred to in my letter dated 6 August 2007.

In example 24, the semantic relation of addition in the ST is maintained through the insertion of the conjunction كما (kama:) in the initial position of the sentence to signal the beginning of the paragraph. However, in the English translation, no overt conjunction is used to convey the same relation. The use of كما (kama:) further clarifies or explains the opinions and standpoints mentioned earlier in the previous paragraphs. This is mainly attributable to the fact that English favours using coordinate constructions lacking overt coordinators.

In addition, the (fa-clause) فـ ...في الوقت الذي (fi:alwaqt allaði:… fa) in the ST denotes a condition/consequence relation between the two clauses. This kind of construction is used to further clarify or explain the idea of the primary clause. However, no equivalent construction is used in the TT. This is mainly because English favours using coordinate constructions lacking overt coordinators. Here, also, a cohesive tie و (wa) in وعلى النحو المشار إليه (waçala anna.hw almuʃa:r ʔilajh) in the ST is omitted in the TT. The additive relation of the ST is

not ensured in the TT, as the occurrence of و (wa) which adds a descriptive aspect to the primary clause is an option.

(25-a) **Arabic ST 3**

يؤسفني أن أقول إن بعض أعضاء مجلس الأمن في البيان الذي صدر عنه، قد استند في
تحديد موقفه على معلومات مستقاة من طرف واحد دون الالتفات اللازم ـ خاصة في مثل
الحالة السورية الراهنة ـ إلى المعلومات والوقائع التي تطرحها الدولة السورية، وهي المعنية
والمسؤولة أولا وآخرا عن أمن واستقرار شعب سورية وسلامة أرضه ومؤسساته.

(25-b) **English TT 3**

> I regret to say that certain members of the Security Council, in the
> statement issued by that body, based its position on information that
> was taken from only one side, without giving the consideration that is
> particularly due in the light of the current situation in Syria to the facts
> and information provided by the Syrian State, which is the party with
> primary and ultimate responsibility and concern for the security and
> stability of the Syrian people and the integrity of its land and
> institutions.

In example 25, the ST signals an additive relation, marked by the use of the conjunctive و (wa) and followed by a pronoun هي (hija) *it*, in order to serve some explanation functions. The conjunction و (wa) which is used at the beginning of the second clause, and the pronoun هي (hija) which refers to the nominal role, *the Syrian State*, in the first clause add some kind of elaboration to the text. However, in the TT no overt cohesive devices are used to convey this relation; instead, a relative clause, *which is the party*, is inserted.

(26-a) **Arabic ST 3**

نحن نعتقد أن المجتمع الدولي مطالب في هذا الظرف الدقيق الذي تعيشه سورية بأن يدفع باتجاه الهدوء ووقف أعمال التخريب، ومطالب بتشجيع الخطوات الإصلاحية التي نقوم بها، وبالدعوة لإعطاء الفسحة اللازمة من الوقت كي نعطي هذه الإصلاحات ثمارها. ذلك بدل إعطاء مؤشرات مشجعة على تصعيد الاضطرابات والعنف، الأمر الذي يجعلنا نقول ببالغ الأسف أن التصريحات الصادرة عن بعض أعضاء مجلس الأمن والهادفة إلى زيادة الضغوط على سورية، إنما تصب في الواقع في مجرى تصعيد الاضطرابات وأعمال العنف، وهذا لا يخدم مصلحة سورية على الإطلاق.

(26-b) **English TT 3**

> We believe that, at this crucial point for Syria, it behoves the international community to promote peace and the end of acts of destruction, and to encourage the steps towards reform that are being taken. Sufficient time must be allowed for those reforms to bear fruit, rather than encouragement being provided for an escalation of the unrest and violence. It is with the greatest regret that we say that the statements that are being issued by certain members of the Security Council, which are intended to increase pressure on Syria, in fact merely serve to exacerbate the disturbances and violence, which in no way serves the interests of Syria.

In example 26, the conjunction إنما (ʔinnama:) in the ST is omitted in the TT. In the ST, this conjunction provides a replacement of the idea mentioned in the previous clause and therefore signals an adversative relation. However, in the English translations, no overt equivalent conjunction is used to convey the same relation; the occurrence of the adverb *in fact* bears the meaning of contrast to the primary clause. In addition, the use of the conjunction و (wa) along with the demonstrative هذا (ha:ða:) is omitted in the English translation, as it is typically an indicator of extension of information.

(27-a) **Arabic ST 6**

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، فإنني أود أن أبين موقف حكومة الجمهورية العربية
السورية من التقرير الدوري السابع عشر للأمين العام حول تنفيذ قرار مجلس الأمن رقم
٧٠١(٢٠٠٦).

(27-b) **English TT 6**

Upon instructions from my Government, I would like to state the
position of the Government of the Syrian Arab Republic on the
seventeenth periodic report of the Secretary-General on the
implementation of Security Council resolution 1701 (2006).

In example 27, a cohesive device ف (fa) is inserted in the ST in order to signal a
resultative relation between the two clauses. While the construction بناء على...ف (bina:ʔan
çala ... fa) expresses a consequence relation on the basis of certain condition in the ST, the
translator has not set up any equivalent conjunction in the TT to convey this relation.

(28-a) **Arabic ST 6**

وبخصوص ما ورد في الفقرتين ٣٥ و ٧٠ حول موضوع '' المجموعات المسلحة
الفلسطينية''، إن التواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان تنظمه اتفاقات لبنانية ـ فلسطينية ولا علاقة
لسوريا بها، وأما بالنسبة لما ذكره التقرير حول مواقع فلسطينية تقع على الحدود السورية ـ
اللبنانية، فإننا نجدد التأكيد أن جميع هذه المواقع تقع ضمن الأراضي اللبنانية، وبالتالي فإن
سوريا لن تتدخل بهذا الأمر، وإن السبب الرئيسي للتواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان وغيره من
دول الجوار، ومنها سوريا، هو استمرار احتلال إسرائيل للأراضي الفلسطينية ورفضها تنفيذ
قرارات الشرعية الدولية لا سيما قراري مجلس الأمن رقم ٢٤٢ و ٣٣٨ وقرار الجمعية
العامة رقم ١٩٤ الذي يكفل حق عودة اللاجئين إلى أراضيهم التي تم طردهم منها.

(28-b) **English TT 6**

As regards what paragraphs 35 and 70 have to say about "armed
Palestinian groups", the Palestinian presence in Lebanon is regulated

by Lebanese- Palestinian agreements, which have no connection with Syria. Regarding the report's reference to Palestinian positions straddling the Syrian-Lebanese border, we affirm once again that all these positions lie inside Lebanese territory. Consequently, this is not a matter for Syria to involve itself with. The principal reason for the Palestinian presence in Lebanon and neighbouring States, including Syria, is Israel's continued occupation of Palestinian territory and its refusal to implement the resolutions of international legitimacy, especially Security Council resolutions 242 (1967) and 338 (1973) and General Assembly resolution 194 (III), which guarantee the refugees' right of return to the lands from which they were expelled.

In example 28, an adversative relation is set up in the ST by inserting the construction ‫و أما ... فـ‬ (waʔamma:…fa). This construction signals a contrast with some previous propositions. However, in the English translations, no overt equivalent conjunction is used to convey the same relation. This is attributed to the tendency of English towards using coordinate constructions lacking overt coordinators.

(29-a) **Arabic ST 9**

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، أتشرف بأن أرفق لكم طيا جدولا يتضمن أسماء أربعة صحفيين أجانب دخلوا إلى الأراضي السورية بطرق غير مشروعة ودون علم السلطات السورية (انظر المرفق)، حيث لقي اثنان من هؤلاء الصحفيين حتفهما خلال تواجدهما مع المجموعات المسلحة في سوريا . في حين أن الصحفيين الآخرين تسللا إلى سوريا عبر الحدود التركية ـ السورية في بداية شهر آذار/مارس ٢٠١٢ ، وقد تم، مؤخرا، تسليمهما إلى سلطات بلادهم.

(29-b) **English TT 9**

On instructions from my Government, I have the honour to transmit herewith a table listing the names of the four foreign journalists who entered Syrian territory illegally without the knowledge of the Syrian

authorities (see annex). Two of those journalists died while in the company of armed groups in Syria. The two others infiltrated Syria via the Turkish-Syrian border in early March 2012 and were recently handed over to their country's authorities.

In example 29, the temporal conjunction في حين أن (fi: .hin ʔanna), which implies that a relation of simultaneity between the two sentences, is omitted in the TT. While in the ST this relation is made explicit by inserting an overt cohesive device, in the TT it is inferred from the context that the events represented in the two sentences are perceived to take place simultaneously.

(30- a) **Arabic ST 13**

وكانت السلطات الإسرائيلية ألقت القبض على ماجد وفداء في شهر تموز/ يوليه من العام الماضي، وهما رهن الاعتقال منذ ذلك الحين، فقد تم اعتقال فداء مباشرة عند نزوله من الطائرة في مطار'' بن غوريون ''عائدا من فرنسا لقضاء العطلة الصيفية في الجولان بعد انتهاء السنة الدراسية هناك، ثم قامت باعتقال والده ماجد بعد يومين من ذلك.

(30-b) **English TT 13**

The Israeli authorities arrested Majid and Fida in July 2010 and they have been in detention since that time. Fida was incarcerated from the moment he stepped off the aircraft in Ben Gurion airport. He was returning from France to spend the summer holidays in the Golan, having completed the academic year in France. His father Majid was arrested two days later.

In example 30, the temporal conjunction ثم (θumma) is inserted in the ST to mark the sequence relation between the successive clauses of the same sentence. However, in the English translation, this temporal relation is not signalled by an equivalent conjunction; the

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structure of one long sentence is rendered into four independent sentences, and the adverb of time, *two days later*, holds the aspect of time sequence.

(31-a) **Arabic ST 7**

<div dir="rtl">

إذ نهنئ سعادتكم بتولي جمهورية روسيا الاتحادية رئاسة مجلس الأمن للشهر الحالي ونعبِّر عن ثقتنا بأن رئاستكم ستسطر مزيدا من النجاح والتقدم.

</div>

(31-b) **English TT 7**

I should like to congratulate you on the assumption by the Russian Federation of the Presidency of the Security Council for December 2011, and express my confidence that the term of your Presidency will be successful.

In example 31, the conjunction إذ (ʔið) is inserted in the ST in the initial position of the sentence in order to signal the beginning of the paragraph. It signals a causal relation, as it introduces a clause, which expresses a reason for the topic of congratulation mentioned in the main clause. However, in the TT no overt conjunction is used to convey the same meaning. This is attributed to the tendency of English towards using coordinate constructions lacking overt coordinators.

(32-a) **Arabic ST 7**

<div dir="rtl">

سعادة الرئيس، إن حصول العراق على نسخة من هذا الأرشيف يحمل أهمية بالنسبة للعراق، فبموجبه تم دفع مبالغ مالية طائلة أثرت على نحو سلبي بالاقتصاد العراقي منذ إقرارها ولغاية اليوم . وإذ نطلب دعمكم لمطلبنا بالحصول على هذا الأرشيف، ، نؤكد استعداد العراق لتعيين كادر محلي لمساعدة سكرتارية لجنة الأمم المتحدة للتعويضات لغرض تهيئة الأرشيف تمهيدا لتسليمنا نسخة منه سعيا لغلق هذا الملف كغيره من الملفات العالقة مع دولة الكويت من خلال الالتزام بقرارات مجلس الأمن ذات الصلة.

</div>

(32-b) **English TT 7**

> It is of the greatest importance to Iraq that it should be able to obtain a copy of those archives, since it was on the basis of their contents that huge sums of money have been paid out, having a negative impact on the economy of the country that continues to the present day. We ask for your support in our request for access to this archive, affirming our readiness to appoint local staff to assist the secretariat of the United Nations Compensation Committee in the reparations for making a copy of those archives available to us, thereby enabling us to close that file, along with other files that are pending with Kuwait and comply with the relevant Security Council resolutions.

In example 32, the conjunction إذ (ʔið) is inserted in the ST to signal the causal relation between the two clauses, as it introduces a clause which provides a reason for the topic mentioned in the subsequent clause. However, in the TT no overt conjunction is used to convey the same meaning.

(33-a) **Arabic ST 9**

> إن حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية وإذ تؤكد على أن مراسلي وسائل الإعلام العربية والأجنبية الذين يقومون بالتسلل إلى سوريا بطرق غير شرعية ومخالفة للأنظمة والقوانين، يتحملون المسؤولية القانونية والنتائج المترتبة عما قد يتعرضون له نتيجة دخولهم إلى الأراضي السورية بشكل غير مشروع ودون علم السلطات السورية، ونتيجة مرافقتهم المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة، فإنها تجدد دعوتها للمؤسسات الإعلامية التي تود إرسال مندوبيها إلى سوريا التقدم بطلبات وفق الأصول والقوانين المرعية لكي يتم منحهم تأشيرات الدخول اللازمة بالسرعة الممكنة.

(33-b) **English TT 9**

> The Government of the Syrian Arab Republic stresses that Arab and foreign media who infiltrate the country illegally, in violation of

regulations and laws, bear legal responsibility for their actions. They are also responsible for the consequences of illegally entering Syrian territory without the knowledge of the Syrian authorities and of accompanying armed terrorist groups. The Government once again calls on media organizations that wish to send their correspondents to Syria to submit requests in accordance with procedures and the laws in force in order to obtain the required entry visas as quickly as possible.

In example 33, the conjunction إذ (ʔið) is inserted in the ST to signal clarification between the two clauses. The relation holding between the two clauses is perceived to be of explanation, since the first clause introduced by إذ (ʔið) provides a description or explanation of the idea of the second clause. However, in the TT no overt conjunction is used to convey the same meaning.

2. The following examples represent instances of cohesive implicitation through the omission of some information units from the ST in the English translations. The qualitative analysis has revealed that while Arabic writers tend to clarify and explicate their propositions, English translators prefer to implicitate.

(34-a) **Arabic ST 1**

إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن (٢٠٠٤) ١٥٥٩ هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، ومن غير المقبول الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار ١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤) بالرغم من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه .

(34-b) **English TT 1**

The references made in the report to the Syrian Arab Republic's efforts to implement the provisions of Security Council resolution

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1559 (2004) are an explicit acknowledgement that Syria has fulfilled
all obligations incumbent on it under that resolution.

In example 34, the omission of previously mentioned information is detected in the TT. It is obvious that the translator eliminates the repetition of the subordinate clause بالرغم من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه (birraĝm min ʔanna su:rija: qa:mat bitanfi:ð ma jaχu.ssuha: min a.hka:mih) in the TT. The shift of repetitious elements in the translated text is in fact attributed to the preference of English to avoid repetition.

(35-a) **Arabic ST 7**

> وبهذا نؤكد مجددا أن محاولة زج اسم سوريا في الوضع الداخلي اللبناني يأتي في إطار الحملة الموجهة ضد سوريا ويشكل انتهاكا لما نص عليه ميثاق الأمم المتحدة من مبدأ عدم التدخل في الشؤون الداخلية للدول. كما نطالب بإدانة دخول الصحفيين الفرنسيين والأمريكيين والبريطانيين إلى سوريا متسللين عبر الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية لأن في ذلك انتهاكا لسيادة لبنان ولسيادة سوريا.

(35-b) **English TT 7**

> We therefore reiterate that the attempt to introduce Syria's name into the internal Lebanese situation is part of the campaign against Syria and violates the principle of non-intervention in the internal affairs of States as enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations. The infiltration of French, American and British journalists over the border from Lebanon into Syria must be condemned, as it violates the sovereignty of Lebanon and Syria alike.

In example 35, the additive relation set up in the ST via the insertion of the conjunction كما (kama:) is omitted in the TT. The translator eliminates this relation as a result of changing the ST active voice clause into a passive one in the TT. This shift results also in the omission of the enclitic personal pronoun نـ (nu) *we* in نطالب (nu.ta:lib) *we ask*.

(36-a) **Arabic ST 11**

تؤكد الجمهورية العربية السورية موقفها الثابت والمتمثل في التزامها بسيادة لبنان ووحدة وسلامة أراضيه واستقلاله السياسي، وتؤكد في هذا الصدد التزامها بالتعاون مع الجانب اللبناني لضمان احترام السيادة الوطنية وسلامة أراضي البلدين الشقيقين بما يخدم أمن واستقرار كلا البلدين.

(36-b) **English TT 11**

The Syrian Arab Republic reiterates its firm commitment to the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of Lebanon. It remains committed to cooperation with the Lebanese side in order to ensure respect for the national sovereignty and territorial integrity of the two kindred countries, for the benefit of the security and stability of both.

In example 36, the reference relation marked by the demonstrative في هذا الصدد (fi: ha:ða a.s.sadad) *in that regard* is omitted in the TT. The translator eliminates this semantic relation between the two clauses as referring back to the proposition in the first clause, i.e. موقفها الثابت والمتمثل في التزامها بسيادة لبنان ووحدة وسلامة أراضيه واستقلاله السياسي (mawqifaha: aθθa:bit walmutamaθθil fi: ʔiltiza:miha: bisija:dat lubna:n wawi.hdat wasala:mat ʔara:.di:h waʔistiqla:lih assija:si) is considered as optional addition of information in the TT. This shift results also in paraphrasing the sentence *affirming its commitment* into using the collocation *remains committed*.

(37-a) **Arabic ST 11**

وتذكر حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية، بأن البرنامج السياسي الذي طرحه السيد الرئيس بشار الأسد، رئيس الجمهورية العربية السورية، لحل الأزمة في سوريا، تضمن ضمانات لكافة المواطنين المهجرين الراغبين بالعودة وتقديم التسهيلات اللازمة لعودتهم.

(37-b) **English TT 11**

It recalls that the political programme put forward by President Bashar
Al-Assad to resolve the crisis in Syria includes guarantees for all
Syrian citizens who wish to return, as well as measures to facilitate
their return.

In example 37, the omission of previously mentioned information is detected in the TT.
It is obvious that the translator eliminates the repetition of the noun phrase (raʕi:s
alʒumhu:rijja alʕarabijja assu:rijja) رئيس الجمهورية العربية السورية *president of The Syrian Arab*
Republic in the TT, since it is optional. The shift of repetitious elements in the translated text
is in fact attributed to the preference of English to avoid repetition.

(38- a) **Arabic ST 12**

كما تم استقطاب ثلاثة آلاف عائلة إسرائيلية جديدة للاستيطان في الجولان المحتل تلبية لهذه
الحملة الجديدة التي أطلقها المستوطنون الإسرائيليون والتي استمرت طوال شهر كانون
الأول/ ديسمبر ٢٠١٠ تحت إشراف ما يسمى مجلس المستوطنات الإقليمي في الجولان
المحتل، وذلك في إطار تشجيع اليهود على الاستيطان في الأرض السورية المحتلة . عملية
الاستقطاب هذه جاءت نتيجة تقديم الأراضي السورية المحتلة للراغبين بالاستيطان، في إطار
عروض مغرية، تتضمن امتلاك المستوطن دونماً واحداً مجانا وإمكانية إقامة منزل بمساحة
١٥٠ مترًا مربعًا مع حديقة واسعة وبتكاليف منخفضة.

(38-b) **English TT 12**

An additional 3,000 Israeli families have been attracted to the
settlements in the occupied Golan as a result of the Israeli so-called
Golan Regional Council settler campaign, which continued through
December 2010 with the aim of encouraging Jews to settle on
occupied Syrian territory. Occupied Syrian land has been given to
would-be settlers through attractive offers that include one dunam of
land free of charge and the opportunity to build at low cost a 150
square-metre home with a spacious garden.

In example 38, the omission of previously mentioned information is detected in the TT. It is obvious that the translator eliminates some cohesive relations by changing the structure of the ST, which provides some optional information units that can be overlooked. In the translated text it is evident that the nominal sentence امتلاك المستوطن (ʔimtil:ak almustaw.tin) is eliminated, since it is essentially optional and has already been explicitly stated in السورية تشجيع اليهود على الاستيطان في الأرض المحتلة (taʃʒi:ç aljahu:d çala alʔisti:.tan fi: alʔar.di assu:rijja almu.htalla).

In addition, shift of cohesion is also identified in the omission of a resultative relation holding between two sentences. The clause عملية الاستقطاب هذه جاءت نتيجة تقديم الاراضي السورية (çamalijjat alʔistiq.tab haðːihi ʒaʔat nati:ʒat takdi:m alʔara:.di assu:rijja) is interconnected with the subsequent clause في إطار عروض مغرية تتضمن امتلاك المستوطن دونما واحدا (fi:ʔi.ta:r çuru:.d muɣrija tata.daman ʔimtila:k almustaw.tin du:naman wa:.hidan) without any loss of meaning. Moreover, reference to the Israeli campaign, لهذه الحملة الجديدة (liha:θihi al.hamla alʒadi:da) is eliminated; no equivalent demonstrative reference is established.

(39-a) **Arabic ST 12**

> إن استمرار إسرائيل في بناء المستوطنات في الجولان السوري المحتل قد خلق حالة من الفوضى في المنطقة وهذه الحالة من شأنها تهديد الأمن والاستقرار الإقليميين والدوليين .إن الجمهورية العربية السورية تؤكد على ضرورة التحرك الجدي والمسؤول من قبل المجتمع الدولي لردع إسرائيل ومنعها من الاستمرار في انتهاكها لحقوق أصحاب الأراضي المحتلة في سورية ولبنان وفلسطين، والذي يمثل انتهاكًا لقرارات الشرعية الدولية ذات الصلة ولاتفاقية جنيف الرابعة وللقانون الدولي والقانون الدولي الإنساني . إن وقف الاستيطان وتفكيك المستوطنات هو أمر طالبت به قرارات الشرعية الدولية، وهو التزام يجب أن تقوم به إسرائيل.

(39-b) **English TT 12**

Israel's persistent construction of settlements in the occupied Syrian Golan has created a state of anarchy in the region that endangers international and regional peace and security. The Syrian Arab Republic stresses the need for the international community to take genuine, responsible action to contain Israel and prevent any further infringement of the rights of the inhabitants of the occupied territories in Syria, Lebanon and Palestine. Israel's actions contravene the relevant legally binding international resolutions, the fourth Geneva Convention, international law and international humanitarian law. International resolutions require settlement activities to be halted and settlements to be dismantled, and Israel must comply with those requirements.

In example 39, the translator eliminates some cohesive relations existing in the ST. First, the clarification marked by the demonstrative reference وهذه (waha:θihi) in (waha:θihi al.ha:la minʃaʔniha: tahdi:d alʔamn walʔistiqra:r)وهذه الحالة من شأنها تهديد الأمن والاستقرار is ellipted in the TT. In addition, the second clause introduced by the relative pronoun و الذي (wallaði:) *which* to add further information is omitted. Shift of cohesion is rather obvious in introducing a new sentence in the TT. Moreover, a different structure is established in the translated text as the passive voice is changed into an active clause. Such a shift resulted in the elimination of the personal pronoun هو (huwa) in referring back to the first clause (wahuwa ʔiltiza:m jaʒib ʔan taqu:ma bihi ʔisra:ʔi:l)وهو التزام يجب أن تقوم به اسرائيل .

(40-a) **Arabic ST 4**

لقد كان يوم ٢٠ تشرين الأول/أكتوبر يوما تاريخيا للشعب الليبي، يعلن نهاية الديكتاتورية وميلاد ليبيا الجديدة . ليبيا الديمقراطية التي تحترم حقوق الإنسان وتصون الحريات الأساسية، بعد اثنين وأربعين سنة من حكم الفرد والإرهاب وانتهاك حقوق الإنسان.

(40-b) **English TT 4**

> After 42 years of autocracy, terrorism and human rights violations, 20
> October 2011 was a historic day for the Libyan people, when it was
> proclaimed that the dictatorship was over and a new Libya was born, a
> democratic Libya that respects human rights and protects fundamental
> freedoms.

In example 40, the ST semantic relation of repetition holding between the two
sentences is eliminated in the TT. This shift of cohesion occurs as a result of combining the
ST two independent sentences into one complex structure in the TT.

It becomes obvious then that the cohesive implicitation evidenced in the above
examples, involving the omission of conjunctions or the elimination of existing information in
the STs, is not considered as a hindering element for the processing of texts, since it aims at
reducing redundancy in most cases.

VI.2.1.3. Substitution of Cohesion

This type of shifts involves substituting the type of the cohesive ties used in the ST by
some other types in the TT.

(41-a) **Arabic ST 1**

> إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن ٢٠٠٤ (١٥٥٩)
> هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، ومن غير المقبول
> الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار ١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤) بالرغم
> من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه.

(41-b) **English TT 1**

> The references made in the report to the Syrian Arab Republic's efforts to implement the provisions of Security Council resolution 1559 (2004) are an explicit acknowledgement that Syria has fulfilled all obligations incumbent on it under that resolution. It is therefore no longer acceptable for the Secretary-General to introduce Syria into his reports on the implementation of resolution 1559 (2004).

In example 41, a resultative conjunction, *therefore*, is inserted in the TT to substitute the additive relation signalled by the conjunction و (wa) in the ST. Such substitution of cohesion adds further explicatition to the text. The change of the type of cohesion involves also rendering the ST structure of one sentence into two sentences in the TT.

(42- a) **Arabic ST 1**

> وإن تناول التقرير الجهود المشتركة السعودية – السورية المبذولة لمعالجة تصاعد الأزمة السياسية في لبنان، لهو دليل آخر على حرص سوريا لبذل كل جهد ممكن للحفاظ على أمن واستقرار لبنان.

(42-b) **English TT 1**

> The reference made in the report to joint efforts by Syria and Saudi Arabia to address the Lebanese political crisis is yet another indication that Syria is doing its utmost to preserve the security and stability of Lebanon.

In example 42, an adversative conjunction, *yet*, is inserted in the TT to substitute the conditional construction وإن ... لهو (waʔin ... lahuwa) in the ST to signal a resultative relation. Such substitution of cohesion adds further explicatition to the text.

(43-a) **Arabic ST 3**

<div dir="rtl">

هذا الإغفال المؤسف للحقائق على الأرض، والذي صدر بيان مجلس الأمن بناء عليه، يشكل عاملا أساسيا بالغ السلبية بالنسبة لمصلحة سورية لأنه يشجع المجموعات التخريبية المسلحة على الاستمرار في استخدام السلاح وفي عمليات القتل والتخريب، وفي هذا الكثير مما يعرقل إمكانات الوصول إلى الحفاظ على مصالح سورية الأساسية.

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(43-b) **English TT 3**

That regrettable disregard for the facts on the ground, which informed the Security Council statement, is an extremely negative factor in respect of Syrian interests, because it encourages the armed gangs of wreckers to continue to use weapons and carry out acts of murder and destruction, thereby considerably hindering the chances of preserving the fundamental interests of the country.

In example 43, one occurrence of change of the type of cohesion is identified in the TT. The translator substitutes the explanatory relation marked by وفي هذا (wa fi: ha:ða:) into a resultative relation signalled by the conjunction *thereby*. Such substitution of cohesion adds further explicatition to the text.

(44-a) **Arabic ST 4**

<div dir="rtl">

وحول ما جاء في الفقرتين ٣٩ و ٤٢ حول الحظر المفروض على السلاح ومراقبة الحدود، فقد تجاهل ممثل الأمين العام، وهو العارف بكل شيء، كما يدعي، بأن تهريب السلاح، كما يعرف الجميع هو من لبنان إلى سوريا، ومن قبل فئات معينة في لبنان تشارك في محاولات زعزعة الاستقرار في سوريا من خلال تزويد المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة في سوريا بالأسلحة والأموال للنيل من استقرار سوريا.

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(44-b) **English TT 4**

As regards the contents of paragraphs 39 and 42, on the arms embargo and border control, the Secretary-General's representative, although

claiming omniscience, is ignorant of the fact that the arms, as everyone knows, are being smuggled from Lebanon into Syria by particular groups in Lebanon involved in attempts to destabilize Syria by supplying armed terrorist groups in Syria with weapons and funds.

In example 44, the translator changes the type of the cohesive device set up in the ST. The translator substitutes the explanatory relation marked by the additive و (wa) into an adversative relation signalled by the conjunction *although*. Such substitution of cohesion adds further explicatition to the text, as it expresses some contrast between clauses. This is attributed to the preference of Arabic towards coordination while English towards subordination.

