

Aspect of Texture in Salih's Novel "Season Of Migration to the North" with reference to Translation

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Abstract

Texture can be defined as the way a text is put together. This study presents a contrastive analysis of textual devices in Arabic texts and their English translation following the method propounded by Halliday (1994). It aims at investigating the textual devices in English and Arabic to find out the various devices used by the two different language families, it is only natural that texture represented by such devices poses great difficulties for experienced translators, let alone beginners. Thus, the present study tries to find evidence for the hypotheses that English and Arabic show differences in their use of textual devices and that Arabic, unlike English, prefers to group information into large grammatical chunks.

It has been found here that the two languages show marked differences in their use of these devices. It has also been found that the English texts show preference for using a considerable lower number of additives than Arabic. Moreover, Arabic texts incline towards the use of a considerably higher number of lexical items than their English equivalents to achieve texture.

The study falls into three sections, the first section presents the problem, aims of the study and the hypothesis. The second section is concerned with giving a review of literature on standards of textuality. Section three tackles the aspect of texture in English and Arabic

Section One□ Introduction□

1.1 Statement of the Problem:□

Each language has its own patterns to convey interrelationships of persons and events, no language may these patterns be ignored if the translation is to be understood by its readers.

A text may be oral or written and it may consist of one sentence or more. If a text is made up of one sentence only the problem of texture does not arise. This is why a discussion of texture usually concerns texts comprising more than one sentence. Furthermore, texture deals with non-structural, in translational relations. Elements occurring inside a sentence are tied together structurally, e. g., in "The boy kicked the ball" the elements, 'the boy, kicked, the ball' are joined together by means of the structure of the sentence. This is called the structural cohesion which is not the domain of cohesion proper. Texture deals with the relationships across the boundary of sentences. For example, in the text, "The boy kicked the ball", he looked happy, the two sentences are joined or rather the second cannot be understood properly unless one goes to the first sentence to find out the reference of the pronoun. The pronoun 'he' in this example is a cohesive device, it helps to create a text out of the two sentences, i. e., it gives texture to both sentences. As it is well-known, Arabic and English belong to two different language families, and it is only natural that texture may pose great difficulties and challenges for experienced translators, let alone beginners.

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1.2 Aims of the study:

The study aims at the following:

- 1- What are those text devices used in Arabic and English.
- 2- The differences they show in translating texts from SLT into TLT and vice versa.□

1.3 Hypothesis:

It is hypothesized that:

- 1- There is no difference in their usage.
- 2- Unlike English, Arabic prefers to group information into very large grammatical chunks with less devices in translating texts from Arabic into English.

1.4 Procedure and data collection;

The procedure of this study can be summarized as follows:

- 1- A discussion is first made of the various textual devices in English and Arabic.
- 2- This is followed by a discussion of the standards of textuality that should be satisfied so that a text can function as a communicative occurrence.
- 3- The set of data used for analysis is presented with the translated versions in Arabic. The data is taken from the Arabic novel "موسم الهجرة إلى الشمال" "Season of Migration to the North" written by Tayeb Salih.
- 4- Results are then discussed, conclusions are drawn and recommendations are suggested.

1.5 Significance of the study:

It is hoped that the study will be of value for translators of Arabic into English and vice versa. It is also expected that it will be of significance for teachers of English, researchers and specialists in this field of knowledge.

1.6 Limitation of the study:

The study is limited to Salih's novel "Season of migration to the North". The direction of translation is from Arabic into English. The current study, to the best of our knowledge, is the first attempt to study the Texture In Narrative Texts with Reference To Translation. Consequently, it is hoped that it will be of a great value to translators, teachers of translation and students of translation and also for learners of English.

