

**A SEMANTIC STUDY OF THE CONJUNCTION TYPES IN
DHAKIRAT AL-JASAD AND THEIR ENGLISH
TRANSLATIONS**

NAOUAL GRINE

FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

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UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
ORIGINAL LITERARY WORK DECLARATION

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Title of Project Paper/Research Report/Dissertation/Thesis (“this Work”):

A SEMANTIC STUDY OF THE CONJUNCTION TYPES IN DHAKIRAT AL-JASAD AND THEIR ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study analyses the conjunction types in Arabic-English novels. The study will focus on using the conjunctions as cohesive ties in the Arabic text “*Dhakhirat aljasad*” and in its English translation “Memory in the Flesh”. The three core objectives that guided this study are: (i) To identify the types of conjunctions used in translating the Arabic novel *Dhakhirat Aljasad* into the English novel *Memory in the Flesh*. (ii) To look for the similarities and dissimilarities of the semantic features of the Arabic conjunctions in English translations. (iii) To examine the types of shifts in the level of explicitness and shifts in meaning found in the English translation. The theories used to achieve accurate results are: Halliday and Hasan taxonomy of Cohesion (1976) that focus on four semantic types of conjunctions which are additive, adversative, causal and temporal with the Arabic conjunctions. Moreover, the componential analysis by Katz and Fodor (1963) is used in this study to determine the semantic features of the found conjunctions to determine whether the conjunctions used in Arabic and English are similar or dissimilar in meaning. Also, Blum-Kulka’s Shifts of Cohesions (1986) theory used to examine the types of shifts in the level of explicitness and text meaning occurred during the translation process. The data derived from the excerpts of both novels are collected and analysed thoroughly; and its finding clearly reveals that the Arabic and English conjunctions are mostly related, sometimes overlapped and rarely different. More than that, the results also show that some Arabic conjunctions considered as prepositions, adverbs, and pronouns in English tend to create explicit shifts in the translated text.

ABSTRAK

Tujuan kajian ini adalah untuk menganalisis jenis-jenis kata hubung yang digunakan dalam penulisan novel Arab-Inggeris. Fokus kajian ini adalah pada penggunaan kata hubung sebagai pengikat ayat dalam tulisan kesusasteraan Arab yang bertajuk “Dhakirat Aljasad” serta terjemahan bahasa Inggerisnya “*Memory in the Flesh*”. Tiga objektif utama yang mendorong kajian ini adalah (i) untuk mengenalpasti jenis-jenis kata hubung yang digunakan dalam menterjemah Bahasa Arab bertajuk “*Dhakirat Aljasad*” ke bahasa Inggeris “*Memory in the Flesh*”. (ii) Untuk menentukan persamaan serta perbezaan ciri-ciri semantik bagi kata hubung bahasa Arab yang terdapat dalam terjemahan bahasa Inggeris novel tersebut (iii) Untuk mengkaji jenis-jenis perubahan yang berlaku dari aspek tahap kejelasannya serta perubahan pada makna yang ditemui dalam terjemahan bahasa Inggeris novel tersebut. Teori-teori yang digunakan untuk mencapai keputusan yang tepat adalah: *Taxonomy of Cohesian* (1976) oleh Halliday dan Hasan yang memberi tumpuan kepada empat jenis semantik kata hubung iaitu aditif, adversatif, kasual dan temporal bagi kata hubung dalam bahasa Arab. Selain itu, kaedah analisis komponen (*Componential Analysis*) oleh Katz dan Fodor (1963) turut digunakan dalam kajian ini untuk menentukan ciri-ciri semantik bagi kata hubung yang digunakan bagi memastikan sama ada penggunaan kata hubung dalam bahasa Arab dan terjemahan bahasa Inggerisnya adalah sama atau sebaliknya. Tambahan pula, teori *Shifts of Cohesions* oleh Blum Kulka (1986) juga turut digunakan untuk mengkaji jenis-jenis perubahan dari aspek tahap kejelasannya, serta perubahan makna yang berlaku semasa proses terjemahan. Data dari kedua-dua novel telah dikumpul dan dianalisis secara teliti. Kajian ini telah menunjukkan secara jelas bahawa kebanyakan penggunaan kata hubung dalam bahasa Arab dan bahasa Inggeris adalah saling berkaitan antara satu sama lain, adakalanya berlaku pertindihan dan jarang sekali berlaku perbezaan. Malahan, keputusan kajian ini turut menunjukkan bahawa sebahagian dan kata hubung bahasa Arab yang dianggap kata sendi, kata keterangan dan kata ganti nama diri dalam bahasa Inggeris turut menyebabkan berlakunya perubahan yang jelas dalam teks terjemahan.

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PHONETIC SYMBOLS

To ensure the quality of this research, we have adopted transcription of the Arabic alphabet as appears in the study conducted by Alqahtani (2004) under the title ‘Semantic Valence of Arabic Verbs’.

Table 1.1 the Consonantal Symbols

Arabic alphabet	Symbol	Arabic alphabet	Symbol
ء	ʔ	ض	.d
ب	B	ط	.t
ت	T	ظ	ð.
ث	θ	ع	ç
ج	ʒ	غ	ĝ
ح	.h	ف	F
خ	X	ق	Q
د	D	ك	K
ذ	Ḍ	ل	L
ر	R	م	M
ز	Z	ن	N
س	S	ه	H
ش	ʃ	و	W
ص	.s	ي	J

Table 1.2 Vocalic Symbols

Short vowels	Symbols
-	A
’	U
˘	I
Long vowels	Symbols
ا	a:
و	u:
ي	i:

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LIST OF ABBREVIATION

L1 First Language

L2 Second Language

ESL English as Second Language

EFL English as Foreign Language

ST Source Text

TT Target Text

SL Source Language

TL Target Language

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LIST OF CHARTS

Chart 3.1 : The stages of the data analysis process .

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

2.0 The Background

To learn a second language means that the second language learner will be exposed to a new environment, which includes conscious and unconscious lessons in hearing and seeing. As the source of the second language, language may also be acquired through informal situations such as conversing with friends, ordering food, reading, and listening to the news all of which help create a language learning environment.

The non-native learner of English may face difficulties adapting to a new set of rules that differ from their mother tongue. Acquiring a new language is a process that cannot exist in a vacuum but must be subjected to the natural processes of change depending on the speaker and hearer and the situations in which they are involved. However, when the second language is not initiated and transformed comprehensively, the second language learner will not be able to distinguish the rules of the second from the mother tongue, which may result in problems in reading comprehension (Innajih, 2007) and academic writing (Leki, 1992; Wang an Wen, 2002). Slabakova (2010) declared that if two different languages come into play, it is important to look at how both languages differ and how we acquire the meaning of the L1 and L2.

Second language learners can build the expression system of the target language and master its functions, but they often fail in producing understandable structures. This may be due to a gap between the acquired knowledge the knowledge organisation. Before the learners respond in the second language (L2) through speaking or writing, they tend to

rely on their mother tongue structure L1. If the structures of these languages are widely distinctive, so the learner will quickly identify errors made in L2, or what we call the interference of L1 on L2. Linguists such as Dechert (1983) and Ellis (1997) were concerned about the difficulties that often face the second language learners.

All ESL or EFL students have to master the semantic processing of each language because it will help them in understanding and utilise the second language like their mother tongue. Translation is considered a medium where the aim of learning L2 can be achieved and the information transferred from L1 can be done linguistically and semantically. Through the translation process, the L2 learner will not find difficulties distinguishing each language and minimising interference. This study will closely deal with the semantic relations and cohesion.

Cohesion is a dominant issue usually discussed in translation studies. Many linguists such as Blum-Kulka and Levenson (1983), Newmark (1988), Beagrande (1980), and Mauranun and Kujamaki (2004) discussed the need for cohesion to achieve equivalence at the textual level. *In Other Words* is a famous book used as a theoretical and practical guide to translation studies written by Baker (2011) that sheds light on equivalence at the textual level, and she gives important consideration to cohesion and conjunctions. She also mentioned the problems that appear from the implications and the translations of connectors from Arabic to English and vice versa. However, many Arab researchers like Hamdan and Fareh (1999), Saeed and Fareh (2006), and Fareh (1998) tried to provide empirical evidence through empirical studies but these studies were not sufficient as they deal with connectors like *wa* and *fa* and their structural role in text building rather than their cohesive role.

In this respect, the aim of this research is to study the usage of conjunctions as cohesive ties in an Arabic novel and its English translation as learning implications for Arab learners in learning English as a second language.

1.1 Rationale of the Study

The interference of the mother tongue on the target language or what Dulay et al. (1982) termed, “the automatic transfer due to habit of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language” or in another word, the influence that the learner of L1 puts forth over the acquisition of L2 is one of the phenomena that affect second language learning. Ellis (1997) and Brown (1994, p.26) considered interference as, “the native language effect” and occurs because of the false assumption by L2 beginners that L1 and L2 work similarly whereas Lott (1983: 256) considered it as “errors in the learner’s use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue.” These definitions show that the interference mainly occurs automatically and depend on the basis of learners’ native language (Dulay, Burt, Krashen, 1982). As the first language is acquired naturally as it is used daily in one’s life but learning the second language is more complexly due to reasons like age and level of motivation among others. McLaughlin (1984) added that the second language learner could not avoid the interference that results from the variety of writing systems and structures that create difficulties in language learning. As such, interference will indeed occur.

Second language learners create their rules from their L1 knowledge supposing this occurrence will help them in learning language and grow to be proficient in the target language, i. e. that they think that they could perceive the second language through the

meaning of words acquired in the first language (Larson-Freeman and Long, 1991). Many studies have been conducted on interference by linguists such as Horney (1998 cited in Chen, 2006), Zhang (2007), and Kim (1998 cited in Lee, 2001). These studies about interlingual errors made by mother tongue interference were carried out among foreign language learners, and they successfully demonstrated the effects of mother tongue language interference in learning the second language, especially regarding subject, verb, prepositions, articles, and verb agreement.

The learner's speech and writing ability will be affected by their assumption of the similarities assumed between two languages. The learner may break the ties between sentences by producing spoken and written words that have no meaning and no cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976) mentioned that coherence upholds intimate intersentential interaction which mostly separates a text from a series of isolated words. In other words, coherence in the text is the glue that gathers the separate words to make a meaningful text.

To realise coherence, the learner must be aware of the differences between the two languages. Thus, our study aims to offer insights to Arab second language learners on how cohesive ties bring meaning to the text and the difference between Arabic and English languages in selected language areas. Besides helping the Arab student to comprehend better, the present study aims to help Arab students produce coherent texts depending on the semantic relations created by conjunctions (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). Caron (1994) looked at it as an expression of many relations that deals strictly with its semantic meaning and pragmatic features.

Conjunctions exist in both Arabic and English as coherence ties, and appear to be similar yet are different in their semantic functions which makes it difficult to comprehend

how the usage of conjunctions functions in the language. Conjunctions in Arabic have rarely been studied. Many previous studies found that Arabic and English are two different languages. This point will be widely taken into account in this research. This study will also determine whether the semantic meaning of conjunctions in Arabic and English are similar. The findings of this study could be a major learning strategy that can help Arab learners accurately acquire the English language.

1.2 Problem Statement

The interference of the individual's first language into the second language is a serious problem facing second language learners causing them to produce errors in the meaning of the target language. Second language learners, especially the less able ones, usually fail to distinguish between word types and tend to mix L1 words with L2 because of translation equivalence. Sunderman and Kroll (2006) proved that translation equivalent in L1 is mostly noticeable during the first phase of L2 learning. If the L2 learner wants to understand this language system, he/she must filter the knowledge that she/he has. This is because when L2 is acquired, L1 is actively working as well, as declared by Jared and Kroll (2001) and Marian and Spivey (2003).

During the learning process, the language learner utilises everything acquired in L1 and distinguishes them from L2 consciously or unconsciously. Translation, as mentioned by Pariente-Beltrane (2006), is usually employed implicitly as a resource in order to function and learn the L2 vocabulary used by beginners and intermediate learners. When

the two languages are mixed, errors are repeatedly made and created by incompetent students.

Meaning is a central issue in bilingual studies. When two languages are semantically similar in meaning, the chances of interference is increased. The similarity between the two languages leads to confusion in the learning process as was proven by (Talamas et al., 1999; Sunderman and Kroll, 2006 as cited in Moldovan et al., 2012).

As the core idea of cohesion studies is semantic relations, conjunctions are a type of cohesive tie that creates difficulties to the language learners as proven by the following studies. Lieber (1981) asserted that conjunctive cohesion is considered one of the most complicated features in which students are prone to make mistakes. Also, students who are not exposed to different kinds of conjunctions mostly use conjunctions in sentences improperly (Hughes and Heah, 1993). Furthermore, as declared by Innajih (2007), conjunctions are listed as a difficulty in reading comprehension. When students cannot identify the meaning of the conjunctions, they could not understand the meaning of the text because the role of conjunctions is to develop meaningful information. This is why the correct usage of conjunctions by the language learner is an indicator of his/her fluency and a proof of his/her ability in producing a complex sentence in speaking (Li, 2008). Regarding writing, Li (2009) proved that the richness of L1 and the incompetence in L2 lead to the absence of conjunctive items in the student paper.

According to previous studies on conjunctions, there are various difficulties when it comes to the semantic analysis of conjunctions in both languages. For instance, some Arabic conjunctions may share similar meanings with English conjunctions and vice versa. Sometimes one Arabic conjunction may have various meanings and semantic functions.

For example, the Arabic conjunction “fa” could be defined as the English conjunctions “so, then, for instance, because, since, and therefore.” So it can be used as an additive, adversative, causal and temporal conjunction or a multifunctional conjunction used in discourse to create coherence and cohesion in the text as claimed by Schiffrin (2003).

Many studies have been conducted on conjunctive items in English and other languages such as French, Mandarin, and Spanish. Comparing between English and Arabic could be a key to initiate further discussions of how conjunctions are used in sentences. The semantic analysis conducted in this study could be a learning strategy that helps the Arab second language learner in better comprehending English.

1.3 Research Objectives

The present research outlines the following three core objectives:

1. To identify the types of conjunctions used in translating the Arabic novel *Dhakhirat Aljasad* into the English novel *Memory in the Flesh*.
2. To look for similarities and dissimilarities in the semantic features of Arabic conjunctions and their English translations.
3. To examine the types of shifts in the level of explicitness and shifts in meaning found in the English translation.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions that guide this study are:

1. What types of conjunctions are used in translating the Arabic novel *Dhakhirat Aljasad* into the English novel *Memory in the Flesh*?

2. What are the similarities and dissimilarities of the semantic features of the Arabic conjunctions and their English translations?
3. What are the types of shifts in the level of explicitness and the changes in textual meaning found in the English translation?

1.5 Limitations of the Study

The study will focus on conjunctions as an aspect of cohesive grammatical elements, as presented by Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy of cohesion in English (1976). It will introduce the examination of all the four types of conjunctions: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal in relation with Arabic conjunctions. All types of conjunctions mentioned in the first three chapters of both literary texts will be taken into consideration. The conjunctions will be analysed semantically to look for similarities and dissimilarities between the Arabic conjunctions and their English equivalents, in addition to their usage in terms of function and meaning that will be mainly discussed in this study because of the repetitive appearance of the conjunctions in both novels. Only the conjunctions mentioned in the first half of each novel will be taken into account.

1.6 Structure of the Study

This thesis contains five chapters: first is the introduction, literature review, methodology, the finding and discussion, and finally the conclusion and recommendation.

The first chapter introduces the research by including the background of the study, the rationale of the study, the problem statement, research objectives and questions, limitations of the study, in addition to the definition of the key term used in this work. In

this chapter, The importance of the semantic analysis of conjunctions for the ESL learners is addressed.

In the second chapter, the literature review focuses on the field of study by focusing on discourse analysis, cohesive devices, types of conjunctions in Arabic and English, in addition to the related studies and theories. The third chapter summarises the methodology of this study, the data (the corpus), the theoretical framework then the procedure of analysis. Chapter Four discusses the findings. Finally, the conclusions, pedagogical implications, suggestions, and recommendations for further studies are summed up in Chapter Five.

1.7 Definitions of Key Terms:

The following list shows the definitions of terms related to the field of this study:

Text: it is a spoken or written passage, that brings a meaningful and unified whole (Halliday and Hasan: 1976).

Semantic: is the study of the relationship between language form and language meaning (Filip, 2008).

Semantic features: a technique where the meaning of words or lexemes can be separated into a smaller component which appears to be “present,” “absent” or in different concerning features ‘that can be distinguished among lexemes or group of lexemes’ (Jackson, 1988).

Semantic analysis: a way to understand language by analysing the meaning of linguistic input and processing language to produce common sense knowledge about the language (Klapuri, 2007).

Cohesion is a semantic concept that refers to meaning relations which exist within the text. When the interpretation of any elements of the text is dependent on another, we can say that coherent relations exist (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Coherence: underlying relations that hold between propositions of the sentences, making up the text and which establish their relevance to the central thought of the text. (Beaugrade: 1981, quoted in Madoui, 2004: 21-22)

Cohesive devices: words or phrases that function as signals to the reader, signals that make what is being said connect with what has already been said and what will be said (Reid, 1993). It is categorised under five categories: references, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

Conjunctions: explicitly draws attention to the type of relationship which exists between one sentence or clause and another (Cook, 1989).

1.8 Summary:

The first chapter contains a brief background of the study, the rationale of the study, problem statement, the objectives and research questions, limitation, the structure of study and definition of key terms.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews selected studies that deal with conjunctions as a cohesive device in both Arabic and English. Their usage in Arabic and English concerning differences will be discussed. Firstly, this study will look at the area of discourse analysis and cohesions mainly conjunctions. Secondly, the description and the usage of conjunctions in English and Arabic in terms of their differences will be discussed. Thirdly, major theories related to the study, namely: Halliday and Hasan's research (1976), Katz and Fodor theory (1963) and Blum-Kulka's shifts (1986) will be reviewed. Finally, a list of important studies on cohesion and conjunction related to the present study will be discussed.

2.1 Discourse Analysis.

Discourse analysis is an approach to study language that focuses on the relations between the language and the context it used, so it is a field of study language above the sentence level. It is also considered a linguistic element because it works based on making a meaningful chain of words. It interprets and makes sense of what is written more than what is said; its role is also to control the structure of the text. In discourse analysis, the sentences "are put to communicative use in the performing of social actions" (Widdowson, 2007: 47). In *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis*, Gee (2005) mentioned the importance of the connection between the language and its social performance in understanding language "discourse analysis is one way to engage in an essential human task, the task is to facilitate

learners to think more deeply about the meaning of words we give to people so as to make ourselves better, more humane people and make the world a better, more humane place".

From the historical background, the origin of the word *discourse* is the Latin word 'discursus' which means speech or conversation. The linguist O'Grady (2008, p. 220) defines the word "discourse" as "a connected series of utterances produced during a conversation, a lecture, a story, or another speech act." Because of the broad meaning of the word discourse, linguists differ in referring to it or giving it a specific and unique definition. Some linguists say that it denotes speech, and others considered it as texts. In comparison with the analysis of spoken discourse, written discourse study makes the analysis much easier because it deals less with the nonverbal utterances. The writers come up with more accurate results through reviewing what has been written. According to McCarthy (1991), all discourse is assumed to be well structured, meaningful and communicative. To produce a qualified discourse, seven criteria must be fulfilled: cohesion, coherence, and intertextuality, intentionality and acceptability, informality and situationally as proposed by Beaugrande (1981, quoted in Madoui 2004: 21-22),

2.1.1 Written discourse

In *Worlds of Written Discourse* written by Bhatia in 2004, discourse analysis is a general term that "focuses on lexico-grammatical and other textual properties, on regularities of organisation of language use, on situated language use in institutional, professional, or organisational context, or on language use in a variety of broadly configured social context, often highlighting social relations and identities, power asymmetry and social struggle" (p. 3). She also claimed that discourse analysis is naturally based on the study of the written

discourse, and it particularly focuses on analysing the sentences beyond its level, so this means that the language is organised and pre-planned, and it is easy to be reviewed by an interlocutor (Djamila, 2010). It also gives more opportunities for the writers to think about what and how to write, and also to look back at what has been written. They can evaluate the texts whether they are acceptable or not, and make changes or ignore them. To make a comprehensible readable text, all the norms and the rules (linguistic devices) of producing a text must be known to the writers to build the sentences together. Moreover, paying attention to the cohesion of the text and its meaning are essential parts in the writing process.