(45-a) **Arabic ST 7**

واستمرارا في هذا النهج نود أن نشير إلى أن حكومة العراق قد تقدمت في وقت سابق بطلب للحصول على الأرشيف الكامل لمطالبات التعويضات التي قدمت إلى لجنة الأمم المتحدة للتعويضات، لما لهذا الموضوع من أهمية بالنسبة إلى إقامة الدعاوى القضائية التي تتعلق بالمطالبة بالتعويضات من قِبل بعض الأفراد أمام المحاكم العراقية نتيجة أضرار حرب عام ١٩٩٠.

(45-b) **English TT 7**

In that regard, I should like to note that, some time ago, the Government of Iraq submitted a request for access to the complete archives of requests for compensation that were submitted to the United Nations Compensation Committee. Such access is important in respect of the court claims that have been made by certain persons before the Iraqi courts relating to requests for compensation arising from damage sustained as a result of the 1990 war.

In example 45, three occurrences of change of the type of cohesion are identified in the TT. First, the translator substitutes the collocation واستمرارا في هذا النهج (waʔistimra:ran fi:

ha:ða: annahʒ) into a reference relation signalled by *in that regard*. Such substitution of cohesion, i.e. the omission of واستمرارا (waʔistimra:ran), demonstrates some kind of implicitation without any loss of meaning in the text. Second, a shift of pronominal reference is found in the TT. The translator here prefers to refer back to the writer of the letter in using singular personal pronoun *I* instead of *we* in reference to *the Government* stated in the ST. Third, the translator changes the causal relation established in the ST via the insertion of the conjunction لما (lima:) in لما لهذا الموضوع (lima: liha:ða: almaw.du:ç) into a comparative reference adverb *such* in addition to the repetition of word *access* in the TT. Such a modification adds further clarification to the text.

(46-a) **Arabic ST 7**

ورغم حصول موافقة اللجنة المذكورة على تزويدنا بأرشيف المطالبات فقد قامت بتزويدنا بمعلومات عن مطالبات   الدول من الفئات والمؤسسات (E,F) فقط دون مطالبات الأفراد من الفئات (A,B,C,D) حيث أجابت بأنها لا تستطيع تزويدنا بها نتيجة تنفيذ سياسة الأرشفة والتخلص منها بعد مرور سبع سنوات من تاريخ دفع مبلغ التعويض، فضلا عن أن هناك بعض القيود على المعلومات التي يمكن توفيرها نظرا لسرية مطالبات الأفراد.

(46-b) **English TT 7**

While the Committee agreed to provide us with the claims archives, it has only given us information on claims from States and institutions in groups E and F, and none on claims from the individuals in groups A, B, C and D, saying that it was unable to do so because of the implementation of the archive policy and its destruction seven years after payment of the compensation.

In example 46, two occurrences of change of the type of cohesion are identified in the TT. First, the translator prefers to change the cohesive relation of repetition into verbal substitution signalled by *to do so*. In addition, the semantic relation of result signalled by نتيجة

(nati:ʒata) is rendered to a causal relation marked by *because of*. Such a shift of cohesion adds a variety of structure and does not change the meaning of text.

(47-a) Arabic ST 12

أود أن أعلمكم عن عملية استيطانية جديدة قامت بها سلطات الاحتلال الإسرائيلية في الجولان السوري المحتل. فقد أقدم ما يسمى بمجلس المستوطنين في الجولان على خطوة استفزازية جديدة من خلال حملة دعائية لبناء وحدات استيطانية جديدة في الجولان السوري المحتل تحت عنوان" تعال إلى الجولان " والتي تتضمن منح ١٤٠ قطعة أرض جديدة مقابل مبلغ يتراوح بين ٣٠ إلى ٤١ ألف دولار أمريكي بدل التكاليف التي يتطلبها بناء منزل في الجولان، تصل قيمته إلى نحو ٢٧٠٠٠٠ دولار .

(47-b) English TT 12

I write to inform you that the Israeli occupation authorities have initiated new settlement activity in the occupied Syrian Golan. In yet another provocative step, the so-called Golan Regional Council has launched a publicity campaign for the construction of new settlement units in the occupied Syrian Golan. The campaign, entitled "Come to the Golan", provides for the distribution of 140 additional pieces of land at a cost of between $30,000 and $41,000, whereas the cost of building a home in the Golan amounts to some $270,000.

In example 47, the translator changes the type of the cohesive device used in the ST. While the writer in the ST sets up an explanation between the two sentences via inserting the conjunction فـ (fa) in فقد أقدم (faqad aqdama), the translator substitutes this relation with an adversative one and opts for adding the contrastive *yet*.

(48-a) Arabic ST 1

تكرر سوريا عدم قبولها بإشارات هذا التقرير إلى ترسيم الحدود بين سوريا ولبنان، باعتبار أن هذه المسألة أمر ثنائي بين البلدين . وتؤكد سوريا مرة أخرى أن العائق الحقيقي الذي يقف

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أمام ترسيم الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية بشكل تام، هو استمرار العدوان والاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان السوري المحتل ولمزارع شبعا .

(48-b) **English TT 1**

It reaffirms that the real obstacle to the final delineation of the Syrian-Lebanese border is Israel's continued aggression and its occupation of the Syrian Golan and the Shab'a Farms.

In example 48, the translator changes the type of the cohesive device used in the ST. The writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of repetition between the two sentences via the repetition of the phrase (wa tuʔakkid su:rija:) وتؤكد سوريا. However, the translator substitutes this relation with a reference relation marked by the use of the personal pronoun *it*. This tendency in the English translated text is attributed to avoidance of repetition.

(49-a) **Arabic ST 3**

هذا الإغفال المؤسف للحقائق على الأرض، والذي صدر بيان مجلس الأمن بناء عليه، يشكل عاملا أساسيا بالغ السلبية بالنسبة لمصلحة سورية لأنه يشجع المجموعات التخريبية المسلحة على الاستمرار في استخدام السلاح وفي عمليات القتل والتخريب، وفي هذا الكثير مما يعرقل إمكانات الوصول إلى الحفاظ على مصالح سورية الأساسية.

(49-b) **English TT 3**

That regrettable disregard for the facts on the ground, which informed the Security Council statement, is an extremely negative factor in respect of Syrian interests, because it encourages the armed gangs of wreckers to continue to use weapons and carry out acts of murder and destruction, thereby considerably hindering the chances of preserving the fundamental interests of the country.

In example 49, the translator changes the type of the cohesive device used in the ST. While the writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of repetition between the two sentences via the repetition of the noun سورية (su:rijja), the translator resorts to reference by using the definite article *the* in *the country* in referring back to *Syria*. This tendency is again attributed to avoidance of repetition.

(50-a) **Arabic ST 4**

يطيب لي إبلاغكم بأن المجلس الوطني الانتقالي قد أعلن تحرير ليبيا بالكامل من حكم الديكتاتور معمر القذافي، بعد السيطرة على مدينة سرت، وموت العقيد القذافي كنتيجة للإصابة البالغة التي تعرض لها خلال الاشتباك الذي جرى بين الثوار وأنصار القذافي الذين كانوا يحاولون حماية القذافي للهروب من سرت يوم ٢٠ تشرين الأول/أكتوبر ٢٠١١.

(50-b) **English TT 4**

> I have the honour to inform you that the National Transitional Council has announced the full liberation of Libya from the dictatorial regime of Muammar Qadhafi, the city of Sirte having been taken and Colonel Qadhafi having died on 20 October 2011 after suffering serious injuries during the clash between the revolutionaries and the Qadhafi loyalists who were trying to protect him and effect his escape from Sirte.

In example 50, the translator changes the cohesive relation of repetition set up between two clauses in the ST via the repetition of the noun Qadhafi, and resorts to reference by using the personal pronoun *him*, which refers back to Qadhafi. This tendency is attributed to avoidance of repetition.

(51-a) **Arabic ST 8**

كما أن الحكومة السورية تؤمن بأن مشكلة ما يسمى بالنازحين السوريين هي مشكلة مفتعلة إلى حد كبير وتأمل عودتهم إلى وطنهم وعدم استغلال وجودهم لأغراض سياسية، وقد أدى التحسن الملحوظ في الوضع الأمني إلى عودة مجموعات كبيرة منهم إلى بلدهم ومزاولتهم لأعمالهم التي منعتهم منها المجموعات الإرهابية.

(51-b) **English TT 8**

The Syrian Government believes that the issue of the so-called Syrian refugees is, to a large extent, a fabricated one. It hopes that they will return to their homeland and that their presence will not be exploited for political purposes. The notable improvement in the security situation has led sizeable groups to return to their country and resume their work, which the terrorist groups had prevented them from doing.

In example 51, the writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of repetition between the two sentences via the repetition of the noun مشكلة (muʃkila) in referring back to *the issue of the Syrian refugees*. However, the translator resorts to nominal substitution in order to avoid repetition, by using the term *one,* which is a substitute for the Head *issue* in the nominal group *the issue of the so-called Syrian refugees*.

(52-a) **Arabic ST 13**

كنت قد وجهت إليكم في الخامس من شهر آب/ أغسطس ٢٠١٠ رسالة بخصوص قيام قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي بأسر المواطن السوري فداء الشاعر ووالده ماجد الشاعر بتهم مفبركة بهدف ترهيب المواطنين السوريين في الجولان السوري المحتل، وإنني أود أن ألفت انتباهكم إلى إجراء جديد قامت به قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي، /حيث أقدمت المحكمة المركزية الإسرائيلية في الناصرة بتاريخ ١٧ شباط/ فبراير ٢٠١١ على إصدار أحكام جائرة بحق الأسيرين ماجد الشاعر بالسجن لمدة خمس سنوات وابنه فداء الشاعر بالسجن لمدة ثلاث سنوات.

(52-b) **English TT 13**

On 5 August 2010, I wrote to you concerning the arrest by the Israeli occupation forces of Syrian citizen Fida al-Shaʿir and his father Majid al-Shaʿir on spurious charges, the aim being to terrorize the Syrian population of the occupied Syrian Golan. I should like to draw your attention to a new measure undertaken by the Israeli occupation forces: on 17 February 2011, the Israeli District Court in Nazareth passed tyrannical sentences on those two prisoners. Majid al-Shaʿir received a five-year prison sentence and his son Fida al-Shaʿir was sentenced to a three-year prison term.

In example 52, the translator changes the type of the cohesive device used in the ST. The writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of repetition between the two sentences via the repetition of the noun الأسيرين (alʔasi:rajn); however, the translator resorts to reference by using the demonstrative pronoun *those* in referring back to *the two prisoners*. In addition, the ST sentence structure is divided into two independent sentences in the TT. This tendency is again attributed to avoidance of repetition.

(53- a) **Arabic ST 2**

لقد تكللت جهود الكتل السياسية خلال السنة الماضية، بتشكيل حكومة الشراكة الوطنية، بعد فترة طويلة من المشاورات التي أكدت على رغبة تلك الكتل في أن يتم انتقال السلطة في العراق بشكل ديمقراطي وسلمي ووفق الآليات الدستورية.

(53-b) **English TT 2**

Thanks to their efforts in the previous year, the political blocs succeeded in forming a national partnership Government. This

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achievement came after prolonged consultations which affirmed their desire that power in Iraq should be transferred democratically and peacefully and in accordance with the Constitution.

In example 53, two occurrences of change of the type of cohesion are identified in the TT. First, the translator changes the cohesive relation of collocation presented in (takallalat ʒuhu:d alkutal assija:si:jja) تكللت جهود الكتل السياسية into a resultative relation marked by the resultative conjunction *thanks to*. In addition, the semantic relation of reference signalled by the demonstrative pronoun تلك الكتل (tilka alkutal) in reference to الكتل السياسية (alkutal assija:sijja) is rendered into a personal pronoun *their* in *their desire*. This shift of cohesion demonstrates a different structure and does not change the meaning of the text.

(54-a) **Arabic ST 4**

> ونؤكد مجددا بأن ما ورد في الفقرة ٧٢ حول'' أن ترسيم الحدود أمر حاسم لعلاقة إيجابية بين البلدين''، غير مقبول، وأن العلاقة القائمة الآن بين البلدين إيجابية وأن التشكيك بذلك يعتبر تدخلا في الشؤون الداخلية للبلدين.

(54-b) **English TT 4**

> We affirm once more that the statement in paragraph 72 about the drawing of the border being critical for the positive relationship between the two countries is unacceptable. The relationship which currently exists between the two countries is positive and casting doubt on it is interference in the internal affairs of the two countries.

In example 54, the writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of reference between the two clauses via a demonstrative pronoun بذلك (bið:lika) in referring back to the (alçala:qa alqa:ʔima alʔ:an bajna albaladajn ʔi:ʒabijja) العلاقة القائمة الآن إيجابية بين البلدين *the positive relationship between the two countries*. However, the translator resorts to the personal

pronoun *it,* which refers back to the same referent in the previous sentence. In addition, the ST sentence structure is divided into two independent sentences in the TT.

(55-a) **Arabic ST 8**

وبهذا نؤكد مجددا أن محاولة زج اسم سوريا في الوضع الداخلي اللبناني يأتي في إطار الحملة الموجهة ضد سوريا ويشكل انتهاكا لما نص عليه ميثاق الأمم المتحدة من مبدأ عدم التدخل في الشؤون الداخلية للدول. كما نطالب بإدانة دخول الصحفيين الفرنسيين والأمريكيين والبريطانيين إلى سوريا متسللين عبر الحدود السورية - اللبنانية لأن في ذلك انتهاكا لسيادة لبنان ولسيادة سوريا.

(55-b) **English TT 8**

> We therefore reiterate that the attempt to introduce Syria's name into the internal Lebanese situation is part of the campaign against Syria and violates the principle of non-intervention in the internal affairs of States as enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations. The infiltration of French, American and British journalists over the border from Lebanon into Syria must be condemned, as it violates the sovereignty of Lebanon and Syria alike.

In example 55, the translator changes the type of the cohesive device used in the ST. While the writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of repetition between two sentences via the repetition of the noun لسيادة (lisija:dat), the translator resorts to reference by using the comparative reference device *alike* in referring back to *the sovereignty of Lebanon and the sovereignty of Syria*.

(56-a) **Arabic ST 11**

إن الإشارة إلى موضوع المواطنين السوريين المهجرين إلى لبنان، وإلى انتقال اللاجئين الفلسطينيين المقيمين في سوريا إلى لبنان، نتيجة الأعمال الإرهابية للمجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة هو موضوع يخرج عن نطاق ولاية القرار ٧٠١ ٢٠٠٦ وتحذر من مغبة استغلال

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معاناة المهجرين لأغراض سياسية، وتذكر حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية ، بأن البرنامج السياسي الذي طرحه السيد الرئيس بشار الأسد، رئيس الجمهورية العربية السورية، لحل الأزمة في سوريا، تضمن ضمانات لكافة المواطنين المهجرين الراغبين بالعودة وتقديم التسهيلات اللازمة لعودتهم.

(56-b) **English TT 11**

> The report refers to the migration into Lebanon, owing to the activities of armed terrorist groups, of Syrian citizens and of Palestine refugees resident in Syria. That subject falls outside the mandate of the resolution. The Government of the Syrian Arab Republic warns against exploiting the suffering of the migrants for political purposes. It recalls that the political programme put forward by President Bashar Al-Assad to resolve the crisis in Syria includes guarantees for all Syrian citizens who wish to return, as well as measures to facilitate their return.

In example 56, two occurrences of change of the type of cohesion are identified in the TT. First, the translator changes the cohesive device of reference, i.e. the personal pronoun هو (huwa), in referring to the whole primary clause into a demonstrative pronoun *that* as in *that subject*. In addition, this shift of cohesion demonstrates a different structure without any loss of meaning. Second, while the writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of repetition between two sentences via the repetition of the resolution number ولاية القرار٧٠١(٢٠٠٦) (wila:jat alqara:r 701(2006)), the translator prefers to use the definite article *the* in reference to the number of resolution 701(2006).

(57-a) **Arabic ST 12**

> إن هذه المعلومات تثبت وبالدليل القاطع أن إسرائيل ماضية في سياستها العدوانية الاستيطانية، من خلال تجاهلها لقرارات الشرعية الدولية التي تدين استمرار إسرائيل ببناء المستوطنات في الأراضي العربية المحتلة بما في ذلك الجولان السوري المحتل.

That information is conclusive evidence that Israel is moving ahead with its aggressive settlement policy in the occupied Arab territories. In so doing, it is ignoring international resolutions which condemn the continuation of settlement construction in those territories, which include the occupied Syrian Golan.

In example 57, two occurrences of change of the type of cohesion are identified in the TT. First, the translator changes the structure of the ST expressed through the insertion of a manner adjunct من خلال (min χila:l), to describe the means by which the process is realised, into an overt cohesive device of substitution, i.e. the use of verbal substitution *in so doing*, in reference to the preceding sentence in the TT. In addition, this shift of cohesion demonstrates a different structure with no loss of meaning. Second, while the writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of repetition between two sentences via the repetition of noun phrase الأراضي العربية المحتلة (alʔara:.di: alʕarabijja almu.htalla), the translator resorts to reference through the use of the demonstrative reference *those* in *those territories*, in addition to the repetition of the lexical element *territories* found in the preceding clause.

(58-a) **Arabic ST 9**

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، أتشرف بأن أرفق لكم طيا جدولا يتضمن أسماء أربعة صحفيين أجانب دخلوا إلى الأراضي السورية بطرق غير مشروعة ودون علم السلطات السورية (انظر المرفق)، حيث لقي اثنان من هؤلاء الصحفيين حتفهما خلال تواجدهما مع المجموعات المسلحة في سوريا. في حين أن الصحفيين الآخرين تسللا إلى سوريا عبر الحدود التركية ـ السورية في بداية شهر آذار/مارس ٢٠١٢ ، وقد تم، مؤخرا، تسليمهما إلى سلطات بلادهما.

(58-b) **English TT 9**

On instructions from my Government, I have the honour to transmit herewith a table listing the names of the four foreign journalists who entered Syrian territory illegally without the knowledge of the Syrian authorities (see annex). Two of those journalists died while in the company of armed groups in Syria. The two others infiltrated Syria via the Turkish-Syrian border in early March 2012 and were recently handed over to their country's authorities.

In example 58, the translator changes the cohesive relation of lexical cohesion relation marked through the use of collocation أرفق طيا (ʔurfiq .tajjan) into a reference relation expressed through the insertion of a blend word *herewith*, in referring to the table listing the names of the journalists.

(59- a) **Arabic ST 11**

وتود حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية التأكيد أيضا على موقفها المعبّر عنه في العديد من الرسائل المتطابقة التي كانت قد وجهتها إلى كل من الأمين العام ورئيس مجلس الأمن بخصوص تنفيذ القرار ١٧٠١(٢٠٠٦) ، وتعبر عن استغرابها في هذا المجال من إصرار الأمانة العامة على الاستمرار بزج اسم الجمهورية العربية السورية في تقاريرها المتعلقة بتنفيذ القرار ١٧٠١ (٢٠٠٦)، خاصة وأن القرار المشار إليه يتعلق بالعدوان الإسرائيلي على لبنان.

(59-b) **English TT 11**

The Government of the Syrian Arab Republic also reiterates the position set forth in numerous letters addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council regarding implementation of Security Council resolution 1701 (2006). It is surprised that the Secretariat persists in mentioning the Syrian Arab

Republic in its reports on the topic, particularly as the resolution has to do with the Israeli aggression on Lebanon.

In example 59, the translator changes the cohesive relation of repetition between the two sentences via the repetition of noun phrase تنفيذ القرار(٢٠٠٦)١٧٠١ (tanfi:ð alqara:r), into a reference relation marked by the definite article *the* in addition to the substituting element *topic*. In addition, the reference element in the ST القرار المشار إليه (alqara:r almuʃa:r ʔilajh) is ellipted in the TT and rendered into a definite article *the* in *the resolution*.

(60-a) **Arabic ST 9**

إن حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية تؤكد على أهمية الدور الذي يجب أن تقوم به وسائل الإعلام في أدائها لمهامها، والذي يجب أن يتميز بالمهنية والموضوعية، وذلك على عكس ما قامت به بعض وسائل الإعلام الغربية والعربية من ترويج لأخبار عارية عن الصحة عن الأحداث الجارية في سوريا، عبر قيامها بإحلال صورة مزيفة مكان الصورة الحقيقية التي جرى تغييبها عمدا خدمة لأجندات سياسية ضيقة لا تمت بصلة لمتطلبات العمل الصحفي المهني، حيث قامت هذه الوسائل بدور تحريضي أدى في كثير من الأحيان إلى مقتل الكثير من المدنيين الأبرياء، وذلك في تناقض تام مع مهام الإعلام النبيلة.

(60-b) **English TT 9**

The Government of the Syrian Arab Republic affirms that the media have an important role to play as they conduct their duties, a role that should be characterized by professionalism and objectivity. This is contrary to the conduct of certain Western and Arab media organizations, which have propagated spurious information on current events in Syria. They have presented a false picture of the situation, obscuring reality in order to serve narrow political agendas that have no relation to the profession of journalism. These media organizations have engaged in incitement that has often led to the killing of many innocent civilians. Such conduct is completely contrary to the noble mission of the media.

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In example 60, the translator changes the type of the cohesive device used in the ST. While the writer in the ST sets up a cohesive relation of reference marked by the demonstrative pronoun وذلك (waða:lika) to provide an explanation between the two clauses, the translator resorts to reference by using the comparative reference *such conduct* in referring back to the process realised in the preceding sentence. In addition, the ST long sentence structure is divided into four independent sentences in the TT.

VI.2.2. Motives of Shifts of Cohesion

Shifts of cohesion result in a higher or lower level of textual explicitness in the translated texts. The analysis has revealed that English translated texts have a major tendency towards both explicitation and implicitation. This is evidenced in the analysis of the sub-techniques of addition, omission and substitution of the cohesive devices used in the translated texts.

On the one hand, explicitation is widely identified through the addition of cohesion. The establishment of new cohesion relations, which are missing in the STs, adds further explicitness to the TTs. This is demonstrated in examples 1 to 15, in which the insertions of new devices such as conjunction, reference, and, occasionally, the establishment of new information add further clarifications to the TTs. Similarly, substitution of cohesion triggers the explicitness of TTs in that the change of the type of cohesive devices, for example, results in the occurrence of this translation phenomenon; this is demonstrated in examples 44, 47, 56 and 57. Actually, this specific shift corresponds with the explanatory function of most of the UN texts, according to which the translators clearly convey the necessary information to the target readers in greater elaboration. These basic motives occur as a result of the translators'

aims to produce natural translation products that fulfil the accuracy, transparency and formality of the UN texts.

Implicitation, on the other hand, is obviously demonstrated through the omission of cohesive devices and the change of the type of cohesive devices in the TT. This is illustrated in examples 16 to 40. Although English TTs reveal a considerable tendency towards explicitaion, patterns of implicitation also occur, apparently, without any loss of meaning. They are evident in using less explicit conjunctions, as in examples 37 and 38 or the collection of the ST separate sentences into one single sentence in the TT, as demonstrated in example 40.

It is important to note that the occurrence of these translation phenomena, i.e. explicitation/implicitation, is attributed to stylistic preferences, systematic differences and the translation process per se. For example, the stylistic preferences of each language dictate a particular tendency towards the use of certain cohesive devices at the expense of other types.

The results have shown that while English resorts in most cases to avoidance of repetition, Arabic shows a higher proportion of repetition elements, and this explains the tendency of Arabic towards explicitation more than English does. In fact, this finding contradicts the *explicitation hypothesis* suggested by Blum-Kulka (1986), according to which the translated texts are believed to show a higher use of repetition in comparison to the ST. This result is proved in the contrastive analysis undertaken in the first section, in which it has been revealed that the average percentage of use of repetition devices in the Arabic STs is (17.65%) as opposed to (13.65%) of the English translations.

Moreover, repetition devices in English are used in order to limit the redundancy of the repetition terms of Arabic, a characteristic which is typical of Arabic language. However,

the solution suggested to avoid redundancy is the employment of reference devices, as in examples 48 and 49 and 50. Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that occurrence of repetition in English translated texts is of higher proportions and it is used in order to meet the target readers' expectations.

As far as the reference devices are concerned, the qualitative analysis suggests that translators tend to add pronominals and demonstratives, when the opportunity arises, in order to make it easier for readers to determine the co-reference relations, and, as a result, reduce the risk of misunderstanding: see examples 5, 6 and 12. The employment of these devices is in accordance with the typical stylistic preferences of each language.

Regarding the conjunctive devices, translators employ them both explicitly and implicitly. Most of these devices are used in accordance with the TT preferences. That is to say, instances of conjunctive explicitation are found when translators intend to raise the cohesion of the TTs, as in example 1. However, conjunctions tend to become implicit in the English translations, as they are adapted to the English grammatical convention, which leads sometimes to the omission of the cohesive conjunctives in the TT; this is illustrated in examples 16 and 18.

As far as the structural differences are concerned, the translation actions of paraphrasing, dividing long sentence structures into a number of independent sentences, as well as changing the active voice into passivation take place as a result of the translators' tendency towards *simplification* (see Baker, 1993).

Finally, it is worth noting that the shifts of cohesion are not considered as errors but rather as motivated choices carried out by translators in bridging the gap between the different

languages. They are consequences of the translators' efforts to establish translation equivalence between different language systems.

VI.2.3. Summary

This section has examined some instances of shifts of cohesion that have occurred in the Arabic/English translation of the United Nations texts. Based on the *explicitation hypothesis,* suggested by Blum-Kulka (1986), and, sometimes, in view of the *universals of translation* suggested by Baker (1993), the study has detected and described the different types of shifts that have occurred with respect to the various cohesive devices used in the PCUNTs. In so doing, it became plausible to explain the accuracy of the translation of these devices and the possible reasons that have prompted translators to perform these shifts. The results have shown that English translated texts have a major tendency towards both explicitation and implicitation. This is demonstrated in the occurrence of three types of shifts, namely, addition, omission and substitution of the cohesive devices used in the translated texts. Moreover, the factors that have been found to determine the occurrence of these translation phenomena in translation are the stylistic preferences, the systematic differences and the translation process itself. Nevertheless, the qualitative analysis of texts has revealed an observed difficulty in determining some causes of explicitation, as this translation-inherent feature seem to be difficult to detect.

Conclusion

In this chapter a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the use of the cohesive devices in the Arabic/English parallel corpus of the United Nations texts has been carried out, with a view to observe variation in the way each language makes use of these devices to signal cohesion relations and to identify instances of shifts of cohesion. The first section has

uncovered the differences and similarities between the Arabic STs and their English translations, with respect to the various cohesive devices used in the UN texts. Based on the frequency counts and the data extracted from the concordance lines it has been shown that there are more similarities than differences in terms of the types of cohesive devices used between the Arabic and English sub-corpora. The similarities are significantly preserved for the purpose of accurateness, transparency and formality that characterise the language of the UN texts. However, due to the stylistic preferences of each language, differences markedly occur in their frequencies of occurrence. In the second section, and in the light of the results obtained from section one, the *explicitation hypothesis* has been tested, and has made it possible to determine the frequent occurrence of this translation phenomenon in the translated texts. The results have shown that English translated texts have a major tendency towards both explicitation and implicitation. This is demonstrated in the occurrence of three types of shifts, namely, addition, omission and substitution of cohesive devices used in the translated texts. In addition, the factors that have been found to determine the occurrence of these translation phenomena in translation are stylistic preferences, systematic differences and the translation process itself.

Chapter VII

Pedagogical Implications

Introduction

As one of the aims of this study is revealing the implications of the findings for the teaching of cohesion in translation classes, this chapter suggests some pedagogical implications, describes the significance of the use of corpora within this discipline and suggests few Data-driven Learning (DDL) activities designed for the purpose of teaching the cohesive devices in translation classes.

VII.1. Applications of Corpus Research in the Teaching of Cohesion in Translation Classes

As seen in the previous chapters, the one area of interest in this research is to incorporate the advantages of the corpus linguistics methods and tools in the analysis of textual cohesion within a translation framework. In fact, the genuine development in the study of cohesion was evident when the incorporation of corpus-based cross-linguistic research was considered as a mainstream methodology used within the translation framework, and became subsequently more widespread, (see the works of Bystrova-McIntyre (2012) and Giannossa (2012)).