Section Two

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction:

Language has increasingly been studied in recent years as a means of communication or macro linguistics rather than as a code. The focus has been on studying language as used in a context by looking for a unit larger than the sentence and stressing the communicative competence. Thus, two units of analysis text and discourse have emerged within the field of macrolinguistics. Text analysis is concerned with the formal level of how sentences are built into larger suprasentential units or texts, whereas discourse analysis tackles the functional level of how the language is used in every-day's life (James, 1980: 102).

Language according to Halliday (1970), fulfils three major functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational component expresses propositional relations and experience of the outside world. The interpersonal component encodes speech roles and conveys the attitude of the speaker towards the content of the message. The textual component deals with creating a text, and cohesion is a means of realizing this.

A text is a semantic unit defined as any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 1). Texts may be classified according to their medium of expression into oral and written. These may be further divided into various kinds such as descriptive, narrative, argumentative and expository.

This study attempts to investigate some aspects of texture and structure manifested in English and Arabic narrative discourse.

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2.2 The concept of a narrative text:

There seems to be no agreement among discourse analysts or linguists on what constitutes a narrative text. The most frequently used definition is that a narrative text is that which refers to real or fictional actions; such actions are supposed take place in the past relative to the time of narration (Gulich and Quasthoff, 1985). Within a narrative text, participants taking part in the actions are animate, usually humans (Van Dijk, 1972: 1980). If they are not human, for instance, as in fables or fairy tales, they possess human characteristics and act like humans.

Most frequently, a narrative text is characterized by specific features. Among these features there is a specifically narrative macrostructure that manifests itself linguistically in a very distinctive way (i.e. formulaic beginnings and endings). Yet, these characteristics retain their validity only when they are couched in ambiguous terms. Any attempt to provide an accurate definition would result in criteria that apply only to a specific type of narrative text. Therefore, the best way to define a narrative text here is to give a personal definition that will suffice for this study. A narrative text will therefore be defined here as a kind of text that is characterized by the telling of a story. It can also be defined as a text that supplies a running commentary on the characters of a story or on any other performance. It is a text that tackles factual and conceptual phenomena in time. Wallach (1983) points out that this type of text focuses on events and relations in time such as stories; it is the text type that is harmonic with the cognitive process of the perception of time.

Furthermore, a narrative text is different from a dialogue text in other respects: a narrative text has the form of a story whereas a dialogue text has the form of a conversation. A dialogue text is a written exchange of opinions and ideas while a narrative text is not.

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In sum, a narrative text is a text that is an account of events, usually in the past, that employs verbs of speech, motion, and action to describe a series of events that are contingent one to another, and that typically focuses on one or more performers of actions.

Here are some features of a narrative text:

- Events are organized chronologically.
- First or third pronoun forms are used.
- The text is oriented around a specific agent or agents.

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2.3 Linguistic and Non-linguistic Dimensions of Texts:

The linguistic and non-linguistic dimensions are influenced by the seven standards of textuality, i.e., intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, inter textuality, cohesion and coherence. The linguistic features are viewed through the organization of language. Language can be explained as multiple coding system comprising number of levels of coning: the rhetorical, the semantic, the lexico-grammatical and the phonological/orthographic levels alternatively.

The lexico-grammatical level refers to linguistic form, i.e., the choice of words and grammatical structures. Within this level, features can be divided into three sub-levels: morphological, syntactic and lexical.

The semantic level is concerned mainly with the extent of denotation versus connotation uses of language.

At the rhetorical level, considerations of metaphor irony, sound effect, etc., respond to certain linguistic demands of the texts. In other words, there is interplay between aspects of intentionality, situationality, textuality and the best possible means of organizing language resources to serve a certain effect.

Non-linguistic dimensions may be considered at three levels: social, cultural and paralinguistic. These are often interrelated.□

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2.4 Standards of Textuality:

'Textuality' is a fundamental concept in all disciplines that are more or less involved in discourse analysis. Depending on the discipline its definition may vary. The text model presented by de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) is one example of such definitions. Following Searle (1969) they define the concrete textual communication on the basis of seven constitutives and three regulative principles. The latter are efficiency, (minimum expenditure of effort by the participants), effectiveness (optimum attainment of a good), and appropriateness. A text is efficient, effective, and appropriate when it respects seven standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality.