2.2 Cohesion

Cohesion is a linguistic element (grammatical or lexical) preserving the unity and the association of words within sentences (intrasentential) or between sentences (intersentential) throughout a passage. It is a lexico-grammatical network that works on connecting different elements in the text to make them meaningful by using various linguistic markers. After the publication of Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English* in 1976, many researchers have studied cohesion in text and its effects on reading and writing.

In their book, Halliday and Hasan (1976) said:

Coherence occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse independent on that of another, the one presuppose the other in the sense that, it cannot be efficiently 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 (p.04)

It is important to mention that in 1987, Halliday and Hassan worked on the distinction between what is a text (a unified whole) and what is not a text (collection of unrelated

sentences), through investigating two key terms in cohesion, which is text and texture. The text is, “the semantic unit realised by sentences rather than consisting of them” whereas texture is, “the property that a text should have to be interpreted as such (with regard to the context)” (1987, p. 65). Through this presentation, we can say that their new theoretical framework is based on the distinction between what is text and what is not a text through distinguishing the semantic grounds from the grammatical ones and considering cohesion as a component of a language system. Thus, any element of cohesion is automatically a part of this scheme (Halliday and Hassan, 1987).

The linguist Van Dijk (1980) pointed out in his words ‘sentential’ and ‘sequential’ that the latter is outstanding because it is the only source of texture, whereas structural relations (grammatical) are found in the former. He added that the linking idea is based on the existence of two elements, “i.e. one depends on its interpretation on another because one item cannot be enough for cohesive relation” (Van Dijk, 1980: p.9.12).

Many studies have analysed the grammatical cohesions of reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctions. Hollway (1980) studied cohesion as a means of testing writing and developing teaching. Whereas Witte and Faigley (1981) studied cohesion by looking at their different usage in compositions. Other languages have been investigated in connection with this study, for example English and Chinese, on the use of reference and conjunctions in Chun-chun Yeh (2004) article, Persian and English in novels analysis in an article written by Ali Rahimi (2012), in addition to Spanish and English in the study of *Casado Velarde* (1997), and Japanese and English in *Oshima* (1988).

After the emergence of communicative competence, discourse competence has developed to be a major feature of language pedagogy, juxtaposed with it; the language

learner is guided to produce coherent and cohesive written or spoken discourse. Due to the importance of the coherence and cohesion process in language teaching and learning, the number of studies concerning this issue has increased. Moreover, methodologist and language teachers emphasised the importance of knowledge of grammar among language learners to help them in producing coherent texts (Kafes, 2012).

Many studies have proven the crucial role of the cohesive device, and the importance of its accurate usage in second language teaching composition and writing (Hinkel, 2001). Furthermore, McCarthy (1991) claimed that cohesion and cohesive devices are very important for English teachers to explain to L2 learners reading and writing instructions. Scott (1996) pointed out the significance of teaching the linguistic and lexical means of cohesion among second language learners because of their positive effects in producing a coherent written text during the translation process.

2.2.1 Types of Cohesive Devices

Halliday and Hasan (1976) pioneered the term “cohesive,” and according to them, cohesive devices are divided into two main categories: grammatical and lexical. From the word lexical, we can understand that this category deals with vocabulary, i.e. the cohesion of the text through words, word features, and the relationship between them. It is classified under reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is explained as “one lexical item referring back to another, to which it is related by having a common referent. A reiterated item may be a repetition, a synonym, a superordinate, or a general word.” Collocation is used to refer to those lexical items which are usually found together in a similar text (R. Hasan, 1976). The

second category or the grammatical devices are divided into four cohesive ties: references, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunctions.

1. Reference: using language to point to something inside or outside the text, or when we look for a reference to an item in the text. Example: a big herd of lions, they seem hungry.
2. Substitution: to replace one item by another, it relies on linguistic forms but not its meaning: such as in “one/s’, do/did, same/so on. Example: we found pens, did u find one?
3. Ellipsis: is when we omit parts of sentences, but the meaning remains the same. The omitted items were easy to guess from the context. Example: Where did you find my wallet? [I found it] under the bed.
4. Conjunction: this type of cohesive device will be elaborated further in this chapter under the title 2.6 Conjunctions in English.

2.2.2 Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion and coherence are different concepts with different functions, but their role is to build a clear and meaningful text easily understood by the reader. In a comparison between the two concepts: coherence focuses on the logic of the used ideas and their presentations rather than the used language, whereas cohesion focuses on the connection of these ideas at the sentence level through using the grammatical aspects. Moreover, according to Hasan and Halliday (1976), these concepts are part of each other, as they stated that while cohesion is the coherence of the text itself, coherence is the cohesion of the text in its context of situations. They further explained that coherence covers the context of the text

and cohesion is limited and controlled by the text. At the discourse level, the views of the linguists on this subject differ. For example, Fitzgerald and Spiegel (1990) claimed that coherence is responsible for holding a text as a whole. Another group of linguists considers cohesion and coherence as two overt concepts; the former based on the surface elements that occur continuously, while the latter based on the elements of knowledge about the connectivity of concepts (De Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981).

Halliday and Hasan agree on the role of cohesion in building the unity of the text, whereas some linguists have a different point of view (Hellman, 1995; Sanford and Moxey, 1995). They proved that cohesion is insufficient and unnecessary in making a connected text appear as a whole text, and they focus on the importance of the unity of coherence in creating a text even with the variant use of cohesive ties. Widdowson (1978) proved the possibility of creating coherence in a text without cohesion. He added that reaching the unity a text of is more dependent on coherence than the vivid usage of cohesive devices. (p. 29)

Hasan (1984) believed that coherence and cohesion are a pair in which the first part serves the second and vice versa. She defined coherence as a phenomenon, and only the reader or the listener of the text can interpret it. This interpretation depends on the cohesive harmony or the relations of cohesive devices; if there is a balance in using the cohesive ties, the text will be more coherent and understood. Dahl (2000) and Hoover (1997) agree that reaching a coherent text relied on the relations between the text and its receivers and the cohesive ties help them in finding coherence, and the linguist Hasan asserted the importance of the cohesive harmony.

Though we can say that both cohesion and coherence seem to be different concepts, they are nevertheless intertwined. Moreover, different studies have proven one important issue in the idea of cohesion. The cohesive devices as the property of the text can be measured and analysed as it could be either grammatical or lexical (based on the words found in the text). This means that it is more objective in comparison with coherence that is based on the judgement and the consideration made by the reader. This judgement as to whether the text is coherent or not varies from one reader to another, as it is more subjective in the analysis process (Widdowson, 2004).

2.2.3 Cohesion and Translation

Translation is a communicative act that refers to the linguistic and discourse systems of two languages. The translation process includes the original text or source text (ST) and the translated text or target text (TT). Blum-Kulka (1986) considers translation a route in which both complex text and discourse processing are needed. Due to the vital role cohesive devices play in achieving the texture and the factor of communication of the source and the target language, they must be taken into consideration by the translator when the language is translated.

As language systems differ and each has its unique rules in using cohesive devices, they cannot be mixed. This is why cohesion becomes a questionable issue in translating a language. Each language “has its own patterns to convey the interrelation of persons and events; in no language may these patterns be ignored” (Callow 1974: 30, quoted in Baker 1992: 180).

In 1986, the linguist Blum-Kulka (1986) wrote about the relationship between cohesion and translation. She asserted that on the cohesion level, the shifts in cohesive marker types used in any translation process would certainly affect the translation either at the level of explicitness or text meaning.

The results of analysis reached by Bernam (1978) on the usage of cohesive devices in Hebrew and English show the overuse of the cohesive lexical items in English when translated from Hebrew. However, in a comparative study between English and Brazilian Portuguese language in translating grammatical items, Callow (1974, as discussed by Baker 1992), found that Brazilian Portuguese prefer lexical repetition whereas English prefer pronominal references. The study revealed that the Brazilian Portuguese language employs verbs for persons and numbers in order to provide extra meaning in tracing participants. On the other hand, the results of a study carried out by Baker (1992) on English and Arabic languages on the use of conjunctions showed that there were limitations in the usage of conjunctions in Arabic depending on the capability of the addressee in deducing the relationship. Unlike English, Baker (1992) discovered the overuse of all types of conjunctions and punctuations to link small chunks of words.

When the translator selects the appropriate cohesive device, the process must be based on the system and conventions of the source language. He/she is also responsible for describing how cohesion is created in the language he/she is working on. Translation also plays a crucial role in helping the language learners to understand the difference between languages, so that he can succeed in L2 if the translation is unclear, ambiguous or repetitive, the level of understanding for the second language learner would be very low.

2.2.4 Cohesion in Arabic

Cohesion is one of the terms that is transferred to Arabic through translation thanks to the contribution of western linguists and language analysts. Many terms in Arabic denote cohesions such as *al itisaq*, *at-tamasuk an-nasi*. Some Arab linguists and grammarians start to apply Arabic texture rules and also cohesion rules of western studies into the Arabic language as clarified by Alfiqui (2000):

This theory focuses on western languages and devices [of textual linkage] that are typical of those languages. However, many, if not all, devices are found and applicable to Arabic (p. 115).

2.3 The History of the Arabic Language

The Arabic language is a language spoken by more than 200 million people and classified among the top six most spoken languages around the world. It is the official language of 28 countries located in the Middle East and North Africa. The Arabic language is the language of the Holy Quran. It is venerated and liturgical, and the religious language used by around one billion Muslims around the world with different levels of proficiency in Asia (such as Indonesia, Malaysia, China) or in Africa (as in Senegal and Nigeria).

According to Merrit Ruhlen's taxonomy in his book *Guide to the World's Languages* that was first published on 1987, Arabic is a Semitic language, which makes it a part of the Afro-Asiatic group in the languages of the world. Going back to the origin of its relationship with the other Semitic languages such as Hebrew, Modern Arabic belongs to the Arabs-Canaanite group which is a sub-branch of the Western Semitic languages. Through a study of the phonological, morphological and syntactic features of the languages descended from the Semitic group, linguists determined that Arabic is a unique language as it has preserved the majority of the original semantic features in comparison with the

other languages. In this respect, they considered Arabic the more Semitic among the modern Semitic languages (Bishop, 1998).

Diglossia played a huge role in developing Modern Arabic as it does in other languages, many theories founded to advocate an explanation to this phenomenon such as Koine's theory, language drift, and normal tendencies, and the pidginization/creolization theory. Koine's theory is the most known theory in explaining the Arabic diglossia. The name Koine is derived from Greek and denotes lingua franca (mixing languages and dialects). Based on this idea, the linguist Fück claimed that Bedouin language that comes into existence after the Islamic conquest is the basic in forming the colloquial languages.

Classical Arabic or language of the Quran is a unique source of Modern Standard Arabic (Belnap et al., 1997). Joshua Blau asserted that there are two unified factors behind the various development of the Arabic dialects: the tendency of Semitic languages to change, and also the reciprocal contact between dialects (Blau, 1988). The linguist Versteegh (1997) depended on the pidginization/creolization process to address the similarities and the differences between Modern Arabic dialects. The mixed marriages between the Arabs and non-Arabs from the conquered country led to the production of a pidginized form of Arabic. Their children of these marriages speak a creolised form of Arabic, which is the starting point of colloquial language.

The term diglossia divides this language into two languages with different characteristics, Modern Standard Arabic (the written and the formal) and colloquial Arabic (the spoken and informal). Modern Standard Arabic is the "correct" Arabic language as its origins are the language of Quran or the classical language. This language is used by all-Arabs as the official language of reading, writing, and the high register speech. It is the

language that must be learnt. On the other hand, the colloquial language is spoken the language used in daily interactions. Colloquial Arabic (dialect) is considered L1 and widely differs from region to region like Egyptian, Moroccan, Sudanese and Algerian dialects.

Linguistically, researchers encounter difficulties in studying the colloquial languages because the changes to this language were due the effects of colonisation, technology, code-switching and so on. So, they focused on the Modern Standard Arabic and tried to document the changes in this language. They realised that modernisation is a factor in creating new words and concepts. As the Arabic language is the language of God, the borrowing of words is a sensitive issue. Language academies have made a significant effort in controlling this change through strategies such as extension (Car =*sayara* =caravan), calques (*kurat al kadam* =the ball of the foot =football) and Arabisation (democracy =*democratiya*).

Modern Arabic scripts read from right to left. Arabic contains 28 consonants that appear in different shapes in the initial, medial, final and isolated positions. However, there are six vowels in Arabic, three long vowels represented within the alphabets, and three short vowels indicated by diacritical markings. These marks are optional and are mostly not written ~~just~~ in the religious texts to make sure that the pronunciation is correct.

2.3.1 The Structure of the Arabic Language:

Standard Arabic is a free-word-order system in constructing a simple sentence in the statement form in comparison to English that is a fixed-word language as proved by Alduais (2012). Both Arabic and English second language learners find difficulties in writing sentences. On one hand the second and the foreign English learners must know

three types of sentences in the statement form (verbal, nominal and equational) that does not exist in their written form, while, subject-verb agreement, and the translation of the verb “to be” are a serious problem that the Arab learners encounter.

In the statement form, the Standard Modern Arabic allows four types of sentences (nominal, verbal, equational and nonverbal) based on certain rules and restrictions. Alexander (1988) defined the simple sentence as “the smallest sentences-unit” that “normally has one finite verb... a subject and a predicate” (p.4). Likewise, in standard Arabic, the simple sentence structure is combined with a noun phrase and a verb phrase, or it is a predicate with a covert verb as declared by Chejne (1969), and it is divided into three types: nominal sentence, verbal sentence, and nonverbal sentence or equational. To ensure accuracy, the sentences used as illustration are in the declarative and statement form as mentioned by Wightwick (1998).

a- **The nominal sentence**: NP (noun phrase) +VP (verb phrase) + C (compliment if necessary), the nominal sentence in standard Arabic can be inserted into a verbal sentence, with no changes or addition to its elements only in case-marking if it requires.

Example: الهدف الخاص كان هدفا دينيا (nominal sentence)

-The particular aim was a religious aim (nominal sentence)

Example: كان الهدف الخاص هدفا دينيا (verbal sentence)

-The particular aim was a religious aim (as a verbal sentence in Arabic).

b- **The verbal sentence**: VP (the verb) + NP (subject) + C (complement)

Rules control the verbal sentence in standard Arabic, 1) Beginning with a verb is inevitable, 2) the verb following the subject is inescapable, 3) Ends with a compliment is perspective, the compliment depends on the verb type.

Example: ورث سليمان داود (verbal sentence). -Arabic allows both structure (NP+VP+ Comp/ϕ) or (VP+NP+ Comp/ϕ).

-Solomon inherited David - (as English do does not allow other structures)

Not all verbal sentences can be inverted to a nominal sentence as the sense may change. In these sentences, the VP must agree with the following subject in every way that is if the subjects are plural the verb must be conjugated into the plural.

Example: قام التلاميذ احتراماً للأستاذ (verbal sentence)

Pupils stood up respectfully for the teacher (as a verbal sentence in Arabic)

Example: التلاميذ قاموا احتراماً للأستاذ (it changes to be nominal without subject agreement. If it is ungrammatical, it is not accepted in Arabic).

Pupils stood up respectfully for the teacher. - (as a nominal sentence in Arabic)

Remark: the structure of the sentences in Arabic cannot always be easily inverted or changed; some rules and restrictions must be taken into account to form a sentence that is grammatically acceptable (Alduais, 2012).

c- **An equational (nonverbal) sentence**: it is a phrase that appears without a verb in the simple present tense, this kind of sentence is combined with NP+ Comp or [*mubtad'a and khabbar*] in Arabic.

Example: -الإنسان كائن اجتماعي- (no verb appears, it is understood from the context).

-The man is a social being (the verb appears as “to be when translated to English).

The equational (nonverbal) can be inverted to a verbal sentence by implying verbs that keep the meaning of the sentences.

The upcoming presentation shows the structures of the simple sentences that can possibly ~~can~~ appear in standard Arabic as to prove that Arabic is a free word-order system.

These structures are mentioned in a study conducted by Alduais (2012).

S=NP + VP + Comp → S= VP + NP + Comp

S= NP + VP + Comp →S= VP + NP + Comp

S=NP + VP+ Comp →S= VP + NP + Comp

S= NP + VP+ Comp → S= VP + NP + Comp

S= NP + VP + ϕ →S= VP + NP + ϕ

S= NP+ Comp →S=VP+NP+Co

2.4 The Origin of the English Language

Historically, the English language began with the invasion of the Germanic tribes of Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes were known as Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes. Before that time, the inhabitants of Britain spoke Celtic. After the expulsion of the Celtic speakers to the west and the north by the invaders, the Angles who came from “England” spread their language, "English." The flourishing of the English language in history started and developed through three main periods which are: Old English (Anglo-Saxon), Middle English and Modern English

2.4.1 Old English: according to some historians, English existed in Britain even before the coming of the Anglo-Saxons. It arrived as a distinct entity. The artefacts proved that the old English period was between 450 until 1100AD. Old English was spoken by most the invaders of Britain, despite that, the linguistic situation of this language is unknown during that period, there were no written records. The native speaker of English nowadays cannot understand ~~the~~ old English as a whole because Modern English and old English are different. Old English is the root of the most of the words that exist in Modern English such as (*sunne* (“sun”), *mōna* (“the moon”) and *wīf* (“woman/wife”). The system of writing of old English started to develop and vary through the regions during the seventh, eighth and ninth centuries. The ninth century was a turning point in the history of ~~the~~ old English, as it was named “ENGLISH” by Alfred the Great. They also started to be affected by the invaders’ language who settled in Britain at that time, such as the Norsemen’s language by borrowing some words like *take* and *give*. As a result, Old English showed some similarities with the invaders’ languages.

2.4.2 Middle English began in 1100 and lasted until 1500. The vocabulary of Middle English was heavily influenced by the Anglo-Saxon language in addition to the simplicity of its inflection system. While old English grammar is known for its difficulty, changes have occurred during the Middle English period, such as the disappearance of the grammatical gender and the construction of propositions which made the language much easier. After the conquest of England in 1066 by the Duke of Normandy, William the Conqueror; the French language became the language of the royal court and the people of the business class. The coming of the Normans put an end to the literary traditions of old

English. The French language, the language was spoken by the Normans, created a kind of linguistic class division. The people were divided into upper-class speakers of French, and lower-class speakers of English. After a while, marriage between French and English peoples started to spread, and bilingual children were produced. As a result of bilingualism, English was heavily influenced by French: the words *table*, *president*, *colour*, *roast*, *garage*, *religion* are all French words borrowed into English. In the 14th century, this language became the main language used in Britain.

2.4.3 Modern English:

The early Modern English period started from 1500 to 1800. Most changes occurred in the sound and spelling systems. The introductions of the Great Vowel Shift created big development in pronunciation. Many historical and social factors affected the spoken language in Britain because of the vast communication of this country with people around the world through trade or war. As a result, the pronunciation of vowel sounds became shorter and shorter until they were completely gone and new word and phrases were absorbed into the language. Grammar usage and spelling were established, and the London dialect was considered the standard. Since 1430, a spelling standard was established thanks to the great effort of The Chancery of Westminster. The established project was documented by giving words a permanent spelling: such as the word *I*, *cannot*, *shall*, *but*, *though*, *could*. At that time, printing played a significant role in controlling the language features, and people were encouraged and started to read.