It is worth noting that although corpus-based studies have been widely applied in contrastive and translation studies, very little research on specialised translation, namely legal translation, has been undertaken across Arabic and English. Therefore, this section shows how corpus linguistics as a methodology of research can reveal clear advantages for the investigation of cohesion in legal translation, and demonstrates it as a good resource for translation learners and translation trainees. In what follows, the importance of incorporating

the corpus-based cross-linguistic research into the teaching of cohesion within the translation framework for EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners is further elaborated.

VII.1.1. Use of Corpora as Translation Resources

In the last few decades, the development of computer technology and the emergence of corpus linguistics tools and methods have brought many advantages to the disciplines of contrastive and translation studies. A great number of research works have been suggested with respect to the applications of corpora in translation classes. For example, Gallego-Hernández (2015) described the use that professional translators make of corpora as translation resources. Similarly, Vaezian (2009:2), in his survey of the advantages of using corpora in translation classes for teachers and students of translation, stressed that "corpus-based translation classes, by their very nature, can offer considerable advantages far beyond what traditional translation classes have to offer."

Likewise, other researchers exploited specialised corpora in translation classes. For example, there is Zanettin's study of the use of specialised corpora to translated texts from Italian into English (2001), Zanettin's corpus-based translation activities for language learners of international relations (2009) and Bowker's use of specialised monolingual native-language corpora as a translation resource (1998). Bowker (1998) found out that corpus-aided translations, using analytical facilities, are of a higher quality in connection with subject field understanding, correct term choice and idiomatic expressions in comparison to those undertaken using traditional resources. Moreover, Bernardini (2006) scrutinised the relationship between corpus linguistics and translator training and identified some of the challenges lying ahead. She (2006) focused on the impact or lack of corpus-informed pedagogy on the training of translators and the increasing availability of tools that facilitate

the construction of corpora from the web. She, consequently, called for a greater focus on awareness-raising uses of corpora in translator education, and a greater ease of access to and greater integration of corpus tools with new technology.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that the incorporation of corpora as translation resources in translation classes remains a novel subject to tackle, and it is poorly applied by translation teachers/learners, as they seem to be unacquainted with corpus tools and functions. At present, corpora are still disregarded in comparison to other information resources, such as dictionaries, encyclopedia and internet software, which are not considered corpus linguistics tools. In addition, because of the very limited number of available translation courses using corpus tools, it is important to raise awareness about the significance of corpus resources for translation learners as well as professionals in the development of the quality of the translation product (see Gallego-Hernández, 2015).

VII.1.2. Corpora in the Translation Classes

According to Gallego-Hernández (2015), at present, parallel corpora are used in complementary with other information resources, such as dictionaries or terminological databases, for translation practitioners facing specialised texts. Pearson (2003, in Bernadini, 2006) proved that classroom practices have demonstrated that parallel corpora of original texts and their translations can raise the students' awareness of professional translator strategies.

In fact, the use of corpora in translation training has been investigated by Beeby et al. (2009), in which they distinguished between the use of corpora for learning to translate and learning corpus use to translate. Translator trainers, then, use corpora "in their classrooms for

different types of translation and language combinations, and demonstrating that translation quality improves when using these resources" (Gallego-Hernández, 2015:377).

Since the present corpus is a self-built one, it is believed to be adapted to the translators/learners of legal discourse needs. This corpus can be considered as a translation resource when translating specialised texts, because it is used to examine a specific problem, i.e. the use/misuse of the cohesive devices that students may encounter during a particular translation. Thus, translation learners as well as students of law can benefit from the use of this specialised corpus in the field of translator training classes from Arabic into English and in their study of English as a foreign language, though it is a topic of controversy to include translations in foreign language teaching (see Zanettin, 2009).

Therefore, it can be said that the design of this parallel corpus can be used effectively for learning how to translate the cohesive devices in the United Nations texts; it is compiled only to be exploited as a translation aid or as a source of teaching materials in order to improve the quality of the students' translation products.

VII.1.3. Role of Students and Teachers in Corpus-based Translation Classes

Unlike the traditional methods of teaching translation in which students translate the texts selected by their teacher' intuition, corpus-based translation activities can increase the autonomous learning of students and improve translation quality.

According to Zanettin (2009:212), "Translation activities may offer them the opportunity to improve their awareness of text type, style, register and knowledge of vocabulary in their curricular fields, e.g., legal, economic and historical fields for students of international relations." Moreover, Vaezian (2009) compared between the traditional

translation classes and modern corpus-based translation classes. He maintained that in corpus-based translation classes, students may take part in the process of corpus compilation suggested by their teacher. In this way, they will be able to distinguish between the different types of texts, and therefore, increase their awareness of the characteristics of text types.

In other words, rather than relying on the teacher's orientations, learners could consider the language data by themselves and become more independent. This is what is labelled as a DDL approach. According to Gilquin and Granger (2010:1), "DDL consists in the application of tools and techniques of corpus linguistics for pedagogical purposes." That is to say, with the help of concordance functions, frequency lists and collocates, students would be able to retrieve from the corpus the usage of specific patterns in particular contexts, and uncover, for example, the lexical, syntactic and semantic properties of the words under study.

VII.2. Data-driven Learning Approach

The DDL approach was first introduced by Johns (1991) at the University of Birmingham. It involves using a large amount of authentic language data to investigate specific language patterns, and it is based on corpus concordance tools in order to help students improve the different language skills. In the same way, the application of this approach in cross-linguistic research is believed to be fruitful, as it solves translation problems, provides answers to the students' questions, and, as a result, encourages the autonomous learning of students.

VII.2.1. Data-driven Learning Activities

This section demonstrates some DDL activities that can be suggested in the translation classes. By way of illustration, few activities that focus on the study of some of the most prevalent cohesive devices, as observed in the PCUNTs, and which are based on our assumption that these devices would pose some challenges while translating, are suggested in what follows.

VII.2.1.1. Design and Procedure

At a starting point, in order to help students gain insights of the style of texts under study, in general, and to highlight the differences between the use of the cohesive devices across the two languages in a specialised corpus, in particular, the teacher may ask students first to translate some extracts from the corpus, then, he/she may provide them with the selected activities for more in-depth analyses.

Students are asked first to translate the Arabic STs and then to compare their translations with the concordances generated from the English TTs. In so doing, students will be able to observe the differences between the cohesive devices across the two languages, and reconsider their translations, by using the information discovered from the concordance lines.

At this point, it may become possible to ask the students to compare the frequency lists of the Arabic and English sub-corpora; this would make them aware of the words that tend to be more frequent across the two languages, and, as a result, they would learn more about the differences between the two languages. In fact, the words selected from the frequency lists can be also used as a basis for the analysis of concordances, which provide students with information about the co-occurrence of these elements in real context.

The following activities are designed with a view to raise the students' awareness of the extensive use of the coordinating و (wa) , as opposed to its English equivalent *and*, the multifunctional nature of some Arabic conjunctions (the Arabic ف (fa) as an instance), and the significance of repetition as a necessary element of precision in the UN texts. The aim of these activities is to stress the importance of these elements as essential prerequisites for texts' unity.

The comparison between the two frequency lists of the Arabic and English sub-corpora reveal that the most remarkable difference lies in the frequency of additives و (wa) (1167 word tokens) and *and* (680 word tokens). However, the concordance shows that only 404 of instances of the conjunction و (wa) are considered cohesive, and a total of 198 relevant instances of *and* are cohesive devices. The obvious differences between the two sub-corpora in using these two equivalents justify its misuse by learners of translation.

Activity 1: Students are asked to examine the occurrences of the coordinators و (wa) and *and* and to distinguish between the cohesive and the non-cohesive function (i.e. instances of enhancements) of these conjunctions.

**Figure 10: Concordance Lines Sample Showing the Conjunction و (wa)
Usage**

The concordance also reveals the multi-functional nature of few conjunctions, such as و (wa) and ف (fa). Students should be aware of the different meanings of these items and make sure that they are translated according to their appropriate functions in the texts.

Activity 2: Students are asked to study the concordances in order to determine the appropriate functions of the conjunction ف (fa), in each concordance line, and find out their equivalents in the translated texts. The following excerpts show respectively instances of resultative and explanatory ف (fa):

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، فإنني أود أن أبين موقف حكومة الجمهورية العربية
السورية من التقرير الدوري السابع عشر للأمين العام حول تنفيذ قرار مجلس الأمن رقم
١٧٠١ (٢٠٠٦):

و كانت السلطات الإسرائيلية ألقت القبض على ماجد وفداء في شهر تموز /يوليه من
العام الماضي، و هما رهن الاعتقال منذ ذلك الحين، فقد تم اعتقال فداء مباشرة عند نزوله من
الطائرة في مطار "بن غوريو ن" عائدا من فرنسا لقضاء العطلة الصيفية في الجولان بعد انتها ء
السنة الدراسية هناك، ثم قامت باعتقال والده ماجد بعد يومين من ذلك.

Figure 11: Extracts of the Concordance File View illustrating the Conjunction ف (fa) Usage

Because of the specificity of legal discourse, which favours the recurrence of legal lexical items, repetition is widely used in the parallel corpus. The abundant use of repetition items in the corpus is ascribed to the nature of legal texts, which requires a deep concern to preserve the highest levels of accuracy and eliminate ambiguity.

Activity 3: Students are asked to derive from the wordlist function, the mostly used repetitious elements in the corpus and to examine how they are displayed in the concordance. Then they are asked to give one example of this category and consider how it is rendered into

the TT. On the one hand, students should be aware that the repetitive use of lexical items guarantees the specificity and clarity of texts, and, therefore, helps conveying the message properly. On the other hand, students should know that what can be considered as a semantically redundant expression in English may not be so in Arabic.

Surprisingly, the frequency lists reveal that the term سوريا (su:rija) and its derivatives السورية (assu:ri:jja) and السوري (assu:ri:) have approximately the same frequency of occurrence as their English equivalents, *Syria* and its derivative *Syrian*; they appear both with the highest frequencies (378 and 402 respectively).
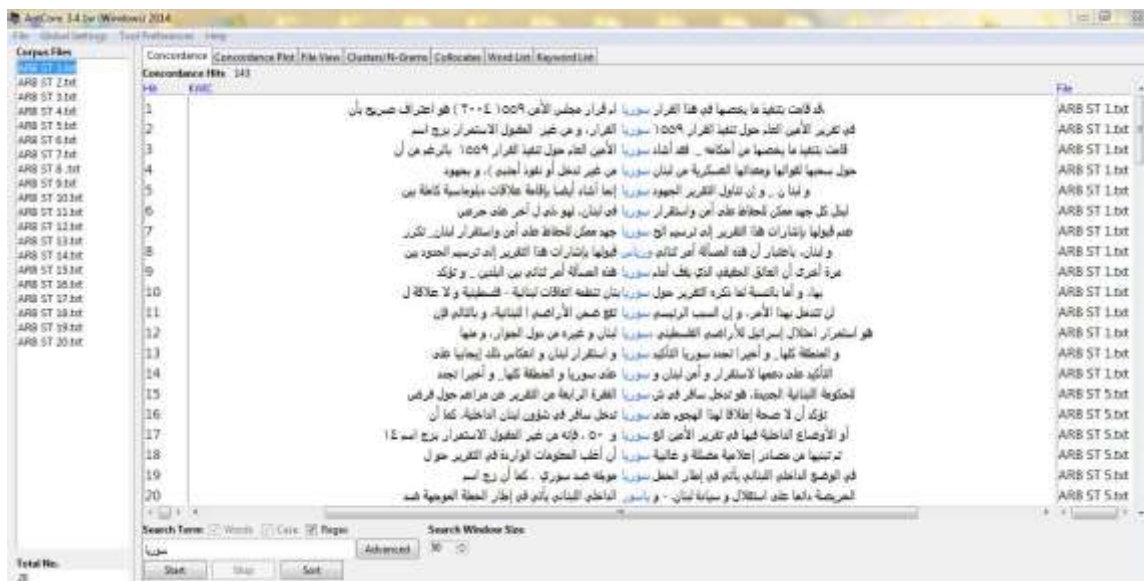
Figure 12: Extract of the Noun *Syria* Concordance Output in the Arabic Sub-corpus
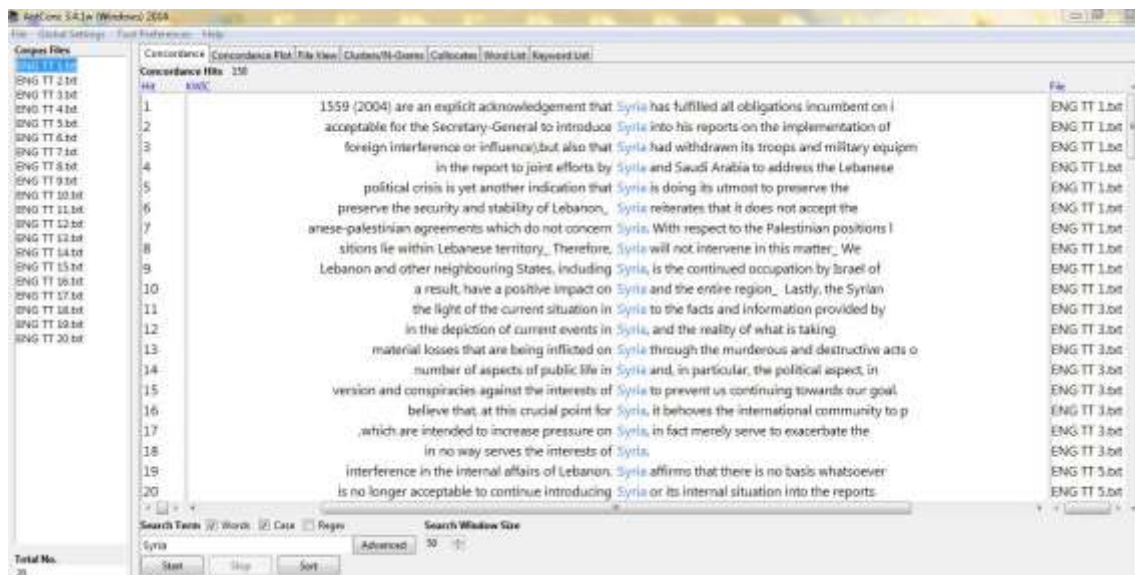
Figure 13: Extract of the Noun *Syria* Concordance Output in the English Sub-corpus

Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to reveal that corpus linguistics methods and resources have a vital role to play in improving pedagogical practices in contrastive and translation studies. The compiled parallel corpus can be used as a learning tool to design DDL activities, with respect to the behaviour of the cohesive devices in a specific text type, across the two languages, and eventually may improve the translation product of the learners. In this way, the incorporation of the corpus linguistics methods will not only offer advantages for translation classes, but also have merits in the teaching of language for specific purposes. Therefore, it can be said that these activities may encourage the autonomous learning of students, and raise their awareness of specialised language. They allow students to see the different linguistic features in real context and improve their translation/language skills.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General Conclusion

This study has attempted to discover the areas of difference and similarity between Arabic source texts and their English translations, with respect to the use of the cohesive devices in the United Nations texts, as well as to explain the occurrence of predominant patterns of shifts of cohesion in the English translated texts. On the basis of the results obtained, some pedagogical implications, which bear on how to improve the learning and teaching of cohesion in translation using corpus tools, have been suggested, and the design of few Data-driven Learning activities that exemplify how to incorporate the teaching of the cohesive devices in translation classrooms has been presented. What follows is a summary of the findings of this research and a description of how the results confirm the hypotheses put forward in the previous chapters. Moreover, some of the limitations of the study and the possible contribution of the study to future research of textual cohesion in the field of translation are suggested.

1. Summary of the Results

This research has explored differences and similarities in the use of cohesive devices across the two sub-corpora AUNTs and their English translations EUNTs, and has justified the possible occurrences of shifts of cohesion in the translated texts.

For the contrastive analysis undertaken in Chapter Six, the results reveal that there are more similarities than differences in terms of the types of cohesive devices used between the Arabic and English sub-corpora. The similarities are significantly preserved for the purpose of accurateness, transparency and formality that characterise the language of the UN texts. However, due to the stylistic preferences of each language, differences markedly occur in their frequencies of occurrence. Many cohesive devices reveal statistically significant

differences across the two sub-corpora. Chapter Five provides in details the results of the statistical analyses.

First, despite the same distribution of the subcategories of reference, significant differences exist in the occurrence frequencies of three out of four types of reference devices between AUNTs and EUNTs. The findings reveal that while AUNTs depend on pronominals and demonstratives much more than do EUNTs, comparatives and other types are found in EUNTs more frequently than in AUNTs.

These findings suggest that the considerable use of reference devices in Arabic can be attributed to the fact that the Arabic verb always carries a pronominal item. In fact, the abundant use of pronominals in AUNTs is a result of the legal texts' main feature which is to preserve maximum levels of precision and reduce the least of misunderstanding.

For the category of demonstratives, the results show that the highest numbers of demonstratives are found more in the Arabic texts than in their English translations. The high frequency of demonstratives in AUNTs is attributed to the fact that the definite article ال (al) occurs every time with nouns, adjectives and gerunds in one sentence whereas its counterpart English *the* occurs only once. In addition, the definite article ال (al) can occur with elements already modified by a demonstrative, a case which is not tolerated in English.

Second, the results show that conjunctions are not employed in AUNTs as frequently as in EUNTs. Significant differences are found in two out of five subcategories, namely additives and causals in terms of their frequency of occurrence, but no significant differences are identified in the statistical result of adversatives, temporals and continuatives. It is obvious that because the UN texts are very consistent in logic and very well structured, conjunctions are predominantly used to display the logical relations between propositions.

For the category of additives, the results show that Arabic texts are more explicitly cohesive than their English counterparts; while Arabic seems to be coordinative, English tends to be subordinative. As for causal conjunctions, the findings reveal that Arabic uses a greater proportion of this category. This is ascribed to the fact that Arabic tends to make relationships between sentences more explicit and clarifies this relation in a better way than English does.

Third, the results show that in the parallel corpus there is a great tendency in the UN texts to avoidance of ambiguity through the abundant use of repetition and the scarce use of superordinate terms, general words and collocations. The great reliance on lexical cohesion is attributed to the fact that lexis establishes the necessary links between propositions in texts, and it is through their relation to lexis that grammatical cohesive devices obtain their meaning. Moreover, significant differences exist in the occurrence frequencies of repetition and in the most prevailing type of lexical reiteration in the corpus between AUNTs and EUNTs. Though repetition is displayed extensively by both languages, Arabic seems to use this category more than English, as it is used in occasions which are not tolerated in English, and this justifies the significant differences between the two sub-corpora.

Furthermore, it is revealed that many factors contribute to this prevalence; what can be considered as a semantically redundant expression in English may not be so in Arabic; that is why Arabic is believed to derive much cohesion from this redundant device. Moreover, the tendency to using lexical repetition is ascribed to its facilitatory effect on the processing of Arabic texts, since the recurrence of the same lexical items keeps the semantic identity of reference alive in the reader's mind. Moreover, it is worth noting that the abundant use of repetition items in the corpus is ascribed to the nature of legal texts, which requires a deep concern to preserve the highest levels of accuracy and eliminate ambiguity.

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In the light of the results obtained from the contrastive analysis, some instances of shift of cohesion that occur in the Arabic/English translation of the United Nations texts are examined, and the possible reasons that prompt translators to perform these shifts are justified. Based on the *explicitation hypothesis,* suggested by Blum-Kulka (1986), and, sometimes, in view of the *universals of translation* suggested by Baker (1993), the study detects and describes the different types of shifts that occur with respect to the various cohesive devices used in the PCUNTs. The results show that English translated texts have a major tendency towards both explicitation and implicitation. This is demonstrated in the occurrence of three types of shifts, namely addition, the omission and substitution of cohesive devices used in the translated texts. And the factors found to determine the occurrence of these translation phenomena are stylistic preferences, systematic differences and the translation process itself.

The analysis confirms a higher frequency of reference and conjunctive devices in the translated texts; this is interpreted as an indication of the phenomenon of explicitaion. Translators have a tendency to explicitate via the addition of pronominals and demonstratives, when the opportunity arises, in order to make it easier for readers to determine the co-reference relations, and, as a result, reduce the risk of misunderstanding. In fact, the use of these devices is in accordance with the typical stylistic preferences of each language. In addition, the higher occurrence of conjunctive devices may also be viewed as evidence of explicitation in translation, as translators intend to raise the cohesion of the TTs in accordance with TT preferences. Moreover, instances of implicitation are also evident in the corpus. Conjunctive devices tend to become implicit in the English translations, as they are adapted to the English grammatical convention, which leads sometimes to the omission of these devices in the TTs. Furthermore, as far as structural differences are concerned, the translation actions of paraphrasing, dividing long sentence structures into a number of independent sentences as

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well as changing the active voice into passivation take place as a result of the translators' tendency towards *simplification* (see Baker, 1993).

Finally, it can be said that this study reveals regular patterns of explicitating and implicitating shifts. The patterns of difference detected between the STs and the TTs have fairly suggested some instances of explicitation in the sense of Blum-Kulka (1986) and simplification in the sense of Baker (1993). The analysis suggests that translators have the tendency to avoid vagueness and ambiguity of meanings and, therefore, move towards clarification and simplification. These features are, in fact, prompted for the aim of achieving the accuracy, transparency and formality of the language of the UN texts.

2. Relating the Findings to Previous Research

These findings are generally consistent with previous research works in the area of translation. In terms of the two first research questions, which considered the differences and similarities between Arabic and English cohesive devices used in some of the UN texts, the findings of this study confirm some of the prior research works reviewed in Chapter Three. Many of these studies, namely, Al-Jabr (1987), Williams (1989) and Karakira (1997), highlight the differences between the Arabic and English cohesive devices used in different text types, such as argumentative, narrative and scientific texts. In this respect, Hatim and Mason (1990) maintain that translators should consider the texture features existing in each language while interpreting the communicative meaning. According to them, cohesive devices are language specific because of the languages' different origins; that is why, they may pose great challenges for translators. They express this as follows:

> The various activities of translation criticism, translation assessment and revision all run the risk of concentrating on features of texture without relating them to the communicative process which engendered them. Texture needs to be

seen an integral part of what one is doing with one's language (Hatim & Mason, 1990: 194)

It is worth mentioning that the contribution made in this study is the scrutiny of these devices in legal texts, particularly the UN texts, as discussed in Chapter Six, section one. Indeed, the results of the analysis confirm the first hypothesis, which is that since each language employs cohesive devices following its rules, English and Arabic would reveal differences in both the types of cohesive devices and the frequency of their use, and therefore would considerably affect any attempt at converting a text from one into another. However, although these findings are generally compatible with the previously mentioned studies, there are some areas in which they differ; the semantic features of ellipsis, substitution and collocation, which appear with very low frequencies, seem not to be favoured in the UN texts. The scarcity of use of these devices is attributed to the nature of the UN texts, which are particularly precise, aiming at achieving exactness of meaning and reducing any possible ambiguity that may affect it.

In addition, the results of the analysis suggested in section two of Chapter Six, in the investigation of the third research question, offer answers on when and why translators have the tendency to shift the Arabic cohesive devices into English and how these shifts succeed in establishing equivalence at the discourse level in the English translated texts. Likewise, the analysis of the data in relation to the third question confirms the explicitation hypothesis suggested by Blum-Kulka (1986) and seems to be in line with the research work of Al-Amri (2004).

Moreover, Baker (1992) reiterates that the main goal of translators is to guarantee a degree of equivalence at the textual level rather than at the word or sentence level. According to her, translators intend to produce natural translated texts that are fluent and accurate

without appearing foreign versions. That is why translators are requested to adjust some of the features existing in the STs in order to fit the organisation of the TTs. It follows, then, that cohesive devices of various categories are a necessary prerequisite for the translator's skills, if his/her aim is to achieve textual equivalence in the TT. In this view, making translation students or future translators aware of the importance of cohesion in general texts and in legal discourse, in particular, solve many problems occurring when translating these elements in this specific type of texts.

The pedagogical suggestions in this research are mainly how to identify the differences between cohesive devices across the two languages and how to transfer them from the STs into the TTs, and therefore, achieve textual equivalence. With the help of corpus linguistic methods and tools, it is possible to investigate the topic of textual cohesion within the translation framework. More precisely, the parallel corpus proves to be useful to design Data-driven Learning activities in translation classrooms.

3. Limitations of the Study

Some of the limitations of this study are related to the type of the corpus under study, and the textual features examined.

First, regarding the type of the corpus, although a parallel corpus is a useful tool for contrastive and translation studies, a comparable corpus is also fruitful as it provides a sound and reliable basis for contrasting and translating the cohesive devices used in texts such as the UN texts. The combination of the two types of corpora can reduce, even if it is moderately, the undesirable effects of translationeses, and, therefore, helps to converge the two disciplines of contrastive and translation studies together.

Another important limitation of the study is that not all the cohesive devices are analysed; only the most commonly used ones in the corpus, which are of high frequency of occurrence, are examined. Therefore, a direction for future research would be to study the different categories of these semantic relationships in more details and independently. Moreover, the analysis of the shifts of cohesion in the translated texts is mainly qualitative; yet, the quantitative analysis based on the frequency counts of these devices would reveal accurately how translators cope with the STs.

In addition, it is important to note that the manual analysis conducted in this study is not without shortcomings. Although Arabic and English dictionaries and thesauri are used to support the analysis of the STs and TTs, the identification of the cohesive devices seems to be somehow subjective.

Finally, an obvious limitation is the lack of textual analysis; the textual features, which are relevant to the translators' competence (Campbell, 1998 in Bystrova-McIntyre, 2012), such as nominalisation, average word length, average sentence length, lexical diversity (e.g., type/token ratio), are not examined.

4. Suggestions for Further Research

In addition to providing some directions for future research, it can be said that this study modestly makes some contribution to the investigation of the topic of cohesion in a specific genre, and within a translation framework. It is hoped that this corpus would help foreign language learners and translation learners to examine not only aspects of textual cohesion in the UN texts but also to study a variety of linguistic features, in this specific type of texts, and thus, it can be considered a valuable research resource for contrastive linguistics and translation studies.