The first five standards are considered user-oriented and are thus directly linked to pragmatic considerations. The last two are text-oriented and are concerned with textual and internal connectives. Each of these will be discussed in some detail below so that a full understanding can be attained of the text organization.

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2.4.1 Cohesion:

A fundamental feature of textuality is that textual utterances are strung together in a way to ensure "continuity of utterance" (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981: 48). This kind of relationship is obtained when: The interpretation of some element in discourse dependent on that of another. One proposes the other one in the sense that it can not be decoding except by resource to it.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 4)

Amongst all principles of textuality, cohesion is the most linguistically overt. Actually, it is this characteristic feature of linguistic evidence that principally distinguishes it from the conceptual apparatus underlying it, i.e., coherence. Cohesion in this way creates a linguistic (syntactic and lexical) presentation of the process of interaction between text producer and receiver.

Cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations which link various parts of a text. These relations or ties organize and, to some extent, create a text, for instance, by requiring the reader to interpret words and expressions by reference to other words and expressions in the surrounding sequences and paragraphs (Shi, 2004: 1-2). Cohesion is a surface relation which connects together the actual words and expressions that we can see or hear.

Cohesion has been the focus of numerous studies investigating the nature of written discourse (see, e.g., Biber, 1988; Chafe, 1985; Morrow, 1989). Conner (1996: 49) defines it as "the use of explicit linguistic devices to signal relations between sentences and parts of texts". These devices are the linguistic resources for creating texture (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 2). Those parts are referred to as cohesive ties (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). According to Halliday and Hasan (p. 4):

The concept of a tie makes it possible to analyze a text in terms of its cohesive properties, and give a systematic account of its pattern of texture ... Various types of questions can be investigated this way, For example concerning the difference between speaking and writing, the relationship between cohesion and the organization of texts into sentences and paragraphs, and the possible differences among different genres and different authors in the numbers and kinds of ties they typically employ.

The use of cohesive ties has been found to differ not only for the spoken and written discourse (Cf. Beaman, 1984; Biber, 1988, 1992; Gumperz, Kaltman, and O'Connor, 1984), but also cross-culturally (Connor, 1996, Johns, 1984; Scarcella, 1984). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the "packaging of information is in sentences and in texts" and it (Biber, 1992: 215) is also likely to differ when two different writing media are involved.□

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Gonzalez-Bueno (1998: 58) observe that language produced electronically results in "a discourse somewhat different from both written and oral communication", and Murray (1988: 355) suggests that such a difference may be responsible for differences in cohesion and other syntactic features in various discourses (ibid).

Another way in which cohesion is treated in texts is through distribution of information in sentences. According to Halliday (1967:211), each sentence consists of two information units: the topic, which in English typically corresponds to the subject noun phrase, and the comment, which provides information about the topic and corresponds to the remainder of the sentence in what Halliday calls the "unmarked sequence". This distinction between topic and comment has also been referred to as the given-new distinction, with a given information being that which the reader can be assumed to know and recover from a preceding text, and new information being what the reader does not know and cannot recover from the text (Chafe, 1976; Kopple, 1986). It has been found that if the topic, that is, the given information, occurs before the comment, that is, the new information, in a sentence, information from a text can be better recalled and is perceived as more cohesive (Faigley and Witte, 1983; Kieras, 1980; Thompson, 1985; Kopple, 1986). Given information, recoverable from preceding text, is realized in the subject position of sentences through lexical means, (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). This concept also extends to the assumptions about the consciousness of addressee (Chafe, 1976). In that broader sense, writers need to distinguish between "knowledge which the speaker assumes to be in the consciousness of the addressee at the time of [writing] and what the [writer] assumes he or she is introducing into the addressee's consciousness (Chafe, 1976: 30).□

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According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion is a text-building component of any linguistic system and that linguistic elements have to enter into a cohesive relationship to form a text or texture. Hence, texture is the explicit expression of the formal linkage, i.e., cohesive ties and relationships are semantic and nonstructural relations. They reserve the term "structure" for the cohesive relationships within individual sentences. In case of one-sentence text (slogans, aphorisms, proverbs, inscriptions, etc.) texture and structure overlap.