The late Modern English period began to grow by the end of 1800. This period shows a big difference from the Old Modern English in vocabulary, but no changes occurred in grammar, spelling, and pronunciation. The industrial revolution and technology are the principal factors in creating many new words. English embraced some foreign words. The early 19th century witnessed a significant change in words because of the industrial revolution; new topics were introduced such as materials, equipment, industry, manufacturing. Thus, the language developed to achieve the needed requirements, words such as *train*, *reservoir*, *the engine* started to be used.

In the 20th century, 185, 000 new words were recorded in Oxford from the beginning to the end of the century which represents 25% growth in English words over this century, and this is the strongest expansion period since the 16th century. Globalisation and technological advancements in the 20th century led the English language to create and establish new words, like camouflage, blockbuster, television, broadcast, shocked to become standard English words. Moreover, the appearance of minority groups such as the LGBT and feminists also helped in the spread of new words like gay, nigger, lesbian, chairman, mankind. On the other hand, the rapid growth in the economy, electronics and computer technology in the USA and the spread of software from Microsoft, Apple, IBM, led to words such as online, email, download, screen, and hashtag. In addition, abbreviated words such as lol, plz, creates conflict between scholars in terms of usage in standard language. Any language will continue to change and develop commiserating with the changes in society and language use.

2.4.4 The Structure of the English Language:

A phrase is a group of words. It contains a main word and the other words associated with it. In English, the phrases are divided into five: noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), adjective phrase (AdjP), adverb phrase (AdvP), and prepositional phrase.'

a. The noun phrase (NP) is based on the noun; it consists of a determiner, optional adjective, a noun, optional prepositional phrase

*-The noun phrase always starts with a determiner

*The determiner does not occur in 1) the phrase initiated with a pronoun (as the pronoun is considered a noun phrase), 2) with plural nouns, non-countable noun, and proper nouns

The big red **car** →DET+ADJ+ADJ+N

The **noise** of the children in the class →DET+N+PP+PP

Hot **water** →Determiner [] +ADJ+N

We→Pronoun

b. The verb phrase based on the verb, the verb phrase includes a verb and all subsequent words that build a simple sentence except the subject.

*in English, a verb phrase can be called a predicate

*noun phrases and prepositional phrases are optional in the verb phrase

*when "to be" is the head verb in the verb phrase, it must be followed by a noun phrase or an adjective phrase, and the prepositional phrase is optional

VP====V (NP) (PP)n

[Jhon] plays =====V

[Jhon] plays two video games =====V+NP

[Jhon] plays two video games at home===== V+NP+PP

VP be → {NP (PP)n}

{PPn}

{AdjP (pp)n}

[Marry] is a teacher=====V

[Marry]is in the classroom =====V+PP

[Marry] is a teacher of handicap children===== V+NP+PP

[Marry] is a sympathetic with the children ===V+AdjP+PP

c. The Adjective phrase is the phrase based on the adjective. It consists of one or more adjectives and an adverb modifier of these adjectives. Moreover, it is divided into attributive adjective phrases (as a part of the noun phrase) and predicated adjective phrases (part of the verb phrase).

*The adjective in the attributive phrase occurs between the determiner and the noun

*The adjective in the predictive phrase occurs after the verb (to be) or other linking verbs.

AdjP → (ADV)n (ADJ)n

* The adjective phrase in the coming examples is bold and the adjectives are underlined.

The butterfly is an **amazingly charming** insect. (attributive adjective)

Celine Dion is **gorgeous, beautiful** and **famous**. (predicate adjective)

d. The Adverb phrase: it is a phrase based on the adverb. It usually contains an adverb or more

The adverb phrase usually occurs at the end of the sentence, but sometimes it occurs at the beginning. They are used to denote place and time or express manner and degree.

*the adverb phrase in the illustrated example is bold whereas the adverb is underlined.

AdvP → (ADV) nADV

The bus is arriving **right now**.

The lecturer presented his paper **extremely quickly**.

Very gently, the mother switched off the light

e. The prepositional phrase: it is based on a preposition. It usually starts with a preposition followed by a noun phrase.

PP → PREP NP

Under the sea=====PREP+NP [DET+N]

In the evening =====PREP+NP [DET+N]

On the roof **of** the house =====PREP+NP [DET+N+PP]

At his room **in** the building===== PREP+NP [DET (his)+N+PP]

2.5 Conjunctions in Arabic

Most of the Arab grammarians treat conjunctions as linking devices coordinating words, phrases, clauses, and sentence as their basic function. In classical Arabic, the grammarians were interested in conjunctions and tried to come up with a precise description for using this device [*al- 'i'ra:b*] which is the case or mood inflection. Whereas the textual function that the conjunctions fulfil has been neglected or ignored. However, in recent times, many discourse analysts focused on the textual functions of conjunctions in the Arabic language such as Wright (1974), Cantarino (1975), Al-Jubouri (1983), Williams (1989), and Holes (1995).

The Syntax of Modern Arabic Prose is a famous book published in (1975). In it, Cantarino emphasised the connectives in Arabic and tried to come up with a detailed description and accurate analysis of the syntactic and semantic features as a cohesive category. He also investigated how a single conjunction can have different functions and

perform in various contexts. The connective particles which are often used in Arabic are: [wa] 'and' [fa] 'and/then' [thumma] 'then' ['am] 'or' ['aw] 'or' [la:kinna and [la:kin] 'but'. In this study, these conjunctions will be analysed, to see how they are used and what are their equivalents in English and their cohesive function. The Arabic conjunctions or [alawatif], 'adawa: t-u- l-rabt] or [Hu:ru: f-u- l-'atf] as named by Arab grammarians can be either be separable and inseparable.

2.5.1 The inseparable conjunctions: these conjunctions appear as prefixes to the words they follow as they cannot stand alone as a separate word

a. [wa] 'And': it connects simple words and clauses, is the most used particle in Arabic. Clive Holes (1995: 217) mentioned that [wa] is the primitive conjunctive particle. It is most commonly encountered as a sentence connective and has the widest variety of uses analogous in these aspects to English 'and'. Unlike English 'and,' [wa] regularly functions as a textual as well as a sentence connective.

b. [fa] 'So': according to some linguists, the conjunctive particle "fa" can coordinate and at the same time indicate the development of an idea in a narrative. It is called "particle of classification." Furthermore [fa] always signifies a relationship between two clauses or two paragraphs of a text. For example, when the particle "fa" appears in a paragraph, generally the second clause will describe the action that occurs as a result of the first clause. In more detail, we can say that the particle [fa] has many functions as it can semantically express causal and result functions, adversative relations, sequential and explanatory relations as approved by Thabit and Farah (2006).

c. [li] ‘For’: a conjunction is used for commands (*lam alamr*) when it occurs as a prefix in the third person singular it gives the verb an imperative sense. [li] also can be (*lam alnasiba*) when it occurs before the verb in the subjunctive imperfect and signifies that, as, in order that, so that. [li] is also used to indicate the reason why or the purposes for which things are done (*lam altaleel*), it occurs as a prefix with other conjunctions [likai] means (in order to, that) [lian] means (because, for).

2.5.2 The separable conjunctions: these conjunctions appear separately and are not prefixed:

a. [ið] ‘when, since’: it used in the past time, it occurs as a prefix with either a verbal or a nominal preposition, [*ith ma*]it means [whenever].

b. [iðā:] ‘If’: when it denotes future time and applies the condition, it always occurs as a prefix in a verbal proposition.

c. [θumma] ‘Then’: it is also considered one of the conjunctions usually used in Arabic and is a signal sequential action similar to [*wa*].

As a consequence of its temporal meaning, ‘*θumma*’ usually implies that the action of the preceding sentence has been completed thus introducing a new event or situation.

d. [la:kinna] and [la:kin] ‘But’: The Arab grammarians show that there is no difference between the two particles. [*la: kinna*] is the basic form and [*la: kin*] is the light form derived from it, their function to denote a general meaning of [*istidrak*] as called by Arab grammarians, in English is ‘concessive.’ Thus, we can say that they are particles indicate adversative meaning. Therefore, the function of these particles is to express adversative relations to the preceded situation as asserted by Cantarino (1975):

“[*la:kin*] presents a statement in adversative coordination to one which is a precedent. [*la: kinna*] on the other hand stresses the function of one part within a sentence in an adversative relationship to another sentence” (p. 49).

e. **[*aw*] ‘and’ [*am*] ‘or’**: these two conjunctive particles have the meaning of “or” in English. However, in Arabic, there is a difference:

“[*aw*] is the disjunctive conjunction frequently used in Arabic. It can be found in any position when a disjunctive is to be expressed; however, it can only be used in affirmative or interrogative sentences [...] [*aw*] may also connect a sequence of two or more dependent clauses with a disjunctive meaning” Cantarino (1975: 49).

Its main function as described by Beeston (1968: 57) is: [*aw*] is a connective linking two items which are mutually exclusive possibilities of such a nature that they could be marked in English by [the correlative conjunction] ‘either ... or alternatively ...’ [e. g. ‘*qad taSduq-u qiSSatuh-u’ aw tazi: f-u*] ‘his story may be true or false’. Modern usage, however, tends to extend the use of [*aw*] to all contexts where English uses ‘or’. And, just as in English ‘or’ can be reinforced by a preceding ‘either’ this can be represented in Arabic by [*imma*]. [*am*] ‘or’ is an alternative conjunction. In Arabic, Cantarino (1975) summed up its function by suggesting that [*am*] “generally introduces the second of two interrogative sentences presenting an alternative. Contrary to [*aw*] [*am*] frequently implies a condition of exclusion in one of the two sentences” (p. 50).

f. **[*amma*] ‘As for, As regard’** (when it followed by [*fa*] in the same sentence).

g. **[*an*] ‘That, So that, In order that’**, [*an*] also used in introducing direct quotation, and even used as an imperative. When it connects with some particles, compounds occur such as [*kaan*] which means as it were, as if.

h. **[*lian*] ‘That, In order that, Because.’**

i. [*ilaan*], [*ghairaan*] ‘But’

j. [in] and [imma] ‘If, And if’ conditional particles which mean if, when compounded with [wa] it becomes [wain] it means and if, and it became [lain] that means verily if, if indeed when compounded with [li].

When [in] and [laa] are compounded, the conjunctive particle that occurs is [illa] that can be: a) means if not or, b) an exceptive particle that means unless, except, saving, but when it preceded by negative.

The conjunctive [zimma] means either when it occurs with [aw], it means [imma] [aw] means either, or...

k. [anna] ‘That’ it usually followed by a noun, it can also be followed by a pronominal suffix of the first person singular to be [zannani] that I, and plural to be [annana] that we. As compounds, it can be [kazanna] as it were, as if, and [lianna] because.

l. [cindama] ‘When.’

m. [kay] ‘In order that’ it is a particle that assigns a reason or motive with the subjunctive and it compounds [likay] in order that’ and [kaylaa] ‘in order that it does not’.

n. [lamma] also [lamma an] ‘After, When, As, Since.’ When [lamma] is used after the verb “to beseech” and its synonyms, it shares the meaning of [illa] ‘unless’.

o. [law] ‘If’, it is a hypothetical particle when it compounds with other particles it becomes:

a) [lawlaa], [lawlam] and [lawmaa] which mean if not, b) [walaw] even though’.

p. [maa] ‘As long as’, it denotes duration when used with the perfect.

q. [mata] ‘When’ or [matamaa] means ‘whenever’.

2.5.3 Relative pronouns: the relative pronouns in Arabic have the characteristics of nouns especially in number, gender, and grammatical category. Table 2.1 will clearly present them in details.

Table 2.1 The types of Arabic conjunctions selected for this study analysis.

Inseparable Conjunction		Separable		Relative Pronouns	
[wa]	‘And’	[ið]	when, since	[allati:] (feminine, singular)	who, which, what, that
[fa]	‘So’	[iða:]	If	[allaði:] (masculine, singular)	who, what, which, that,
[li]	‘For’	[θumma]	then	[allaði:na] (masculine, plural)	who, what, which, that
		[la:kinna]& [la:kin]	but	[man] (human)	who,
		[aw] ‘and’ [am]	Or	[ma:] (non-human)	that, which, what
		[amma]	as for, as regard	al-lathaana(i) (dual,	who, that, which

				(masculine, subject)	
		[<i>an</i>]	that, so that, in order that,	<i>al-lathayn(i)</i> (dual, masculine, object)	who, that, which
		[<i>lian</i>]	that, in order that, because	<i>al-lataan(i)</i> (dual, femenine, subject)	who, that, which
		[<i>ilaan</i>], [<i>ghairaan</i>]	but	<i>al-latayn(i)</i> (dual, femenine, object)	who, that, which
		[<i>in</i>] and [<i>imma</i>]	if, and if	<i>al-lawaa^{tee}</i> (femenine, plural)	who, that, which
		[<i>anna</i>]	that	' <i>al-laate^e</i> (femenine, plural)	who, that, which
		[<i>indama</i>]	when		
		[<i>kay</i>]	in order that		

		<i>lamma</i>] also	after, when,		
		[<i>lamma an</i>]	as, since		
		[<i>law</i>]	If		
		[<i>maa</i>]	as long as,		
		[<i>mata</i>]	when		

2.6 Conjunctions in English

Conjunctions are the fourth type of cohesive tie proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976). In English, conjunctions are classified with function words such as pronouns, auxiliary, verb, preposition, and determiner. Its basic function is to tie or conjoin two or more grammatical elements (word, phrase, or clauses). Cook (1989) considered conjunctions as formal indicators that make the reader draw attention to the connection between one sentence to another. Conjunctions are also defined as the cohesive device which shows the length of a text and “elaborates extends or enhances another, earlier span text” (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004: 539). Conjunctions in grammar are divided into three categories, which are coordinators, subordinators, and adverbials as mentioned in The Grammar Book by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999).

Coordinating conjunctions were said (a) to conjoin syntactically equivalent constituents and (b) to lead the listener/ reader to certain interpretations of the way that clauses relate to each other meaningfully. Adverbial subordinators for students and conjunctive adverbials are often called logical connectors. Like some uses of coordinating conjunctions, logical connectors are typically said to be types of cohesive devices, lexical expressions that may add little or no prepositional content by themselves but that serve to specify the relationships among sentences in oral or

written discourse, thereby leading the listener/reader to the feeling that the sentences “hang together” or make sense (p. 519).

Coordinators are short and simple words, and they are a small number. According to Hacker (2000), coordinating devices are used to connect between two or more similar ideas; they are also called single coordinators e. g. (and, but, so, yet, for, nor, or). Sometimes they appear as a correlative pair such as (both... and), (not only... but also), (either... or) and (neither... nor) and they are named correlating coordinators. They can conjoin words, phrases, and sentences (clauses).

Subordinators differ from coordinators. As mentioned by Lieber (1981), subordinators allow the clauses freedom of movement. They are linking words used to join clauses together such as although, since, after, before, as, until, while the subordinator conjunctions initiate some types of the subordinate clause, and in others are not such as in the relative clause.

Adverbials can be in one-word items such as however, next, conversely or phrasal construction like ‘in other words’, or a sentence with modified elements. The adverbials function in sequencing segments in the text by using words like firstly, secondly, finally. They are also used as a temporal sequencing of the information, e. g., then, after that.

To distinguish between subordinating conjunctions and adverbial conjunctions, we have to look at their usage in the text.

→The conjunctive adverb must follow the main clause whereas the subordinating conjunctions can either precede or follow the main clause.

→The conjunctive adverb’s position within the clause is flexible, but the subordinating conjunctions can only appear at the beginning of the secondary clause.

2.6.1 Conjunctions of English at the Discourse Level

The conjunctions in our present study are studied semantically based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy. They are the first to promote the semantic characteristics of conjunctions and classified them into four different categories according to the relationship they present, which are additive, adversative, temporal and causal.

To find a precise description of the use of conjunctions, this study adopts Yu's (1990) attempt in interpreting Halliday and Hasan's four classes of conjunctions.

Additives: The connectives that link units of semantic similarity. The additives introduce discourse units that repeat and emphasise the key points or add relevant new information to the prior expression.

Adversatives: The connectives that bring in the expressions that are contrary to expectation. The expressions indicate a contrary result or opinion to the content mentioned previously. In this sense, the adversatives signal the beginning of a different viewpoint.

Causals: The connectives are used to introduce result reason or purpose. The clauses connected are related to each other either in the cause and effect relationship or the conditional relation.

Temporals: The connectives that express the time order of events. To manifest the temporal relations of successive and simultaneous events, this theory includes the preceding sequential and simultaneous connectives...

The table below explains in detail the types of conjunctions. The table is adopted from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 242 as cited by Tsareva, 2010).

Table 2.2 the Classification of Conjunctions by Halliday and Hasan (1976)

Category	Subcategories	Examples	
Additive	Simple	And, nor, or	From a marketing viewpoint, the popular tabloid encourages the reader to read the whole page instead of choosing stories. In addition, isn't that what any publisher wants?
	Complex	Furthermore, alternatively	
	Comparative opposition	Likewise, by contrast, that is, for instance	
Adversative	Adversative (proper)	Yet, but, however,	The eldest son works on the farm the second son worked in the blacksmith's shop, but the youngest son left home to seek his fortune
	Contrastive	In fact, on the other hand	
	Corrective	Instead, rather	
	Dismissive	In any case anyhow	
Causal	Causal, general	So, consequently	

	Causal specific	For this reason, as a result	Chinese tea is becoming increasingly popular in restaurants and even in coffee shops. This is because of the growing belief that it has several health-giving properties
	Reversed causal	For, because, it follows	
	Conditional respective	In that case, otherwise, in this respect, aside from this	
Temporal	Temporal Simple		The students need to accomplish their studies then think about their career.
	Complex	At once, meanwhile, until then	
	Internal temporal	Next, secondly, then	
	Correlative forms	First, then, in the end, finally	
	Here and now	Up to now, from now on	
	Summary	To sum up, in short	

2.7 Related Theories

2.7.1 Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesion (1976):

Halliday and Hasan's theory of cohesion as well as coherence, has led to the emergence of research on its significance in different fields especially language learning. Studies have both supported or rejected their theory. As mentioned before, Halliday and Hasan strongly

emphasise the connection of cohesion and coherence in texts and are significant in assisting one's language learning. Researchers such as Biber (1988) and Myers (1989) have advanced their analysis on cohesive devices. Their investigations mainly focus on English language corpora of printed texts. They found out that demonstrative pronouns, as well as coordination conjunction, often appear in written academic discourse due to its aspect in bringing contextual ties between sentences. Since then, the studies of L2 instruction related to explicit types of devices such as coordinating conjunctions and sentence transitions were taken into account in research studies. Reid (1993) claims that it is common to teach the explicit usage of conjunctions such as sentence transitions and coordinating conjunctions in an L2 writing class.

ESL writers usually make use of various types of cohesion in contrast to native speakers of English that Reid further affirms how vital it is for students to learn text cohesion and coherence in building an understandable text. McCarthy (1991) also supports Halliday and Hasan's opinion on the importance of cohesive ties by stating that cohesion and cohesive devices are often crucial in English texts thus making it as an essential lesson to be taught in reading and writing class. He also notes that one of the problems faced by non-native speakers (NNSs) is their inability to understand how cohesive and logical ties work and how to make use of them in texts which require more emphasis in language classrooms. Scott (1996) also highlights the need for learners to be taught on L2 linguistic and lexical means of cohesion in written texts because they tend to change from L1 to L2 abstract and syntactic devices in producing a unified text even if the parallel devices do not exist in L2.

Despite several past studies which support the importance of cohesion and other research which uphold a significant connection between cohesive ties and students' writing performance (Jin, 2001; Liu and Braine, 2005), there is still some evidence which shows that the study of cohesion is unimportant. Pritchard (1981) as stated in Ramadan (2003) did a study on cohesive ties in the good and poor essays of grade 11 students. From the study, she discovered that the usage of lexical and grammatical cohesive ties including conjunctions do not signify good and poor essays. Thus, she summarised that the effectiveness of producing a good essay does not rely on the use of cohesive ties. Brown and Yule (1983) opposed Halliday and Hasan who strongly highlight cohesive ties as significant and vital in English.