Further research work might be related to the investigation of the universals of translation, suggested by Baker (1993). In addition to the examination of the explicitation hypothesis, other overlapping translation specific features, such as simplification, normalisation and levelling out, could be examined by shedding light on the difference between the nature of translated and non-translated texts. Moreover, another area worthy of investigation is the comparison between learners' corpora, i.e. translations of learners, and the translations made by professionals to examine the use and misuse of the different features in this specific genre. Finally, some empirical studies in which Data-driven Learning can be achieved with the help of the PCUNTs may help learners of translation and those of foreign languages solve many linguistic problems and raise their awareness of text type and knowledge of vocabulary in this specific genre.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

List of the United Nations Corpus Texts (PCUNTs)

Document Number	Issuing Organ	Document Reference	Issue Date	Document Title
1	Security Council	United Nations S/2011/286	5 May 2011	Annex to the identical letters from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council
2	Security Council	United Nations S/2011/464	27 July 2011	Annex to the *note verbale* from the Permanent Mission of Iraq to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General
3	Security Council	United Nations S/2011/501	8 August 2011	Annex to the letter from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the UN addressed to the Secretary-General
4	Security Council	United Nations S/2011/660	25 October 2011	Letter from the Permanent Representative of Libya to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council

5	Security Council	United Nations S/2011/667	26 October 2011	Annex to the identical letters from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council
6	Security Council	United Nations S/2011/735	25 November 2011	Annex to the identical letters from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council
7	Security Council	United Nations S/2011/800	29 December 2011	Annex to the letter from the Permanent Representative of Iraq to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council
8	Security Council	United Nations S/2012/168	20 March 2012	Identical letters from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council
9	Security Council	United Nations S/2012/356	30 May 2012	Identical letters from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council

10	Security Council	United Nations S/2012/471	21 June 2012	Annex to identical letters from the Permanent Representative of Libya to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council: Memorandum on the arrest of the delegation of the International Criminal Court
11	Security Council	United Nations S/2013/693	27 November 2013	Identical letters from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council
12	General Assembly	United Nations A/65/721	7 February 2011	The situation in the Middle East: Report of the Special Committee to Investigate Israeli Practices Affecting the Human Rights of the Palestinian People and Other Arabs of the Occupied Territories/ Annex to the letter from the Permanente Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General

13	General Assembly/ Security Council	United Nations A/65/791–S/2011/146	18 March 2011	The situation in the Middle East: Report of the Special Committee to Investigate Israeli Practices Affecting the Human Rights of the Palestinian People and Other Arabs of the Occupied Territories/ Annex to the identical letters dated 16 March 2011 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council
14	General Assembly	United Nations A/66/338	6 September 2011	The situation in the Middle East/ Report of the Secretary-General: Reply received from Member States Syrian Arab Republic
15	General Assembly	United Nations A/66/895	27 August 2012	Prevention of armed conflict: Letter dated 23 August 2012 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General
16	General Assembly	United Nations A/67/342	30 August 2012	The situation in the Middle East: Report of the Secretary-General/ Replies received from Member States Syrian Arab Republic

17	General Assembly/ Security Council	United Nations A/67/702– S/2013/28	18 January 2013	Measures to eliminate international terrorism: Security Council Sixty-eighth year: Identical letters dated 17 January 2013 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council
18	General Assembly/ Security Council	United Nations A/68/622– S/2013/686	25 November 2013	Strengthening of the coordination of humanitarian and disaster relief assistance of the United Nations, including special economic assistance: strengthening of the coordination of emergency humanitarian assistance of the United Nations Security Council Sixty-eighth year/ Identical letters dated 22 November 2013 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and President of the Security Council

19	General Assembly/ Security Council	United Nations A/68/651– S/2013/727	17 December 2013	Measures to eliminate international terrorism Security Council Sixty-eighth year: Identical letters dated 9 December 2013 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council
20	General Assembly/ Security Council	United Nations A/68/664– S/2013/742	18 December 2013	Measures to eliminate international terrorism Security Council Sixty-eighth year: Identical letters dated 16 December 2013 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council

Appendix B

Sample of Analysis

United Nations S/2011/286

الأمم المتحدة S/2011/ **286**

Distr.: General
5 May 2011
Original: English

مجلس الأمن

Identical letters dated 5 May 2011 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council

رسالتان متطابقتان مؤرختان ٥ أيار/مايو ٢٠١١ موجهتان إلى الأمين العام ورئيس مجلس الأمن من الممثّل الدائم للجمهورية العربية السورية لدى الأمم المتحدة

Upon instructions from my Government, I have the honour to transmit herewith a letter which represents the position of the Syrian Arab Republic on the thirteenth semi-annual report of the Secretary-General on the implementation of Security Council resolution 1559 (2004) (S/2011/258) (see annex).

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، يشرفني أن أحيل طيّه رسالة تتضمن موقف الجمهورية العربية السورية من التقرير ا لنصف سنوي الثالث عشر للأمين العام عن تنفيذ قرار مجلس الأمن (١٥٥٩)٢٠٠٤ (S/2011/258) انظر المرفق.

I would highly appreciate it if the present letter and its annex could be circulated as a document of the Security Council before the discussion of this report by the Council.

وسأغدو في غاية الامتنان لو عملتم على تعميم هذه الرسالة ومرفقها باعتبارهما وثيقة من وثائق مجلس الأمن، وذلك قبل المناقشة التي سيجريها المجلس لهذا التقرير.

(*Signed*) Bashar **Ja'afari**
Ambassador
Permanent Representative

توقيع بشار **الجعفري**
السفير
الممثّل الدائم

[Original: Arabic]

[بالعربية :الأصل]

Annex to the identical letters dated 5 May 2011 from the Permanent Representative of the Syrian Arab Republic to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council

مرفق الرسالتين المتطابقتين المؤرختين ٥ أيار/ مايو ٢٠١١ الموجهتين إلى الأمين العام ورئيس مجلس الأمن من الممثل الدائم للجمهورية العربية السورية لدى الأمم المتحدة

The references made in the report to the Syrian Arab Republic's efforts to implement the provisions of Security Council resolution 1559 (2004) are an explicit acknowledgement that Syria has fulfilled all obligations incumbent on it under that resolution. It is therefore no longer acceptable for the Secretary-General to introduce Syria into his reports

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي فإنني أود أن أبين موقف حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية من التقرير الدوري النصف سنوي الثالث عشر للأمين العام حول تنفيذ قرار مجلس الأمن رقم١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤) :

إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤) هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، و من غير المقبول الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار١٥٥٩(٢٠٠٤). بالرغم من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه.

on the implementation of resolution 1559 (2004). The report notes not only that presidential and parliamentary elections took place in a free and fair manner in Lebanon (i.e., without foreign interference or influence), but also that Syria had withdrawn its troops and military equipment from Lebanon and established full diplomatic relations with Lebanon. The reference made in the report to joint efforts by Syria and Saudi Arabia to address the Lebanese political crisis is yet another indication that Syria is doing its utmost to preserve the security and stability of Lebanon.

Syria reiterates that it does not accept the references that were made in the report to the delineation of the Syrian-Lebanese border, which is a bilateral matter. It reaffirms that the real obstacle to the final delineation of the Syrian-Lebanese border is Israel's continued aggression and its occupation of the Syrian Golan and the Shab'a Farms. This occupation makes it impossible to delineate the border in those areas. The international community must take the steps required to compel Israel to withdraw from the Lebanese and Syrian territory which it occupies, in accordance with internationally recognized resolutions, including Security Council resolutions 242 (1967) and 338 (1973), and the principle of land for peace, in order to achieve a just and comprehensive peace in the region.

Those who claim to care about Lebanon's stability and territorial integrity should also care about its security and independence. Therefore, effective pressure must be brought to bear on Israel in order to compel it to withdraw from the Lebanese territory it continues to occupy. Steps must be taken to prevent and put an end to Israeli violations.

فقد أشاد التقرير ليس فقط بإجراء انتخابات رئاسية ونيابية حرة ونزيهة في لبنان أي (من غير تدخل أو نفوذ أجنبي)، وبجهود سوريا حول سحبها لقواتها ومعداتها العسكرية من لبنان، وإنما أشاد أيضا بإقامة علاقات دبلوماسية كاملة بين سوريا و لبنان . و إن تناول التقرير الجهود المشتركة السعودية ــ السورية المبذولة لمعالجة تصاعد الأزمة السياسية في لبنان، لهو دليل آخر على حرص سوريا لبذل كل جهد ممكن للحفاظ على أمن واستقرار لبنان.

تكرر سوريا عدم قبولها بإشارات هذا التقرير إلى ترسيم الحدود بين سوريا ولبنان، باعتبار أن هذه المسألة أمر ثنائي بين البلدين . وتؤكد سوريا مرة أخرى أن العائق الحقيقي الذي يقف أمام ترسيم الحد و د السورية ـ اللبنانية بشكل تام، هو استمرار العدوان والاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان السوري المحتل ولمزارع شبعا . ولذلك فإن الترسيم في هذه المنطقة في ظل الاحتلال هو أمر مستحيل، وعلى المجتمع الدولي أن يقوم بالجهد المطلوب لإجبار إسرائيل على الانسحاب من الأراضي اللبنانية والسورية المحتلة استنادا إلى قرارات الشرعية الدولية لا سيما قراري مجلس الأمن رقم ٢٤٢(١٩٦٧) و ١٩٧٣(٣٣٨) ومبدأ الأرض مقابل السلام لإنجاز السلام العادل والشامل في المنطقة.

إن من يدعي الحرص على استقرار لبنان ووحدة أراضيه يجب أن يكون حريصا على أمنه واستقلاله أيضا، وبالتالي يجب العمل على الضغط الفعلي على إسرائيل للانسحاب من باقي الأراضي اللبنانية المحتلة، وعلى اتخاذ إجراءات رادعة لمنع الانتهاكات الإسرائيلية ووقفها.

The Palestinian presence in Lebanon is governed by Lebanese-Palestinian agreements which do not concern Syria. With respect to the Palestinian positions located along the Syrian-Lebanese border that are noted in the report, we reiterate that all those positions lie within Lebanese territory. Therefore, Syria will not intervene in this matter. We also reiterate that the primary reason for the Palestinian presence in Lebanon and other neighbouring States, including Syria, is the continued occupation by Israel of Palestinian territory and its refusal to implement United Nations resolutions, including General Assembly resolution 194 (III), which guarantees the Palestine refugees the right to return to the homes from which they were expelled.

The authors of the report should respect the independence and sovereignty of Lebanon and should not interfere in its internal affairs on any pretext whatsoever. They should also not continue to overlook that, in order to ensure Lebanon's security and stability, it is vital to deter Israel's continual violations and end its occupation of Lebanese territory.

We reaffirm that, if the international community wishes to play a positive role in Lebanon, it must act swiftly to put an end to the Israeli occupation of Lebanese territory, which would bolster Lebanon's security and independence, and as a result, have a positive impact on Syria and the entire region.

إن التواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان تنظمه اتفاقات لبنانية ـ فلسطينية و لا علاقة لسوريا بها، وأما بالنسبة لما ذكره التقرير حول مواقع فلسطينية تقع على الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية، فإننا نجد التأكيد أن جميع هذه المواقع تقع ضمن الأراضي ا للبنانية، وبالتالي فإن سوريا لن تتدخل بهذا الأمر، وإن السبب الرئيسي للتواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان وغيره من دول الجوار، ومنها سوريا، هو استمرار احتلال إسرائيل للأراضي الفلسطينية ورفضها تنفيذ قرارات الشرعية الدولية لا سيما قراراي مجلس الأمن رقم ٢٤٢ و٣٣٨ ١٩٦٧ وقرار الجمعية العامة رقم ١٩٤(III) الذي يكفل حق عودة اللاجئين إلى أراضيهم التي تم طردهم منها.

يجب على معدي التقرير الالتزام باحترام استقلال لبنان وسيادته وعدم التدخل في شؤونه الداخلية تحت أي ذريعة كانت، وكذلك عدم الاستمرار في تجاهل أن العنصر الجوهري للأمن والاستقرار اللبناني هو ردع إسرائيل عن انتهاكاتها المستمرة وإنهاء احتلالها للأراضي اللبنانية.

نؤكد مجددا أنه يجب على المجتمع الدولي، إذا أراد أن يلعب دورا إيجابيا في الساحة اللبنانية، العمل السريع لإنهاء الاحتلال الإسرائيلي للأراضي اللبنانية، الأمر الذي من شأنه أن يدعم أمن واستقرار لبنان وانعكاس ذلك إيجابيا على سوريا والمنطقة كلها.

Lastly, the Syrian Arab Republic reaffirms its support for the stability and security of Lebanon, for its efforts to liberate the parts of its territory occupied by Israel, and for its territorial integrity, sovereignty and independence.

(*Signed*) Bashar **Ja'afari**

Ambassador

Permanent Representative

وأخيرا تجدد سوريا التأكيد على دعمها لاستقرار و أمن لبنان ودعم جهوده لتحرير أرضه التي تحتلها إسرائيل ولسلامة لبنان الإقليمية وسيادته واستقلاله.

توقيع بشار **الجعفري**

السفير

المندوب الدائم

Appendix C

Word Tokens per Text in the PCUNTs

Corpus Word Tokens	AUNTs N° of Occurrences	EUNTs N° of Occurrences
Text 1	519	581
Text 2	410	474
Text 3	397	507
Text 4	195	252
Text 5	835	981
Text 6	793	930
Text 7	344	460
Text 8	1003	1138
Text 9	531	575
Text 10	950	1247
Text 11	409	476
Text 12	518	572
Text 13	380	454
Text 14	1626	2007
Text 15	667	776
Text 16	1858	2171
Text 17	462	516
Text 18	1269	1250
Text 19	939	1057
Text 20	703	876

Appendix D

Arabic STs Extracts Transliteration

Section 1

Example 1-c	**Example 1-a** (Text 9)

Example 1-c

bina:ʔan çala taçlima:tin min huku:mati,
ataʃarrafu biʔan ʔurfiqa lakum .tajjan
ʒadwalan
jata.damanu ʔasma:ʔa ʔarbaçati .sa.hafijjina ʔ
aʒa:niba daχalu: ʔila alʔara:di alsu:rijati
bi.turuqin ĝajri maʃru:çatin wa du:na çilmi
assuluta:ti alsu:rijati (ʔunð.ur almirfaq), hajθu
laqija ʔiθna:ni min ha:ʔulaʔi
assa.hafijjin .hatfahuma χila:la tawa:ʒudihima
maça almaʒmu:çati almusala.hati fi: su:rija
fi.hi:ni ʔanna a.s.sa.hafijji:n alʔa:χari:n
tasallala: ʔila su:rija çabra al.hudu:di
alturkijjati-assu:rijjati fi: bida:jati
ʃahri ʔa:ða:r/maris 2012, waqad tamma,
muʔaχχaran, tasli:muhuma ʔila .suluta:ti
bila:dihim.

Example 1-a (Text 9)

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، أتشرف بأن أرفق لكم طيا جدولا يتضمن أسماء أربعة صحفيين أجانب دخلوا إلى الأراضي السورية بطرق غير مشروعة ودون علم السلطات السورية (انظر المرفق)، حيث لقي اثنان من هؤلاء الصحفيين حتفهما خلال تواجدهما مع المجموعات المسلحة في سوريا . في حين أن الصحفيين الآخرين تسللا إلى سوريا عبر الحدود التركية ـ السورية في بداية شهر آذار/مارس ٢٠١٢ ، وقد تم، مؤخرا، تسليمهما إلى سلطات بلادهم.

Example 2-c	**Example 2-a** (Text 5)

Example 2-c

tukarriru su:rija çadama qubu:liha biʔiʃa:ra:ti
ha:ða attaqrir, fi: alfaqara:ti 8, ʃ8, ʀ wa
ʀ3 ʔila tarsi:mi al.hudu:di bajna su:rija: wa
lubna:n, biʔiçtiba:ri ʔanna ha:θihi
almasʔala ʔamran θunaʔijjan bajna
albaladajni. Wtuʔakidu su:rija:
marratan ʔuχra ʔanna alçaʔiqa al.haqiqijja
allaði jaqifu ʔamam tarsi:mi al.hudu:di
ass:urijati-allubnanijati biʃaklin ta:mmin,
huwwa ʔistimraru alçudwa:ni wa alʔi.hti:la:li
alʔisraʔi:li: lilʒu:lani assu:riji almu.htalli

Example 2-a (Text 5)

تكرر سوريا عدم قبولها بإشارات هذا التقرير، في الفقرات ٨ و ٤٨ و ١٠ و ١٣إلى ترسيم الحدود بين سوريا ولبنان، باعتبار أن هذه المسألة أمر ثنائي بين البلدين .وتؤكد سوريا مرة أخرى أن العائق الحقيقي الذ ي يقف أمام ترسيم الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية بشكل تام، هو استمرار العدوان والاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان السوري المحتل ولمزارع شبعا.

walimaza:riçi ʃabça:.

Example 3-c

waʤaʕti: ha:ða:ni attafʒi:ra:ni baçda almaʕsa:ti allati: ʕasfara çanha qa.sfu almaʒmu:çat alʕirhabijja almusalla.ha liʤa:miçati .halab allaði: ʕasfara çan bulu:ɣi çadad allaði:na tamma ʕistiʃha:duhum 87 ʃahi:dan mina a.talabati wa almuwa:.tini:na allaði:na huʒʒiru: min qibali ha:ðihi almaʒmu:çati almusala.ha min mana:zilihim wa ʕaqa:mu muʕχarran fi: sakani al.ttulla:bi alʒa:miçijj.

Example 4-c

ʕinna quwwa:ta alʕi.htila:l alʕisra:ʕili tuta:biçu ta.haddi:iha: lil.haddi alʕadna
min ʕi.htira:miha: huqu:qa alʕinsa:ni, haʤθu fattaʃat alʃur.ta alʕisraʕilijja manzila almuçtaqili:na bi.su:ratin ʕistifza:zijatin, waʕa.tlaqat alɣa:za almusi:l liddumuç bikaθa:fatin .didda alʕaha:li almawʒu:din .hawla almanzili, wbaqija alʕasi:r assu:rijj faris alʃa:çir limuddati χamsati ʕaʃhurin fi:suʒu:ni alʕi.htila:li bituhamin ʕiçtadat sulu.tati alʕi.htila:l talfi:qaha: .didda almuwa:tini:na assu:rijji:n fi:alʒu:lan, wa fara.dat alʕiqa:ma alʒabrijja çalajhi χa:riʒɑ alʒu:lan almu.htall .dimna bajtin fi:alʕra:.di: almu.htalla, wamanaçathu mina alχuru:ʒi minhu wa min alçawdati ʕila alʒu:lan tamhi:dan limu.ha:kamatihi la:hiqan, waða:lika ʕistikma:lan lisija:satiha: attaçasufijja bihaqqi ʕabnaʕi alʒu:lan assu:ri:jj almu.htall.

Example 5-c

ʕistiʒa:batan liqara:ri maʒlisi alʕamn raqam 1970 2011 bita:riXi 26 Suba:.t/ fibra:jir 2011 allaði: na.s.sa çala taçawuni a.sulutat allibijja

Example 3-a (Text 17)

ويأتي هذان التفجيران بعد المأساة التي أسفر عنها قصف المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة لجامعة حلب الذي أسفر عن بلوغ عدد الذين تم استشهادهم ٨٧ شهيدا من الطلبة والمواطنين الذين هجروا من قبل هذه المجموعات المسلحة من منازلهم وأقاموا مؤخرا في سكن الطلاب الجامعي.

Example 4-a (Text 13)

إن قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي تتابع تحديها للحد الأدنى من احترامها حقوق الإنسان، حيث فتشت الشرطة الإسرائيلية منزل المعتقلين بصورة استفزازية، وأطلقت الغاز المسيل للدموع بكثافة ضد الأهالي الموجودين حول المنزل، وبقي الأسير السوري فارس الشاعر لمدة خمسة أشهر في سجون الاحتلال بتهم اعتادت سلطات الاحتلال تلفيقها ضد المواطنين السوريين في الجولان، وفرضت الإقامة الجبرية عليه خارج الجولان المحتل ضمن بيت في الأراضي المحتلة، ومنعته من الخروج منه ومن العودة إلى الجولان تمهيدا لمحاكمته لاحقا، وذلك استكمالا لسياستها التعسفية بحق أبناء الجولان السوري المحتل .

Example 5-a (Text10)

استجابة لقرار مجلس الأمن رقم١٩٧٠(٢٠١١) بتاريخ ٢٦ شباط/فبراير ٢٠١١ الذي نصّ على تعاون السلطات الليبية

taʕa:wunan kamilan maʕa alma.hkama alʒina:ʔijja adduwalijja, wa maʕa almuddaʕi: alʕa:mm lilma.hakama, waʔi:fa:ʔan biʔiltiza:ma:tiha tiʒa:ha alma.hkama, qa:mat al.huku:ma alli:bijja biʔstiqba:li wafdin mina alma.hkama bina:ʔan ʕala muwa:faqati maʕa:li: anna:ʔib alʕa:m fi: li:bijja: ʔibtida:ʔan min ʕ .huzajra:n/ ju:nju: R̃.

تعاونا كاملا مع المحكمة الجنائية الدولية، ومع المدعي العام للمحكمة، وإيفاءً بالتزاماتها تجاه المحكمة، قامت الحكومة الليبية باستقبال وفد من المحكمة بناء على موافقة معالي النائب العام في ليبيا ابتداء من ٦ حزيران/يونيه ٢٠١٢.

Example 6-c

Example 6-a (Text 3)

ma:ðakartuhu ʔa:nifan huwa baʕ.dun mina attawaʒʒuha:t wa alʔafka:r allati: ʔaʕlana ʕanha arraʔissu alʔasad fi: χi.tabihi allaði: ʔaʃartu ʔilajhi wa alqija:da assu:rijja maza:lat tara ʔanna al.hiwar alwa.tani huwwa a.t.tariq alʔamθal li.halli alʔazma allati taʕri:ʃuha albila:d.

ما ذكرته آنفا هو بعض من التوجهات والأفكار التي أعلن عنها الرئيس الأسد في خطابه الذي أشرت إليه. والقيادة السورية ما زالت ترى أن الحوار الوطني هو الطريق الأمثل لحل الأزمة التي تعيشها البلاد.

Example 7-c

Example 7-a (Text8)

kama: ʔanna al.huku:ma assu:rijja tuʔminu biʔanna muʃkilat ma jussama biannazi.hin assu:rijji:n hija muʃkila muftaʕala ʔila .haddin kabi:r wataʔmalu ʕawdatahum ʔila wa.tanihim wa ʕadami ʔistĩgla:l wuʒudihim liʔâgra:.din sija:sijja, wa qad ʔadda: atta.hassun almal.hu:.d fi:alwa.dʕi alʔamnijji: ʔila: ʕawdati maʒmu:ʕa:tin kabi:ratin minhum ʔila: baladihim wamuza:walatihim liʔaʕma:lihim allati: manaʕathum minha almaʒmu:ʕa:t alʔirha:bijja.

كما أن الحكومة السورية تؤمن بأن مشكلة ما يسمى بالنازحين السوريين هي مشكلة مفتعلة إلى حد كبير وتأمل عودتهم إلى وطنهم وعدم استغلال وجودهم لأغراض سياسية، وقد أدى التحسن الملحوظ في الوضع الأمني إلى عودة مجموعات كبيرة منهم إلى بلدهم ومزاولتهم لأعمالهم التي منعتهم منها المجموعات الإرهابية.

Example 8-c

Example 8-a (Text 18)

kama: ʔannahu mina alha:mmi ʒiddan ʔan ʔuʃi:ra ʔila ʔanna alʕamalijja:t alʔinti.ha:rijja fi: madi:nat ʔidlib ʔatat ʔintiqa:man min muwa:.tini ha:ði:hi almadi:na allaði:na ka:nu qad qa:mu: qabla jawmajn min ha:ði:hi

كما أنه من الهام جدا أن نشير إلى أن العمليات الانتحارية في مدينة إدلب أتت انتقاما من مواطني هذه المدينة الذين كانوا قد قاموا قبل يومين من هذه المجزرة بمسيرات احتجاجية طالبوا خلالها الإرهابيين بالرحيل عن مدينتهم وقد

almaӡzara bimassi:ratin ʔi.htiӡa:ӡijja .ta:labu: χila:laha: alʔirhabijji:na biarra.hili çan madinatihim wa qad haddada alʔirha:bijju:na sukka:n wa qura almuduni assu:rijja alʔuχra allaði:na jarfu.du:na tawaӡuda ha:ði:hi almaӡmu:çat fi: mudunuhum wa qura:hum bialqija:mi

biçamalijjatin ʔintiha:rijjatin ʔirha:bijja:tin mustamirratin bihadafi ʔiska:ti alʔa.swa:ti al.hurra almu.ta:liba biwaqfi alʔirha:bi waalçunfi fi: su:rijja:. kama: .ta:laba ha:ʔula:ʔi almuwa.tinuna alqiwa alʔiqlimijja waadduwalijja alla:ti tadçamu alʔirha:b watubarriru lilʔirha:bijjin ӡaraʔimahum attawaqufa çan ða:lika.

Example 9-c

ʁama: jaqu:mu nið.a:m al.hukm fi : assuçu:dijja biʔistĩgla:li wuӡud almuqaddasa:t al ʔislamijja addinijja fi: ʔara:.di almamlaka limu.ha:walati ʔi.dfa:ʔ aʃʃarçijja çala alʔirha:b fi: su:rjja: çabra naʃri alfikri altakfi:ri : fi : alqanawa:t alfa.da:ʔija wataʃӡiçi ʔi.sda:r fata:wa muʃawwaha tazχaru biha: almawaqiç alʔiliktru:nijja, wahija ʔabçadu ma:taku:n çani alʔisla:mi assami.h, liaddaçwati ʔila «alӡiha:d» .didda alddawla assu:rijja mimma jusahhil taӡni:d alʔa:la:f min attakfi:ri:jji:n min muχtalafi adduwali, wa azzaӡӡi bihim limu.harabati addawla assu:rijja, wa safki dima:ʔi aʃʃa:çbi assu:rijji, fi: muχa:lafatin wa:.dihatin limabadiʔi addi:n alʔisla:mi wa alqija:m alʔinsa:nijja wa alʔaχla:qijja, wafi: ʔintiha:kin fa:.di.hin liqara:rati aʃʃarçijja adduwalijja, bima fi:ha: qara:rat maӡlisi alʔamn .hawla muka:fa.hat alʔirha:b wallati: na.ssat ӡami:çuha çala alʔiltiza:m bimuka:fa.hat tamwi:l wa taӡni:d alʔirha:b

هدد الإرهابيون سكان وقرى المدن السورية الأخرى الذين يرفضون تواجد هذه المجموعات في مدنهم وقراهم بالقيام بعمليات انتحارية إرهابية مستمرة بهدف إسكات الأصوات الحرة المطالبة بوقف الإرهاب والعنف في سوريا. كما طالب هؤلاء المواطنون القوى الإقليمية والدولية التي تدعم الإرهاب وتبرر للإرهابيين جرائمهم التوقف عن ذلك .

Example 9-a (Text 19)

كما يقوم نظام الحكم في السعودية باستغلال وجود المقدسات الإسلامية الدينية في أراضي المملكة إضفاء الشرعية على الإرهاب في سوريا عبر نشر الفكر التكفيري في القنوات الفضائية وتشجيع إصدار فتاوى مشوهة تزخر بها المواقع الإلكترونية، وهي أبعد ما تكون عن الإسلام السمح، للدعوة إلى'' الجهاد ''ضد الدولة السورية مما يسهل تجنيد الآلاف من التكفيريين من مختلف الدول، والزج بهم لمحاربة الدولة السورية، وسفك دماء الشعب السوري، في مخالفة واضحة لمبادئ الدين الإسلامي والقيم الإنسانية والأخلاقية، وفي انتهاك فاضح لقرارات الشرعية الدولية، بما فيها قرارات مجلس الأمن حول مكافحة الإرهاب والتي نصت جميعها على الالتزام بمكافحة تمويل وتجنيد الإرهاب والتحريض عليه.

waatta.hri:.di çalajihi.

Example 10-c

tuʔakkidu alӡumhu:rijja alçarabijja assu:rijja
mawqifaha aθθa:biti wa almutamaθθili
fi: ʔiltiza:miha bisija:dati lubna:n wawi.hdati
wasala:mati ʔara:.di:hi waʔistiqla:lihi
assija:ssij, watuʔakkidu fi: ha:ða:
a.s.sadadi ʔiltiza:miha bittaça:wuni maça
alӡa:nibi allubna:nij li.dama:ni ʔi.htira:mi
assija:dati alwa.tanija wasala:mati ʔara:.di
albaladajn aʃʃaqi:qajin bima: jaχdimu ʔamna
waʔistiqra:ra kila: albaladajn.

Example 10-a (Text 11)

تؤكد الجمهورية العربية السورية موقفها الثابت والمتمثل
في التزامها بسيادة لبنان ووحدة وسلامة أراضيه واستقلاله
السياسي، وتؤكد في هذا الصدد التزامها بالتعاون مع الجانب
اللبناني لضمان احترام السيادة الوطنية وسلامة أراضي
البلدين الشقيقين بما يخدم أمن واستقرار كلا البلدين.

Example 11-c

ʔinna quwwa:ta alʔi.htila:l alʔisra:ʔili tuta:biçu
ta.haddi:iha lil.haddi alʔadna
min ʔi.htira:miha: huqu:qa alʔinsa:ni, hajθu
fattaʃat aʃur.ta alʔisraʔilijja manzila
almuçtaqili:na bi.su:ratin ʔistifza:zijatin,
waʔa.tlaqat alɣa:za almusi:l liddumuç
bikaθa:fatin .didda alʔaha:li
almawӡudin .hawla almanzili, wabaqija
alʔasi:r assu:rijj faris aʃʃa:çir limuddati
χamsati ʔaʃhurin fi:suӡu:ni alʔi.htila:li
bituhamin ʔiçta:dat .sulu.ta:ti alʔi.htila:l
talfi:qaha: .didda almuwa:tini:na assu:rijji:n fi:
alӡu:lan, wa fara.dat alʔiqama alӡabrijja
çalajhi χa:riӡɑ alӡu:lan almu.htall .dimna
bajtin fi:alʔra:.di almu.htalla, wa manaçathu
mina alχuru:ӡi minhu wa min alçawdati ʔila
alӡu:lan tamhi:dan limu.ha:kamatihi la:hiqan,
waða:lika ʔistikma:lan lisija:satiha:
attaçasufijja bihaqqi ʔabnaʔi alӡu:lan assu:ri:jj
almu.htall.