The manipulation of formal linguistic resources for the production and reception of texts depends on a competence that goes beyond the structuring of the individual sentences. That is a competence, which covers both intrasentential structure and intersentential formulations. This means that cohesion or cohesive linkage is operational within every meaningful textual element and perpetuates at every stage of the textual process. It upholds a persistent semantic thread running through a text.

However, Halliday and Hasan's account is considered by far the most comprehensive and detailed account of cohesive devices. According to them, the relation between parts of a text is achieved linguistically by connective features that fall into two types:

- a. lexical cohesion.
- b. grammatical cohesion.

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2.4.2 Lexical Cohesion:

This type of cohesion works through the co-occurrence of lexical items that are semantically or collocationally related. This semantic linkage renders words incapable of being interpreted in isolation from each other. Interdependence of this kind, however, does not stipulate that elements be adjacent to each other in order to be cohesive. They may be adjacent or distant filling various slots within the text. It must be noted, as well, that lexical fields are not themselves cohesive. Rather, they come to assume a cohesive function only when activated in texts. Names of colours, for instance, form a semantic spectrum in any language but they have

no cohesive role unless they are used in connection with members of lexical fields in a certain text, thus, reflecting "what belongs together in reality or what we conceive of this reality" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 288). There are two patterns of lexical cohesion: (1) reiteration, (2) collocation. Under the category of reiteration, it is possible to identify four forms of realization: (a) repetition of the same lexical item (b) the use of synonym or semi-synonym (c) substitution by the hyponym or metonym or super ordinate term (ibid; Halliday, 1985: 311) (d) the use of a general word.

Lexical items by collocation are set up through the selection of items that tend to accompany each other. These co-occurring items (or collocations) may not bear any general semantic affinity between them; yet, they can contribute tremendously to cohesion within a text. One reason for this inherently strong cohesion is that collocation , as a linguistic phenomenon, enables language users to predict what it is likely to come next in utterance. Once an item of a collocation occurs in a text, it immediately activates in our memory another item or items that are closely associated with it yielding a textual cohesive effect that facilitates comprehension, or monitors production.□

2.4.3 Grammatical Cohesion:

Grammatical cohesion is set up by the use of grammatical resources of language. Halliday and Hasan (1976) specify four main classes of grammatical cohesive devices in English, as follows:

1. Conjunctive relation: Which is the relation between what is about to be said and what has been said before, which is made explicit through such notions as contrast, time, and result. Consider:

(2.5) your report is fine. However, it needs further refinements.

The expression "however" establishes a conjunctive relation.

2. Co-reference: Is the semantic interpretation of features that depend on reference to other features in a text. These are of two types:

a. Anaphoric relations which point backward for their interpretation e.g.:

(2.6) Thousands of demonstrators took the streets. They demanded an increase in wages.

The pronoun "they" in the second sentence refers to "thousands of demonstrators" in the first.

b. Cataphoric relations point forwards:

(2.7) This might please you. A new minister will take over.

The demonstrative "This" has a cataphoric function referring to the whole of the second sentence.

3. Substitution: One item or expression replaces another item or expression previously mentioned in the text.

(2.8) These methods are no longer effective. We must work out new ones.

The word "ones" substitutes "methods".

(2.9) Will he resign? I don't think so.

The word so substitutes the clause he will resign.

4. Ellipsis: Deletion of items or expressions whose meaning is recoverable from the context.

(2.10) Should we attend the session? You don't need to if you have no time.