Brown and Yule (1983) believe that cohesion is not enough for the recognition of a text. They argue whether cohesive ties are necessary for identifying a text. One of their arguments is that a reader can assume the "semantic relations" in text and are capable of inferring sentences through preceding ones thus, the "explicit realisation of semantic relations" is not required. Similarly, Carrell's study (1982) was also against such theory by proposing that text cohesion derived from grammatical and lexical connective ties is not essential. She firmly explained that cohesion is achieved from coherence which readers gain the ideas through their background knowledge and text schemata. Carrell further clarified that in educating non-native speakers specifically on L2 writing, cohesive ties should be regarded as less important compared to the flow of ideas in a text.

2.7.2 Katz and Fodor's Componential Analysis (1963)

The explicit and direct meaning of words; taken from the dictionary (denotative words) can be explained by using the method of componential analysis (CA). Pioneered by Katz and Fodor (1963), the componential analysis is a method to describe words through semantic features by analysing its structure. By employing this technique, meanings of words or lexemes can be dissected into smaller components which can be distinguished among lexemes or group of lexemes (Jackson, 1988:79). The meanings of words are described by sets of semantic features; which appear to be 'present', 'absent', or 'indifferent concerning feature.' According to Saeed (2009:260), the symbol '+' indicates that the feature is present, '-' indicates that the feature is absent, and '±' shows that it can be present or absent. For example, when the word cry is dissolved to its semantic features, it could derive three different meanings such as [+SOUND], [+LOUD], and [+VOCAL]. The word cry could be interpreted as loud, vocal sound. They could be accepted as synonymous and are accepted as the definitions of cry. According to Nida (1975: 182), there are three fundamental types of semantic features. The features are: (1) the common features in which meanings are shared when evaluated; (2) the diagnostic feature which differentiates the meanings of a lexical item such as size and shape; and (3) the supplementary feature – added features that are important to explain all areas of meanings but may not be directly related in comparing a set of linguistic meaning. Jackson (2009:91-92) firmly claims that Componential Analysis has become a significant method of describing meanings of lexemes.

As mentioned by Jackson, CA has contributed in many ways. It guides learners to understand synonymy as a word can share the same set of semantic groups as well as create degrees of synonymy. Furthermore, CA also helps them to grasp what the antonyms are, comprehend the relationship of hyponymy in facilitating the translator to come out with an accurate translation of written texts which becomes an important matter in interpreting and as related to the present study, assist learners to distinguish words of different languages. Componential analysis, undoubtedly, plays a significant role in the area of translation.

Newmark (1988: 96) illustrates the usage of CA as “the most accurate translation procedure, which excludes the culture and highlights the message.” Such statement might seem too extreme, but his claim was supported by other translation scholars such as Holzhausen (1981) and Vossoughi (1996) who have strongly discussed the application of CA in the translation field. Newmark explains that the fundamental process is to distinguish between an SL (source language) word with TL (target language) word that shares the same meaning, but not necessarily have the comparable one-to-one meaning, by analysing their common and different components (1988: 114).

In other words, to apply CA requires an SL and TL words assumed to be equal to be examined per word in their respective language. Thus, the degree of similarity can be analysed by evaluating their constituting semes. However, translators have to formulate an idea in mind by knowing a range of semes in the SL and TL. The example below is illustrated with the word cry and shriek (Garcia, 2008): Cry: [+SOUND] [+LOUD] Shriek: [+SOUND] [+LOUD] [+HIGH-PITCHED] [+ANGER] Based on the above componential analyses, the sentence (1) John heard a shriek coming from the basement has the same meaning as (2) John heard a high-pitched cry of anger coming from the basement. In this

particular example, the semes are not word-particular. The word 'cry' and 'shriek' share the seme [+SOUND] [+LOUD]. Thus, the semantic of any lexical item can be derived through hyperonym with a sense of metalanguage of its semes.

This theory upholds the assumption that the translator's semantic insight of a source word is sufficient to assess accurately a word's communicative significance. The examples also show that an intralingual mechanism can describe CA in reaching semantic correspondence between different languages.

There are still some issues encountered in establishing the semantic unit of lexemes (Nida, 1975: 61-64). Some of the problems are insufficient metalanguage in distinguishing the difference such as colour and range of views especially regarding spatial relations; failure in describing abstract terminologies and varied terms only exist in the level of intensity. Componential analysis is also limited in a sense that it does not help in differentiating vocabulary in all fields. When semantic components are determined, inequitable relations of meanings will exist that makes us understand the meaning of words through such contrast.

Apart from the problem, another limitation of the theory is due to its application of referential meaning. The theory is applied through the connection between the lexical unit and the referent, as well as the meanings of lexemes which focus on objects. Thus, Nida (1975:25) asserts the importance to reflect that not every word contains referents.

2.7.3 Blum-Kulka's Shift of Cohesion and Coherence (1986) Componential Analysis is a technique of structural semantics which examines the structure of lexemes; thus, disclose culturally essential features by which speakers of the language discriminate varied words in a domain. It means that a word can be categorised into varieties with distinct

elements or components of meaning (Palmer, 1976). For the present study, when CA is applied in a study on cohesion, it is vital to look at how the shift in the level of cohesive markers seems to affect translation. Blum-Kulka (1986) adopts an approach that is called communicative and discourse approach which dresses the issue of cohesion and coherence shifts in translating written texts. As other translation advocates, she distinguishes between coherence and cohesion. She defines them by referring to cohesion as an overt relationship which attaches all parts of the text, shown by linguistic markers while coherence as a covert relationship that is interpreted by the reader or listener (Blum-Kulka, 1986: 17).

Regarding shift in cohesion, Blum-Kulka (1986:18-23) introduces two major types: (1) shifts in the level of explicitness and (2) shifts in text meaning. Shifts in the level of explicitness refer to the varied usage of grammar between languages due to changes in the type of devices that are employed to signal cohesion in the ST and TT. The types of shifts are often related to the variation of stylistic preferences in the cohesive markers chosen in two or more languages that are selected in the translation. Blum-Kulka (1986) clarifies that cohesive patterns can be divided into three different forms in TL texts: a) cohesive patterns in TL texts is approximately similar to TL texts of the same register; b) cohesive patterns in TL texts reflect the norms of SL texts in the same register, which may be the cause of transfer processes on the translation; and c) cohesive patterns in neither TL nor SL norms oriented, but form a system of their own, probably presenting a process of implication (cited in Beikian et al., 2013).

The level of textual explicitness might be higher or lower in the ST compared to TT. Shifts in text meaning are related to the changes in the explicit and implicit meaning of the ST through the translation process. It is explained vividly in what Blum-Kulka mentioned

as “explication hypothesis.” This term is defined as “an observed cohesive explicitness from the ST to TT regardless of the increase traceable to differences between two linguistic and textual system involved” (p.300). Blum-Kulka explains that when the process of translation is undergone, it may lead to a TT that is much more redundant or explicit than the ST. Unfortunately, Blum-Kulka does not explain how it leads to such redundancy.

Blum-Kulka further elaborates that contrastive stylistics should be carried out first to analyse the cohesive patterns in the SL and TL before the translations to and from both languages should be studied to identify the types of shifts that occur. Blum-Kulka’s approach somehow puts forward an agreement that a TT might appear more explicit than in the ST. Nevertheless, she still admits that the hypothesis contains obligatory exploitation (“linguistic” systems differences) and optional explication (“textual” systems differences).

Explication is one of the translation features that was first introduced by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) before Blum-Kulka (1986) expanded the study to a more systematic approach. Explication, as defined by Olohan (2002: 155), refers to “the spelling out in the target text of information which is only implicit in a source text. Saldanha (2008) on the other hand, describes explication as a “strategy which may not be linked to the implicitness in the original text, but with interpreter’s assumptions regarding readership and about their positions as literary and cultural mediators” (p. 28).

Frankenberg-Garcia (2009) defines explication as obligatory or voluntary. Obligatory explication is used when the grammar of the target language forces additional information to be added though it is absent while voluntary explication occurs voluntarily; not because of the grammatical cause but to improve the comprehensibility of the translated version. Some studies were done by focusing on the issue of explication in translation.

Schlesinger's (1989; 1995) research proposes explication hypothesis to be employed in oral and written translations. She discovers that translators apply shifts in cohesion in interpreting concurrently, both from Hebrew to English and vice versa which advocates the translator to provide implicit forms more explicitly despite the languages used. Van Leuven-Zwart (1990), on the other hand, states that the "addition, deletion or replacement of function words may cause shift concerning the degree of explicitness through which cohesion is achieved" (p. 81).

In 1997, Chesterman regarded cohesion amendment as one of the syntactic techniques which "influence intra-textual reference, ellipsis, substitution, pronominalisation, and repetition, or the use of connectors of various kinds" (p. 98).

In his study, he explains the methods employed in explicitness among the pragmatic strategies which also include explication and implication. There are some problems with Blum-Kulka's Explication Hypothesis. One of them is what Blum-Kulka mentioned in her latter paper by paraphrasing that "explication is a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation" (1986: 21). However, Becher (2010) claims that the term 'strategy' is indistinct. It is unclear as Blum-Kulka does not mention whether it is a conscious or unconscious strategy. In a research done by Olohan and Baker (2000), they seem to deduce that it is referring to the subconscious strategy while Øverås (1998) seems to interpret it as a conscious strategy. In fact, it is not clear whether both researchers, Olohan and Baker, as well as Øverås, are analysing the same thing despite the used of Blum-Kulka's theory as their fundamental studies.

2.8 Related Studies:

In 2005, the Chinese researcher Leung tried to compare between the use of conjunctions among Chinese students from Hong Kong and American students. Just three conjunctions were chosen in this study namely *and*, *but* and *or*, and the functions and positions of these conjunctions are taken into account. The HKBU (Hong Kong Baptist University), Corpus of Learner English and HKUST (Hong Kong University of Science and Technology) Corpus of Learner English, are two corpuses chosen for this study which consists of argumentative and descriptive essays. The results show that the Chinese students used fewer conjunctions and more connectors in comparison with the American students. The researcher related these results to the interference of the first language or Chinese to the second language or English.

Research conducted by Li (2009) on the use of conjunctions in L2 writing among 20 Japanese students at university considered accuracy, fluency, and complexity in writing English as L2. The findings show that the usage of conjunctions and adverbs by the participants was insufficient. Li also declares that the richness of L1 can affect the writing in L2, specifically regarding conjunctions and adverbs.

A recent study by Beikian et al. (2013) investigated the conjunctive relations in the Gharbraei's Persian translation of *The Kite Runner* and the original version of the novel written by Khalid Hussein in 2003. The study focused on the explication hypothesis by Blum-Kulka (1986). The results of the study showed that explication occurs more in the translation apart from implication, thus changes the meaning of the translated novel. Moreover, the study proved that in comparison with the four conjunctive relations, the temporal relation is portrayed explicitly in the TT, unlike the additive, adversative, and causal. The study investigated that meaning change caused by shifts as a result of the explication process.

A few studies have involved Arabic and English, specifically regarding cohesions ties. Khalil (2002) analysed cohesion in 20 compositions. The participants of this study are 20 Arab EFL university students. To investigate the relationship between cohesion and coherence, Halliday and Hasan's model was used, and the analyses showed that there was an underuse of the grammatical cohesive device and overuse of reiteration of the same lexical item mostly used by the Arab EFL learner as a cohesive device. (0: 18) Was the rate of the correlations of coherence score and the cohesive device number was very low. Ezza (2010) declared that achieving cohesion and coherence in writing is typically related to the use and employment of new approaches in the teaching of writing. Achili (2007) supported the same idea in her study and concluded that the methods in teaching coherence could help the student improve their writing abilities and achieve a coherent text.

2.9 Summary

The main concepts this study focuses on are discussed in this chapter such as discourse, text, texture, translation. This chapter also sheds light on the relationship of cohesion and conjunctions as well as the conjunctions and their usage in both Arabic and English. I also explained in detail the theories chosen for this study and mentioned the past studies related to our study to fulfil the theoretical part of the research.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the framework of this research by presenting the theories used, the analytical tools, followed by the details of the analytical procedure. This study aims to analyse the semantic analysis of conjunctions from the selected Arabic novel and its English translation. The study is qualitative in nature.

3.2. Theoretical Framework

This study will be based on Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesion (1976), Componential Analysis by Katz and Fodor (1963) and Shifts of Cohesion and Coherence in Translation by Blum-Kulka (1986).

3.2.4 Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesion

Conjunctions are a type of cohesive device to tie clauses and sections within a text to help create a meaningful pattern between them. Moreover, conjunctions do not depend on any particular sequence in the text, unlike the other three cohesive ties: reference, ellipsis, and substitution. According to Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy, conjunctions are divided into additive, adversative, causal, and temporal.

- a. Additive adds information to support an earlier statement.
- b. Adversative shows the contrast between two arguments.
- c. Causal depicts the cause-effect relationship.
- d. Temporal relates two arguments in time series.

In light of Halliday and Hasan’s taxonomy (1976), this study regards conjunctions as tools of text building. We will examine how they bind one sentence to another, and their usage as logical devices of cohesion. This study indicates how the writer uses these cohesive devices to let the reader relates what has been said with what will be said to ensure that the meaning and the semantic relation is realised. This process creates grammatical cohesion in the text.

Table 3.1 Halliday and Hasan’s Taxonomy of Cohesion (1976)

Cohesion ties			
Grammatical			
Reference	Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunction
1-Personal	1- Nominal		1- Additive
2-Demonstrative	2- Verbal		2- Adversative
3-Comparative	3- Clausal		3- Causal
			4- Temporal

3.2.5 Componential Analysis by Katz and Fodor (1963)

Katz and Fodor (1963) first proposed componential analysis (CA). It refers to the presumption that a word can be defined by its semantic feature. It is also considered a technique of structural semantics that examines the structure of the lexeme. It also discloses culturally essential features by which speakers of the language discriminate between varied words in a domain. This means that a word can be categorised into distinct elements or components of meaning (Palmer, 1976). Components are grouped into common components which are shared by all lexemes in the same lexical field, and diagnostic components which differentiate the meaning from others in the same domain. This classification follows Jackson's *Words and their Meanings* (1996) and Nida's *Componential Analysis of Meaning* (1975).

The description of the meaning of lexemes are expressed through binary components: * * [+] The plus symbol denotes the presence of the information.

* [-] The minus symbol indicates the absence of the information.

In this study, we put + symbol to indicate that the words share the same meaning as in Then [+next, +subsequently, + after that and we put –symbol if the words do not have the same meaning]. Then [-earlier. -before that]

Both Arabic and English languages base their usage of conjunctions on semantic significance otherwise these conjunctions would be semantically unacceptable. Moreover, the grammatical process of conjunctions in these two languages either at the word or the sentence level is semantically regulated and does not take place haphazardly.

The application of Componential Analysis by Katz and Fodor (1963) in this study allows for an in-depth analysis of semantic features to determine the extent the pair are identical or different. Through this analysis, we can determine that there are some semantic

conditions that need to be observed if we want to achieve syntactic structures that are acceptable semantically.

3.2.6 The shift of Cohesion and Coherence in Translation by Blum-Kulka (1986)

This study analyses *Shifts in Cohesion* by Blum-Kulka. The linguist Blum-Kulka (1986) theorises that shifts in the level of cohesive markers affect translations, changes in the level of explicitness and/or shifts in text meaning. First, the shift in the level of explicitness through translations has been attributed to differences in stylistic preferences for types of cohesive devices in the two languages involved in translation. Thus, textual explicitness could be higher or lower than the source text. Second, a shift in textual meaning refers to explicit and implicit meaning potential possible of the source text due to a different target text system through translation as some translated words could create a change in the meaning of the original text. Explicit shifts happen when there is a grammatical or syntactical change during translation without changing the essential meaning. However, an implicit shift occurs when there are changes in meaning from the source language to target language. Due to translation, where grammatical and semantic components are modified, shifts can be explicit and implicit.

The application of Blum-Kulka's framework in this study helps in examining the translation of conjunctions to see the similarities and dissimilarities of English and Arabic conjunctions by examining the reality of the conjunctions shifts when translated from Arabic (Source Text) to English.

3.3 The Corpus

The novel chosen for analysis is *Dhakirat Aljasad* written by Ahlam Mustaghanemi who received her BA in Arabic from the University of Algiers in 1973 and was awarded a doctorate in Sociology from the Sorbonne in 1982. It is a well-known novel published in 1993 and is the first novel written by an Algerian woman in Arabic. It is a prize-winning novel. The novel is concerned with the struggles experienced by Algerians because of foreign domination (French) before and after independence. The events in the novel occur over four decades from 1940 to 1980 and focuses on the love story of Khaled, a militant who participated in the Algerian revolutionary war.

This is the first time the novel will be subjected to linguistic analysis and has been justified regarding its flexibility, universality, and reputation. The original literary text consists of six chapters (300 pages), while the translated version contains the same number of chapters, but the number of pages is 262 pages. The study focuses only on half of the novel since the conjunctions that occur are the same in the remainder of the book. In the Arabic version, the number of pages in the first three chapters are 164 whereas in the English version there are 114 pages. The researcher will concentrate on the semantic aspects of the conjunctions in both languages, and the translation process will not be considered.

3.4 Summary of the Selected Novel

The novel was written by Ahlam Mostaghanmi but the events of this story were told from Khaled's perspective who is the main character in this novel. He was a freedom fighter in Algeria during the French colonisation. His suffering started after he lost his arm in a struggle with the French army during the Algerian revolution. After independence, he left his country because of the poor conditions. He was exiled to Paris and became a

respected artist through his paintings that reflect his sufferings and nostalgia. In this city, he met an Algerian girl and fell in love with her before he realised that she is the daughter of his comrade in arms. Her name is Ahlam, and she is half his age; he remembered her when she was a crawling baby. Khalid started writing the book after their relationship was over. He wrote it when he felt that she betrayed him when she published a book about their story and how it ended. He tried to show us how much he loved her because she was a part of his hometown and a part of his memory.

3.5 Procedure of Analysis

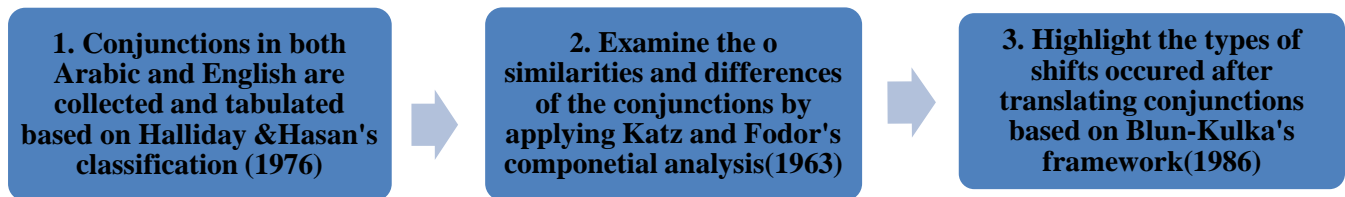
To achieve accurate results, the study will pass through three stages.

First stage: The conjunctions will be searched in the first half of the ST *Dhakhirat Aljasad* (164 pages) and its English version *Memory in the Flesh* (114pages) based on Halliday and Hasan's classification (1976) and will be tabulated.

Second stage: The conjunctions will be manually aligned to examine its semantic features based on Katz and Fodor's (1963) Componential Analysis. The similarities and dissimilarities of the words between Arabic and English will also be presented. *Kamus Almiftah* and *Oxford Word Power* (3rd edition) are used to help in searching the similarities and dissimilarities of each conjunction.