Example 11-a (Text 13)

إن قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي تتابع تحديها للحد الأدنى من
احترامها حقوق الإنسان، حيث فتشت الشرطة الإسرائيلية
منزل المعتقلين بصورة استفزازية، وأطلقت الغاز المسيل
للدموع بكثافة ضد الأهالي الموجودين حول المنزل، وبقي
الأسير السوري فارس الشاعر لمدة خمسة أشهر في سجون
الاحتلال بتهم اعتادت سلطات الاحتلال تلفيقها ضد
المواطنين السوريين في الجولان، وفرضت الإقامة الجبرية
عليه خارج الجولان المحتل ضمن بيت في الأراضي
المحتلة، ومنعته من الخروج منه ومن العودة إلى الجولان
تمهيدا لمحاكمته لاحقا، وذلك استكمالا لسياستها التعسفية
بحق أبناء الجولان السوري المحتل.

Example12-c

wa .hawla ma:ӡa:ʔa fi: alfaqratajini 39 wa
42 .hawla al.ha.dri almafru:.di çala assila:.hi

Example12-a (Text 6)

وحول ما جاء في الفقرتين ٣٩ و ٤٢ حول الحظر

wa mura:qabati al.hudu:di, faqad taʒa:hala mumaθθilu alʔamini alça:mmi, wa huwa alça:rifu bikulli ʃajʔin , kama: jaddaçi:, biʔanna tahriba assila:hi, kama: jaçrifu alʒami:çu huwa min lubna:n ʔila su:rija:, wa min kibali fiʔa:tin muçajjana fi: lubna:n tuʃa:riku fi:mu.ha:walati zaçzaçati alʔistiqra:ri fi:su:rija: min χila:li tazwi:di almaʒmu:çati alʔirha:bijja almussalla.ha fi:su:rija: bialʔassli.hati wa alʔamwa:li liannajili min ʔistiqrari su:rija:. wa qad .dba.tati assulu:.tatu allubna:nijia wa kaða:lika assulu.ta:tu assurijja alçadi:da min çamalijjati attahri:bi haðihi .

المفروض على السلاح ومراقبة الحدود، فقد تجاهل ممثل الأمين العام، وهو العارف بكل شيء، كما يدعي، بأن تهريب السلاح، كما يعرف الجميع هو من لبنان إلى سوريا، ومن قبل فئات معينة في لبنان تشارك في محاولات زعزعة الاستقرار في سوريا من خلال تزويد المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة في سوريا بالأسلحة والأموال للنيل من استقرار سوريا.

Example 13-c

wa juʔakkidu almaʒliss alwa.tanijj alʔintiqa:lijj ʔanna alχa.tara allaði ʔistadça .ha.ðra al.tajara:n çala li:bjia: qad za:l, wa ʔanna assulu.tat alli:bijja: alçadi:da qa:diratun çala .hima:jat almadanijjin du:na musa:çadatin ʔaʒnabijjatin, wajatlubu min maʒlisi alʔamni ʔittiχa:ða alʔiʒra:ʔi alla:zimi liʔinha:ʔi alwila:jati alwa:ridati fi: qara:ri maʒlisi alʔamn 1973, biʃaʔni far.di al.ha.dri alʒawijji wa .hima:jati almadanijjin bi.hulu:li 31 tiʃri:n alʔawwal/ʔuctu:bar 2011.

wa juwaʒʒihu almaʒliss alwa.tanijj alʔintiqa:lijj aʃʃukra ʔila alʔami:ni alça:m lilʔumami almutta.hida wa kulli adduwal allati: ʃa:rakat fi: tanfi:ði qara:ra:t maʒlissi alʔamn biʃaʔni li:bija: çala wuqufihim maça aʃʃaçbi alli:bijji munðu bida:jati ʔintifa:.datihi wa .hatta taχllussihi mina atta: ĝija. waʔarʒʒu: mumtannan taçmima haðihi arrissa:la biwa.sfiha: waθi:qatan rassmijatan limaʒlissi alʔamn.

Example 13-a (Text 4)

ويؤكد المجلس الوطني الانتقالي أن الخطر الذي استدعى حظر الطيران على ليبيا قد زال، وأن السلطات الليبية الجديدة قادرة على حماية المدنيين دون مساعدة أجنبية، ويطلب من مجلس الأمن اتخاذ الإجراء اللازم لإنهاء الولاية الواردة في قرار مجلس الأمن . ١٩٧٣ ، بشأن فرض الحظر الجوي وحماية المدنيين بحلول ٣١ تشرين الأول/أكتوبر ٢٠١١ .

ويوجه المجلس الوطني الانتقالي الشكر إلى الأمين العام للأمم المتحدة وكل الدول التي شاركت في تنفيذ قرارات مجلس الأمن بشأن ليبيا على وقوفهم مع الشعب الليبي منذ بداية انتفاضته وحتى تخلصه من الطاغية.

أرجو ممتنا تعميم هذه الرسالة بوصفها وثيقة رسمية لمجلس الأمن.

Example14-c

wa la:kin taçaðða̱r ʔiʒra:ʔu ha:ða: al.hiwa:ri bisababi silbijjati mawaqifa almuça:ra.dat la:juθni:na: çani assajri fi: .tari:ki alʔi.sla:hi allaðti nuri:duhu wa allaði: lan natruka littaχri:bi wa attaʔa:muri çla ma.ʃali.hi su:rijja ʔan ta.hu:la du:na muwa:.slati sajrina fi: .tariqi ta.hqi:qihi.

Example14-a (Text 3)

ولكن تعذر إجراء هذا الحوار بسبب سلبية مواقف المعارضة لا يثنينا عن السير في طريق الإصلاح الذي نريده والذي لن نترك للتخريب والتآمر على مصالح سورية أن تحول دون مواصلة سيرنا في طريق تحقيقه.

Example 15-c

ʔinna man jaddaçi: al.hir.sa çla ʔistiqra:ri lubna:n wa wi.hdati ʔara:.dihi jaʒibu ʔan jakuna .hari:.san çala ʔamnihi waʔistiqla:lihi ʔaj.dan, wabiatta:li: jaʒibu alçamal çala að.ð.ĝ.ti alfiçlijji çala ʔisra:ʔi:l lilʔinsi.ha:bi min ba:qi: alʔara:.di: allubna:nijja almu.htalla, wa çala ʔittiχa:ði ʔiʒra:ʔa:tin ra:diçatin limançi alʔintiha:ka:t alʔisraʔi:lijja wa waqfiha:.

Example 15-a (Text 5)

إن مَن يدعي الحرص على استقرار لبنان ووحدة أراضيه يجب أن يكون حريصا على أمنه واستقلاله أيضا، وبالتالي يجب العمل على الضغط الفعلي على إسرائيل للانسحاب من باقي الأراضي اللبنانية المحتلة، وعلى اتخاذ إجراءات رادعة لمنع الانتهاكات الإسرائيلية ووقفها.

Example 16-c

ʔistiʒa:batan liqara:ri maʒlisi alʔamn raqam 1970 2011 bita:riχi 2̃6 ʃuba:.t/ fibra:jir Ɩ̃1 allaði : na.ssa çala taça:wuni a.s.suluta:t allibijja taça:wunan ka:milan maça alma.hkama alʒina:ʔijja adduwalijja, wa maça almuddaçi alçamm lilma.hakama, waʔi:fa:ʔan biʔiltiza:ma:tiha tiʒa:ha alma.hkama, qa:mat al.huku:ma alli:bijja biʔstiqba:li wafdin mina alma.hkama bina:ʔan çala muwafaqati maça:li: anna:ʔib alça:m fi: li:bijja: ʔibtida:ʔan min 6 .huzajra:n/ ju:nju: R̃.̃
ka:na alhadaf alʔassa:si: mina azzija:ra ʔi:ta:.hata alfur.sa limu.ha:mi: addifa:ç almuçajjani min qibali alma.hkama

Example 16-a (Text 10)

-استجابة لقرار مجلس الأمن رقم ١٩٧٠، ٢٠١١ بتاريخ ٢٦ شباط/فبراير ٢٠١١ الذي نصّ على تعاون السلطات الليبية تعاونا كاملا مع المحكمة الجنائية الدولية، ومع المدعي العام للمحكمة، وإيفاءً بالتزاماتها تجاه المحكمة، قامت الحكومة الليبية باستقبال وفد من المحكمة بناء على موافقة معالي النائب العام في ليبيا ابتداء من ٦ حزيران يونيه ٢٠١٢.

ـ كان الهدف الأساسي من الزيارة إتاحة الفرصة لمحامي

liliqaˀi almuttaham sajf alˀisla:m alqaða:fi: fi: maqarri ˀiçtiqa:lihi bimadi:nat azzanta:n, wa kaða:lika muna:qaʃat ˀimka:nijat taçjji:n mu.ha:mi: difa:ç ˀa:χa:r min ˀiχtija:rihi.

الدفاع المعيّن من قبل المحكمة للقاء المتهم سيف الإسلام القذافي في مقر اعتقاله بمدينة الزنتان، وكذلك مناقشة إمكانية تعيين محامي دفاع آخر من اختياره.

Example 17-c

wa tuˀakkidu .huku:mat alʒumhurijja alçarabijja assurijja ˀanna alʒajʃa alçarabijj assurijj ma:.din fi: addifa:ç çan ka:mili alˀra:.di assu:rijja wa fi: ta.ssaddihi lilmaʒmu:ça:t alˀirhabijja almusallaha almadçu:ma waalmumawwala min duwalin wa ʒiha:tin ˀa.sba.hat maçru:fa.
wa tuʒaddidu .huku:mat alʒumhu:rijja alçarabijja assu:rijja attaˀki:da çla ˀanna masˀlat tarmi:mi al.hudu:d hija: ʃaˀnun sija:dijjun θuna:ˀijjun juqarriruhu albalada:n .hinama: tuti:.hu að.ð.ru:f çala alˀar.di ða:lika, wa ˀanna tarsi:m al.hudu:d fi: man.tiqati maza:riç ʃabça jatimmu baçda ˀinha:ˀi alˀi.htila:l alˀisraˀili litilka alman.tiqa, wifqan liqara:ra:ti aʃʃarçijja adduwalijja.

Example 17-a Text 11

وتؤكد حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية أن الجيش العربي السوري ماض في الدفاع عن كامل الأراضي السورية وفي تصديه للمجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة المدعومة والممولة من دول وجهات أصبحت معروفة.

وتجدد حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية التأكيد على أن مسألة ترميم الحدود هي شأن سيادي ثنائي يقرره البلدان حينما تتيح الظروف على الأرض ذلك، وأن ترسيم الحدود في منطقة مزارع شبعا يتم بعد إنهاء الاحتلال الإسرائيلي لتلك المنطقة، وفقا للقرارات الشرعية الدولية.

Example 18-c

wa nuˀakkidu muʒaddadan biˀanna ma:warada fi: alfaqrati 72 .hawla`ˀanna tarsi:m al.hudu:d ˀamrun .ha:simun liçala:qatin ˀi:ʒabijjatin bajna albaladajnˊˆɡajr maqbu:l, wa ˀanna alçal:qata alqa:ˀima bajna albaladajn ˀi:ʒa:bijja wa ˀanna attaʃki:ka biða:lika juçtabaru tadaχullan fi: aʃʃuˀuni adda:χilija lilbaladajn.
nuˀakkidu muʒaddadan ˀannahu jaʒibu çala almuʒtamaçi adduwalijji, ˀiða: ˀara:da ˀan jalçaba dawran ˀi:ʒa:bijjan fi: assa:.ha allubna:nija, alçamal assari:ç liˀinha:ˀi

Example 18-a (Text6)

ونؤكد مجددا بأن ما ورد في الفقرة٧٢ حول'' أن ترسيم الحدود أمر حاسم لعلاقة إيجابية بين البلدين ''غير مقبول، وأن العلاقة القائمة الآن بين البلدين إيجابية وأن التشكيك بذلك يعتبر تدخلا في الشؤون الداخلية للبلدين.

نؤكد مجددا أنه يجب على المجتمع الدولي، إذا أراد أن يلعب دورا إيجابيا في الساحة اللبنانية، العمل السريع لإنهاء الاحتلال الإسرائيلي للأراضي اللبنانية ، الأمر الذي من

al'i.htila:l al'isra:'ili lil'ra:.di allubna:nija, al'amr allaði: min ʃa'nihi 'an jadҫama 'amna wa 'istiqra:ra lubna:n wa 'inҫia:ssi ða:lika 'i:ʒa:bijjan ҫala su:rijja wa alman.tiqa kulliha:.

شأنه أن يدعم أمن واستقرار لبنان وانعكاس ذلك إيجابيا على سوريا والمنطقة كلها.

Example 19-c

wa kaða:lika ҫadamu al'istimra:ri fi: taʒa:huli 'anna alҫun.sura alʒawharijji lil'amni waal'istikra:ri allubna:niji huwa radҫu 'isra:'i:l ҫan 'intiha:ka:tiha: almustamirrat wa'inha:'i 'i.htila:liha lil'ara:.di allubna:nijja. al'amr allaði: min ʃa'nihi 'an jadҫama 'amn wa 'istiqra:r lubna:n wa'inҫika:si ða:lika 'i:ʒa:bijjan ҫala su:rija: wa almin.taqa kulliha.

wa 'aχi:ran tuʒaddidu su:rija: atta'kida ҫala daҫmiha: li'istiqra:ri wa 'amni lubna:n wa daҫmi ʒuhu:dihi lita.hri:ri 'ar.dihi allati: ta.htalluha: 'isra:'i:l walisala:mat lubna:n al'iqlimijja wasija:datihi wa'istiqla:lilihi.

tu'akkidu alʒumhu:rijja alҫarabijja assu:rijja muʒaddadan, ҫala 'i.htira:mi sija:dati lubna:n wasala:matihi al'iqli:mijjat wawi.hdatihi wa'istiqla:lihi assijassij, waҫala 'iltiza:mi su:rija: bitaqdi:mi addaҫmi walmusa:ҫadat almumkinat lidaҫmi .sul.tatihi wa sija:datihi ҫala 'an.ha:'i al'ara:.di : allubna:nijja ka:ffa.

Example 20- c

'inna alʒumhu:rijja alҫarabijja assu:rijja tu'akkidu ҫala .daru:rati atta.harruki alʒiddijj wa almas'u:l min qibali almuʒtamaҫi adduwalijj liradҫi 'isra:'il wa manҫiha mina al'istimra:ri fi: 'intiha:kiha: li.huqu:qi 'a.s.ha:bi al'ara:.di almu.htalla fi: su:rijja wa lubna:n wa filis.ti:n.

Example 19-a (Text 6)

وكذلك عدم الاستمرار في تجاهل أن العنصر الجوهري للأمن والاستقرار اللبناني هو ردع إسرائيل عن انتهاكاتها المستمرة وإنهاء احتلالها للأراضي اللبنانية الأمر الذي من شأنه أن يدعم أمن واستقرار لبنان وانعكاس ذلك إيجابيا على سوريا والمنطقة كلها.

وأخيرا تجدد سوريا التأكيد على دعمها لاستقرار و أمن لبنان ودعم جهوده لتحرير أرضه التي تحتلها إسرائيل ولسلامة لبنان الإقليمية وسيادته واستقلاله.

تؤكد الجمهورية العربية السورية، مجددا، على احترام سيادة لبنان وسلامته الإقليمية ووحدته واستقلاله السياسي، وعلى التزام سوريا بتقديم الدعم والمساعدة الممكنة لدعم سلطته وسيادته على أنحاء الأراضي اللبنانية كافة.

Example 20- a (Text 6)

إن الجمهورية العربية السورية تؤكد على ضرورة التحرك الجدي والمسؤول من قبل المجتمع الدولي لردع إسرائيل ومنعها من الاستمرار في انتهاكها لحقوق أصحاب الأراضي المحتلة في سورية ولبنان وفلسطين/

Example 21-c

wa tuðakkiru .huku:matu alʒumhu:rijja alçarabijja assu:rijja, biʔanna albarna:maʒa assija:sijji allaði .tara.hahu assajjidu arraʔi:s baʃʃa:r alʔasad, raʔi:su alʒumhu:rijjati alçarabijjati assu:rijja, li.halli alʔazmati fi: su:rija:, ta.dmanu .dama:na:tin lika:ffati almuwa:.tini:na almuhaʒʒari:na arra:ĝibi:na bilçawdati wa taqdi:mu attashi:la:ti alla:zimat liçawdatihim.

Example 22-c

munðu alʔi.htila:l alʔisra:ʔili: lilʒu:la:ni assu:rijji ça:m 1967 wa almuʒtamaç adduwalijj jukarriru raf.dahu aʃʃadid liha:ða: alʔi.htila:l mu.ta:liban biʔinsi.ha:bi alquwwa:ti alʔisraʔi:lijja almu.htalla min ka:mil alʒu:lan assu:rijj.

Example 23-c

ʔinna ma:ðakarahu attaqari:ru .hawla alʒuhu:di assu:rijati litanfi:ði ʔa.hka:mi qara:ri maʒlisi alʔamni 2004/1559
huwa ʔiçtira:fun .sari:.hun biʔanna su:rija: qad qa:mat bitanfi:ði ma:jaχu.s.suha: fi: ha:ða: alqara:ri, wa min ĝajri almaqbu:li alʔistimra:ru bizaʒʒi ʔismi su:rija: fi: taqri:ri alʔami:ni alça:mmi .hawla tanfi:ði alqara:ri 2004/1559 birraĝmi min ʔanna su:rija: qa:mat bitanfi:ði ma: jaχu.s.suha min ʔa.hka:mihi. faqad ʔaʃa:da attaqri:ru lajsa faqa.t biʔiʒra:ʔi ʔintiχa:ba:tin riʔa:sijjatin wa nija:bijatin hurratan wa nazi:hatan fi: lubna:na (ʔaj min ĝajri tadaχχulin ʔaw nufu:ðin ʔaʒnabijjin), wa biʒuhu:di su:rija: .hawla sa.hbiha: liquwwa:tiha: wa muçiddatiha: alçaskarijja min lubna:n,

Example 21-a: (Text 11)

وتذكر حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية، بأن البرنامج السياسي الذي طرحه السيد الرئيس بشار الأسد، رئيس الجمهورية العربية السورية، لحل الأزمة في سوريا، تضمن ضمانات لكافة المواطنين المهجرين الراغبين بالعودة وتقديم التسهيلات اللازمة لعودتهم.

Example 22-a (Text 16)

منذ الاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان السوري عام ١٩٦٧ والمجتمع الدولي يكرر رفضه الشديد لهذا الاحتلال مطالبا بانسحاب القوات الإسرائيلية المحتلة من كامل الجولان السوري.

Example (23-a) Text 1

إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن ١٥٥٩ـ ٢٠٠٤ هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، ومن غير المقبول الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار ١٥٥٩ـ ٢٠٠٤ بالرغم من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه . فقد أشاد التقرير ليس فقط بإجراء انتخابات رئاسية ونيابية حرة ونزيهة في لبنان أي من غير تدخل أو نفوذ أجنبي، وبجهود سوريا حول سحبها لقوّاتها ومعدّاتها العسكرية من لبنان، وإنما أشاد أيضا بإقامة علاقات دبلوماسية كاملة بين سوريا ولبنان.

wa ʔinnama ʔaʃa:da aj.dan biʔiqamati
çla:qa:tin diblu:masijja ka:mila bajna su:rija:
wa lubna:n.

Section 2

(1-c) **Arabic ST 2**

kama: ʃahidat tilka alfatra ʔinfita:.han
sijja:sijja:n wadiblu:ma:sijjan çarabijjan
waʔaʒnabijjan çala alçira:q, alʔamru allaði:
dallala çala .si.h.hati annahʒi allaði tasi:ru
çalajhi alçamalijjatu assija:sijatu,
waman.ha .hukumata alçira:qi
mi.sda:qijjatan ʔakθara çala a.s.saçi:di
alçarabijji wa alʔiqlimijji wa adduwalijji.

(1-a) **Arabic ST 2**

كما شهدت تلك الفترة انفتاحًا سياسيًا ودبلوماسيًا عربيًا
وأجنبيًا على العراق، الأمر الذي دلل على صحة النهج الذي
تسير عليه العملية السياسية، ومنح حكومة العراق مصداقية
أكثر على الصعيد العربي والإقليمي والدولي.

(2-c) **Arabic ST 2**

wa sajaʃmulu attaçawunu bimu:ʒabi ha:tajni
alwaθi:qatajini maʒa:la:ti al.haja:ti
almuχtalifati lima: fi:hi ma.sla.hata
alʔistiqra:ri wa attanmijati fi: alçira:q
wasatançakisu ʔa:θa:ruhu alʔi:ʒa:bijjatu çala
alman.tiqati çumu:man.

(2-a) **Arabic ST 2**

وسيشمل التعاون بموجب هاتين الوثيقتين مجالات الحياة
المختلفة لما فيه مصلحة الاستقرار والتنمية في العراق و
ستنعكس آثاره الإيجابية على المنطقة عموما .

(3-c) **Arabic ST 7**

kama: nawwadu alʔiʃa:rata ʔila ʔanna
alçira:qa qad faqada ʒuzʔan kabi:ran min
waθa:ʔiqihi almutaçalliqati bimilaffi
attaçwi.da:ti nati:ʒata alʔa.hda:θi allati marra
biha:, wa ʔanna qara:ra:ti maʒlisa ʔida:rati
laʒnati alʔumami almutta.hidati littaçwi.da:ti
qad ʔaç.tɑ.ti al.haqqa lilçira:qi fi: alʔi.t.tila:çi
çala almu.ta:laba:ti almuqaddama ʔila laʒnati
alʔumami almutta.hidati littaçwi.da:ti
wa ʔibda:ʔi arraʔji fi:ha watazwi:dihi

(3-a) **Arabic ST 7**

كما نود الإشارة إلى أن العراق قد فقد جزءا كبيرا من وثائقه
المتعلقة بملف التعويضات نتيجة الأحداث التي مر بها، وأن
قرارات مجلس إدارة لجنة الأمم المتحدة للتعويضات قد
أعطت الحق للعراق في الاطلاع على المطالبات المقدمة
إلى لجنة الأمم المتحدة للتعويضات وإبداء الرأي فيها
وتزويده بنسخ منها،...

binusaχin minha:.

(4-a) Arabic ST 2

لقد تكللت جهود الكتل السياسية خلال السنة الماضية،

بتشكيل حكومة الشراكة الوطنية، بعد فترة طويلة من

المشاورات التي أكدت على رغبة تلك الكتل في أن يتم

انتقال السلطة في العراق بشكل ديمقراطي وسلمي ووفق

الآليات الدستورية...

(4-c) Arabic ST 2

laqad takallat ʒuhu:du alkutali assija:sijjati χila:l assanati alma:.dijati,
bitaʃki:li .huku:mati aʃʃara:kati alwa.tanijat, baçda fatratin .tawi:latin mina almuʃa:wara:ti allati: ʔakkadat çala raɣbati tilka alkutali fi: ʔan jatimma ʔintiqa:lu assul.ta.ti fi: alçira:qi biʃaklin di:muqra.tijjin wasilmijjin wawifqa alʔa:lijja:ti addustu:rijjati.

(5-a) Arabic ST 1

إن التواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان تظمه اتفاقات لبنانية ـ

فلسطينية ولا علاقة لسوريا بها، وأما بالنسبة لما ذكره

التقرير حول مواقع فلسطينية تقع على الحدود السورية ـ

اللبنانية، فإننا نجدد التأكيد أن جميع هذه المواقع تقع ضمن

الأراضي اللبنانية، وبالتالي فإن سوريا لن تتدخل بهذا

الأمر، وإن السبب الرئيسي للتواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان

وغيره من دول الجوار، ومنها سوريا، هو استمرار احتلال

إسرائيل للأراضي الفلسطينية ورفضها تنفيذ قرارات

الشرعية الدولية لا سيما قراراي مجلس الأمن رقم (٣٣٨)

١٩٦٧ و(٢٤٢) ١٩٧٣ الذي يكفل حق عودة ا للاجئين إلى

أراضيهم التي تم طردهم منها وقرار الجمعية العامة رقم

١٩٤(III) .

(5-c) Arabic ST 1

ʔinna attawaʒuda alfilis.ti:ni: fi: lubna:n tað.ummuhu ʔitifa:qa:tun lubna:nijatun- filisti:nijatun wala çala:qata lisu:rijja biha:, waʔamma binnisbati lima: ðakarahu attaqriru .hawla mawa:qiça filis.ti:nijjatin taqaçu çala al.hudu:di assu:rija- allubna:nijja, faʔinnan nuʒaddidu attaʔki:da ʔanna ʒami:ça ha:ðihi almawa:qiçi taqaçu .dimna alʔara:ʕ.di allubnanijja, wabiatta:li: faʔinna su:rija: lan tatadaχχala biha:ða: alʔamri, wa ʔinna assababa arraʔisijji littawa:ʒudi alfilis.ti:ni: fi: lubna:n wa ɣajrihi min duwali alʒiwa:r, wa minha: su:rija:,
huwa ʔistimraru ʔi.htila:li ʔisra:ʔi:l lilʔara:.di alfilis.ti:nija wa raf.diha tanfi:ði qara:ra:ti aʃʃarçijjati adduwalijjati la:sijama: qara:ra:j maʒlisi alʔamni raqam 1968/338 wa 1983/ 242 allaði jakfulu .haqqa çawdati alla:ʒiʔi:na ʔila ʔara:.dihim allati: tamma .tarduhum minha: wa qara:ru alʒamçijjati alça:mma raqam 194 III.

(6-a) Arabic ST 1

يجب على معدي التقرير الالتزام باحترام استقلال لبنان

وسيادته وعدم التدخل في شؤونه الداخلية تحت أي ذريعة

(6-c) Arabic ST 1

jaʒibu çala muçiddi attaqriri alʔiltizama biʔi.htira:mi ʔistiqla:li lubna:n wa sija:datihi wa çadama attadaχuli fi: ʃuʔu:ni:hi

adda:χilijjati ta.hta ʔajji ðari:çatin ka:nat, wa kaða:lika çadamu alʔistimra:ri fi: taʒa:huli ʔanna alçun.sura alʒawharijji lilʔamni wa alʔistikra:ri allubna:niji huwa radçu ʔisra:ʔi:l çan ʔintiha:ka:tiha: almustamirra wa ʔinha:ʔi ʔi.htila:liha lilʔara:.di allubna:nijja.

<div align="center">(7-c) Arabic ST 3</div>

wa la:kin taçaððar ʔiʒra:ʔu ha:ða: al.hiwa:ri bisababi silbijjati mawaqifa almuça:ra.da la:juθni:na: çani assajri fi: .tari:ki alʔi.sla:hi allaði nuri:duhu wa allaði: lan natruka littaχri:bi wa atta:ʔa:muri çala ma.sa:li.hi su:rijja ʔan ta.hu:la du:na muwa:.salati sajrina fi: .tari:qi ta.hqi:hi.

<div align="center">(8-c) Arabic ST 6:</div>

tuʔakkidu alʒumhu:rijja alçarabijja assu:rijja muʒaddadan, çala ʔi.htira:mi sija:dati lubn:an wa sala:matihi alʔiqli:mijjat wawi.hdatihi waʔistiqla:lihi assijassij, wa çala ʔiltiza:mi su:rija: bitaqdi:mi addaçmi walmusa:çada almumkina lidaçmi .sul.tatihi wasija:datihi çala ʔan.ha:ʔi alʔara:.di allubna:nija ka:ffa.

<div align="center">(9-c) Arabic ST 6</div>

jaʒibu çala muçiddi attaqri:ri alʔiltizama biʔi.htira:mi ʔistiqla:li lubna:n wasija:datihi waçadami attadaχuli fi: ʃuʔu:nihi adda:χilijjati ta.hta ʔajji ðari:çatin ka:nat, wa kaða:lika çadamu alʔistimra:ri fi: taʒa:huli ʔanna alçun.sura alʒawharijji lilʔamni wa alʔistikra:ri allubna:niji huwa radçu ʔisra:ʔi:la çan ʔintiha:ka:tiha: almustamirrai wa ʔinha:ʔi ʔi.htila:liha lilʔara:.di allubna:nijja.