The elliptic elements after "need to" are "attend the session".

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2.4.4 Coherence:

The presence of cohesive markers in a discourse is by no means a sufficient guarantee for its readability. It is true that such linguistic means can hold the attention of the reader, but it is the conceptual organization of the text that provides the conditions for the acceptance of the text as such. A text is not just a set of sentences but it is an ordered sequence that expresses conceptually related propositions (Widdowson, 1979; de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981; Van Dijk, 1985). Such an arrangement enables the reader to process the textual items one after the other in a meaningful sequence, securing the conceptual connectivity of utterances (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981: 84). Each item or utterance

activates in the reader a mental model in which the relevant events and entities are represented. The mental model activated (i.e., the textual world) has, *inter alia*, two major functions: It reinforces the meaning, which a language expresses and brings into focus the relevant hypothesis about assessing and activating cognitive elements (ibid.: 85). In this way it helps the processor to interpret what is being conveyed.

What follows then, is that the meanings of language items are just like any other kind of knowledge about human activities, and are held in an active storage. Proponents of the procedural approach stress this point, claiming that in textual processing, language users fit patterns of textual knowledge into pre-existing knowledge available in an active storage to arrive at an interpretation of the verbal output. They also maintain that comprehenders go beyond what is linguistically given. What counts as coherent and cohesive de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 48) attest, depends also on the attitude of communicating participants who intend and accept the text as such. The participants may tolerate lapses in cohesion or coherence as long as the communicative situation remains under control (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981: 48). This has led Quirk et. al. (1985: 1437) to suggest another category of connective devices to cater for coherence through pragmatic factors. It was called the category of 'pragmatic and semantic implication'. In a sequence like:

(2.11) Will you call by? I have a list of references, written by a supervisor to a student.

For example, its interpretation depends on the connection between utterances, which is based in turn on:

(1) the convention that an invitation implies that there is something of special interest to which the writer of the text wants to draw attention, and the writer has to offer by means of the reference list. It should be clear from the discussion above that coherence can be conceived as "a covert potential meaning relationship among parts of a text, made overt by the reader or listener through processes of interpretation" (Blum-Kulka, 1986: 17).

2.4.5 The User Dimension:

1. **Temporal Dialects** are variations of language along the dimension of time marked by the related set of linguistic features used by a text producer in his temporal provenance. Terms like "Old English", "Elizabethan English" and "Modern English" belong to this variable.
2. **Geographical Dialects:** The linguistic features characterizing a particular region are usually reflected in speech or writing of those dialects coming from such region.
3. **Social Dialects:** The correlation between language and social class constitutes the social dialect of a language user.
4. **Standard Dialects:** Standard dialects refer to the set of linguistic patterns which enable certain users of a given language to communicate intelligibly with each other irrespective of the different regions they belong to>
5. **Idiolects:** The individual idiosyncrasies forming the recognisability of a language user are his idiolect. We can recognize our friends by what they speak or write, by their favourite grammatical structures, pronunciation, and lexical items, not to mention the characteristics of their voices or how their hand-writing looks.

2.4.6 Intertextuality:

The notion of intertextuality was first introduced by Kristeva in 1966. Kristeva asserts that no text can ever be completely 'free' of other texts (McGuire, 1980: 79). Intertextuality refers to experiential commonality. While making constant internal reference to their message, texts also refer externally to other texts. For any given text there will be something that bears a close resemblance to another. They are all interlinked. This means that:

Part of the environment for any text is a set of previous texts, texts that are taken for granted as shared among those taking part.
(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 47)

Intertextuality according to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 10)
Concerns the factors which make the utilization
Of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or
More previously encountered texts.