Third stage: To assess the types of shifts using Blum-Kulka's shifts (1986), the shifts of conjunctions are analysed from the ST to TT. The types of shifts that the conjunctions might undergo when translated from Arabic to English will be based on Blum-Kulka's framework.

Chart 3.1: The stages of the data analysis process



To achieve sufficient and agreeable content, the data will be submitted to an expert in Arabic and English, namely Dr. Ahmad Khuddro, Associate Professor of Translation & Interpretation Studies (English, Arabic) at Effat University, Saudi Arabia. A copy of his CV is attached in the Appendix. This analysis will be revised by my supervisor, Dr. Kais Kadhim, according to his long experience in translation studies between Arabic and English. He is a senior lecturer at the University of Malaya, Faculty of Language and Linguistics. His main research interest is translation, stylistics, and semantics. A copy of his CV is found in Appendix.

3.6 Sample of Data Analysis

The source of this study data is the analysis performed on the literary text (novel) as a whole and its translated version. The research focuses on a study of the conjunctions and their usage in both versions of the novel.

The procedures we follow in order to collect the conjunctions occurred in both novels will be explained in the coming steps:

Firstly, the study begins by using the source text (ST). All the conjunctions in the first half of the novel *Dhakirat Aljasad* (1993) and in the English version *Memory in the*

Flesh (2003) are searched manually. They are then listed in table form based on Halliday and Hasan's classification (1976).

As an example, a sample from the analysis of the Arabic conjunction "θumma" and its English translation "Then" will be used to show how the procedures of the analysis are carried out in this study.

Table 4.3.i. Analysis of "θumma" and "Then"

SL	θumma :çodto lizataʔamalaki çasa: ni: ʔaʔido fi: malamihokoma: ʔawaban lidahʔati
TL	I then switched to admiring you in the hope of finding something in the features of both of you that would answer my astonishment.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: θumma: [+CONJ] Then: [CONJ]

Secondly, all the selected conjunctions are aligned manually, and the semantic features are examined based on Katz and Fodor's Componential Analysis (1963). The similarities and differences between the Arabic and the English words will be presented at this stage. *Kamus Almiftah* and *Oxford Word Power* (3rd edition) are used to help search for the similarities and differences of each conjunction.

SL	θumma çodto lizataʔamalaki çasa: ni: ʔaʔido fi: malamihokoma: ʔawaban lidahʔati:
TL	I then switched to admiring you in the hope of finding something in the features of both of you that would answer my astonishment.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: θumma: [+CONJ] Then: [CONJ]

Semantic features of SL and TL	<p>ثم: [+CONJ, +next, +subsequently, +after that, -earlier, -before that]</p> <p>Then: [+CONJ, +next, +subsequently, +after that, -earlier, -before that]</p>
Does the meaning of the original message change from SL to TL?	No change occurs in term of conjunctions used. However, the conjunctions ‘ثم’ and ‘then’ share the same semantic features. Accordingly, there is no change in the meaning of the original message.

Finally, in this stage, we used Blum-Kulka’s Shifts of Cohesion (1986) to assess the type of shifts. The conjunctions shifts are analysed from the ST to TT, and the types of shifts that conjunctions might have undergone during the translation process will be determined regarding the shifts in the level of explicitness or in the text meaning.

The data displayed in Table 5.9 shows that the word ‘ثم’ in the SL is translated into ‘then’ in English. The conjunction ‘then’ is a temporal conjunction because of its cohesive role in expressing the temporal relation or relate two successive sentences as one sequence in time and on subsequent the other. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 264) believe that the use of *then, next, after that, and then, afterwards* in a conjunctive relation makes the temporal cohesion clear.

In both Arabic and English extracts, the conjunction ‘ثم’ and the conjunction ‘then’ depict the meaning of sequence, and we can understand from both messages that there is an action or a movement that happened and followed by another one. The writer moves to admire the subject ‘you’ after he was busy in talking with the subject ‘you’. Grammatically, the conjunction ‘ثم’ is translated into the conjunction ‘then’, so no explicit shift occurs in the text. Moreover, both conjunctions share the same semantic feature as they correspond with the meaning of the words ‘next’, ‘subsequently’ and ‘after

that' [+next, +subsequently, + after that]. At the same time, they did not have the meaning of 'earlier' and 'before' [-earlier, -before]. Both conjunctions share the same semantic meaning and grammatical class, so no implicit or explicit shift occurs, and the meaning of the original message does not change.

3.7 Summary

This chapter summarised the methodology adopted in this study. It briefly explained the theories that will be used in this study and how they are applied. In addition to information are given about the corpus, the author biography, and a short summary of the selected novel. Following this, the chapter detailed the data collection and the conjunctions analysis from the first step to the last.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the interpretation of the selected excerpts from the Arabic novel *Dhakirat Aljasad* and its English version *Memory of the Flesh*. The analysis seeks to cover most conjunction types used in the texts and detect the similarities and the changes that occur. Our first step is to present in tables the frequencies of the conjunctions used in both the Arabic and English.

4.1 the data analysis :

The analysis begins with a sample that includes half of the source text and its English translation. Firstly, Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification is applied to look for the conjunctions and their usage in both the Arabic and English. After that, the conjunctions are aligned manually according to Katz and Fodor's analysis (1986). Finally, Blum-Kulka's (1963) shifts of cohesion is used to analyse the shifts of conjunctions from the ST to TT. All the additions and the omissions of the conjunctions in the TT will be studied considering the results of explicitness and the change of the meaning. The findings are categorised according to the types of conjunctions of the Arabic language and is presented in Table 4.2.a to Table 4.4.d

Table 4.1.a. Types and Frequency of Conjunctions used in the First Three Chapters of
Dhakirat Aljasad

The connective particles in Arabic

Inseparable conjunctions	Frequency	Separable conjunctions	Frequency	Relative pronouns	Frequency
[wa] 'and'	813 (0.8%)	[ʔanna] that	202 (0.2%)	[allati:] who, which, what, that (feminine)	254 (0.64%)
[fa] 'so'	56 (0.06%)	[aw] or, either...or	101 (0.14%)	[allaði:] who, what, which, that, (masculine)	179 (0.33%)
[li] 'to'	44 (0.04%)	[kaʔanna] as it were, as if	92 (0.13%)	[ma:] that, which, what (non-human)	60 (0.11%)
		[la: kin] but	77(0.1%)		
		[. hataa] even, until,	58(0.08%)	[allaði:na] who, what, which, that (plural)	37(0.06%)
		[liʔanna] that, in order that, because.	46(0.06%)	[man] who (human)	11(0.02%)
		[çindama] when, while.	27(0.03%)		
		[am] Or	22(0.03%)		
		-[θumma] 'Then'	22(0.03%)		
		- [iða:] if	20(0.02%)		

		-[liḏa:] so, therefore,	11(0.01%)		
		[law] if, whether	10(0.01%)		
		[illa:] if not, or unless, except, but (when preceded by negative)	7(0.009%)		
		[in] if	5(0.007%)		
		[kay] in order that	3(0.004%)		
	913(100%)		703(100%)		541(100%))

The above table shows that the inseparable conjunctions (please refer to Chapter 2 for its definition) are the most frequent conjunctions used in *Dhakirat Aljasad* from chapters 1 to 3 as they are mentioned 913 times. The highest number of inseparable conjunction is [wa] ‘and’ 813 times, followed by [fa] with 56 times then li with 44 times. The various separable conjunctions (subordinating and adverbial conjunction) listed above are frequently used through the studied part of the novel 703 times. For instance, the conjunction [ʔanna] *that* was used 202 times, followed by [aw] ‘or’ 101 times, [kaʔanna] *as if* 92 times and [la: kin] *but* 77 times. Then the frequency of conjunctions like [hataa] *even*, [liʔanna] *because*, [çindama] *when, while* -[θumma] *then* [iḏa:] *if*, -[liḏa:] *so* and [law] *if* was medium as it ranged from 58 to 10. There are some separable conjunctions (subordinating conjunctions) that their frequency was very low such as [illa:] *if not*, [kay] *to*, and [in] *if*, each one used not more than three times.

The relative pronouns are used 541 times in these three chapters. The frequency of the feminine pronoun [allati:] *who, which, that, what* reached 254 times and its masculine form [allađi:] was used 179 times. Followed by [ma:] *that, which, what* that used for non-human in Arabic which were mentioned 60 times. The relative pronouns with low frequency are the plural form [allađi:na] *who, what, which, that* with 37 times and the pronoun [man] *who* that used for human in Arabic with 11 times.

The frequent usage of the conjunction ‘wa’ that reached 813 times in the first three chapters is explained by the crucial role of this conjunction in coordinating between words and sentences. It is also the most used conjunction in Arabic. Accordingly, Holes (1995:217) regards the conjunction ‘wa’ is the primitive conjunctive particle that has the widest variety of uses, and it is the most commonly encountered sentence connective. The high frequency of the conjunction ‘anna’ that reached 202 times underscores its important role in compound sentences by completing the main clause with a predicate. Moreover, the frequent usage of the conjunction ‘aw’ is evident in the Arabic text where it reached 101 times. This is because of the various functions of this conjunction as declared by Arab grammarians and rhetoricians (Salman, 2003; Abdullah, 2005). This conjunction is used in the declarative sentence to express uncertainty, deliberate ambiguity, addition, correction of preceding clause, division, exception, continuance. It is also used in the imperative sentence in indicating alternatives, and in the interrogative sentence to express a nexus question.

The use of the relative pronouns in the Arabic version is very high with the total of 541. This is because the relative pronouns in Arabic are inflected for variety (singular dual, plural,) gender (male, female) place (near, far) person (second and third). It also links two

clauses into a single complex clause, where the agreement between the clause pronouns and their antecedent is noticeable (Abood, 2015).

Table 4.1.b. The Types and the Frequency of Conjunctions Used in “Memory In The Flesh” From Chapter One to Chapter Three.

Types of conjunctions in English	Examples	Frequency
Coordinating conjunction	And	928(0.4%)
	But	190(0.08%)
	Or	132(0.06%)
	For	30(0.01%)
	So	20(0,009%)
	Nor	6(0.002%)
Subordinating and adverbials	That	515(0.2%)
	Because/because of/since/as soon as/in order/to/otherwise	113(0.05%)
	As if	87(0.03%)
	When/while	78(0.03%)
	Even though/even when/even after	33(0.01)
	Then/and then/but then	32(0.01%)
	If/if that	22(0.01%)
	In fact/despite/in spite	11(0.005%)

	However/though/for instance/otherwise	5(0.002%)
	Until/that	2(0.0009%)
Relative pronouns	Who/whom/whose/which/what	154(0.07%)
Total		2199(100%)

The table shows all the conjunctions that appear in chapters 1 to 3 of *Memory in the Flesh*. The conjunctions are coordinating, subordinating and adverbials conjunctions, and relative pronouns.

The numbers listed in this table explain the high frequency of the conjunction usage that reached 2199 times in total. The coordinating conjunction took first place as they can be coordinating clauses, prepositional phrases, and nouns (Quirk et al., 1985:46). Farah (1998:305) gave two reasons for the high frequency of the coordinating conjunction ‘and’. She declared that ‘and’ plays two discourse functions: coordinating idea units and continuing a speaker’s action. Subordinating and adverbials come in second place as there is a high frequency of some conjunctions such as ‘that’. It was used about 515 times as a complementiser as it links the noun clause and the main clause, in addition to serving as a relative pronoun. The relative pronouns used in the English version of the translated text occurs 154 times. They used to link two clauses into one complicated clause, and function as a subordinating conjunction. Unlike conjunctions, they also stand in place of a noun (Abood, 2015).

Table 4.1.c: Conjunction Types used in Half of *Memory in the Flesh* according to Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesion

Conjunction Types	Example	Frequency
Additive	And, or, nor, like, that is, for instance, as if, in fact	1662(0.7%)
Adversative	But, however, despite that, even though, although	230 (0.1%)
Causal	Because, because of, since, as soon as, so, so on, so far, if, if that, until, until that, for, for which, for what, otherwise, in order to,	251 (0.1%)
Temporal	Then, and then, sum up, when, while	106 (0.04%)
Total		2146 (100%)

All the types of conjunctions used in *Memory in the Flesh* from chapters 1 to 3 demonstrate that the additive conjunctions are the most used in the novel with 1662 times (0.7%). They are represented by the words *and*, *or*, *that is*, *nor*, *as if*, and *for instance*. This huge number is explained by the high frequency of the conjunction 'and' as its usage reached 928 times (0.4%) because of its important role in connecting between words and clauses. The second most used is the causal conjunctions with 251 times (0.1%) comprising conjunctions such as *because*, *because of*, *since*, *if*, *as soon as*, *so*. The appearance of the adversative

conjunctions is limited and took the form of *but*, *however*, and *even though* with 230 times (0.1%). The temporal conjunction is the least used at 106 times (0.04%). The main conjunctions used are *then*, *and then*, *to sum up*. All the types of conjunctions are used in half of the novel but with different levels of frequency. In total, the conjunctions were used 2146 times.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) proved that cohesion focuses on the connection of the ideas at the sentence level through using grammatical aspects. They asserted the role of the grammatical cohesive device (the conjunctions) in creating a coherent text. According to them, a conjunction has four types depending on the cohesion taxonomy: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. They justified their classification in 1987 that this division will allow them “to see the Arabic and the English conjunctions in terms of their function rather than in terms of literal equivalence” (p. 239).

Through the data presented in this Table 4.1.c, the additive function is expressed by the conjunctions such as *and*, *or*, *nor*, *like*, *that is*, *for instance*. In contrast, the Arabic language overuses a limited set of connective particles.

The adversative function or in other words ‘a contrary expectation’ as defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 242, 243) is expressed by the conjunctions *but*, *however*, *despite that*, *even though*, *although*. This relation is also expressed by other conjunctions such as *on the contrary*, *yet*, *rather*, *instead of that*.

The causal function is expressed by the conjunctions *because*, *since*, *for what*, *otherwise*, *in order to*. Conjunctions such as *as a result (of that)*, *in consequence (of that)*, *because (of that)* clearly express the resulting relation which is considered a subcategory

of the causal relation besides reason and purpose. Conjunctions like ‘so’ might mean ‘as a result of this’. It can also express reason as it might mean ‘for this reason’, and purpose when it stated ‘for this purpose’ (Halliday & Hasan, 1987: 256-257).

The temporal function is manifested when conjunctions express the time order of events. In this study, the temporal relation is expressed through *then, and then, when, while,* and *to sum up*.

4.2 Inseparable Conjunctions

Table 4.2.a Analysis of **Wa** and **And**

SL	Fi: modon oḡra: toqaddamoalqahwa ṡahizatan fi: finṡa:n, wo. diḡat ṡiwaroho mosabaqan milaḡaqatan wa qitḡatu sukar
TL	In other countries, coffee is served already poured in a cup with a piece of sugar and a spoon next to it
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: wa [+CONJ] TL: and [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: wa [+CONJ, + and also, +besides, +moreover TL: and [+CONJ, +and also, +besides, +moreover
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	The Arabic conjunction ‘wa’ is literally translated into the English conjunction ‘and’, no change occurred in terms of the conjunctions used, nor in the meaning of the original message because both conjunctions carry the same meaning.

The word ‘wa’ is simply used in the Arabic extract to add the information as the writer tries to describe how the coffee is served in some places. The same meaning is delivered through

the use of a simple additive conjunction ‘and’ in the English extract that plays the cohesive role by linking dialogue and narrative (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

From the above data, we have seen that the conjunction ‘wa’ is literally translated into the conjunction ‘and’. They both carry the denotative meaning of ‘and’ as shown in their semantic features [+and also] and also carry the meaning of ‘besides and moreover’ [+besides, +moreover].

During the translation process, there were no omissions or additions of the conjunction in the TT. Hence, the conjunction ‘and’ in the TT corresponds with the norms of the conjunction ‘wa’ in the ST. Thus, no explicit nor implicit shift occurred, and the meaning in the SL is sustained and does not change.

Table 4.2.b Analysis of **Wa** and **And**

SL	Kanat haybato zismihi. hadiratan fi: ðihni: dażıman, kanat tarbitonibiki w atafsiloni: çanki fi: alwaqtinafsihi.
TL	The prestige of his name was always present in my mind, binding me to you and detaching me from you at the same time.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: wa [+CONJ] TL: and [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: wa [+CONJ, +and also, +furthermore]. TL: and [+CONJ, +and also, +furthermore].

Does the meaning of the original message change?	No change occurred regarding conjunction used, nor in the meaning of the original message as both conjunctions carry the same meaning.
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In the Arabic extract, the SL 'wa' is used to join two independent sentences which are: *A (the prestige of his name binding me to you)*, *B (the prestige of his name detaching me from you)*. The conjunction 'wa' is literally translated to the simple additive conjunction used cohesively in this extract to link two facts (sentence *A and B*) which are completely different to serve the speaker's intention to be regarded as connected somehow as mentioned by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

They both carry the same meaning as their semantic features show in the above data. The word 'wa' in the SL carries the denotation of the word 'and also' and 'furthermore', [+and also, +furthermore], on the other hand, the semantic features of the word 'and' in the TL are the same semantic features of the word 'wa' in the SL [+and also, +furthermore], Thus the meaning is sustained and does not change from the ST to TT.

The Arabic conjunction 'wa' and the English conjunction 'and' uphold the same meaning, and when 'wa' is translated from the SL to TL, no addition or omission occurred. Hence, the conjunction 'and' in the TT match with the norms of the 'wa' conjunction in the ST. In terms of the texts' meaning, there are no shifts in the meaning as both texts denote the same idea. As a result, no explicit or implicit change occurred.

Table 4.2.c Analysis of **Wa** and **But**

SL	Taḥi:f fi: baladja. htarimmawhibatokawajarfo. do ʒoro. hoka, watantami: liwa. tanjahtarim ʒirahoka wajarfo . doka ʔanta.
TL	To live in a country that recognised your talent but rejects your injuries, to belong to a country that respects your injuries but refuses the person.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: wa [+CONJ] TL: but [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: wa [+CONJ, +and also, +even so, +however] TL: but [+CONJ, -and also, +even so, +however]
Does the meaning of the message change?	The sentences in both the Arabic and English extracts are connected by conjunctions. However, the difference in their semantic features. The SL word ‘wa’ carry the meaning of additional information [+and also] and contrast [+even so] at the same time. Whereas the conjunction ‘but’ carries only the contrasting meaning [+even so]. Accordingly, the meaning of the message does not change in the TL.

The Arabic conjunction ‘wa’ in the above sentence conjoins two opposite ideas (recognising and rejection) and also join respecting and refusing. The conjunction ‘wa’ here plays the role of conjunction ‘and’ when it used to convey the speaker’s intention that the facts are connected in some way. The data shows that ‘wa’ which shares the same

meaning with the English additive conjunction ‘and’ is omitted in the English version and is replaced by the adversative conjunction ‘but’. The above data shows that the conjunction ‘wa’ in the original extract conveys the adversative meaning and additional information at the same time, it shares the semantic features with [+and also, +however, +even so]. Whereas the conjunction ‘but’ in the TL denotes the adversative meaning and shares the semantic feature of [+however, +even so] and it does not carry the meaning of [-and also]. There were differences in the semantic features of these two conjunctions but they share the same grammatical class (both are conjunctions).

As a result, the conjunction ‘wa’ is translated into the conjunction ‘but’ instead of the conjunction ‘and’ that shares the same semantic features. So ‘and’ is omitted and replaced by the conjunction ‘but’ to sustain the meaning of the original message. The level of text explicitness is high in the SL, as the conjunction in the TL text does not reflect the norm of the conjunction in the text SL.