<div align="center">(10-c) Arabic ST 7</div>

wa raĝma .hu.su:li muwa:faqati allaʒnati

كانت، وكذلك عدم الاستمرار في تجاهل أن العنصر الجوهري للأمن والاستقرار اللبناني هو ردع إسرائيل عن انتهاكاتها المستمرة وإنهاء احتلالها للأراضي اللبنانية.

<div align="center">(7-a) Arabic ST 3</div>

ولكن تعذر إجراء هذا الحوار بسبب سلبية مواقف المعارضة لا يثنينا عن السير في طريق الإصلاح الذي نريده والذي لن نترك للتخريب والتآمر على مصالح سورية أن تحول دون مواصلة سيرنا في طريق تحقيقه.

<div align="center">(8-a) Arabic ST 6</div>

تؤكد الجمهورية العربية السورية، مجددا، على احترام سيادة لبنان وسلامته الإقليمية ووحدته واستقلاله السياسي، وعلى التزام سوريا بتقديم الدعم والمساعدة الممكنة لدعم سلطته وسيادته على أنحاء الأراضي اللبنانية كافة.

<div align="center">(9-a) Arabic ST 6</div>

يجب على معدي التقرير الالتزام باحترام استقلال لبنان وسيادته وعدم التدخل في شؤونه الداخلية تحت أي ذريعة كانت وكذلك عدم الاستمرار في تجاهل أن العنصر الجوهري للأمن والاستقرار اللبناني هو ردع إسرائيل عن انتهاكاتها المستمرة وإنهاء احتلالها للأراضي اللبنانية.

<div align="center">(10-a) Arabic ST 7</div>

ورغم حصول موافقة اللجنة المذكورة على تزويدنا بأرشيف

almaðku:ra çala tazwi:dina biʔarʃi:fi
almu.ta:laba:ti faqad qa:mat bitazwi:dina
bimaçlu:matin çan muta:la:bati adduwali
(A,B,C,D) faqa.t du:na mu.ta:la:bati alʔafradi
mina alfiʔa:ti wa almuʔassasa:ti mina alfiʔa:ti
(E,F) hajθu ʔaʒa:bat biʔannaha: la tas.ta.tiçu
tazwi:dana biha: nati:ʒata tanfi:ði sija:sati
alʔarʃafati wa attaχallu.si minha: baçda
muru:ri sabçi sanawatin min ta:ri:χ dafçi
mablaĝi attaçwi:d, fa.dlan çan ʔanna huna:ka
baç.da alquju:di çala almaçlu:mati allati
jumkinu tawfi:ruha nað.ran lisirrijjati
mu.ta:laba:ti alʔafra:d.

(11-c) Arabic ST 8

المطالبات فقد قامت بتزويدنا بمعلومات عن مطالبات الدول
(A,B,C,D)فقط دون مطالبات الأفراد من الفئات (E,F)
والمؤسسات من الفئات حيث أجابت بأنها لا تستطيع تزويدنا
بها نتيجة تنفيذ سياسة الأرشفة والتخلص منها بعد مرور
سبع سنوات من تاريخ دفع مبلغ التعويض، فضلا عن أن
هناك بعض القيود على المعلومات التي يمكن توفيرها نظرا
لسرية مطالبات الأفراد.

(11-a) Arabic ST 8

laqad ʔaʒmaça alχubara:ʔu wa almasʔu:lu:na
wa almura:kibu:na çala wuʒu:di .haraka:ti
tahribi sila:hin ʔila adda:χili assu:rijji min
duwalin .hudu:dijjatin bajnaha lubna:n, wa
qad ʔaçlanati alʔaʒhizatu almuχta.s.sa fi:
su:rija mira:ran çan mu.sa:darati ʔasli.hatin
wa mutafaʒʒira:tin waʔadawa:ti tafχi:χ,
tamma tahri:buha min lubna:n ʔila su:rija min
qibali baç.di alqiwa assija:sijja allubna:nijja,
ça:ʔidatun lilmaʒmu:ça:ti alʔirha:bijja
almusalla.ha almumawwala wa almusalla.hata
mina alχa:riʒ, wallati
taftaçilu .hawaditha ʔi.tla:qi na:rin tu:di:
bi.hajat:ti alkaθi:ri:na mina almadanijjina wa
çan:sira alʒajʃi wa alʔamni.

(12-c) Arabic ST 11

لقد أجمع الخبراء والمسؤولون والمراقبون على وجود
حركة تهريب سلاح إلى الداخل السوري من دول حدودية
بينها لبنان، وقد أعلنت الأجهزة المختصة في سوريا مرارا
عن مصادرة أسلحة ومتفجرات وأدوات تفخيخ، تم تهريبها
من لبنان إلى سوريا من قبل بعض القوى السياسية اللبنانية،
عائدة للمجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة الممولة والمسلحة من
الخارج، والتي تفتعل حوادث إطلاق نار تودي بحياة
الكثيرين من المدنيين وعناصر الجيش والأمن.

(12-a) Arabic ST 11

wa tarfu.du .huku:matu alʒumhu:rija
alçarabijja assurijja al ʔiddiça:ʔa:ti
alʔisra:ʔilija .hawla nakli assilla:.hi ʔila
lubna:n, wallati: taʔti: fi:ʔi.ta:ri mu.ha:walatin
ba:ʔisatin litaʃti:ti alʔinti:bahi çani alχa.tari
al.haqi:qi:ji almutamaθθili fi: assija:ssa:t

وترفض حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية الادعاءات
الإسرائيلية حول نقل السلاح إلى لبنان، والتي تأتي في إطار
محاولة بائسة لتشتيت الانتباه عن الخطر الحقيقي المتمثل في
السياسات العدوانية الإسرائيلية التي تهدد الأمن والسلم

(13-a) **Arabic ST 12**

ولا أدل على تهرب إسرائيل من التزاماتها ومسؤولياتها إزاء المجتمع الدولي و انسحابها من الأراضي العربية المحتلة من قرار الكنيست الإسرائيلي الأخير، والذي دعا إلى إجراء استفتاء عام قبل الانسحاب من الجولان السوري المحتل والقدس الشرقية، مما يؤكد عدم جدية إسرائيل في التحرك نحو السلام العادل والشامل في المنطقة القائم على أساس قرارات مجلس الأمن ذات الصلة ومبدأ الأرض مقابل السلام.

(13-c) **Arabic ST 12**

wa la ʔadullu çala taharrubi ʔisra:ʔil min ʔiltiza:ma:tiha: ʔiza:ʔa almuʒtamaçi adduwalijji wa ʔinsi.ha:biha mina alʔara:.di alçarabijja almu.htalla min qara:ri alkini:sit alʔisra:ʔi:li alʔaχi:r, wallaði daça: ʔila ʔiʒra:ʔi ʔistifta:ʔin ça:mmin qabla alʔinsi.ha:bi mina alʒu:la:ni assu:riji almu.htalli wa alqudsi aʃʃarqijjati, mimma juʔakkidu çadam ʒidijjati ʔisra:ʔi:l fi: atta.harruki na.hwa assala:mi alça:dili wa aʃʃa:mili fi: almin.takati alqa:ʔim çala ʔasa:si qara:ra:ti maʒlisi alʔamni ða:ti assila wamabdaʔa alʔar.di muqa:bila assala:m.

(14-a) **Arabic ST 12**

كما تم استقطاب ثلاثة آلاف عائلة إسرائيلية جديدة للاستيطان في الجولان المحتل تلبية لهذه الحملة الجديدة التي أطلقها المستوطنون الإسرائيليون والتي استمرت طوال شهر كانون الأول/ ديسمبر ٢٠١٠ تحت إشراف ما يسمى مجلس المستوطنات الإقليمي في الجولان المحتل، وذلك في إطار تشجيع اليهود على الاستيطان في الأرض السورية المحتلة.

(14-c) **Arabic ST 12**

kama: tamma ʔistiq.tabu θla:θati ʔa:la:fi ça:ʔilatin ʔisraʔilijja ʒadi:da lilʔis.ti.tani fi: alʒu:lani almu.htalli talbijatan liha:ðihi al.hamlati alʒadi:dati allati: ʔa.tlaqaha almustaw.tinu:na alʔisra:ʔi:lijju:n wa allati: ʔistamarrat .tiwa:l ʃahri ka:nu:n alʔawwal/di:samber ɹ̃ ta.hta ʔiʃra:fi ma:jusamma maʒlisa almus.taw.tanati alʔiqli:mi: fi: alʒu:lan almu.htall, wa ða:lika fi: ʔi.ta:ri taʃʒi:çi aljahu:di çala alʔisti:.tani fi: alʔar.di assu:rijja almu.htalla.

(15-a) **Arabic ST 13**

إن هذه المعلومات تثبت وبالدليل القاطع أن إسرائيل ماضية في سياستها العدوانية الاستيطانية، من خلال تجاهلها لقرارات الشرعية الدولية التي تدين استمرار إسرائيل ببناء المستوطنات في الأراضي العربية المحتلة بما في ذلك

(15-c) **Arabic ST 13**

ʔinna ha:ðihi almaçlu:mati tuθbitu wabiaddali:li alqa:.tiçi ʔanna ʔisra:ʔi:la ma:.dijjatun fi: sija:satiha: alçudwa:nija alʔisti:.tanijja, min χila:li taʒa:huliha: liqara:rati aʃʃarçijja adduwalijja allati: tudi:nu ʔistimra:ra ʔisra:ʔi:l bibina:ʔi

almustaw.tana:ti fi: alʔara:.di alçarabijja almu.htalla bima:fi: ða:lika alʒu:la:n assurijji almu.htall.

الجولان السوري المحتّل.

(16-c) Arabic ST 1

ʔinna ma: ðakarahu attaqari:ru .hawla alʒuhu:di assu:rijati litanfi:ði ʔa.hka:mi qara:ri maʒlisi alʔamni 2004/1559

huwa ʔiçtira:fun .sari:.hun biʔanna su:rija: qad qa:mat bitanfi:ði ma jaχu.s.suha: fi: ha:ða: alqara:ri, wa min ĝajri almaqbu:li alʔistimra:ru bizaʒʒi ʔismi su:rija: fi: taqri:ri alʔami:ni alça:mmi .hawla tanfi:ði alqara:ri 2004/ 1559 birrâĝmi min ʔanna su:rija: qa:mat bitanfi:ði ma: jaχu.s.suha min ʔa.hka:mihi. faqad ʔaʃa:da attaqri:ru lajsa faqa.t biʔiʒra:ʔi ʔintiχa:ba:tin riʔa:sijjatin wanija:bijatin hurratan wa nazi:hatan fi: lubna:na (ʔaj min ĝajri tadaχχulin ʔaw nufu:ðin ʔaʒnabijjin), wabiʒuhu:di su:rija: .hawla sa.hbiha: liquwwa:tiha: wa muçiddatiha: alçaskarijja min lubna:n, wa ʔinnama ʔaʃa:da aj.dan biʔiqamati çala:qa:tin diblu:masijja ka:mila bajna su:rija: wa lubna:n.

(17-c) Arabic ST 6

wa .hawla ma:ʒa:ʔa fi: alfaqratajini 39 wa 42 .hawla al.ha.dri almafru:.di çala assila:.hi wamura:qabati al.hudu:di, faqad taʒa:hala mumaθθilu alʔamini alça:mmi, wa huwa alça:rifu bikulli ʃajʔin, kama: jaddaçi, biʔanna tahri:ba assila:hi, kama: jaçrifu alʒami:çu huwa min lubna:n ʔila su:rija:, wa min kibali fiʔa:tin muçajjana fi: lubna:n tuʃa:riku fi: mu.ha:walati zaçzaçati alʔistiqra:ri fi: su:rija: min χila:li tazwi:di almaʒmu:çati alʔirha:bijja almussalla.ha fi: su:rija: bialʔassli.hati wa

(16-a) Arabic ST 1

إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن ١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤) هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، ومن غير المقبول الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار ٢٠٠٤(١٥٥٩) بالرغم من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه . فقد أشاد التقرير ليس فقط بإجراء انتخابات رئاسية ونيابية حرة ونزيهة في لبنان (أي من غير تدخل أو نفوذ أجنبي) وبجهود سوريا حول سحبها لقواتها ومعداتها العسكرية من لبنان، وإنما أشاد أيضا بإقامة علاقات دبلوماسية كاملة بين سوريا ولبنان .

(17-a) Arabic ST 6

وحول ما جاء في الفقرتين ٣٩ و ٤٢ حول الحظر المفروض على السلاح ومراقبة الحدود، فقد تجاهل ممثل الأمين العام، وهو العارف بكل شيء، كما يدعي، بأن تهريب السلاح، كما يعرف الجميع هو من لبنان إلى سوريا، ومن قبل فئات معينة في لبنان تشارك في محاولات زعزعة الاستقرار في سوريا من خلال تزويد المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة في سوريا بالأسلحة والأموال للنيل من استقرار

al^ʔamwa:li liannajili min ʔistiqra:ri su:rija:. wa
qad .dba.tati assulu:.tatu allubnanijia wa
kaða:lika assulu.ta:tu assurijja alçadi:da min
çamalijjati attahri:bi ha:ðihi, wa tamma
al^ʔiçla:nu çanha rasmijjan wa ʔiçla:mijjan min
kila alʒanibajini assu:rijji wa allubna:nijji, wa
huna:ka baç.du al^ʔaʃχa:.si ʔamam
alma.ha:kimi allubna:nijja al^ʔa:n.

(18-c) Arabic ST 13

سوريا . وقد ضبطت السلطات اللبنانية وكذلك السلطات
السورية العديد من عمليات التهريب .هذه، وتم الإعلان عنها
رسميا وإعلاميا من كلا الجانبين السوري واللبناني، وهناك
بعض الأشخاص أمام المحاكم اللبنانية الآن.

(18-a) Arabic ST 13

wa aka:nati assulu.ta:tu al^ʔisra:ʔilijja ʔalqati
alqab.da çala ma:ʒid wa fida:ʔ fi ʃahri tamu:z/
ju:lju: mina alçami alma:.di:, wa huma rahnu
al^ʔiçtiqa:li munðu ða:lika al.hi:ni, faqad
tamma ʔiçtiqa:lu fida:ʔ muba:ʃaratan çinda
nuzu:lihi mina a.t.taʔira fi: ma.ta:ri˺ bin
gu:riju:nˮ ça:ʔidan min faransa: liqa.da:ʔi
alçu.tlati a.s.sajfijjati fi: alʒu:lan
baçda ʔinti:ha:ʔi assanati addira:sijjati huna:k,
θumma qa:mat biʔiçtiqa:li wa:lidihi ma:ʒid
baçda jawmajni min ða:lika.

(19-c) Arabic ST 7

وكانت السلطات الإسرائيلية ألقت القبض على ماجد وفداء
في شهر تموز/ يوليه من العام الماضي، وهما رهن الاعتقال
منذ ذلك الحين، فقد تم اعتقال فداء مباشرة عند نزوله من
الطائرة في مطار" بن غوريون "عائدا من فرنسا لقضاء
العطلة الصيفية في الجولان بعد انتهاء السنة الدراسية هناك،
ثم قامت باعتقال والده ماجد بعد يومين من ذلك.

(19-a) Arabic ST 7

wa raĝma .hu.su:li muwa:faqati allaʒnati
almaðku:rat çala tazwi:dina biʔarʃi:fi
almu.ta:laba:ti faqad qa:mat bitazwi:dina
bimaçlu:matin çan muta:la:bati adduwali
(A,B,C,D) faqa.t du:na mu.ta:la:bati al^ʔafradi
mina alfiʔa:ti wa almuʔassasa:ti mina alfiʔa:ti
(E,F) hajθu ʔaʒa:bat biʔannaha: la: tas.ta.tiçu
tazwi:dana biha: nati:ʒata tanfi:ði sija:sati
al^ʔarʃafati wa attaχallu.si minha: baçda
muru:ri sabçi sanawatin min ta:ri:χi dafçi
mablaĝi attaçwi:.d, fa.dlan çan ʔanna huna:ka
baç.da alquju:di çala almaçlu:mati allati:
jumkinu tawfi:ruha nað.ran lisirrijjati
mu.ta:laba:ti al^ʔafra:d.

ورغم حصول موافقة اللجنة المذكورة على تزويدنا بأرشيف
المطالبات فقد قامت بتزويدنا بمعلومات عن مطالبات الدول
من الفئات (E,F) فقط دون مطالبات الأفراد من الفئات
والمؤسسات (A,B,C,D) حيث أجابت بأنها لا تستطيع
تزويدنا بها نتيجة تنفيذ سياسة الأرشفة والتخلص منها بعد
مرور سبع سنوات من تاريخ دفع مبلغ التعويض، فضلا عن
أن هناك بعض القيود على المعلومات التي يمكن توفيرها
نظرا لسرية مطالبات الأفراد.

(20-c) Arabic ST 1

tukarriru su:rija: çadama qubu:liha: biʔiʃa:rati ha:ða: attaqri:ri ʔila tarsi:mi al.hudu:di bajna su:rija: wa lubna:n, biʔiçtiba:r ʔanna ha:ðihi almasʔalta ʔamrun θuna:ʔijjun bajna albaladajini. wa tuʔakkidu su:rijja: marratan ʔuχra ʔanna alça:ʔiqa al.haqi:qijji allaði: jaqifu ʔama:ma tarsi:mi al.hudu:di assu:rijjati-allubnanijjati biʃaklin ta:mmi, huwa ʔistimraru alçudwa:ni wa alʔi.htila:li alʔisra:ʔilijji lilʒu:la:ni assu:rijji almu.htalli wa limazariça ʃabça: . wa liða:lika faʔinna attarssi:ma fi: ha:ðihi alman.tiqati fi: .ðilli alʔi.htila:li huwa ʔamrun musta.hi:lun, waçla almuʒtamaçi adduwalijji ʔan jaqu:ma bialʒuhdi alma.tlu:bi liʔiʒba:ri ʔisra:ʔi:l çala alʔinsi:.ha:bi mina alʔara:.di allubna:nijja wa assu:rijja almu.htalla ʔistina:dan ʔila qara:rati aʃʃarçijja adduwalijja la:sijama: qara:raj maʒlisi alʔamni raqam 1967 (242) wa 1973 (338) wa mabdaʔu alʔar.di muqa:bila assala:mi liʔinʒa:zi assala:mi alça:dil wa aʃʃamil fi: alman.tiqa.

(21-c) Arabic ST 12

ʔinna ha:ðihi almaçlu:mati tuθbitu wa biaddali:li alqa:.tiçi ʔanna ʔisra:ʔi:la ma:.dijjatun fi: sija:satiha: alçudwa:nija alʔisti:.tanijja, min χila:li taʒa:huliha: liqara:rati aʃʃarçijja adduwalijja allati: tudi:nu ʔistimra:ra ʔisra:ʔi:l bibina:ʔi almustaw.tana:ti fi: alʔara:.di alçarabijja almu.htalla bima:fi:ða:lika alʒu:la:n assu:rijji almu.htall. wa la ʔadullu çala taharrubi ʔisra:ʔil min ʔiltiza:ma:tiha: ʔiza:ʔa almuʒtamaçi adduwalijji wa ʔinsi.habiha:

(20-a) Arabic ST 1

تكرر سوريا عدم قبولها بإشارات هذا التقرير إلى ترسيم الحدود بين سوريا ولبنان، باعتبار أن هذه المسألة أمر ثنائي بين البلدين . وتؤكد سوريا مرة أخرى أن العائق الحقيقي الذي يقف أمام ترسيم الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية بشكل تام، هو استمرار العدوان والاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان السوري المحتل ولمزارع شبعا . ولذلك فإن الترسيم في هذه المنطقة في ظل الاحتلال هو أمر مستحيل، وعلى المجتمع الدولي أن يقوم بالجهد المطلوب لإجبار إسرائيل على الانسحاب من الأراضي اللبنانية والسورية المحتلة استنادا إلى قرارات الشرعية الدولية لا سيما قراري مجلس الأمن رقم (٢٤٢) ١٩٦٧ و(٣٣٨)١٩٧٣ ومبدأ الأرض مقابل السلام لإنجاز السلام العادل والشامل في المنطقة.

(21-a) Arabic ST 12

إن هذه المعلومات تثبت وبالدليل القاطع أن إسرائيل ماضية في سياستها العدوانية الاستيطانية، من خلال تجاهلها لقرارات الشرعية الدولية التي تدين استمرار إسرائيل ببناء المستوطنات في الأراضي العربية المحتلة بما في ذلك الجولان السوري المحتل.ولا أدل على تهرب إسرائيل من التزاماتها ومسؤولياتها إزاء المجتمع الدولي و انسحابها من الأراضي العربية المحتلة من قرار الكنيست الإسرائيلي

الأخير، والذي دعا إلى إجراء استفتاء عام قبل الانسحاب
من الجولان السوري المحتل والقدس الشرقية، مما يؤكد
عدم جدية إسرائيل في التحرك نحو السلام العادل والشامل
في المنطقة القائم على أساس قرارات مجلس الأمن ذات
الصلة ومبدأ الأرض مقابل السلام.

mina alʔara:.di alçarabijja almu.htalla min
qara:ri alkini:sit alʔisra:ʔi:li: alʔaχi:r, wallaði
daça: ʔila ʔiʒra:ʔi ʔistifta:ʔin ça:mmin qabla
alʔinsi.ha:bi mina alʒu:la:ni assu:riji
almu.htalli wa alqudsi aʃʃarqijjati, mimma
juʔakkidu çadam ʒidijjati ʔisra:ʔil fi:
atta.harruki na.hwa assala:mi alça:dili wa
aʃʃa:mili fi: almin.takati alqa:ʔim çala ʔasa:si
qara:ra:ti maʒlisi alʔamni ða:ti assilat
wamabdaʔa alʔar.di muqa:bila assala:m.

(22-a) **Arabic ST 13**

ومع استمرار احتلال إسرائيل للأراضي العربية واعتبار
إسرائيل نفسها فوق كل القرارات والقوانين والأعراف
الدولية، فإن الوضع في المنطقة سيزداد سوءا و تدهورا،
مما ينعكس سلبا على السلم والأمن في المنطقة والعالم، و
على الجهود الدولية المبذولة للحد من الانتهاكات الخطيرة
والممنهجة لحقوق الإنسان، وعلى تعزيز سيادة القانون بما
يحترم كرامة الشعوب في العالم.

(22-c) **Arabic ST 13**:

wa maça ʔistimra:ri ʔi.htila:li ʔisra:ʔil
lilʔara:.di alçarabijja wa ʔiçtiba:r ʔisra:ʔi:l
nafsaha: fawqa kulli alqara:ra:ti wa
alqawa:nini wa alʔaçra:fi adduwalijja, faʔinna
alwa.dça fi: almin.taqa sajazda:du su:ʔan wa
tadahwuran, mimma jançakisu salban çala
assilmi wa alʔamni fi: alman.tiqa wa alʔa:lam,
wa çala alʒuhu:di adduwalijja almabðu:la
lil.haddi mina alʔintiha:ka:ti alχa.tira wa
almumanhaʒa li.huqu:qi alʔinsa:ni, wa çala
taçzi:zi sija:dati alqa:nu:ni bima ja.htarimu
kara:mata aʃʃuçu:bi fi: alça:lam.

(23-a) **Arabic ST 2**

وسيشمل التعاون بموجب هاتين الوثيقتين مجالات الحياة
المختلفة لما فيه مصلحة الاستقرار والتنمية في العراق
وستنعكس آثاره الإيجابية على المنطقة عموما. فضلا عن
ذلك، فإن التغييرات السياسية والتطورات التي تشهدها
المنطقة، والتي أطلق عليها اسم الربيع العربي، قد أكدت
مصداقية التوجه السياسي الذي جرى في العراق عام ٢٠٠٣
،...

(23-c) **Arabic ST 2**

wa sajaʃmulu attaçawunu bimu:ʒabi ha:tajni
alwaθi:qatajini maʒa:la:ti al.haja:ti
almuχtalifati lima:fi:hi ma.sla.hata alʔistiqra:ri
wa attanmijati fi: alçira:q wa
satançakisu ʔa:θa:ruhu alʔi:ʒa:bijjatu çala
alman.tiqati çumu:man. fa.dlan çan ða:lika,
faʔinna attaĝajjura:t assi:jasijja wa
atta.tawurat allati: taʃhaduha: almin.taqa, wa
allati: ʔu.tliqa çalajha ʔisma arrabi:ç alçarabi,
qad ʔakkadat misda:qijjat attawaʒuhi
assi:jasijj allaði: ʒara: fi alçi:raq çam 2003 ...

(24-a) Arabic ST 2

كما أن حكومة العراق في الوقت الذي تجدد رغبتها في
تمديد ولاية يونامي وفق الضوابط المعتمدة في قرار مجلس
الأمن ١٧٧٠ لسنة ٢٠٠٧ بالنص والمضمون، فإنها تأمل
في أن يكون تقديم الدعم والمساعدة وفق آليات محددة
وبموافقة مسبقة من الحكومة العراقية، وعلى النحو المشار
إليه في رسالتي الموجهة إلى سعادتكم بتاريخ ٦ آب /
أغسطس ٢٠٠٧.

(24-c) Arabic ST 2

kama: ʔanna .huku:mata alçira:k fi:alwaqti
allaði: tuʒadidu raɣbataha: fi: tamdi:di
wila:jati ju:na:mi: wifqa a.d.dwa:bi.ti
almuçtamadata fi:qara:ri maʒlisi alʔamn 1770
lisanati 2007 binna.s.si wa alma.dmu:n,
faʔinnaha: taʔmulu fi:ʔan jaku:na taqdimu
addaçmi wa almusa:çadata wifqa ʔa:lijja:tin
mu.hadada wabimuwa:faqatin musabbaqa
mina al.huku:mati alçi:ra:qijja, waçala
anna.hwi almuʃa:ri ʔilajhi fi: risa:lati:
almuwaʒʒaha ʔila saça:datikum bita:ri:χi
6 ʔa:b/ʔuɡus.t.us 2008.

(25-a) Arabic ST 3

يؤسفني أن أقول إن بعض أعضاء مجلس الأمن في البيان
الذي صدر عنه، قد استند في تحديد موقفه على معلومات
مستقاة من طرف واحد دون الالتفات اللازم ـ خاصة في
مثل الحالة السورية الراهنة ـ إلى المعلومات والوقائع التي
تطرحها الدولة السورية، وهي المعنية والمسؤولة أولا
وآخرا عن أمن واستقرار شعب سورية وسلامة أرضه
ومؤسساته.

(25-c) Arabic ST 3

juʔsifuni: ʔan ʔaku:la ʔinna baç.da ʔaç.da:ʔi
maʒlisi alʔamn fi: albaja:ni allaði: .sadar
çanhu, qad ʔistanada fi: ta.hdi:di mawqifihi
çala maçlu:matin mustaqa:tin min .tarafin
wa.hidin du:na alʔiltifa:ti alla:zim-χa.s.satan
fi: miθli al.ha:lati assu:rijja arra:hina- ʔila
almaçlu:mati wa alwaqa:ʔiçi allati:
ta.tra.huha: addawla assu:rija:, wa hija:
almaçnijja wa almasʔu:la ʔawwalan
wa ʔa:χiran çan ʔamni wa ʔistiqra:ri ʃaçbi
su:rijja wasala:mati ʔar.dihi wa muʔassasa:tihi.

(26-a) Arabic ST 3

نحن نعتقد أن المجتمع الدولي مطالب في هذا الظرف الدقيق
الذي تعيشه سورية بأن يدفع باتجاه الهدوء ووقف أعمال
التخريب، ومطالب بتشجيع الخطوات الإصلاحية التي نقوم
بها، وبالدعوة لإعطاء الفسحة اللازمة من الوقت كي نعطي
هذه الإصلاحات ثمارها. ذلك بدل إعطاء مؤشرات مشجعة

(26-c) Arabic ST 3

na.hnu naçtaqidu ʔanna almuʒtamaça
adduwalijji mu.ta:labun fi: ha:ða: a.ð.ðarfi
addaqi:q allaði: taçi:ʃuhu su:rijja: biʔan
judfaça biʔittiʒʒa:hi alhudu:ʔi wa
waqfi ʔaçma:li attaχri:bi, wa mu.talabun
bitaʃʒi:çi alχu.tuwa:ti alʔi.sla:.hija allati:
naqu:mu biha:, wabiddaçwati liʔic.taʔi
alfus.hati alla:zima mina alwaqti kaj nuç.ti:
ha:ðihi: alʔi.sla:hati θima:raha:. ða:lika

على تصعيد الاضطرابات والعنف، الأمر الذي نقول ببالغ الأسف أن التصريحات الصادرة عن بعض أعضاء مجلس الأمن والهادفة إلى زيادة الضغوط على سورية، إنما تصب في الواقع في مجرى تصعيد الاضطرابات وأعمال العنف، وهذا لا يخدم مصلحة سورية على الإطلاق.