Language users apply this intertextual knowledge through a process of mediation. By mediation it is meant the act of feeding one's goals and beliefs into the textual world (Ibid.: 162). The extent of mediation varies according to the ease or difficulty within which a language user relates a text to a previous one, which in turn depends on the degree of familiarity with the previous text. Reference to well-known texts is easier to establish and, hence, requires less mediation to the unknown or local ones.

In the following extracts, readers are expected to expend relatively little mediation in capturing the significance of the interests they contain:

(2.12) The Palestinian youth are slain. (Riyadh Daily, 21-2-1988)

(2.13) Kinnock says Gaza is 'Hell'

(2.14) The British opposition leader Neil Kinnock has toured parts of the occupied Gaza strip today and described the area as 'hell' and 'Vast Slum'. (Arab News, 19-2-1988).

In (2.12) the sign 'slain' imparts the text an atmosphere of an unjustified terror as it is reminiscent of things such as the atrocities into which 'Macbeth' lapses when he slays 'Duncan'. In this way, a 'crime' frame is activated in the reader within which he may interpret and evaluate the 'Zionists' as having repressive measures against the Palestinian people. As de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 116) Maintain:

Cohesion and Coherence of a single text may be
derived from that of another text in the same
discourse.

In (2.13) two forms of intertextuality are made: first, the 'hell' which is religious and second, 'slum' which is socioeconomic. The first expresses the speaker's horror of what he saw in the refugee camps, the misery and suffering of inhabitants, and the second is

an allusion to a place where the inhabitants are denied the basic necessities of a civilized life. In both the connotation is of an intolerable situation.

As a textural property, intertextuality then imposes another constraint on the style adopted by the text producer to communicate his message. Intertextuality provides the basis for the unity of method and goal in communication and it is the product of a long history of customs, beliefs, and social behavior of a given community. Intertextuality, as noticed above, is a reliable standard at various language levels in the form of a single word, a phrase, or an utterance. It may take the shape of a whole text. Among the standards of textuality so far discussed, cohesion is the main concern in this study.

Concluding Remarks:

The present section has examined some issues of relevance to texture. The basic claim is that texture is provided by cohesive ties between pairs of items in a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another.

The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. Cohesion is viewed as part of the language system, rather than arising from outside the text. Since it is concerned with the organization of the message, it is part of the textual component. Unlike theme and information distribution systems, however, cohesion is non-structural: Cohesive ties can occur both within and between sentences, and indeed can operate over quite long distances.

In section three we shall examine some aspects of texture in English and Arabic.

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SECTION THREE

Aspects of Texture in English and Arabic

3.1 Text Structure, Texture and Text Type:

A Text is composed of a series of sentences which together serve some overall rhetorical purposes. When we first approach a text, we identify series of words, phrases, clauses etc., in the order in which they appear on the page. But the linear progression of these text elements does not tell the whole story. Each element is active in fulfilling a rhetorical function, that is, each element enters into a discourse relation with other elements. The discourse relations enable us to identify sequences of elements which ultimately make up the unit 'text'.

Texture is one of the defining characteristics of a text. It is that property which ensures that a text "hangs together", both linguistically and conceptually. Under normal circumstances, a text is expected to be coherent, i.e., has the continuity of sense and cohesion, displays connectivity between its surface elements and that it should display distinct patterns of thematization, i.e., it will be arranged in such a fashion as to draw attention to those parts of its contents which are considered to be the most important ones.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1983: 73), the concept that is most important in talking about texture is a tie. It implies a relation. One sentence cannot have a tie without two members and those members cannot appear in a tie unless there is a relation between them.

Closely related to texture is the text structure. The structural organization of a text is related, on the one hand, to contextual categories such as text-type focus and the degrees of text evaluativeness, and, on the other hand, it is related to surface manifestations of cohesion as contextual clues for underlying coherence (Hatim, 1997: 54).