Table 4.2.d Analysis of **Wa** and **Then**

SL	waḥaḥat tilka ḥalmaḥraka al. darija ḥallati: darat ḥala maḥarif “Batna”.
TL	Then came this furious battle fought on the outskirts of Batna.
Classified items from the SL to TL	SL: [+CONJ] TL: [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: wa [+CONJ, +and also, +next, +after that, -before] TL: then [+CONJ, -and also, +next, +after that, -before]

Does the meaning of the message change from the SL to TL?	No change in the grammatical class of the two words occurred, and both conjunctions in Arabic and English extracts share the same semantic features. The meaning of the message from the SL to TL does not change.
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The analysis of the Arabic and the English conjunctions shows that both conjunctions share the same grammatical class meaning and no explicit shift occurred. Secondly, they both highlight the subsequent meaning in the example, the war that emerges after a calm. Both conjunctions mean the denotations of the words [+next, +after that and they do not mean [-before]. At the same time, the conjunction ‘wa’ in Arabic shares the semantic features of the conjunction ‘and’ [+and also]. When ‘and’ is omitted and replaced by ‘then’, an explicit shift occurs from the ST to TT. Both conjunctions share the same meaning, so the message is sustained.

Table 4.2.e Analysis of **Fa** and **So**, **Fa** and **Because**, **Fa** and **Then**

SL	<p>1-Hada: ḏa: kitabuki: ʔama:mi:, lam jaʕud biimka:ni an aqraʔah fataraktuhuhuna ʕala. tawilati; muġlaʕan ka loġz.</p> <p>2-Lam jakunlawni: almufa. dalʔana akraho ʔal ʔalwan ʔal. ha;sima</p> <p>3-Iḏa: konta to. hibu ʔalrasma faʔursom</p>
TL	<p>1- I have your book now, it is in front of me but I cannot read it, so I have left it on my table closed like a mystery.</p> <p>2- It was never my favourite colour because I hated absolute colours.</p>

	3- If you prefer to paint then paint
Classified items in the SL and TL	<p>1 -SL: fa [+CONJ] TL: so [+CONJ]</p> <p>2 -SL: fa [+CONJ] TL: because [+CONJ]</p> <p>4- SL: fa [+CONJ] TL: then [+CONJ]</p>
Semantic features of SL and TL	<p>1- SL: fa [+CONJ, +therefore, +consequently, -because] TL: so [+CONJ, +therefore, +consequently, -because]</p> <p>2- SL: fa [+CONJ, +since, +for the reason that]. TL: because [+CONJ, +since, +for the reason that].</p> <p>3- SL: fa [+CONJ, +and then, +hence -TL: then [+CONJ, +and then, +hence</p>
Does the meaning of the message change?	There is no change in usage of the conjunctions in both the Arabic and English. In the examples (1), (2), (3) the conjunction 'fa' is translated into the English conjunctions 'so, because, then' which carry the same meaning. Hence, there is no difference in the meaning of the text and the message sustained its meaning in the TL.

In example (1), the usage of the conjunction 'fa' in the Arabic extract clearly shows that there is a causal relationship between the two clauses this is why it is translated into the causal conjunction 'so' to keep this relation. Halliday and Hasan (1976, 257) believe that

'so' is one of the specific conjunction in the causal relation that can express reason, result, and purpose, as it means 'for this reason', 'as a result of this', 'for this purpose'. Their distinct usage as cohesive types makes the causal relations less clear in the context which raises the degree of interpretation of the speaker.

From the Arabic and English extracts, we can understand the subject or (the writer) could not read the book for some reason and left it closed on the table.

The conjunction 'fa' is translated into the causal conjunction 'so' that carries the same meaning. The data also shows that the SL word 'fa' carries the denotations [+therefore, +for this reason] as shown in their semantic features and does not mean [-because]. The conjunction 'so' in the English version also denotes the same semantic features with [+therefore, +for this reason] and does not mean [-because] in this extract. The meaning does not change from the ST to the TT. As there were no omission or addition of conjunction, the conjunction in the TT corresponds to the norms of the conjunction in the text of the ST. The above results reveal that there are no shifts in terms of meaning because of the absence of the explicit and implicit changes.

In example (2), the SL word 'fa' is translated into the causal conjunction 'because'. We can understand from both the Arabic and English extracts that white is not the favourite colour of the writer as he does not like absolute colours.

The semantic accuracy is achieved in the translated sentence as both conjunctions 'fa' and 'because' share the same grammatical class, and they share the same semantic features with 'since' and 'for that reason' [+since, +for that reason]. Consequently, there was no explicit nor implicit shift, neither change in the original meaning when it translated from the SL to TL.

In example (3), the use of the SL word ‘fa’ in the Arabic extract combines between two dependent clauses as one sentence in which the first clause is the condition; the second clause is the result of the previous one. [The writer starts to pain as a result of his love of painting.] After translating it to English, it transferred to the conjunction ‘then’ that is used as a resultative conjunction in the sentence. ‘Then’ is semantically accurate as it carries the meaning of the words ‘hence’ and ‘therefore’ in a similar way with the conjunction ‘fa’ as shown in their semantic features [+hence, +therefore].

The conjunction ‘fa’ in Arabic is translated to the conjunction ‘then’ in English, so no explicit shift occurs as they are grammatically similar. More than that, their semantic similarity makes the original message maintain its original meaning, no implicit shift also occurs during the translation process.

Table 4.2.f Analysis of **Fa** and **Omitted Conjunctions**

SL	1- Fa ʔalrʔasamu lajsa musawiran fotoġrafijan ju. taridu ʔalwaqiç. 2- Atamana ʔan jakona qad aqnaçaha haða; ʔal ʔiçtiðar fa ʔallaw. ha ʔamilatan h. aqan. 3- Fa. hawaltu ʔan ʔataharaba min taçli:qaki allaði: tastadriʔoni bi. hilatin ʔila mazid mina ʔaltaw. di: h 4- Fatarudeena çalaya binafsi ʔalmasafa alloġawiya
TL	1- I do not believe an artist is a photographer who is in pursuit of reality.

	<p>2- I hope this apology satisfied her; it's a really pretty painting.</p> <p>3- I tried to avoid your comments that that was very subtly obliging me to offer more explanations.</p> <p>4- -You answered in the same distant manner.</p>
Classified items of SL and TL	<p>SL: fa [+CONJ]</p> <p>TL: omitted [Ø]</p>
Semantic features of SL and TL	<p>1-SL: fa: [+CONJ, +but,] -TL: Ø</p> <p>2-SL: fa: [CONJ, +because, +as,] -TL: Ø</p> <p>3-SL: fa: [+CONJ, +then, +next] -TL: Ø</p> <p>4-SL: fa: [+CONJ, +and so. -TL: Ø</p>
Does the meaning of the original message change from the ST to TT?	<p>The conjunction 'fa' is omitted in the examples (1), (2), (3), (4) when translated into English but the original messages in all translated extracts maintained their original meaning.</p>

The above table presents four examples in Arabic and their literal translation in English. The omission of the conjunctions in all the English extracts created explicit shifts from the ST to TT.

In the first example (1) the word 'fa' in the Arabic extract is used to express the contrasting meaning. The writer has a different point in his definition to an artist, and he does not believe that he is a photographer in the pursuit of reality, that means the SL word

'fa' is used as an adversative conjunction as it carries the meaning of the conjunction 'but' that is completely omitted in the English version and was not replaced with any other conjunction. The absence of the conjunction in the English example creates an explicit shift, and as the translator maintained the meaning of the original text, no implicit shift occurred from the SL to TL.

In the second example (2) a cause-effect relationship expressed by the use of the SL word 'fa' that functions as a causal conjunction and carry the meaning of the TL word 'because' and 'as' [+because, +as]. The word 'fa' links between two clauses in the Arabic text, A (I hope this apology satisfied her) and B (it is a pretty painting). Each clause is dependent on the other as clause B is the cause of clause A. The conjunction 'fa' is completely omitted when translated into English and was not replaced with any other conjunction. Nevertheless, the cause-effect relationship can be understood from the examples. There is an explicit shift that occurred from TT to ST because of the omission of a conjunction in the English version, but no implicit shift has occurred in terms of meaning from the ST to TT.

In example (3), semantically the SL word 'fa' plays a sequential role (order of time and events), it links two events which are time-related, i.e., one event follows the other. After many comments that subtly obliged the writer for more explanations, he then tried to avoid it by another action (ignorance). The conjunction 'fa' set the consecutive relation in the sentence and used as a temporal conjunction as its semantic features show that it has the denotation meaning of [+then, +next].

The conjunction 'fa' that carries the meaning of the conjunctions 'then' and 'next' was not replaced by any of them, but it is omitted completely when translated into English.

Hence, an explicit shift occurred from TL to SL. The meaning in the TL is maintained and does not change as there was no implicit shift. Thus, the meaning of the original message was not affected.

Example (4) shows another semantic relation of the SL word ‘fa’ which is the additive function when it used in the Arabic example; it links between two elements in the same sentence. One of these elements is the explanatory or an illustration of the other. In this example, the writer tries to explain and illustrate how she answers him (you answered in the same distant manner). So, the conjunction ‘fa’ in this example used as an additive conjunction because of its role in adding information of what comes before.

The conjunction ‘fa’ that carries the meaning of ‘and so’ [+and so] is omitted when translated into English and was not replaced by any other conjunction that shares the same semantic features with it. However, the meaning of the text is maintained and does not change. No implicit shift occurred in the TT despite the explicit shift which automatically occurred because of the omission of conjunctions.

Table 4.2.g Analysis of the Conjunction **Li** and **To**

SL	Fala kana momkinan jawmaha baçda kulli haða allaði.hadaθa zan aðhaba liʔab. haθa çanho fi: ʔ almaktabatliʔaftari qissati: min baʔiçmoqabilawaraqatannaqdija.
TL	After all that happened, I was simply unable to go looking for it in bookstores, to hand over money to the bookseller to buy my own story.

Classified item in the SL and TL	SL: li [+CONJ] TL: to [+PREP].
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: [+CONJ, +in order to, +for, because - TL [+PREP, +in order to, +for, because. -
Does the meaning of the original message change?	The conjunctions in the SL is interpreted to preposition in the TL, they both share the same semantic features, so the meaning of the original message is sustained in the TT.

The data presented in the above table shows that the conjunction ‘li’ in Arabic joins between two deeds. It is used to indicate the purpose of which the writer looks in the bookstore and is an inseparable conjunction translated to the preposition ‘to’. In both English and Arabic extracts, the conjunction ‘li’ and the preposition ‘to’ play the same role and share the same semantic features as ‘li’ means [+in order to, +for] and does not mean [-because]. The preposition ‘to’ signifies [+in order to, +for] and does not show the meaning of [- because] in the English extract. There is a shift in the level of explicitness because of the change in the grammatical feature ‘li’ (conjunction) and ‘to’ (preposition) that is high from the SL to TL. As the pair (li and to) carries the same meaning and the

word ‘to’ in the TT corresponds with the norms of the word ‘li’ in the ST, no change occurred in the meaning of the message.

4.3 Separable Conjunction

Table 4.3.a Analysis of **Aw** and **Or**

SL	Akrahu an aʒzima bi fajzin aw altazimabihi.
TL	I hate having to confirm things or to be committed to anything.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: aw [+CONJ] TL: or [+CONJ].
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: aw [+CONJ, +else, -additionally,] TL: or [+CONJ, +or else, -additionally,]
Does the meaning of the message change from the SL to TL?	In term of conjunctions usage, no change occurred. The conjunction ‘aw’ in Arabic is translated into the conjunction ‘or’ in English, they are sharing the same semantic feature in both extracts, and the meaning of the message does not change from the SL to TL.

The data displayed in Table 4.3.a shows that the SL word ‘aw’ expresses the alternative relation in the Arabic example, the meaning conveyed through the use of ‘aw’. The writer hates to confirm things or either to be committed to anything in some situations.

The conjunction ‘aw’ is literary translated to the additive conjunction ‘or’. In this example, the additive conjunction ‘or’ is associated with a statement, it expresses that another possible opinion in place of the previous one that just given (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, 247). Both conjunctions share the same semantic features [+or else], and they do not have the meaning of [-additionally]. There is no addition or omission in terms of conjunction use, so no implicit or explicit change occurred in the translated text. The data shows no differences occurred from ST to TT and the meaning of the original text is maintained.

Table 4.3.b Analysis of **Am** and **Or**

SL	ʔakatabtihi ʕanni am katabtihi ʕanho, ʔakatabtihi litaqtolini bihi ʔam litohji:hi howa.
TL	Did u write it about him or me? Did u write it to kill me off or bring him back?
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: am [+CONJ] TL: or [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: am [+CONJ, +else, -additionally] TL: or [+CONJ, + or else, -additionally]
Does the meaning of the message change in the TL?	There is no change occurred in term of the conjunctions used because both conjunctions in the Arabic and English extract carry the same semantic features, so they share the same meaning, and the original message sustains its meaning.

The conjunction 'aw' in the Arabic extract plays the role of the alternative conjunction. The example highlights that the writer has given many choices to understand the situation in which he lives. In the English extract, the conjunction 'or' is considered an alternative conjunction used when there are many possibilities mentioned. The conjunction 'am' is translated to the simple additive 'or', and they share the same semantic features [+else, - additionally]. There is no addition or omission during the translation process. Both conjunctions are similar grammatically and semantically; the conjunction 'or' in the TT text corresponds to the norms of the conjunction 'am' in the ST. As a result, ~~there were~~ no implicit or explicit shifts occurred ~~during~~ in the translation ~~process~~, ~~and~~ only a change ~~occurred~~ in the meaning of the text in the TT.

Table 4.3.c Analysis of **Aw** and **And**

SL	Wakaʔanaki toridi:na kasra ʔalsamt aw iθaratu fu. duli:.
TL	As if you wanted to break the silence and arose my curiosity.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: aw [+CONJ] TL: and [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: aw [+CONJ, +or, -and also] TL: and [+CONJ, -or, +and also]
Does the meaning of the message change from to TL?	There is no change occurred in term of conjunctions used. However, their semantic features are differing, the SL word 'aw' carries the choice meaning whereas the word 'And' in the

	English extract carry the additional meaning. So, the meaning is changed from the original text to the translated text.
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In this example, ‘aw’ is used as an alternative conjunction to show that there are two possibilities the subject ‘you’ wants to break the silence or raises the reader’s curiosity. The conjunction ‘aw’ is translated to the simple additive conjunction ‘and’ that used to link the narrative or what we call the internal ‘and’ according to Halliday and Hasan (1976). The conjunction ‘aw’ does not translate to the conjunction ‘or’ that carries the alternative meaning instead it is replaced by the conjunction ‘and’. The semantic features of both conjunctions as shown in the displayed data are different as the conjunction ‘aw’ means [+or] and does not have the meaning of [-and also] whereas the conjunction ‘and’ in the English example has the meaning of [+and also] and does not carry the meaning [-or]. So, the English conjunction ‘or’ that shares the semantic feature with the Arabic conjunction ‘aw’ is omitted and replaced by the conjunction ‘and’. An explicit shift which is high in the SL is created causing an implicit shift in the text’s meaning from the ST to TT, and the meaning of the text is changed.

Table 4.3.d Analysis of **That** and **Anna**

SL	Kuntu ʔaʕtaqid anna alriwajatariqatu ʔalkatib fian jaçi:famaratan ʔaniya qissatan ʔahabaha.
TL	I used to think that a novel was the way writers lived to love story a second time.

Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: ann[+CONJ] TL: that [+CONJ, COHESIVE MARKER, COMPLEMENTISER]
The semantic features of SL and TL	SL: anna [+CONJ, +That is, TL: that [+DET, +COHESIVE MARKER, +COMPLIMENTISER]
Does the meaning of the message change from the ST to TT?	In both the Arabic and English extract, conjunctions are used. No change in the meaning from the ST to TT because both conjunctions are sharing the same semantic features.

The data presented in the above table denotes that the ‘anna’ in the chosen Arabic extract has played the role of a complementiser; it complements the main clause which is (I used to think), and it adds the predicate of the sentence (a novel was the way writers lived to love story the second time). The conjunction ‘anna’ is translated to the conjunction ‘that’ in English. Despite the difference in the semantic meaning of the conjunction ‘that’ as is considered as [+COHESIVE MARKER, +COMPLIMENTISER], the meaning of the ST is sustained as they both play the same role and link the noun clause and main clause. However, both conjunctions could be omitted in both extracts, and their omission does not affect the meaning and the structure. It usually appears informally in the spoken forms. The data reveals that the level of explicitness is similar from the ST to TT. The conjunction ‘anna’ in the ST corresponds to the norms of the conjunction ‘that’ in the TT. It shows that

no explicit shift occurs as there is no grammatical change, and no implicit shift happened since the meaning from the SL to TL is not affected.

Table 4.3.e Analysis of **Lakin** and **But**

SL	Lam altaqi bihi munðu çidat sanawat, wa lakin aχbaruhi kanat tasiluni dażiman munðu çojina fi ʔalsafara alʒazairija.
TL	I had not met him for some years, but news of him reach me since his appointment at the Algerian embassy.
Classified items in the ST and TT	SL: lakin [+CONJ] TL: but: [+CONJ].
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: lakin [+CONJ, + yet, +however, TL: but [+CONJ+, +yet, +however,
Does the meaning of the message change from the SL to TL?	There is no change occurred in term of conjunction use. Both conjunctions express the adversative function as their semantic features are similar, so the message in the original text sustains its meaning.

The data in Table 4.3.e shows that the conjunction ‘lakin’ is used to convey the adversative function in the Arabic extract. Despite the lack of contact between the writer and his friend, his news is still reaching him. ‘lakin’ is translated to the adversative conjunction ‘but’ which plays the same role in the English extract.

Both conjunctions are grammatically and semantically similar as they share the same semantic features and the same grammatical class. The SL conjunction ‘lakin’ carries

the meaning denotation of [+yet, +however], and does not have the meaning of [-though]. On the other side, the English conjunction ‘but’ carries the meaning denotation of [+yet, +however] but does not have the meaning of [-though]. The data shows that ‘lakin’ and ‘but’ share the same meaning. Thus, the meaning of the original message is sustained, does not change from the SL to TL.

Table 4.3.f Analysis of **Hatta** and **To**

SL	Iqraʔi: haḏa alkitaba hatta ʔalniḥaja, baʔdaha qad takofi:na ʕan kitabat ʔalriwajat ʔalwalmija.
TL	You must read this book to the end, and probably after that, you will stop writing fantasy novels.
Classified features in the SL and TL	SL: hattaa [+CONJ] TL: to [+PREP]
The semantic features of SL and TL	SL: hatta [+CONJ, -PREP, +until +up to,] TL: to [+PREP, -CONJ, +until, +up to,]
Does the meaning of the message change from the SL to TL?	The conjunction ‘hatta’ in Arabic is translated to the preposition ‘to’ in English, the word ‘hatta’ in the ST holds the same meaning with the word ‘to’ in the TT. Even though both conjunctions are grammatically different, there was no change occurred in the meaning of the message when translated from SL to TL.

Based on Table 4.3.f, the conjunction ‘hatta’ is used in the Arabic extract to show the limits in the main clause, the subject ‘you’ must read the novel until the end. The Arabic conjunction in the source language ‘hatta’ is translated to the English preposition ‘to’ in the target language that indicates the ending points or the limits. Both words differ grammatically, as the word ‘to’ is considered as a preposition and not a cohesive conjunction as shown in the above table. Regarding the meaning, the SL word ‘hatta’ carries the semantic features of ‘until’ and ‘up to’ [+until, +up to] in a similar way the preposition ‘to’ means [+until, +up to]. During the translation process, the conjunction ‘until’ can replace the preposition ‘to’ and used as an equivalent to the conjunction ‘hatta’ in the English version but the translator prefers the preposition which may be more appropriate for the context.

If the similar meaning prevents the text from changing from the ST to TT, then the original text maintains its original meaning. The actual conjunction is omitted and replaced by the preposition ‘to’ during the translation of the conjunction ‘hatta’. Automatically, an explicit shift occurred from the TT to ST because of the usage of preposition instead of a conjunction.