(27-a) Arabic ST 6

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، فإنني أود أن أبين موقف حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية من التقرير الدوري السابع عشر للأمين العام حول تنفيذ قرار مجلس الأمن رقم ٧٠١(٢٠٠٦).

(28-a) Arabic ST 6

وبخصوص ما ورد في الفقرتين ٣٥ و ٧٠ حول موضوع "المجموعات المسلحة الفلسطينية"، إن التواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان تنظمه اتفاقات لبنانية ـ فلسطينية ولا علاقة لسوريا بها، وأما بالنسبة لما ذكره التقرير حول مواقع فلسطينية تقع على الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية، فإننا نجدد التأكيد أن جميع هذه المواقع تقع ضمن الأراضي اللبنانية، وبالتالي فإن سوريا لن تتدخل بهذا الأمر، وإن السبب الرئيسي للتواجد الفلسطيني في لبنان وغيره من دول الجوار، ومنها سوريا، هو استمرار احتلال إسرائيل للأراضي الفلسطينية ورفضها تنفيذ قرارات الشرعية الدولية لا سيما قراري مجلس الأمن رقم ٢٤٢ و ٣٣٨ وقرار الجمعية العامة رقم ١٩٤ الذي يكفل حق عودة اللاجئين إلى أراضيهم التي تم طردهم منها.

---

badala ʔiçtaʔi muʕaʃʃira:tin muʃaʒʒiçatin çala ta.sçi:di alʔi.ð.tira:ba:ti wa alçunfi, alʔamru allaði: naqu:lu biba:lĩgi alʔasafi ʔanna atta.sri:.hati a.s.sa:dira çan baç.di ʔac.da:ʔi maʒlisi alʔamn wa alha:difa ʔila zija:dati a.ð.ðûĝu:.ti çala su:rijja:, ʔinnama ta.subbu fi: alwa:qiçi fi: maʒra: ta.sçi:di alʔi.ð.tira:ba:ti wa ʔaçma:li alçunfi, wa ha:ða la jaχdimu ma.sla.hata su:rijja çala alʔi.tla:q.

(27-c) Arabic ST 6

bina:ʔan çala taçli:ma:tin min .huku:mati, faʔinnani ʔawwadu ʔan ʔubajjina mawqifa .huku:mati alʒumhu:rija alçarabijja assu:rijja mina attaqri:ri addawri: assa:biç çaʃar lilʔami:ni alçam .hawla tanfi:ði qara:ri maʒlisi alʔamn raqam (701) 2006.

(28-c) Arabic ST 6

wa biχu.su:.si ma: waradda fi: alfaqratajin 35 wa 70 .hawla maw.du:çʿalmaʒmu:ça:t almusallaha alfilisti:nijjaˇ, ʔinna attawaʒuda alfilis.ti:ni: fi: lubna:n tað.ummuhu ʔitifa:qa:tun lubna:nijatun-filistinijatun wala: çala:qata lisu:rijja: biha:, waʔamma binnisbati lima: ðakarahu attaqriru .hawla mawa:qiça filis.ti:nijjatin taqaçu çala al.hudu:di assu:rija-allubna:nijja, faʔinnan nuʒaddidu attaʔki:da ʔanna ʒami:ça ha:ðihi almawa:qiçi taqaçu .dimna alʔaraʔ.di allubnanijja, wabiatta:li: faʔinna su:rija: lan tatadaχχala biha:ða: alʔamri, wa ʔinna assababa arraʔisijji littawa:ʒudi alfilisti:ni fi: lubna:n wa ĝajrihi min duwali alʒiwa:r, wa minha: su:rija, huwa ʔistimra:ru ʔi.htila:li ʔisra:ʔi:l liʔara:.di alfilis.ti:nija wa raf.diha: tanfi:ði qara:ra:ti aʃʃarçijjati adduwalijjati la:sijama qara:ra:j

maʒlisi alʔamni raqam 1968/338 wa 1983/ 242

allaði jakfulu .haqqa çawdati

alla:ʒiʔi:na ʔila ʔara:.di:him allati:

tamma .tarduhum minha:.

<table>
<tr><td>(29-c) Arabic ST 9</td><td>(29-a) Arabic ST 9</td></tr>
</table>

bina:ʔan çala taçlima:tin min
huku:mati, ʔataʃarrafu biʔan ʔurfiqa
lakum .tajjan ʒadwalan
jata.damanu ʔasma:ʔa ʔarbaçati .sa.hafijjina ʔ
aʒa:niba daχalu: ʔila alʔara:di: assu:rijjati
bi.turuqin ĝajri maʃru:çatin wa du:na çilmi
a.s.suluta:ti assu:rijati (ʔunð.ur almirfaq),
hajθu laqija ʔiθna:ni min ha:ʔulaʔi
assa.hafijji:n .hatfahuma χila:la tawa:ʒudihima
maça almaʒmu:çati almusala.hati fi: su:rija:
fi.hi:ni ʔanna a.s.sa.hafijji:n alʔa:χari:n
tasallala: ʔila su:rija çabra al.hudu:di
atturkijjati-assu:rijjati fi: bida:jati
ʃahri ʔa:ða:r/maris 2012, wa qad tamma,
muʔaxχaran, tasli:muhuma ʔila .sulu.ta:ti
bila:dihim.

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، أتشرف بأن أرفق لكم طيا

جدولا يتضمن أسماء أربعة صحفيين أجانب دخلوا إلى

الأراضي السورية بطرق غير مشروعة ودون علم

السلطات السورية (انظر المرفق)، حيث لقي اثنان من

هؤلاء الصحفيين حتفهما خلال تواجدهما مع المجموعات

المسلحة في سوريا . في حين أن الصحفيين الآخرين تسللا

إلى سوريا عبر الحدود التركية ـ السورية في بداية شهر

آذار/مارس ٢٠١٢ ، وقد تم، مؤخرا، تسليمهما إلى سلطات

بلادهم.

<table>
<tr><td>(30-c) Arabic ST 13</td><td>(30- a) Arabic ST 13</td></tr>
</table>

waka:nati a.s.sulu.ta:tu alʔisra:ʔilijja ʔalqati
alqab.da çala ma:ʒid wa fida:ʔ fi: ʃahri
tamu:z/ ju:lju: mina alça:mi alma:.di:, wa
huma rahnu alʔiçtiqa:li munðu ða:lika
al.hi:ni, faqad tamma ʔiçtiqa:lu fida:ʔ
muba:ʃaratan çinda nuzu:lihi mina a.t.taʔira
fi: ma.ta:riˋbin gu:riju:nˊ ça:ʔidan min
faransa: liqa.da:ʔi alçu.tlati a.s.sajfijjati fi:
alʒu:lan baçda ʔinti:ha:ʔi assanati addira:sijjati
huna:k, θumma qa:mat biʔiçtiqa:li walidihi
ma:ʒid baçda jawmajni min ða:lika.

وكانت السلطات الإسرائيلية ألقت القبض على ماجد وفداء

في شهر تموز/ يوليه من العام الماضي، وهما رهن الاعتقال

منذ ذلك الحين، فقد تم اعتقال فداء مباشرة عند نزوله من

الطائرة في مطار'' بن غوريون ''عائدا من فرنسا لقضاء

العطلة الصيفية في الجولان بعد انتهاء السنة الدراسية هناك،

ثم قامت باعتقال والده ماجد بعد يومين من ذلك.

<table>
<tr><td>(31-c) Arabic ST 7</td><td>(31-a) Arabic ST 7</td></tr>
</table>

ʔið nuhanniʔu saça:dataqum bitawalli:
ʒumhu:rijjat ru:sija: alʔitti.hadija riʔa:sata

إذ نهنئ سعادتكم بتولي جمهورية روسيا الاتحادية رئاسة

maʒlisi alʔamn liaʃʃahri al.ha:li: wa nuçabbiru
çan θiqatana biʔanna riʔa:satakum
satusa.t.tiru mazi:dan mina annaʒa:.hi wa
attaqaddum.

مجلس الأمن للشهر الحالي ونعبِّر عن ثقتنا بأن رئاستكم
ستسطر مزيدا من النجاح والتقدم،...

(32-c) **Arabic ST 7**

(32-a) **Arabic ST 7**

saça:data arraʔi:ss, ʔinna .hu.su:la alçira:qi
çala nusχatin min ha:ða: alʔarʃi:fi
ja.hmilu ʔahamijjatan binnisbati lilçira:qi,
fabimuʒibihi tamma dafçu maba:lĩga
ma:lijjatan .ta:ʔilatan ʔaθθarat çala na.hwin
silbijjin bilʔiqti.sa:di alçira:qiji:
munðu ʔiqra:riha: wa lĩga:jati aljawm. wa ʔið
na.tlubu daçmaqum lima.tlabina bial.hu.su:li
çala ha:ða: alʔarʃi:f, nuʔakkidu ʔistiçda:da
alçira:qi litaçjji:ni ka:dir ma.haliji:
limusa:çadati sikri:tarijjat laʒnata alʔumami
almutta.hidati littaçwi:.da:ti lĩgara.di tahjiʔati
alʔarʃi:fi tamhi:dan litasli:mina nusχatan
minhu saçjan lĩgalqi ha:ða: almilaff kaĝajrihi
mina almilaffa:ti alça:liqa maça dawlati
alkuwajt min χila:li alʔiltiza:mi biqara:rati
maʒlisi alʔamni ða:ti a.s.sila.

سعادة الرئيس، إن حصول العراق على نسخة من هذا
الأرشيف يحمل أهمية بالنسبة للعراق، فبموجبه تم دفع مبالغ
مالية طائلة أثرت على نحو سلبي بالاقتصاد العراقي منذ
إقرارها ولغاية اليوم . وإذ نطلب دعمكم لمطلبنا بالحصول
على هذا الأرشيف، ، نؤكد استعداد العراق لتعيين كادر
محلي لمساعدة سكرتارية لجنة الأمم المتحدة للتعويضات
لغرض تهيئة الأرشيف تمهيدا لتسليمنا نسخة منه سعيا لغلق
هذا الملف كغيره من الملفات العالقة مع دولة الكويت من
خلال الالتزام بقرارات مجلس الأمن ذات الصلة.

(33-c) **Arabic ST 9**

(33-a) **Arabic ST 9**

ʔinna .hu:ku:mata alʒumhu:rijja alçarabijja
assu:rijja wa ʔið tuʔakkidu çala ʔanna
mura:sili: wasaʔila alʔiçla:mi alçarabijja wa
alʔaʒnabijja allaði:na jaqu:mu:na
biattasalluli ʔila su:rija: bi.turuqin ĝajra
ʃarçijja wa muχa:lifatan lilʔan.ðima wa
alqawa:nin, jata.hammalu:na almasʔu:lijja
alqa:nu:nijja wa annataʔiʒi almutarattiba
çamma qad jataçarra.du:na lahu nati:ʒata
duχu:lihim ʔila alʔara:.di: assu:rijja:
biʃaklin ĝajir maʃru:ç wa du:na çilmi
a.s.sulu.ta:ti assu:rijja:, wa nati:ʒata
mura:faqatihim almaʒmu:ça:ti alʔirha:bijja

إن حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية وإذ تؤكد على أن
مراسلي وسائل الإعلام العربية والأجنبية الذين يقومون
بالتسلل إلى سوريا بطرق غير شرعية ومخالفة للأنظمة
القوانين، يتحملون المسؤولية القانونية والنتائج المترتبة عما
قد يتعرضون له نتيجة دخولهم إلى الأراضي السورية بشكل
غير مشروع ودون علم السلطات السورية، ونتيجة مرافقتهم
المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة، فإنها تجدد دعوتها
للمؤسسات الإعلامية التي تود إرسال مندوبيها إلى سوريا
التقدم بطلبات وفق الأصول والقوانين المرعية لكي يتم

almusallaha, faʔinnaha tuʒʒaddidu daçwataha lilmuʔassasa:ti alʔiçla:mijja allati tawaddu ʔirsa:la mandu:biha: ʔila su:rija: attaqadum bi.tlaba:tin wifqa alʔu.su:li wa alqawa:ni:ni almura:çija likaj jatimma man.hahum taʔʃi:ra:ti adduχu:li alla:zima biassurçati almumkina...

منحهم تأشيرات الدخول اللازمة بالسرعة الممكنة، ...

(34-c) Arabic ST 1

ʔinna ma:ðakarahu attaqari:ru .hawla alʒuhu:di assu:rijjati litanfi:ði ʔa.hka:mi qara:ri maʒlisi alʔamni 2004/1559 huwa ʔiçtira:fun .sari:.hun biʔanna su:rija: qad qa:mat bitanfi:ði ma jaχu.s.suha: fi: ha:ða: alqara:ri, wa min ĝajri almaqbu:li alʔistimra:ru bizaʒʒi ʔismi su:rija: fi: taqri:ri alʔami:ni alça:mmi .hawla tanfi:ði alqara:ri 2004/1559 birraĝmi min ʔanna su:rija: qa:mat bitanfi:ði ma: jaχu.s.suha min ʔa.hka:mihi.

(34-a) Arabic ST 1

إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار مجلس الأمن ٢٠٠٤ (١٥٥٩) هو اعتراف صريح بأن سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، ومن غير المقبول الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام حول تنفيذ القرار ١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤) بالرغم من أن سوريا قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه .

(35-c) Arabic ST 7

wa biha:ð:a nuʔakkidu muʒaddadan ʔanna mu.ha:wala:ta zaʒʒi ʔismi su:rija: fi: alwa.dçi adda:χiliji allubna:nijji ja?ti: fi: ʔita:ri al.hamlati almuwaʒʒahati .didda su:rija: wa juʃakkilu ʔintiha:kan lima: na.s.sa çalajihi mi:θa:qu alʔumami almutta.hidati min mabdaʔ çadam attadaχxuli fi: aʃʃuʔuni adda:χilijja liadduwali. kama: nu.ta:libu biʔida:nati duχu:li a.s.sa.hafijjina alfaransijjina wa alʔamri:ki:jji:na wa albri:.ta:ni:jji:na ʔila su:rija: mutasallili:na çabra al.hudu:di assu:rijja-allubna:nijja liʔanna fi:ða:lika ʔintiha:kan lisija:dati lubna:n wa lisija:dati su:rija:.

(35-a) Arabic ST 7

وبهذا نؤكد مجددا أن محاولة زج اسم سوريا في الوضع الداخلي اللبناني يأتي في إطار الحملة الموجهة ضد سوريا ويشكل انتهاكا لما نص عليه ميثاق الأمم المتحدة من مبدأ عدم التدخل في الشؤون الداخلية للدول. كما نطالب بإدانة دخول الصحفيين الفرنسيين والأمريكيين والبريطانيين إلى سوريا متسللين عبر الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية لأن في ذلك انتهاكا لسيادة لبنان ولسيادة سوريا.

(36-c) Arabic ST 11

tuʔakkidu alʒumhu:rijja alçarabijja assu:rijja mawqifaha aθθa:biti wa almutamaθθil fi: ʔiltiza:miha: bisija:dati lubna:n wawi.hdati wasala:mati ʔara:.di:hi wa ʔistiqla:lihi assija:ssij, wa tuʔakkidu fi: ha:ða: a.s.sadadi ʔiltiza:miha: bittaça:wuni maça alʒa:nibi allubna:nij li.dama:ni ʔi.htira:mi assija:dijati alwa.tanija wa sala:mati ʔara:.di albaladajn aʃʃaqiqajin bima: jaχdimu ʔamna waʔistiqra:ra kila: albaladajn.

(37-c) Arabic ST 11

wa tuðakkiru .huku:matu alʒumhu:rijja alçarabijja assu:rijja, biʔanna albarna:maʒa assija:sijji allaði: .tara.hahu assajjidu arraʔi:s baʃʃa:r alʔasad, raʔi:su alʒumhu:rijjati alçarabijjati assu:rijja, li.halli alʔazmati fi: su:rija:, ta.dmanu .dama:na:tin lika:ffati almuwa:.tini:na almuhaʒʒari:na arra:ĝibi:na bilçawdati wa taqdi:mu attashi:la:ti alla:zimat liçawdatihim.

(38- c) Arabic ST 12

kama: tamma ʔistiq.tabu θla:θati ʔa:la:fi ça:ʔilatin ʔisra:ʔilijjatin ʒadi:dat lilʔis.ti.tani fi: alʒu:lan almu.htall talbijatan liha:ðihi al.hamlati alʒadi:dati allati: ʔa.tlaqaha: almustaw.tinu:na alʔisra:ʔilijju:n wa allati: ʔistamarrat .tawa:la ʃahri ka:nu:n alʔawwal/di:samber 2010 ta.hta ʔiʃra:fi ma: jusamma maʒlisu almus.taw.tana:ti alʔiqli:mi: fi: alʒu:lan almu.htal, wa ða:lika fi: ʔi.ta:ri taʃʒi:çi aljahu:di çala alʔisti:.tani fi: alʔar.di assu:rijja almu.htalla. çamalijjatu alʔistiq.ta:bi ha:ðihi ʒa:ʔat nati:ʒata taqdi:mi alʔra:.di assu:rijja almu.htalla lirra:ĝibi:na bialʔisti:.ta:ni, fi: ʔita:ri çuru:.din muĝrija

tata.damanu ʔimtila:ka almustaw.tini du:naman wa.hidan maʒʒa:nan wa ʔimka:nijjati ʔika:mati manzilin bimisa:hat 150 mitran murabbaçan maça .hadi:qatin wa:siçatin wa bitaka:lifa munχafi.da.

وإمكانية إقامة منزل بمساحة ١٥٠ مترًا مربعًا مع حديقة واسعة وبتكاليف منخفضة.

(39-c) **Arabic ST 12**

(39-a) **Arabic ST 12**

ʔinna ʔistimra:ra ʔisra:ʔi:l fi: bina:ʔi almustaw.tana:ti fi: alʒu:lan assu:riji: almu.htall qad χalaqa .halatan mina alfaw.da fi: almin.taqa wa ha:ðihi al.ha:la min ʃaʔniha: tahdi:du alʔamni wa alʔistiqra:ri alʔiqli:mijji:jni wa adduwali:jjajn. ʔinna alʒumhu:rijja alçarabija assu:rija tuʔakkidu çala .daru:rati atta.harruki alʒidijji wa almasʔu:li min qibali almuʒtamaçi adduwali:j liradçi ʔisra:ʔil wa mançiha: mina alʔistimra:ri fi: ʔintiha:kiha: li.huqu:qi ʔa.s.ha:bi alʔara:.di almu.htala fi: su:rijja: wa lubna:n wa filis.ti:n, wa allaði: jumaθθilu ʔintiha:kan liqara:ra:ti aʃʃarçijja adduwalijja ða:ti a.s.silati wa liʔitifa:qijjati ʒini:f arrabiça wa lilqa:nuni adduwali: wa alqa:nu:ni adduwaliji alʔinsa:ni:. ʔinna waqfa alʔisti:.tani wa tafki:ki almustaw.tana:ti huwa ʔamrun .ta:labat bihi qara:ra:tu aʃʃarçijati adduwalijja, wa huwa ʔiltiza:mun jaʒibu ʔan taqu:ma bihi ʔisra:ʔi:l.

إن استمرار إسرائيل في بناء المستوطنات في الجولان السوري المحتل قد خلق حالة من الفوضى في المنطقة وهذه الحالة من شأنها تهديد الأمن والاستقرار الإقليميين والدوليين .إن الجمهورية العربية السورية تؤكد على ضرورة التحرك الجدي والمسؤول من قبل المجتمع الدولي لردع إسرائيل ومنعها من الاستمرار في انتهاكها لحقوق أصحاب الأراضي المحتلة في سورية ولبنان وفلسطين، والذي يمثل انتهاكًا لقرارات الشرعية الدولية ذات الصلة ولاتفاقية جنيف الرابعة وللقانون الدولي والقانون الدولي الإنساني . إن وقف الاستيطان وتفكيك المستوطنات هو أمر طالبت به قرارات الشرعية الدولية، وهو التزام يجب أن تقوم به إسرائيل.

(40-c) **Arabic ST 4**

(40-a) **Arabic ST 4**

laqad ka:na jawmu 20 tiʃri:n alʔawwal/ʔuktu:bar jawman ta:ri:χijjan liʃʃaçbi allibijji, juçlinu niha:ja:ta addi:kta:tu:rija wa mi:la:da li:bija: alʒadi:da. li:bja: addi:mu:qra:.tijja allati: ta.htarimu .huqaqa alʔinsa:ni wa ta.sunu al.hurijja:ti alʔassa:sijja, baçda ʔiθnajni wa ʔarbaçi:na sanatan min .hukmi alfardi wa alʔirha:bi

لقد كان يوم ٢٠ تشرين الأول/أكتوبر يوما تاريخيا للشعب الليبي، يعلن نهاية الديكتاتورية وميلاد ليبيا الجديدة . ليبيا الديمقراطية التي تحترم حقوق الإنسان وتصون لحريات الأساسية، بعد اثنين وأربعين سنة من حكم الفرد والإرهاب وانتهاك حقوق الإنسان.

wa ʔintiha:ki .huku:ki alʔins:an.

| (41-c) **Arabic ST 1** | (41-a) **Arabic ST 1** |

ʔinna ma: ðakarahu attaqari:ru .hawla
alʒuhu:di assu:rijati litanfi:ði ʔa.hka:mi qara:ri
maʒlisi alʔamni 2004/1559
huwa ʔiçtira:fun .sari:.hun biʔanna su:rija: qad
qa:mat bitanfi:ði ma jaχu.s.suha fi: ha:ða:
alqara:ri, wa min ĝajri almaqbu:li
alʔistimra:ru bizaʒʒi ʔismi su:rija fi: taqri:ri
alʔami:ni alça:mmi .hawla tanfi:ði alqara:ri
2004/1559 birrâ̂gmi min ʔanna su:rija: qa:mat
bitanfi:ði ma:jaχu.s.suha min ʔa.hka:mihi.

إن ما ذكره التقرير حول الجهود السورية لتنفيذ أحكام قرار
مجلس الأمن ٢٠٠٤ (١٥٥٩) هو اعتراف صريح بأن
سوريا قد قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها في هذا القرار، ومن غير
المقبول الاستمرار بزج اسم سوريا في تقرير الأمين العام
حول تنفيذ القرار ١٥٥٩ (٢٠٠٤) بالرغم من أن سوريا
قامت بتنفيذ ما يخصها من أحكامه.

| (42-c) **Arabic ST 1** | (42- a) **Arabic ST 1** |

wa ʔin tana:wala attaqri:r alʒuhu:d
almuʃtaraka assuçu:dija-assu:rija almabðu:la
limuça:laʒat ta.sa:çud alʔazma assija:sija fi:
lubna:n, lahuwa dali:lun ʔaχr çala .hir.si
su:rija: libaðli kulli ʒuhdin mumkinin
lil.hifa:.ði çala ʔamni wa ʔistiqra:ri lubna:n.

وإن تناول التقرير الجهود المشتركة السعودية – السورية
المبذولة لمعالجة تصاعد الأزمة السياسية في لبنان، لهو
دليل آخر على حرص سوريا لبذل كل جهد ممكن للحفاظ
على أمن واستقرار لبنان.

| (43-c) **Arabic ST 3** | (43-a) **Arabic ST 3** |

ha:ða: alʔîgfa:lu almuʔsifu lil.haqa:ʔiqi çala
alʔar.d, wa allaði: .sadara baja:nu maʒlisi
alʔamni bina:ʔan çalajh, juʃakkilu
ça:milan ʔasa:sijjan ba:lîga assilbijjati
biannisbati lima.sla.hati su:rijja: liʔannahu
juʃaʒʒiçu almaʒmu:ça:ti attaχribija
almusalla.ha çala alʔistimra:ri fi: ʔistiχda:mi
assila:.hi wa fi: çamalijja:ti alqatli wa
attaχri:bi, wa fi: ha:ða: alkaθiri mimma
juçarqilu ʔimkana:ti alwu.su:li ʔila al.hifa:.di
çala ma.sa:li.hi su:rijja alʔasa:sija.

هذا الإغفال المؤسف للحقائق على الأرض، والذي صدر
بيان مجلس الأمن بناء عليه، يشكل عاملا أساسيا بالغ
السلبية بالنسبة لمصلحة سورية لأنه يشجع المجموعات
التخريبية المسلحة على الاستمرار في استخدام السلاح
وفي عمليات القتل والتخريب، وفي هذا الكثير مما يعرقل
إمكانات الوصول إلى الحفاظ على مصالح سورية
الأساسية.

| (44-c) **Arabic ST 4** | (44-a) **Arabic ST 4** |

wa .hawla ma: ʒa:ʔa fi: alfaqratajini 39 wa
42 .hawla al.ha.dri almafru:.di çala assila:.hi
wa mura:qabati al.hudu:di, faqad

وحول ما جاء في الفقرتين ٣٩ و ٤٢ حول الحظر
المفروض على السلاح ومراقبة الحدود، فقد تجاهل ممثل

taʒa:hala mumaθθilu alʔami:ni alça:m, wa huwa alça:rifu bikulli ʃajʔin, kama: jaddaçi:, biʔanna tahri:ba assila:hi, kama: jaçrifu alʒami:ç huwa min lubna:n ʔila su:rija:, wa min kibali fiʔa:tin muçajjanatin fi: lubna:n tuʃa:riku fi: mu.ha:walati zaçzaçati alʔistiqra:ri fi: su:rija: min χila:li tazwi:di almaʒmu:çati alʔirha:bijjati almussalla.ha fi: su:rija: bialʔaslihati wa alʔamwa:li liannajili min ʔistiqra:ri su:rija:.

الأمين العام، وهو العارف بكل شيء، كما يدعي، بأن تهريب السلاح، كما يعرف الجميع هو من لبنان إلى سوريا، ومن قبل فئات معينة في لبنان تشارك في محاولات زعزعة الاستقرار في سوريا من خلال تزويد المجموعات الإرهابية المسلحة في سوريا بالأسلحة والأموال للنيل من استقرار سوريا.

(45-c) **Arabic ST 7**

(45-a) **Arabic ST 7**

wa ʔistimra:ran fi:ha:ða: annahʒi nawaddu ʔan nuʃi:ra ʔila ʔanna .hukumata alçira:qi qad taqaddamat fi: waqtin sa:biqin bi.talabin lil.hu.su:li çala alʔarʃifi alka:mili limu.ta:laba:ti attaçwi:.da:ti allati: quddimat ʔila laʒnati alʔumami almutta.hidati littaçwi:.da:t, lima: liha:ða: almaw.du:çi min ʔahamijjatin binnisbati ʔila ʔiqa:mati addaça:wa alqa.da:ʔijja allati: tataçallaqu bialmu.talabati bittaçwi.da:ti min qibali baç.di alʔafra:di ʔama:ma alma.ha:kimi alçira:qijja nati:ʒata ʔa.dra:ri .harbi çam 1990.

واستمرارا في هذا النهج نود أن نشير إلى أن حكومة العراق قد تقدمت في وقت سابق بطلب للحصول على الأرشيف الكامل لمطالبات التعويضات التي قدمت إلى لجنة الأمم المتحدة للتعويضات، لما لهذا الموضوع من أهمية بالنسبة إلى إقامة الدعاوى القضائية التي تتعلق بالمطالبة بالتعويضات من قِبِل بعض الأفراد أمام المحاكم العراقية نتيجة أضرار حرب عام ١٩٩٠، ...