The text-type focus is a global framework for the analysis and appreciation of rhetorical purposes. As such, text-types focus become useful grids within which both the structure of texts and the way texts are moulded to display a variety of texture patterns are seen and examined. The principles of composition are thus followed in response to a given text-type focus, and with the aim of capturing the way texts are organized as cohesive and coherent wholes. To explain the process of negotiating structure, Hatim (p. 66) forwards the following figure:

The Expository Text

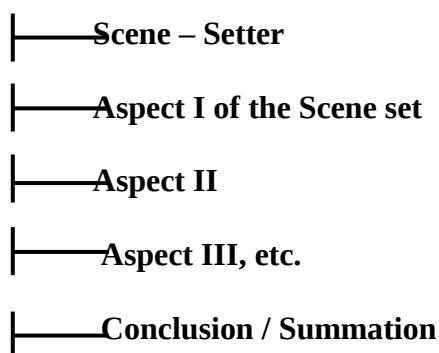


Figure (1): Exposition.
(Hatim, 1997)

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Thus, beyond the surface sequence of words, phrases, clauses, etc., text users negotiate the high-order relation on the basis of the rhetorical functions that a given element or group of elements performs within a text. These functions are defined in terms of the contribution □

they make to the realization of the overall communicative goal or rhetorical purpose (ibid.).

In this study, text structure and texture are considered to be one and have the same effects. Both have devices used to make texts operational and work as communicative occurrences.

3.2 Texture in English and Arabic:

This section attempts to investigate some aspects of texture and structure manifested in English and Arabic. This includes the repeated reference to the same subject, concepts and individuals (Kintsch, 1977) and the same contribution they make to the overall textuality and coherence of narrative discourse as well as the cohesive ties suggested by Halliday and Hasan (1994).

Halliday (1994: 308-309) mentions four main cohesive devices for the English language: (1) reference, (2) ellipsis and substitution, (3) conjunctions and (4) lexical devices. Each one of these has a number of subtypes which will be discussed briefly in the next pages.

3.2.1 Reference:

The term reference is traditionally used in semantics for the relationship which holds between a word and what it points to in the real world. The reference of chair would therefore be a particular chair that is being identified on a particular occasion. There are four subtypes of reference: (a) the definite article, (b) the demonstratives, (c) the personal pronouns and (d) comparison.

a. *The Definite Article*: The reference of the definite article is usually anaphoric when it is used as a cohesive tie. Example:

(3.15) Once upon a time, there lived a king whose daughter the king sent a royal ambassador to

(de Beaugrande, 1980: 137).

In (3.16), on the other hand, the definite article is not cohesive.

(3.16) The car which John sold is white.

The definite article 'the' in 'the car' in (3.16) is cataphoric. It creates a structural relationship, rather than a textural relationship. It is therefore not cohesive. The definite article in the Arabic language is realized as a prefix attached to the noun, and is often used anaphorically to point at the referent of an item found in a preceding part of the text as in:

اصطدت في ذلك اليوم أرنباً وغزالاً. فذهبت إلى السوق وبعث الأرنب بدينارين والغزال بثمانية دنانير.

(I hunted that day a rabbit and a deer. I went to the market and sold the rabbit for two dinars and the deer for eight dinars).

In their cohesive function, 'this' and 'these' may be anaphoric or cataphoric; 'that' and 'those' are used cataphorically only (Aziz, 1998: 80).

(3.18) Listen to this story. A man buried the battery of his car because the mechanic told him it was dead. (Cataphoric).

(3.19) The manager is going to resign. Who told you this/that? (Anaphoric).

Arabic demonstratives may have anaphoric and cataphoric reference.

The forms used for near reference may point either forward or backward; the forms employed for far reference are used only anaphorically (ibid.:92).

(3.20) اسمع هذا الخبر. يقال أن احمد قد تزوج من أرملة ثرية.

(Listen to this. They say that Ahmed has married a rich widow)

(3.21) إن رئيس الوزراء على وشك أن يستقيل. من أين سمعت هذا/ ذاك؟

(The prime Minister is about to resign. Where did you hear this/that from?).