Table 4.3.g Analysis of **Hatta** and **Even**

SL	Saçbun çala ražulin çazid litawihi mina zažabha zan yaçtarifa hatta linafsihi.
TL	It was difficult for a man who had just returned from the front to admit that he was cold even to himself.

Classified items from the SL to TL	SL: hatta [+CON] TL: even [+ADV]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: hatta [+CONJ, + albeit, + unexpectedly, -even so] TL: even +ADV, +albeit, +unexpectedly, -even so]
Does the meaning of the message change from the SL to TL?	There was a difference in term of conjunction use, as the conjunction ‘hatta’ in Arabic is translated into the adverb ‘even’. Regarding meaning, they both carry the same meaning, so no change occurred in the meaning from the SL to TL.

The above table explains the interpretation of the Arabic conjunction ‘hatta’ to the adverb ‘even’ in English. In both the Arabic and English extracts, they denote that what happened was unexpected. The analysis shows both words ‘hatta’ and ‘even’ carry the same meaning with ‘albeit, unexpectedly’ [+albeit, +unexpectedly] and they do not have the meaning with ‘even so’ [-even so], so the word ‘even’ in the TT corresponds to the norms of the word ‘hatta’ in the ST. From what is mentioned above, the conjunction ‘hatta’ in the SL and the adverb ‘even’ in the TL share a similar meaning, then the meaning of the message from the ST to TT does not change.

The conjunction ‘hatta’ is replaced by the adverb ‘even’ in the TT. The actual conjunction is omitted and replaced with an adverb. Because of the change occurred in

term grammatical usage from the ST to TT, level of explicitness in the TT is lower than the ST, so an explicit shift has occurred.

Table 4.3.h Analysis of **Kaanna** and **As If**

SL	Konti tastamiçi:na zilaja madhu:fatan waka z annaki taktafifi:nafija faZatan raZolan zaħar.
TL	You were listening to me in bewilderment as if suddenly discovering in me another man.
Classified items in the ST and TT	SL: kaanna [+CONJ] TL: as if [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: kaanna [+CONJ, +as if it were, +in the same way, +like] TL: as if [+CONJ, +as if it were, +in the same way, +like]
Does the message change from the SL to TL?	No change occurred in term of conjunctions used. There is no change in the meaning of both conjunctions, so no change in the meaning of the text from the SL to TL.

The conjunction ‘kaanna’ in the example presented in the above table is literally translated to the conjunction ‘as if’ in English. It is used here as an additive conjunction because it semantically shares the meaning of similarity with the conjunctions [+likewise, +in the same way]. It is cohesively used to compare of what is being said or done with what has been said or done before. The writer here uses this form to add a new point in the same effect (Halliday and Hasan: 24). Both conjunctions in the Arabic and English texts share the meaning denotation of [, +in the same way, +as if it were] and even informally they

share [+like] meaning. Consequently, the messages in Arabic and English denote the same meaning; no explicit or implicit change occurs during the translation process, and the SL message sustained its meaning when translated to the TL.

Table 4.3.i Analysis of **Çindama** and **When**

SL	çindama çodto baçdaha kuntiamamaalmaktabatolqi;na nað. ra çala çanawi:n alkotob.
TL	When I returned, you were standing in front in of the bookcase looking at the titles.
Classified items of SL and TL	SL: çindama [+CONJ] TL: when [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: çindama [+CONJ, +at the time, -whenever] TL: when [+CONJ, +at the time, -whenever]
Does the message change from the SL to TL?	No change occurred regarding conjunctions used, and no change in the original text's meaning because both words 'çindama' and 'when' have the same meaning.

The displayed data in Table 4.3.i shows the SL word 'çindama' in the Arabic example used to denote that there are two actions happened at the same time, namely the arrival of the writer and the standing subject 'you' in front of the bookshelf.

The conjunction 'çindama' plays a temporal role in the sentence as it links two events depending on their timing, it is translated to the temporal conjunction 'when' in the

English version that plays the same cohesive role. Both conjunctions are grammatically and semantically identical as clarified through their semantic features [+CONJ, +at the time, that, -whenever].

The original meaning in the SL is maintained as the conjunction ‘when’ in the ST corresponds with the norms of the conjunction ‘çindama’ in the TT. No difference occurred in their grammatical class nor their semantic features. Therefore, no change occurred in the meaning of the message from the ST to TT.

Table 4.3.j Analysis of **θumma** and **Then**

SL	θumma çodto lizatazamalaki çasa: ni: zaçido fi: malamihokoma: Zawaban lidahfati:
TL	I then switched to admiring you in the hope of finding something in the features of both of you that would answer my astonishment.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: θumma : [+CONJ] Then: [CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	θumma : [+CONJ, +next, +subsequently, +after that, -earlier, -before that] Then: [+CONJ, +next, +subsequently, +after that, -earlier, -before that]

Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	No change occurred in term of conjunctions used. The conjunctions ‘θumma’ and ‘then’ share the same semantic features. Accordingly, there is no change in the meaning of the original message.
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The data displayed in Table 4.3.j shows the word ‘θumma’ in the SL is translated to the word ‘then’ in English. The conjunction ‘then’ used as a temporal conjunction because of his cohesive role in expressing the temporal relation or relate two successive sentences as one sequence in time and on subsequent the other. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 264) believe that the use of *then, next, after that, and then, afterwards* in a conjunctive relation makes the temporal cohesion clear.

In both the Arabic and English extracts, the conjunction ‘θumma’ and the conjunction ‘then’ depict the meaning of sequence. The meaning conveyed from both messages that there is an action or a movement happened and followed by another one. The writer moves to admire the subject ‘you’ after he was busy in talking with the subject ‘you’. Grammatically, the conjunction ‘θumma’ is translated into the conjunction ‘then’, so no explicit shift occurs in the text. Moreover, conjunctions ‘θumma’ and ‘then’ share the same semantic feature as they correspond with the meaning of the words ‘next’, ‘subsequently’ and ‘after that’, [+next, +subsequently, + after that] and they did not have the meaning of ‘earlier’ and ‘before’ [-earlier, -before]

Both conjunctions share the same semantic meaning and grammatical class, so no implicit or explicit shift occurred, and the meaning of the original message does not change.

Table 4.3.k Analysis of **iða:** and **If**

SL	ðakirini faqat iða: hadaθa wanasi:t.
TL	Just remind me if I happen to forget.
Classified items of SL to TL	SL: iða: [+CONJ] TL: if [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: iða: [+CONJ, + in case that, +since, -then, -otherwise] TL: if [+CONJ, + in case that, +since -then, -otherwise]
Does the original message change from the SL to TL?	No change occurred neither in term of conjunctions use nor regarding text meaning from the SL to TL.

The data shows that the Arabic conjunctions ‘iða:’ and its English equivalent ‘if’ function as conditionals in both extracts. The conveyed meaning is if possibly A (*it happens, and I forget*), so then B (*you remind me*), both conjunctions here express the *in case* idea if something happens its results will occur. The conjunction ‘iða:’ in the SL is translated to the causal conjunction ‘if’ that highlights the conditional meaning through its usage in the conjunctive relation. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), linguistically, the causal and the conditional types are closely related and “they are largely interchangeable as cohesive forms” (Halliday and Hasan,1976:258). The meaning of the text does not change from the SL to TL since the word ‘iða:’ in the SL and ‘if’ in TL carry the denotation of ‘in case that’ and ‘since’ [+in case that, +since] but they do not carry the meaning of ‘then

‘and ‘otherwise’ [-then, -otherwise]. In the conditional relations, the conjunctions (then, otherwise) considered as one of the forms that express this relation, whereas ‘then’ has the meaning of ‘under these circumstances’ and ‘otherwise’ has the meaning of ‘if not’. They both do not carry the meaning of the conjunction ‘if’.

Conjunctions are used in both extracts and the conjunctive patterns in the TT match with a conjunctive pattern in the ST. As a result, no shift occurred at the explicitness level, nor implicit shift and the meaning sustained from the SL to TL.

Table 4.3.1 Analysis of **Law** and **If**

SL	“ʔana la aqulu haða moʔamalatan, lakin motaʔkid ʔannani law kuntu ʔarsum larasamtu hakaða miθlaka.
TL	“It is not a compliment, but I think if I ever drew, it would be like this.
Classified items of ST and TT	SL: law [+CONJ] TL: if [+CONJ]
Semantic feature of ST and TT	SL: law [+CONJ, +in case that, +supposing that, - although] TL: if [+CONJ, +in case that, +supposing that, - although]
Does the meaning of the original message change from the ST to TT?	The conjunction ‘law’ in Arabic is translated to the English conjunction ‘if’, no change occurred regarding the conjunctions used. The same meaning is conveyed from both examples as the conjunctions share the same

	semantic features. This means the meaning of the message in the SL does not change.
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The data presented in Table 4.3.1 shows the use of the hypothetical particle ‘law’ to express the meaning of the supposition. In the Arabic example, the writer supposes that his drawing will be in this manner if he is ever drawing. The same meaning is conveyed thanks to the role of conjunction ‘if’ in the English extract and functions as a causal conjunction.

The conjunction ‘law’ in the SL is translated to the conjunction ‘if’ that shares the same grammatical class and the same semantic features. They both positively correspond to the meaning denotation of ‘in case that’, ‘supposing that’ [+in case that, +supposing that] and do not carry the meaning denotation of ‘although’ [-although]. Depending on the labelled data in the above table, no explicit or implicit shift occurred. Hence, the text’s meaning does not change from the SL to TL, and the original text maintains its original meaning.

Table 4.3.m Analysis of **Lakin** and **Omitted Conjunction**

SL	jahduθ ʔan aʃçura ʔannani ʔibnaton liraqm faqat bajna milju:nawanisfmilju:n lakinnaha ʒamiçan ʔarqam li maʔasa:t ma:
TL	I sometimes feel like the daughter of a number among million, all of them are numbers with their tragedy

Classified items from the ST to TT	SL: lakin[+CONJ TL: Ø
Semantic features from the ST to TT	SL: lakin [+CONJ, + yet, +in spite the fact that, TL: Ø
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	There is a difference in term of conjunctions use, but this difference does not affect the meaning of the original text.

The displayed data explains the usage of conjunction ‘lakin’ in the Arabic example in expressing the adversative meaning as the subject ‘I’ considers herself as a daughter of a number (martyr) and she asserts that all of these numbers (the martyrs) have their tragedy, they are different, and not similar as people think. The same meaning is conveyed from the English example even though the conjunction is omitted and not replaced by another conjunction.

The conjunction ‘lakin’ carries the meaning of ‘yet’ and ‘in spite the fact that’ [+yet, +in spite the fact], when it translated to English is completely omitted and does not replace with the adversative conjunction ‘but’ that carries the same grammatical and semantic features but: [+CONJ, +yet, +in spite the fact that].An explicit shift occurred which is high from the SL to TL because of the conjunction omission in the ST. As both examples in Arabic and English denote the same meaning, no implicit shift occurred, and the meaning of the original message does not change.

Table 4.3.n. Analysis of **Liʿanna** and **Because**

SL	Warubamali liʔannani ʔakbaru minkisinankuntu ʔafʕuru biʔannani ata. hamaluwahdi: masʔulijata ʔalika ʔalmawqif ʔalʕa. tifi: ʔalʕaʔ
TL	May be because I was older than you I felt responsible for that odd emotional situation
Classified items of SL and TL	SL: liʔanna [+CONJ] TL: because [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: liʔanna [+CONJ, +since +for, -as a result, -in consequence of this TL: because [+CONJ, +since, +for, -as a result, -in consequence of this]
Does the meaning of the original text change from the ST to TT?	The conjunction ‘liʔanna’ in Arabic translated into the English conjunction ‘because’. Both conjunctions carry the causal meaning, so no change happened in the original text when translated from the ST to TT.

The data in the above table shows there are no differences in conjunction’s usage either grammatically or semantically as the causal relation in both extract is very clear. In the Arabic example, the conjunction ‘liʔanna’ clearly expresses the reason why the writer feels responsible for this emotional situation; he thinks the difference in age creates this odd feeling. The same meaning is expressed through the use of the causal conjunction ‘because’ in the English example.

They both share the same meaning as shown in their semantic features [+since, +for, -as a result –in consequence of that]. Regarding explicitness level, there is no implicit or

explicit shift as the conjunction ‘liʔanna’ is translated to the conjunction ‘because’ and they are both indicate the causal relation in the sentence. Therefore, the meaning does not change from the SL to TL, and the original meaning is sustained.

Table 4.3.o Analysis of **Wala** and **Nor**

SL	Lam jakonhulumi ʔan aku:na ʕabqarijan walanabijan wala fanai;nanrafi. danawmarfou. Dan
TL	My dreams were not to become a genius or a prophet, nor a defiant and rejected artist
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: wala [wa (+CONJ) andla (+ADV), +not, +neither TL: nor [+CONJ]
Semantic features in the SL and TL	SL: wala [wa (+CONJ) and la (+ADV), +not, +neither TL: nor [+CONJ, +neither, +not.
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	Despite the difference in term of conjunctions use, no change occurred in the meaning of the original message when it translated from SL to TL

The data in the above table presents the use of the SL word ‘wala’ that it is combined of the adverb ‘la’ prefixed with the conjunction ‘wa’. This form is used to represent further negative statement as shown the Arabic example; the writer does not want to be a defiant and rejected artist. The same statement is expressed through the use of the conjunction

‘nor’ in English which is an additive conjunction. Both forms indicate the writer is not willing to be someone whom he does not want to be.

The conjunction ‘wa’ in Arabic can be used to express negation if the negation is mentioned previously in the sentence. In our example, the negation is mentioned before the use of the conjunction (my dream was not), but we add the negation symbol which is the adverb ‘la’ because there was more than one negation in the same sentence to be ‘wala’ that plays the conjunctive role. In the English version, the conjunction ‘nor’ is used as an equivalent of the SL word ‘wala’ which adds further negation.

Semantically, both SL word ‘wala’ and ‘nor’ share the same semantic feature [+neither, +not] even though they grammatically differ. They both convey the same meaning in the extracts, so the original message’s meaning is sustained and does not change when it translated from SL to TL. No implicit shifts were found in the extracts, but the occurrence of the explicit shift is due to the difference in the grammatical class of the studied words.

Table 4.3.p Analysis of **Hatta** and **When**

SL	Wamakidtu ʔaʔlisu ʔarʔan ʔala matra, hin sufijinhatta ʔ. aharti ʔanti fi: alġurfa alsaġi;rakadomja.
TL	I had barely sat on that woollen blanket on the floor when you appeared at the other end of the room as tiny as a doll.

Classified items from the SL to TL	SL: hatta [+CONJ] TL: when [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: hatta [+CONJ, +while +at the same time, -even] TL: when [+CONJ, +while, +at the same time, -even]
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL	There is no difference occurred in term of conjunction use, and the meaning detected is the same in the both the Arabic and English extracts

According to the data displayed in the above table, the conjunction ‘hatta’ in the Arabic example is used to join two events that happened at the same time, namely the setting of the writer on the woollen blanket and the appearance of the small girl at the end of the room. In the English example, for the cohesive purpose, the temporal conjunction ‘when’ is used to link these two events to maintain the ST meaning.

The conjunction ‘hatta’ is translated into the temporal conjunction ‘when’ which are grammatically identical. Both conjunctions share the same semantic features and have the meaning of [+while, +at the same time]. Additionally, the conjunction ‘hatta’ in Arabic also holds the meaning of [+even] but not ‘when’ [-even], both conjunctions are similar grammatically and denote the same meaning in Arabic and English extracts, no explicit or implicit shift occurred, and no change takes places in the meaning of the text in SL when it is translated into TL.

Table 4.3.q Analysis of **Liḏa:** and **So**

SL	kunti tantami:na zila ži:l jaθkulu çalajhi. hamlo zaja fajzin liḏa: zixtasara zai zathwaba zalçarabija bi aθwab çasrija min qitça aw qitçatajn.
TL	You belonged to a generation that found everything heavy to carry, and so swapped the old Arab dresses for modern ones made of just one or two pieces.
Classified items in the SL and TL.	SL: liḏa: [+CONJ] TL: so [+CONJ]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: liḏa:; [+CONJ, + therefore, + thus, +for this reason, -because TL: so [+CONJ, +therefore, +thus, +for this reason, -because
Does the meaning of the original message change from the ST to TT?	No change occurred in terms of the conjunction used and in the meaning of the original message because both conjunctions denote the same meaning or the causal relation. The original text maintains its original meaning.

The data in Table 4.3.q shows that the conjunction ‘liḏa:’ expresses the causal relations in Arabic extract for that it is literally translated to the causal conjunction ‘so’. In both the Arabic and English extracts, conjunctions ‘liḏa:’ and ‘so’ are used to express the reason

behind the new generation swapping the old dresses and jewellery with the modern ones as they found that these things are heavy to carry.

The semantic analysis of both conjunctions shows they are sharing the same features as they carry the meaning of ‘therefore, thus, for this reason’ [+therefore, +thus, +for this reason] And do not carry the meaning of ‘because’ [-because]. The selection of the conjunction ‘so’ to replace the conjunction ‘liḏa:’ is accurate, as a result, no explicit or implicit shift occurred in the meaning of the original text when translated from the SL to TL.

Table 4.3.r Analysis of **Kay** and **And**

SL	Waju. di:fu wahuwa janfoxo duḡanahu çala mahlwa kaḡannaho jaḡtafi ḡalfahu kay jabu:. ha li: bisirin.
TL	He would blow out the cigarette smoke as if he was trying to disappear behind it and disclose a secret to me.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: kay[+CONJ TL: and [+CONJ
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: kay [+CONJ, + in order to, -and also TL: and [+CONJ, +in order to, +and also
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	The conjunction ‘kay’ is translated into the conjunction ‘and’. No change occurred in terms of the conjunctions

	used, and both conjunctions indicate to the same meaning despite their dissimilar semantic features.
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The data presented in the above table expresses a causal relation. In the Arabic examples, the conjunction ‘kay’ clearly expresses the cause-effect statement in the sentence. The meaning revealed from the example is that the writer friend is hesitant or undecided this is why he behaved strangely before he told him the secret. On the other hand, the conjunction ‘and’ is used in this example to express the causal function despite being an additive conjunction. Halliday and Hasan (1976) argued that ‘and’ is a conjunctive device that reflects an additive meaning, its meaning again signals the semantic content of text If the conjunction ‘And’ expresses the cause-effect, then it conveys the causal relation.(p.249)

The conjunction ‘kay’ with the semantic features of [+ in order to, -and also] is translated into the conjunction ‘and’ with the semantic features [+ in order to, +and also] instead of other causal conjunctions such as ‘for’. Hence, the real conjunction is omitted ‘for’ and replaced by ‘and’. The omission creates a shift in the level of explicitness in the SL. However, no implicit shift occurred because of the use of the conjunction ‘and’ with causal function maintains the meaning of the original message in TL.

Table 4.3.s Analysis of **Lianna** and **As**

SL	<p>3indama 3odto ila aljazair konto momtalia belkalimat, wa lianna alkalimat laysat mohayida, fakad konto momtalia kaḏalika belmoḏol walkiyam</p>
TL	<p>When I went back to Algiers afterward, Iwas filled with words and as words were not neutral, Iwas filled with ideals and values.</p>
Classified items of SL and TL	<p>SL: lianna [+CONJ] TL: as [+CONJ]</p>
Semantic features of SL and TL	<p>SL: lianna [+CONJ, +since, +because, - thus TL: as [+CONJ, +since, +because, -thus</p>
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	<p>No change occurred in the use of conjunctions nor in the meaning of the original text when translated.</p>

The Arabic example mentioned in the above table denotes the causal relation expressed by the SL word ‘lianna’, it links two dependent clauses with one being a cause and the other is the results. The writer thinks that the words were not neutral at that time because the writer is filled with the ideals and values. The conjunction ‘lianna’ in Arabic is translated into the conjunction ‘as’ in English, which plays the same role in expressing the cause-effect statement.