(46-c) **Arabic ST 7**

(46-a) **Arabic ST 7**

wa raĝma .hu.su:li muwafaqati allaʒnati almaðku:ra çala tazwi:dina biʔarʃifi almu.ta:laba:ti faqad qa:mat bitazwi:dina bimaçlu:matin çan muta:la:bati adduwali (A,B,C,D) faqa.t du:na mu.ta:la:bati alʔafradi mina alfiʔa:ti wa almuʔassasa:ti mina alfiʔa:ti (E,F) hajθu ʔaʒa:bat biʔannaha: la: tas.ta.tiçu tazwi:dana biha: nati:ʒata tanfi:ði sija:sati alʔarʃafati wa attaχallu.si minha: baçda muru:ri sabçi sanawatin min ta:ri:χ dafçi

ورغم حصول موافقة اللجنة المذكورة على تزويدنا بأرشيف المطالبات فقد قامت بتزويدنا بمعلومات عن مطالبات الدول من الفئات والمؤسسات (E,F) فقط دون مطالبات الأفراد من الفئات (A,B,C,D) حيث أجابت بأنها لا تستطيع تزويدنا بها نتيجة تنفيذ سياسة الأرشفة والتخلص منها بعد مرور سبع سنوات من تاريخ دفع مبلغ التعويض، فضلا عن أن هناك بعض القيود على المعلومات التي يمكن توفيرها

nothing for لسرية مطالبات الأفراد.

<div dir="rtl">

نظرا لسرية مطالبات الأفراد.

</div>

mablaĝi attaçwi:d, fa.dlan çan ʔanna huna:ka
baç.da alquju:di çala almaçlu:mati allati
jumkinu tawfi:ruha nað.ran lisirrijjati
mu.ta:laba:ti alʔafra:d.

<table>
<tr><td>(47-c) Arabic ST 12</td><td>(47-a) Arabic ST 12</td></tr>
</table>

<div dir="rtl">

أود أن أعلمكم عن عملية استيطانية جديدة قامت بها سلطات
الاحتلال الإسرائيلية في الجولان السوري المحتل. فقد أقدم
ما يسمى بمجلس المستوطنين في الجولان على خطوة
استفزازية جديدة من خلال حملة دعائية لبناء وحدات
استيطانية جديدة في الجولان السوري المحتل تحت
عنوان'' تعال إلى الجولان '' والتي تتضمن منح ١٤٠ قطعة
أرض جديدة مقابل مبلغ يتراوح بين ٣٠ إلى ٤١ ألف دولار
أمريكي بدل التكاليف التي يتطلبها بناء مترل في الجولان،
تصل قيمته إلى نحو ٢٧٠٠٠٠ دولار .

</div>

ʔawaddu ʔan ʔuçlimakum çan
çamalijja:tin ʔisti:.tanijjatin ʒadi:datin qa:mat
biha: sulu.ta:tu alʔi.hti:la:li alʔisra:ʔilijja fi:
alʒu:lan assu:ri: almu.htall. faqad ʔaqdama
ma jusamma bimaʒlisi almustaw.tinin fi:
alʒu:lan çala χu.twatin ʔistifza:zija ʒadi:da
min χila:li .hamlatin diça:ʔijatin libina:ʔi
wa.hada:tin ʔisti:.tanija ʒadi:da fi: alʒu:la:n
assu:ri: almu.htall ta.hta çunwa:ni ʿtça:la ʔila
alʒu:laṅ wallati: tata.damanu man.ha 140
qi.tçata ʔar.din ʒadi:da muqa:bila mablaĝin
jatara:wa.hu bajna 30 ʔila 41 ʔalfi
du:la:rin ʔamrikijj badala attaka:lifi allati:
jata.tallabuha: bina:ʔu manzilin fi: alʒu:la:n,
ta.silu qima:tahu ʔila na.hwi 2700000 du:lar.

<table>
<tr><td>(48-c) Arabic ST 1</td><td>(48-a) Arabic ST 1</td></tr>
</table>

<div dir="rtl">

تكرر سوريا عدم قبولها بإشارات هذا التقرير إلى ترسيم
الحدود بين سوريا ولبنان، باعتبار أن هذه المسألة أمر ثنائي
بين البلدين . وتؤكد سوريا مرة أخرى أن العائق الحقيقي
الذي يقف أمام ترسيم الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية بشكل تام،
هو استمرار العدوان والاحتلال الإسرائيلي للجولان
السوري المحتل ولمزارع شبعا …

</div>

tukarriru su:rija: çadama qubu:liha:
biʔiʃa:ra:ti ha:ða: attaqri:r ʔila tarsi:mi
al.hudu:di bajna su:rija: wa lubna:n,
biʔiçtiba:ri ʔanna ha:θihi almasʔala ʔamran
θunaʔijjan bajna albaladajni. Wa tuʔakidu
su:rija: marratan ʔuχra ʔanna alçaʔiqa
al.haqiqijja allaði: jaqifu ʔamama tarsi:mi
al.hudu:di ass:urijati-allubna:nijati biʃaklin
ta:mmin, huwwa ʔistimraru alçudwa:ni wa
alʔi.htila:li alʔisraʔi:li lilʒu:lani assu:rijji
almu.htall walimaza:riçi ʃabça:.

<table>
<tr><td>(49-c) Arabic ST 3</td><td>(49-a) Arabic ST 3</td></tr>
</table>

<div dir="rtl">

هذا الإغفال المؤسف للحقائق على الأرض، والذي صدر
بيان مجلس الأمن بناء عليه، يشكل عاملا أساسيا بالغ

</div>

ha:ða: alʔiĝfa:lu almuʔsifu lil.haqa:ʔiqi çala
alʔar.d, wa allaði: .sadara baja:nu maʒlisi
alʔamni bina:ʔan çalajh, juʃakkilu

ça:milan ʔasa:sijjan ba:līġa assilbijjati biannisbati lima.sla.hati su:rijja: liʔannahu juʃaʒʒiçu almaʒmu:ça:ti attaχri:bijja almusalla.ha çala alʔistimra:ri fi: ʔistiχda:mi assila:.hi wa fi:çamalijja:ti alqatli wa attaχri:bi, wafi: ha:ða: alkaθi:ri mimma juçarqilu ʔimkana:ti alwu.su:li ʔila al.hifa:.di çala ma.sa:li.hi su:rijja alʔasa:sija.

السلبية بالنسبة لمصلحة سورية لأنه يشجع المجموعات التخريبية المسلحة على الاستمرار في استخدام السلاح وفي عمليات القتل والتخريب،وفي هذا الكثير مما يعرقل إمكانات الوصول إلى الحفاظ على مصالح سورية الأساسية.

(50-c) Arabic ST 4

ja.ti:bu li: ʔibla:ġukum biʔanna almaʒlisa alwa.tanijj alʔintiqa:lijj qad ʔaçlan ta.hri:ra li:bja: bialka:mili min .hukmi addi:kta:tu:r muçammar alqaða:fi:, baçda assaj.tarati çala madi:nati sirt, wa mawti alçaqi:d alqaða:fi: kanati:ʒatin lilʔi.sa:bati alba:līġati allati: taçarra.da laha: χila:la alʔiʃtiba:ki allaði: ʒara bajna aθθuwwa:ri wa ʔan.sa:ri alqaða:fi: allaði:na ka:nu ju.ha:wilu:na .hima:jata alqaða:fi: lilhuru:bi min sirt jawma 20 tiʃri:n alʔawwal/ʔuktu:bar 2011 .

(50-a) Arabic ST 4

يطيب لي إبلاغكم بأن المجلس الوطني الانتقالي قد أعلن تحرير ليبيا بالكامل من حكم الديكتاتور معمر القذافي، بعد السيطرة على مدينة سرت، وموت العقيد القذافي كنتيجة للإصابة البالغة التي تعرض لها خلال الاشتباك الذي جرى بين الثوار وأنصار القذافي الذين كانوا يحاولون حماية القذافي للهروب من سرت يوم ٢٠ تشرين الأول/أكتوبر ٢٠١١.

(51-c) Arabic ST 8

kama: ʔanna al.huku:ma assu:rijja: tuʔminu biʔanna muʃkilata ma jussama bianna:zi.hin assu:rjji:n hija: muʃkilatun muftaçalatun ʔila .haddin kabi:r wa taʔmalu çawdatahum ʔila wa.tanihim wa çadami ʔistiġla:l wuʒu:dihim liʔaġra:.din sija:sijja, wa kad ʔadda: atta.hassun almal.hu:.d fi: alwa.dçi alʔamnijji: ʔila çawdati maʒmu:ça:tin kabi:ratin minhum ʔila baladihim wa muza:walatihim liʔaçma:lihim allati: manaçathum minha: almaʒmu:ça:t alʔirha:bijja.

(51-a) Arabic ST 8

كما أن الحكومة السورية تؤمن بأن مشكلة ما يسمى بالنازحين السوريين هي مشكلة مفتعلة إلى حد كبير وتأمل عودتهم إلى وطنهم وعدم استغلال وجودهم لأغراض سياسية، وقد أدى التحسن الملحوظ في الوضع الأمني إلى عودة مجموعات كبيرة منهم إلى بلدهم ومزاولتهم لأعمالهم التي منعتهم منها المجموعات الإرهابية.

(52-c) Arabic ST 13

kuntu qad waʒʒahtu ʔilajkum fi: alχa:missi min ʃahri ʔa:b/ʔuġstus 2010 risa:latan biχu.su:.si qija:mi quwwa:ti alʔi.htila:li alʔisra:ʔilijji biʔasri almuwa:.tini assu:rijji

(52-a) Arabic ST 13

كنت قد وجهت إليكم في الخامس من شهر آب/ أغسطس ٢٠١٠ رسالة بخصوص قيام قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي بأسر المواطن السوري فداء الشاعر ووالده ماجد الشاعر

fida:ʔ aʃʃaçir wa wa:lidihi ma:ʒid aʃʃa:çir bituhamin mufabrakatin bihadafi tarhi:bi almuwa.tinina assu:rijji:na fi: alʒu:la:n assu:rijji almu.htall,
wa ʔinnani ʔawaddu ʔan ʔulfita ʔintiba:hakum ʔila ʔiʒra:ʔin ʒadi:din qa:mat bihi quwwatu alʔi.htila:li alʔisra:ʔilijj:, .hajθu ʔaqdamati alma.hkamatu almarkazijja alʔisra:ʔilijja fi: anna:.sira bita:ri:χi 17 ʃuba:t/fibra:jar 2011 çala ʔi.sda:ri ʔa.hka:min ʒa:ʔiratin bi.hakki alʔasi:rajni ma:ʒid aʃʃa:çir bissiʒni limuddati χamsi sanawa:tin waʔibnihi fida:ʔ aʃʃa:çir bissiʒni limuddati θala:θi sanawa:t.

<div align="center">

(53-c) **Arabic ST 2**

</div>

laqad takallalatt ʒuhu:du alkutali assija:sijjati χila:l assanati alma:.dijati,
bitaʃki:li .huku:mati aʃʃara:kati alwa.tanija, baçda fatratin .tawi:latin mina almuʃa:wara:ti allati: ʔakkadat çala raɣbati tilka alkutali fi: ʔan jatimma ʔintiqa:lu assul.ta.ti fi: alçira:qi biʃaklin di:muqra.tijjin wa silmijjin wa wifqa alʔa:lijja:ti addustu:rijjati.

<div align="center">

(54-c) **Arabic ST 4**

</div>

wa nuʔakkidu muʒaddadan biʔanna ma: warada fi: alfaqrati 72 .hawla` ʔanna tarsi:m al.hudu:d ʔamrun .ha:simun liçala:qatin ʔi:ʒabijjatin bajna albaladajn˝ɣajr maqbu:l, wa ʔanna alçal:qata alqa:ʔima bajna albaladajn ʔi:ʒa:bijja wa ʔanna attaʃki:ka biða:lika juçtabaru tadaχullan fi: aʃʃuʔuni adda:χilija lilbaladajn.

<div align="center">

(55-c) **Arabic ST 8**

</div>

wa biha:ð:a nuʔakkidu muʒaddadan ʔanna mu.ha:walata zaʒʒi ʔismi su:rija: fi: alwa.dçi adda:χiliji allubna:nijji ja:ʔti: fi: ʔita:ri al.hamlati almuwaʒʒahati .didda su:rija: wa

بتهم مفبركة بهدف ترهيب المواطنين السوريين في الجولان السوري المحتل، وإنني أود أن ألفت انتباهكم إلى إجراء جديد قامت به قوات الاحتلال الإسرائيلي، /حيث أقدمت المحكمة المركزية الإسرائيلية في الناصرة بتاريخ ١٧ شباط /فبراير ٢٠١١ على إصدار أحكام جائرة بحق الأسيرين ماجد الشاعر بالسجن لمدة خمس سنوات وابنه فداء الشاعر بالسجن لمدة ثلاث سنوات.

<div align="center">

(53- a) **Arabic ST 2**

</div>

لقد تكللت جهود الكتل السياسية خلال السنة الماضية، بتشكيل حكومة الشراكة الوطنية، بعد فترة طويلة من المشاورات التي أكدت على رغبة تلك الكتل في أن يتم انتقال السلطة في العراق بشكل ديمقراطي وسلمي ووفق الآليات الدستورية...

<div align="center">

(54-a) **Arabic ST 4**

</div>

ونؤكد مجددا بأن ما ورد في الفقرة ٧٢ حول'' أن ترسيم الحدود أمر حاسم لعلاقة إيجابية بين البلدين'' غير مقبول، وأن العلاقة القائمة الآن بين البلدين إيجابية وأن التشكيك بذلك يعتبر تدخلا في الشؤون الداخلية للبلدين.

<div align="center">

(55-a) **Arabic ST 8**

</div>

وبهذا نؤكد مجددا أن محاولة زج اسم سوريا في الوضع الداخلي اللبناني يأتي في إطار الحملة الموجهة ضد سوريا

juʃakkilu ʔintiha:kan lima: na.s.sa çalajihi
mi:θa:qu alʔumami almutta.hidati min
mabdaʔ çadam attadaχxuli fi: aʃʃuʔu:ni
adda:χilijja lidduwali. kama: nu.ta:libu
biʔida:nati duχu:li a.s.sa.hafijji:na
alfaransijji:na wa alʔamri:ki.jji:na wa
albri:.ta:ni:jji:na ʔila su:rija: mutasallili:na
çabra al.hudu:di assu:rijja-allubna:nijja
liʔanna fi:ða:lika ʔintiha:kan lisijadati lubna:n
wa lisijadati su:rija:.

<div dir="rtl">

ويشكل انتهاكا لما نص عليه ميثاق الأمم المتحدة من مبدأ
عدم التدخل في الشؤون الداخلية للدول. كما نطالب بإدانة
دخول الصحفيين الفرنسيين والأمريكيين والبريطانيين إلى
سوريا متسللين عبر الحدود السورية ـ اللبنانية لأن في ذلك
انتهاكا لسيادة لبنان ولسيادة سوريا.

</div>

(56-c) **Arabic ST 11**   (56-a) **Arabic ST 11**

?inna al ʔiʃa:rata ʔila maw.du:çi almuwa:.tinin
assu:rijjin almuhaʒʒarin ʔila lubna:n,
wa ʔila ʔintiqa:li alla:ʒiʔin alfilsi.ti:ni:niji:n
almuqi:mina fi: su:rija: ʔila lubna:n, nati:ʒata
alʔaçma:l alʔirhabijja lilmaʒmu:ça:t
alʔirha:bijja almusala.ha huwa maw.du:çun
jaχruʒu çan ni.ta:qi wila:jati alqara:ri 701
2006 wa tu.haðiru min maĝbbati ʔistiɡla:li
muça:na:t almuhaʒʒari:na liʔaĝra:.din
sija:sijatin, wa tuðakkiru .huku:matu
alʒumhu:rija alçarabija assu:rija, biʔanna
albarna:maʒa assija:ssij allaði: .tara.hahu
assajid baʃʃa:r alʔasad, raʔi:su alʒumhu:rijja
alçarabijja assu:rijja, li.halli alʔazma fi:
su:rija:, ta.dmanu .dama:na:tin lika:ffati
almuwa:.tini:na almuhaʒʒari:na arra:ĝibi:na
bilçawdati wa taqdi:mu attashi:la:ti alla:zima
liçawdatihim.

<div dir="rtl">

إن الإشارة إلى موضوع المواطنين السوريين المهجرين إلى
لبنان، وإلى انتقال اللاجئين الفلسطينيين المقيمين في سوريا
إلى لبنان، نتيجة الأعمال الإرهابية للمجموعات الإرهابية
المسلحة هو موضوع يخرج عن نطاق ولاية القرار ٧٠١
٢٠٠٦ وتحذر من مغبة استغلال معاناة المهجرين لأغراض
سياسية، وتذكر حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية ، بأن
البرنامج السياسي الذي طرحه السيد الرئيس بشار الأسد،
رئيس الجمهورية العربية السورية، لحل الأزمة في سوريا،
تضمن ضمانات لكافة المواطنين المهجرين الراغبين
بالعودة وتقديم التسهيلات اللازمة لعودتهم.

</div>

(57-c) **Arabic ST 12**   (57-a) **Arabic ST 12**

?inna ha:Dihi almaClu:mati tuTbitu wa biaddali:li
alqa:.tiCi ?anna ?isra:?i:la ma:.dijjatun fi:
sija:satiha: alCudwa:nija al?isti:.tanijja, min
Xila:li taZa:huliha: liqara:rati aSSarCijja
adduwalijja allati tudi:nu ?istimra:ra ?isra:?i:l
bibina:?i almustaw.tana:ti fi: al?ara:.di alCarabijja

<div dir="rtl">

إن هذه المعلومات تثبت وبالدليل القاطع أن إسرائيل ماضية
في سياستها العدوانية الاستيطانية، من خلال تجاهلها
لقرارات الشرعية الدولية التي تدين استمرار إسرائيل ببناء
المستوطنات في الأراضي العربية المحتلة بما في ذلك

</div>

الجولان السوري المحتل...

almu.htalla bima:fi: Da:lika alZu:la:n assu:rijji almu.htall.

(58-a) Arabic ST 9

بناء على تعليمات من حكومتي، أتشرف بأن أرفق لكم طيا

جدولا يتضمن أسماء أربعة صحفيين أجانب دخلوا إلى

الأراضي السورية بطرق غير مشروعة ودون علم

السلطات السورية (انظر المرفق)، حيث لقي اثنان من

هؤلاء الصحفيين حتفهما خلال تواجدهما مع المجموعات

المسلحة في سوريا. في حين أن الصحفيين الآخرين تسللا

إلى سوريا عبر الحدود التركية ـ السورية في بداية شهر

آذار/مارس ٢٠١٢ ، وقد تم، مؤخرا، تسليمهما إلى سلطات

بلادهم...

(58-c) Arabic ST 9

bina:ʔan çala taçlima:tin min huku:mati, ataʃarrafu biʔan ʔurfiqa lakum .tajjan ӡadwalan

jata.damanu ʔasma:ʔa ʔarbaçati .sa.hafijjina ʔaӡa:niba daχalu: ʔila alʔara:di assu:rijati bi.turuqin ĝajri maʃru:çatin wa du:na çilmi assuluta:ti assu:rijati (ʔunð.ur almirfaq), hajθu laqija ʔiθna:ni min ha:ʔulaʔi assa.hafijjin .hatfahuma χila:la tawa:ӡudihima maça almaӡmu:çati almusala.hati fi: su:rija fi.hi:ni ʔanna a.s.sa.hafijji:n alʔa:χari:n tasallala: ʔila su:rija çabra al.hudu:di atturkijjati-assu:rijjati fi: bida:jati ʃahri ʔa:ða:r/maris 2012, wa qad tamma, muʔaxχaran, tasli:muhuma ʔila .suluta:ti bila:dihim.

(59- a) Arabic ST 11

وتود حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية التأكيد أيضا على

موقفها المعبّر عنه في العديد من الرسائل المتطابقة التي

كانت قد وجهتها إلى كل من الأمين العام ورئيس مجلس

الأمن بخصوص تنفيذ القرار١٧٠١(٢٠٠٦ ، وتعبر عن

استغرابها في هذا المجال من إصرار الأمانة العامة على

الاستمرار بزج اسم الجمهورية العربية السورية في

تقاريرها المتعلقة بتنفيذ القرار ١٧٠١ (٢٠٠٦ ، خاصة

وأن القرار المشار إليه يتعلق بالعدوان الإسرائيلي على

لبنان.

(59- a) Arabic ST 11

wa tawaddu .huku:matu alӡumhu:rijja alçarabijja assu:rijja attaʔki:da ʔaj.dan çala mawqifiha almuçabbari çanhu fi: alçadi:di mina arrasa:ʔili almuta.ta:biqa allati: ka:nat qad waӡӡahatha: ʔila kullin mina alʔamini alça:m wa raʔi:si maӡlisi alʔamni biχu.su:.si tanfi:ði alqara:r 2006 1701, wa tuçabir çan ʔistiĝra:biha: fi: ha:ða: almaӡa:li min ʔi.sra:ri alʔama:nati alçamma çala alʔistimra:ri bizaӡi ʔismi alӡumhu:rijja alçarabijja assu:rijja: fi: taqa:ririha: almutaçalliqa bitanfi:ði alqara:r 2006 1701, χa:.s.satan wa ʔanna alqara:r almuʃa:r ʔilajh jataçallaqu bialçudwa:n alʔisra:ʔili: çala lubna:n.

(60-a) **Arabic ST 9**

ʔinna .hukumata alʒumhu:rijja alçarabija
assu:rija tuʔakkidu çala ʔahamijjati addawr
allaði: jaʒibu ʔan taqu:ma bihi wasaʔil
alʔiçlam fi: ʔada:ʔiha: limaha:miha:, wa allaði:
jaʒibu ʔan jatamajjaz bialmihanijja wa
almaw.du:çijja, wa ða:lika çala çaks ma:
qa:mat bihi baç.du wasa:ʔili alʔiçla:m
alˠgarbijja wa alçarabijja min tarwi:ʒin
liʔaχba:rin ça:rija çani a.s.si.ha çani
alʔa.hda:θi alʒa:rija fi: su:rija:, çabra
qija:miha: biʔi.hla:li .su:ra muzajjafa maka:na
a.s.su.ra al.haqi:qija allati: ʒara taˆgji:buha:
çamdan χidmatan liʔaʒundat sija:sija .dajjiqa
la: tamuttu bi.silatin limuta.tallaba:ti alçamali
a.s.sa.hafijji almihanijji, hajθ qa:mat ha:ðihi:
alwasa:ʔil bidawrin ta.hri:.ðijji ʔdda: fi
qaθi:rin mina alʔa.hja:ni ʔila maqtali alkaθi:r
mina almadanijjina alʔbrija:ʔ, wa ða:lika fi:
tana:qu.din ta:mmin maça maha:mi alʔiçla:m
annabi:la.

إن حكومة الجمهورية العربية السورية تؤكد على أهمية
الدور الذي يجب أن تقوم به وسائل الإعلام في أدائها
لمهامها، والذي يجب أن يتميز بالمهنية والموضوعية، وذلك
على عكس ما قامت به بعض وسائل الإعلام الغربية
والعربية من ترويج لأخبار عارية عن الصحة عن الأحداث
الجارية في سوريا، عبر قيامها بإحلال صورة مزيفة مكان
الصورة الحقيقية التي جرى تغييبها عمدا خدمة لأجندات
سياسية ضيقة لا تمت بصلة لمتطلبات العمل الصحفي
المهني، حيث قامت هذه الوسائل بدور تحريضي أدى في
كثير من الأحيان إلى مقتل الكثير من المدنيين الأبرياء،
وذلك في تناقض تام مع مهام الإعلام النبيلة.

Résumé

Cette recherche examine l'utilisation des éléments de cohésion dans un corpus parallèle arabe/anglais des textes des Nations Unies et vise à les comparer et à les contraster afin d'identifier les changements qui s'y produisent, analyser les glissements au niveau de ces liens textuels et montrer la manière avec laquelle ils sont interprétés comme équivalents. La première hypothèse testée est que puisque chaque langue emploie ses propres éléments de cohésion, l'anglais et l'arabe révéleraient des différences dans le type d'éléments utilisés et la fréquence de leur utilisation, ce qui affecterait considérablement la conversion des textes. La seconde est que puisque l'arabe et l'anglais appartiennent à deux différentes familles de langues, de nombreuses différences pourraient apparaître lors de la traduction. Par conséquent, des changements dans les éléments cohésifs arabes se produiraient dans la version anglaise. Ils seraient dus à un souci de la part des traducteurs de garder la précision, la transparence et la formalité caractérisant la langue des textes des Nations Unies. Usant de corpus linguistiques, une méthode quantitative et une qualitative descriptive sont utilisées pour mesurer à quel point les normes et les conventions de la langue source influent sur l'utilisation des éléments de cohésion dans la traduction et décrire sa précision et la façon dont les traducteurs s'accommodent aux différences. Les résultats révèlent qu'il existe beaucoup plus de similitudes que de différences entre l'arabe et l'anglais en termes d'éléments de cohésion textuelle utilisés mais la fréquence de certains d'entre eux est considérablement différente. Les similitudes sont conservées à des fins de précision, transparence et formalité qui caractérisent la langue des textes juridiques. Les résultats ont également montré que les textes traduits en anglais ont une tendance majeure à l'explicitation et à l'implicitation. Ceci est démontré par l'apparition de trois types de changements: l'ajout, l'omission et la substitution des éléments. Enfin, quelques extraits d'un corpus parallèle sont utilisés dans le but de concevoir des activités d'apprentissage dans l'enseignement de la traduction.

Mots clefs : éléments de cohésion ; traduction Arabe/Anglais ; études contrastives ; corpus parallèles

ملخص

يدرس هذا البحث استخدامات أدوات الاتساق النصي في مدونة متوازية عربي/انجليزي من وثائق الأمم المتحدة. ويهدف الى مقارنة أدوات الاتساق المستعملة في اللّغتين وتبرير حدوثها وتحديد مدى تكافئهما ووصف الطريقة التي يتم بها تأويل التكافؤ بينهما. تم اختبار فرضيتين، تنص الأولى على أنه بما أن لكل لغة أدوات الاتساق الخاصة بها وطرق استعمالها فإن اللغتين العربية والإنجليزية تختلفان في هذا المجال وفي مستوى وتيرة ورودها مما يؤثر وبشكل واضح على ترجمة النصوص. وتنص الفرضية الثانية على أنه بما أن اللغتين العربية والانجليزية تنتميان إلى أسرتين لغويتين مختلفتين فهذا سيؤدي إلى اختلافات عند الترجمة، وبالتالي تنجم عن هذه الاختلافات سلسلة من التغييرات في استعمال هذه الروابط. وعلى الأرجح فإن تبني المترجمين لمثل هذه التغيرات في الترجمة يهدف الى تحقيق الدقة والشفافية والصورية المميزة للغة نصوص الأمم المتحدة. فباستعمال برامج ووسائل المدونات اللغوية وباتباع منهج كمي ومنهج كيفي ووصفي لدراسة المعطيات تتم المقارنة بين استعمال أدوات الاتساق في المدونتين باللغتين العربية والإنجليزية ويتم توضيح الى أي مدى تؤثر قواعد وأسس اللغة المصدر على استعمال هذه الأدوات في الترجمة إضافة الى إبراز دقة استعمالها وكيفية تعامل المترجمين مع الاختلافات الواردة. ولقد تبين من خلال هذا البحث بأن أوجه التشابه بين اللّغتين في استعمال أدوات الاتساق تفوق أوجه الاختلاف في حين أن هناك اختلافات أكثر وبشكل واضح على مستوى وتيرة ورود هذه الأدوات. وفعلا، لقد تم حفظ أوجه التشابه في الترجمة بهدف تحقيق الدقة والشفافية والصورية المميزة للغة النصوص القانونية. وقد أظهرت النتائج أيضا أن النصوص الإنجليزية المترجمة تنحو نحو كل من الإيضاح explicitation والإضمار implicitation، ويتجلى هذا في وقوع ثلاثة أنواع من التغيرات و التي تتمثل في اضافة أو حذف أو استبدال أدوات الاتساق النصي المستخدمة في النصوص المترجمة. وأخيرا فقد تم اختيار بعض المقاطع من المدونة المتوازية لنصوص الأمم المتحدة من أجل استعمالها في تصميم نشاطات تعليمية في أقسام الترجمة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: أدوات الربط، الترجمة عربي/إنجليزي، دراسات تقابلية، مدونات متوازية