The conjunction ‘lianna’ in Arabic is literally translated to the causal conjunction ‘as’, they both share the same semantic features [+since, +because, -thus] and they both grammatically and semantically similar. Therefore, and no explicit nor implicit shift occurred and no change in the meaning of the original message when it translated from the SL to TL.

Table 4.3.t Analysis of **Kay** and **To**

SL	Lam attawaqaç zan taku;na taçalayta çan kuli fajin huna kali kay tabdaza min zalsifri huna.
TL	“I didn’t expect that you could have given up everything there to start here from scratch”.
Classified items of ST and TT.	SL: kay [+CONJ]. TL: to [+PREP]
A semantic feature of ST and TT.	SL: kay [+CON, -PREP, +in order to +for, -until then TL: to [+PREP, -CONJ, +in order to, +for, -until then
Does the meaning of the original message change?	The conjunction ‘kay ’is translated to the preposition ‘to’, there was a grammatical change from the ST to TT. Despite that, they both share the same semantic features, and the original message maintains its meaning and does not change from the ST to TT.

The SL word ‘kay’ is used to express the cause-effect relation in the Arabic example. The writer gives up everything in his country, his work and his family to start a new life in France. The conjunction ‘kay’ in Arabic is translated into the preposition ‘to’ in English that expresses the causal relation.

The actual conjunction such as ‘for’ is omitted and replaced by the preposition ‘to’. An explicit shift occurred because of the grammatical difference its level in the TT is lower than ST. Regarding text meaning, both words (kay and to) carry the semantic features of ‘in order to’ and ‘for’ [+in order to, +for], and they do not mean ‘until then’ [-until then]. The meaning of the message is clearly expressed by the word ‘kay’ that indicates that there is a purpose behind the writer’s decision of giving up everything. The English example has the same meaning which is expressed by the preposition ‘to’. As a result, no implicit shift occurred despite the explicit shift that happened because of the grammatical difference.

4.4 Relative Pronouns

Table 4.4.a Analysis of **ʔallati** and **Which**

SL	waruhtuaqusu ɟalajki liɟawal marra qisatalkaallaw. ha ʔallati: rasamtuha baɟdama ha. dartu ɟihda ɟalasat ʔallrasm fi: madrasat ʔalfunun ʔalɟamila.
TL	For the first time, I went on telling the story behind that painting which I had completed after attending a session at the school of fine art.
Classified item of SL to TL	SL: ʔallati: [+ PRON, TL: which [+PRON

Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: ʔallati [+ PRON, +that] TL: which [+ PRON, +that]
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	The words ‘ʔallati’ in Arabic and ‘which’ in English are used as relative pronouns both share the same meaning, so no change occurs in the original text.

The comparison study of the two extracts in the SL and TL shows that both relative pronouns ‘ʔallati’ and ‘which’ link the main and subordinate clauses. The word ‘ʔallati’ is used to represent an object which is the paintings; it is translated to the English conjunctive pronoun ‘which’ and also it can be translated into the conjunctive pronouns ‘which, who, that’ in English.

Both extracts show similarity in term of pronouns use and similarity in their semantic features. So, the meaning of the original text is maintained.

Table 4.4.b Analysis of **ʔallaði:** and **That**

SL	Ruhtu atalaḏaḏu beḏalika ʔalmawqif alçajib ʔallaði: lam ʔattaçamdhu
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TL	I was savouring that unexpected awkward situation
Classified items of SL and TL	SL: ʔallaḏi: [+ PRON] TL: that: [+ PRON]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: ʔallaḏi: [+PRON, +which, +masculine, -feminine] TL: that [+PRON, +which, +masculine, +feminine]
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	Both relative pronouns play the same role in both messages, and the original message preserves its meaning

In the Arabic example, the relative pronoun ‘ʔallaḏi:’ links the main clause with a subordinate clause, and it has the meaning the English relative pronoun [+which]. In this example, ‘ʔallaḏi:’ replaced the word ‘situation’ and is used for masculine [+masculine] and not feminine [-feminine]. In the English version, ʔallaḏi is translated to the relative pronoun ‘that’ which is used as a relative pronoun replacing the ‘situation’ word. It also shares the semantic features with the relative pronouns [+which], the word ‘that’ used for both genders [+masculine, +feminine].

Neither explicit nor implicit shifts occurred because of the grammatical and semantical similarity between ‘ʔallaḏi: and that’. Thus, no change occurred in the meaning of the message when translated from the SL to TL.

Table 4.4.c Analysis of **ʔallati:** and **That**

SL	Rubçu armina ʔalʔajam almotafabiha ʔallati: anfaqtoha fi: inti. daruki.
TL	A quarter of a century of days that all seemed the same as I waited for you.
Classified items from the SL to TL	SL: ʔallati: [+PRON] TL: that [+PRON]
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: ʔallati: [+ PRON, +which, +feminine, -masculine] TL: that: [+ PRON, +which, +feminine, +masculine]
Does the meaning change from the SL to TL	There was no change in term of conjunctive pronouns use, and no change in the message meaning when it translated from the SL to TL.

The data in the above example shows that the relative pronoun ‘ʔallati’ is used to join the main clause with the subordinate clause, it has the meaning of the word [+which], and it used just in the feminine form [+feminine] and not used in the masculine [-masculine]. ‘ʔallati:’ is translated to the relative pronoun ‘that’ and meant [+which] in this example and used for both masculine and feminine [+feminine, +masculine] in English. Both pronouns in the Arabic and English example represent the word ‘the days’ the writer was waiting.

The word ‘ʔallati’ and its English equivalent belong to the same grammatical class and share the same semantic features. Thus, no explicit or implicit shifts occurred, and the meaning of the original message is maintained when translated from the ST to TT.

Table 4.4.d. Analysis of **ʔallaði:** and **Who**

SL	Ana ʔalraʔulu almaçtu:b çallaði: taraka fi alamaçarik almansija ðiraçaho.
TL	I am the handicapped one who lost his arm in forgotten battle.
Classified items in the SL and TL	SL: ʔallaði: [+ PRON TL: who [+ PRON
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: ʔallaði [+PRON, +for human, + for nonhuman, +masculine, -feminine TL: who [+ PRON, +for human, -for nonhuman, +masculine, +feminine
Does the meaning of the original message change from the SL to TL?	There was no difference in term of relative pronouns used in both the Arabic and English examples as the relative pronoun ‘ʔallaði:’ is translated to the relative pronoun ‘who’. Moreover, no change occurred in the meaning of the original message; the meaning is sustained from the SL to TL

The data presented in the above table shows that the relative pronoun ‘ʔallaḏi:’ in the Arabic example is used to replace a person or the subject that mentioned before or ‘I’. On the other hand, the pronoun ‘who’ plays the same role and introduce a clause that gives information about the previous subject ‘I’. Both relative pronouns detect the same meaning.

The relative pronoun ‘ʔallaḏi:’ is used to link two clauses and it stands in the place of the subject ‘I’. Its semantic features show it is a relative pronoun that used just for masculine and used for human and nonhuman [+PRON, +human, +nonhuman, +masculine, -feminine]. ʔallaḏi:’ is translated to the English relative pronoun ‘who’ that used for human only, and for both masculine and feminine form [+PRON, +human, -nonhuman, +masculine, +feminine]. Accordingly, there was no difference in the grammatical class of both pronouns, and no difference in the meaning they set it in both examples. No explicit nor implicit shift occurred, and the original message maintains it means when it was translated into TL.

Table 4.4.e. Analysis of **Ma:** and **What**

SL	Faqad kuntu atahamallu wahdi masʔulijata ma: jaktubu;n
TL	I was held responsible for what others wrote
Classified items of SL and TL	SL: ma: [+ PRON, TL: what [+ PRON
Semantic features of SL and TL	SL: ma: [+PRON, + nonhuman, -human, + both genders, +singular and plural

	TL: what [+PRON, +nonhuman, human, +both genders, + singular and plural
Does the meaning change from the SL to TL?	The relative pronouns are used in both the Arabic and English extracts; they both share the same semantic features, then the meaning is the same in the SL and TL.

The data presented above shows that the relative pronoun ‘ma:’ in the Arabic example is used instead of the things that people were writing such as books, articles and so on. In English, it is translated to its equivalent the relative pronoun ‘what’ that shares the same grammatical and semantic features [+PRON, +nonhuman, human, +both genders, + singular and plural].

Their usage in both Arabic and English was substantive. Accordingly, both relative pronouns convey the same meaning, and no explicit nor implicit shift occurs in the ST. The meaning of the original message is maintained when translated from the SL to TL.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

The findings related to the conjunctions used in the Arabic novel *Dhakhirat Aljasad* and its English translation *Memory in the Flesh* are presented by answering the research questions. The semantic analysis of the conjunctions translated from Arabic to English forms the focus of this study, in addition to the contribution of this topic to learning and teaching English as a second language. The chapter concludes with suggestions and future research.

5.1 The Findings

This research aims to examine the semantic features of the conjunctions in the Arabic novel *Dhakhirat Aljasad* and its English version *Memory in the Flesh*. The semantic study of the conjunctions in Arabic and English revealed that most Arabic conjunctions share the same meaning and grammatical structure with English conjunctions, except some of them that may share the same meaning but differ in term of grammatical usage and they are specific to the context in comparison to English.

Interference from the first language is considered one of the greatest problems faced by second language learners. This study focuses on the semantic analysis and highlights the semantic difference between the conjunctions in both Arabic and English. The findings can be used to help Arab learners learn English.

5.1.1 The types of conjunctions used in translating the Arabic novel *Dhakirat Aljasad* into the English novel *Memory in the Flesh*

The first question explores the types of conjunctions used in translating the Arabic novel into English. Based on a comparison of the conjunctions used in both novels, the results revealed that some of the conjunctions are equivalent in both languages, or it is completely parallel, while others are overlapping. Some conjunctions differ in terms of grammar, but they convey the same semantic function as the conjunction 'hatta' in Arabic and the adverb 'even' in English.

Firstly, the inseparable conjunctions in Arabic will be discussed. They are combined with the additive 'and', adversative 'but', temporal 'then' and causal conjunctions such as 'so' and 'because'. Inseparable conjunctions are the second most frequently used conjunctions in the Arabic novel. In English, they are a mixture of all types of conjunctions: additive such as 'or' or 'nor', adversative like the conjunction 'but', casual as 'if' and 'as', and temporal such as the conjunction 'then' and 'when'. The least type used is the relative pronouns such as 'that', 'who' and 'which', employed in both Arabic and English because of their role to conjunct between the clauses in the sentence, despite their classification as pronouns. We can conclude from the first question that most of the Arabic conjunctions exist in English. Nevertheless, they are overlapped (similar in name and function), different in name, and differ in their function in sentences.

5-1-2 The similarities and dissimilarities of the semantic features of the Arabic conjunction in the English translation

Based on the findings of the study, we found that some Arabic conjunctions carry similarities with English conjunctions whereas other conjunctions are different. The study reveals that some conjunctions are separable conjunctions or inseparable and share the same semantic features, in comparison with the conjunction used in the English version of the novel (see Tables 4.2.a, 4.2.b, 4.2.e, 4.3.a, 4.3.b, 4.3.d, 4.3.e, 4.3.h, 4.3.i, 4.3.j, 4.3.k, 4.3.l, 4.3.n, 4.3.p, 4.3.q, 4.3.s). Let us take the words ‘wa’ and ‘and’ in Table 4.2.b. They both carry the semantic features of [+and also, +furthermore], and they denote the meaning of [+moreover, +besides] in Table 4.2.a We also have the two words ‘aw’ and ‘or’. They both carry the same semantic features of [+or else], but they do not give the meaning [-additionally]. ‘θumma’ and ‘then’ are also two words that share the same semantic features. Both respond to the meaning of [+next +subsequently, +after that] and do not carry the meaning of [-earlier, -before]. The conjunctions that are similar in both Arabic and English are the pair ‘liʔinna’ and ‘because’ they share the semantic features [+CONJ, +since +for, -as a result, -in consequence of this], and also the pair ‘lakin’ and ‘but’ that carries the same semantic features [+CONJ, + yet, +however]. This proves that most of the Arabic conjunctions are equivalent to English conjunctions.

The similarities between the use of conjunctions in Arabic and English are also shown through the use of relative pronouns with the same purpose to conjoin two or more clauses and create one complex sentence. This study found that the use of the relative pronouns in Arabic is almost similar or identical in the case of gender, duality or plural agreement. The relative pronouns ‘ma’ and ‘what’ in Table 4.4.e share the same semantic features [+PRON, +nonhuman, -human, +both genders, + singular and plural]. Their usage in both Arabic and English is clear and accurate, and they maintain the meaning of the

original message. All the examples presented in Table 4.4.a to Table 4.4.e proved that most of the Arabic and English relative pronouns are similar and equivalent if their grammar and semantic features are used accurately.

Some of the Arabic conjunctions, when translated into other English conjunctions, are semantically different as shown in Tables 4.2.b, 4.2.c, 4.3.b. The word 'wa' carries the semantic features of [+and also] while the word 'but' carries the semantic features of [+however]. On the other hand, we see the word 'wa' that means [+and also] while 'then' means [+next]. The word 'aw' occurs in an example with the meaning of [+or] whereas the word 'and' occurs with the meaning of [+and also].

Since there are dissimilarities between Arabic and English conjunctions, some of the Arabic conjunctions are replaced with words that do not function as conjunctions in Arabic. The word 'li' which is an inseparable conjunction is replaced by the word 'to' which in English is a preposition (see Table 4.2.f) even though the word 'to' and 'li' share the same semantic features with the word 'to' to maintain the meaning of the translated message. Among the separable conjunctions, the word 'kay' is replaced by the preposition 'to' (see Table 4.3.s). It can also be translated to both 'to' and 'for' as they both share the same meaning [+in order to]. Thus, English has two different words to replace the word 'kay'. When the word 'hatta' is translated into English, it is replaced by the preposition 'to' (see the Table 4.3.e), and it can be replaced by the adverb 'even' (see Table 4.3.f).

The results of this research also revealed that some of the Arabic conjunctions have a multifunctional nature such as the conjunction 'fa' and the conjunction 'wa'. Based on the cohesion theory of Halliday and Hasan (1976), the conjunctions 'fa' and 'wa' could express more than one cohesive relation.

Tables 4.2.d and 4.2.e show that the Arabic conjunction ‘fa’ is used as a causal conjunction as it carries the semantic features of [+CONJ, +since, +for the reason that]. It is also used as a resultative conjunction when it carries the semantic features of [+CONJ, +therefore, +hence.]. In addition, this conjunction is used as an adversative conjunction as it shares the same semantic features with the conjunction ‘but’ as clarified in the-semantic analysis of ‘fa’: [+CONJ, +but,]. It is used as a sequential and explanatory conjunction as explained in Table 4.2.e.

The conjunction ‘wa’ is also used as an additive conjunction as shown in Tables 4.2.a and 4.2.b. It is also used as an adversative conjunction (Table 4.2.c) and as a temporal conjunction (Table 4.2.d).

In conclusion, some Arabic conjunctions share similar meanings with English prepositions, English adverbs, and English conjunctions. Moreover, some Arabic conjunctions are multifunctional.

5.1.3 The types of shifts in the level of explicitness and textual meaning found in the English translation

The Arabic inseparable conjunctions show similarity in term of their semantic features with the conjunctions in English which correspond with the norms of texts in the SL. No explicit or implicit shift occurred from the ST to TT text. On the contrary, some English conjunctions in the translated versions do not share the same semantic features with the Arabic, so they implicitly change the meaning of the original message, even though they are translated as conjunctions. In some passages in the novel, words such as ‘aw’, and ‘kay’, the real conjunctive words were omitted and replaced with others, so the original

meaning was altered. Consequently, the level of explicitness in such extracts was higher in the ST. Moreover, the inseparable conjunction ‘fa’ that shares similar semantic features as the conjunction ‘so’ in English is omitted and is not replaced in the TL text. As a result, the level of explicitness is higher in the ST than the TT, and an implicit change in the text’s meaning occurred.

The second type of conjunction is separable conjunctions. Many conjunctions in English corresponds with the norms in the SL, pairs such as (*aw*, or), (*am*, or), (*anna*, that), (*lakin*, but), (*kaana*, as if), (*çindama:*, when), (*θumma*, then), (*itha*, if), (*law*, if), (*lianna*, because), (*liða:*, so) are similar grammatically and semantically as they share the same semantic features, so the meaning does not change in the messages from the SL to TL.

On the other hand, there are some conjunctions such as ‘kay’ and ‘hatta’ which are very explicit but these conjunctions are replaced by words that are lexically different such as prepositions and adverbs. The occurrence of the explicit shift during translation process due to the adverbs and prepositions use does not affect the meaning of the message in the SL.

All relative pronouns translated into English do not show any explicit shift. The relative pronouns in the English text corresponds to the relative pronouns in the Arabic text. With the exception of their usage in some passages, the conjunctive pronouns ‘allaði:’ and ‘allati:’ that carry similar semantic features with the word ‘which’ were completely omitted and not replaced by any other lexical word. Hence, the level of explicitness is high, but the meaning of the message was not affected, and no change has occurred.

Some Arabic conjunctions are replaced by either prepositions or adverbs or are not mentioned in the English extract to sustain the meaning of the original message when translated from the SL to TL.

As a result, the conjunctive use is multifunctional. Thanks to this, many simultaneous processes underlying discourse took place and consequently support the creation of coherence.

5.3 Significance of the Study

The findings of the study reveal similarities and dissimilarities between Arabic and English conjunctions. Most of the conjunctions are related, while some have overlaps in meaning. The first contribution of this study is the use of conjunctions as grammatical ties as presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976). The first type of Arabic conjunctions which is the inseparable conjunction include all the English types which are, additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. At the same time, all types are grouped under separable conjunctions. In addition, some Arabic conjunctions are replaced by prepositions and adverbs such as, 'to' and 'even', which is proof that some Arabic conjunctions and prepositions and adverbs share the same meaning.

The semantic study of the Arabic novel *Dhakirat Aljasad* and its English version *Memory in the Flesh* also reveals that some conjunctions in the TT correspond with the norms of the conjunctions in the ST. The study also shows that in some passages, the level of explicitness in the ST is higher than in the TT for most conjunctions. From the results of this study, some conjunctions shifted explicitly because of changes in their grammatical usage when translated from the ST to TT. Regarding textual meaning, the results show that

implicit shifts are minimal, so the meaning of the conjunctions in the ST is maintained when translated to the TT. Based on the findings of the study, the meaning of the Arabic conjunctions is sustained in the TT despite the change in their grammatical usage.

The multifunctional nature of conjunctions such as ‘wa’ and ‘fa’ is an important finding of this study. One conjunction can be used to express many cohesion relations as an additive, adversative, causal and temporal.

5.4 Recommendation

This study is considered the first attempt to deal with the semantic analysis of conjunctions used in Arabic. Research must be conducted on other sources of data such as political speeches where the kinds of conjunctions used in this kind of data might show different outcomes to illuminate any deficiency or confusion that arise from our study.

The semantic precision of conjunctions is a critical matter that must be taken into consideration by translators to avoid inaccuracies, especially when dealing with conjunctions such as ‘fa’ that can express more than one function.

This study has practical applications used by those learning or teaching English as a second language as it highlights how Arabic and English conjunctions differ. Many errors can be avoided in the learning process. The semantic study of conjunctions in both Arabic and English help learners, especially those less proficient, to understand the similarities and differences between the two languages.

Conjunctions are used to indicate the logical relation between or within sentences. Their semantic properties play a major role in discourse interpretation. This is why the misuse of the cohesive devices in the translated version creates misinterpretation and a

breakdown in communication causing the intended meaning to become distorted. Therefore, a comparison between Arabic and English is very important to determine such problems. The study contributed to reaching this aim and at the same time encourages further studies to fill the gap of using conjunctions cross-linguistically.

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