In (3.20) هذا (this) is cataphoric; in (3.21) it is anaphoric ذلك and it could be considered so.

c. *Personal Pronouns*: Only third person pronouns (he, she, it) function as cohesive devices ⁽¹⁾. They are distinguished in English according to human, non-human, number and case.

Arabic, on the other hand, distinguishes only two types of pronouns: masculine and feminine: هو ، هي respectively. The plural of personal pronouns is هم for masculine and هن for feminine and هي for non-personal.

Personal pronouns have also dual number هما used for both masculine and feminine gender.

The personal pronouns are realized either as separate morphemes when they are stressed or as suffixes when they have weak stress. In the third person singular, the subjective pronoun is implied rather than expressed, e.g. قرأ (he read) كتبت (she wrote).

d. *Comparison*: It establishes a cohesive relationship between the comparative form and its antecedent. This relationship may be based on equality or inequality. Among items of comparison, contributing to cohesion are: another, the same, different, and equal.

In Arabic, adjectives have two degrees of comparison: the base, جميل (beautiful) and the comparative, which has the form افعل and is termed صيغة التفضيل (the elative or comparative form) أجمل. The comparative form is used with a definite article الأجل and has sometimes the sense of the superlative in English. The comparative form is used as a cohesive device usually pointing to a noun in the preceding part of the text (Aziz, 1998: 85) Example:

(3.22) عمل أحمد كاتباً في إحدى شركات النقل في مدينة بغداد ثم انتقل إلى شركة تجارية كبيرة
[فكانت مهمته أصعب.]

(Ahmed worked as a clerk in a transportation company in Baghdad, then he moved to a trading company, where he was given heavier responsibilities).

3.2.2 Ellipsis and Substitution:

Ellipsis and substitution have grammatical rather than semantic relationships (Baker, 1992: 186). They are used basically to avoid repetition and to give prominence to new information. Example:

(3.23) I like movies.

- And I do.

In the above-mentioned example, do is a substitute for like movies. Items commonly used in substitution in English include do, one, and the same, as in the following examples from Halliday and Hasan (1978: 89: 105).

(3.24) You think Joan already knows? I think everybody does.
(Does replaces knows).

(3.25) My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharper one (one replaces axe).

(3.26) A: I'll have two poached eggs on toast, please.

B: I'll have the same. (the same replaces two poached eggs on toast).

Ellipsis involves the omission of an item. That is, an item is replaced by nothing. This is a case of leaving something unsaid which is nevertheless understood. It includes only those cases where the grammatical structure itself points to an item or items that can fill the slot in question (ibid.: 187). Here are some examples of ellipsis:

(3.27) Joan brought some carnations, and Catherine some sweet peas, (ellipted item: brought in the second clause).

(3.28) Here are thirteen cards. Take any. Now give me any three. (ellipted items: card after any in the second clause and cards after any three in the third clause).

(3.29) Have you been swimming? Yes, I have. (ellipted items: been swimming in the third clause).

(Halliday and Hasan: 1976: 143; 158; 167)

Ellipsis and substitution in English may involve (a) the clause, (b) the verb phrase and (c) the noun phrase (Aziz, 1998: 82).

(a) *The clause*: The whole clause or part of it may be ellipted. Such ellipsis is associated with questions and responses. Thus, in (3.29), the whole clause except the polarity marker is ellipted.

(3.30) Can you speak French? Yes/No-(I can (cannot) speak French.).

The ellipted elements between brackets in (3.30) create a cohesive link with the previous sentence.

In substitution, the predication may be replaced by *do*, or *do so*.

(3.31) Smith says he is going to resign? – I doubt if he may *do/do so*.

(b) *The verb phrase*: Ellipsis of the verb phrase involves the lexical part; the operator is kept.

(3.32) Have you finished? I have (finished).

Substitution in the verb phrase is usually realized by means of the proform do.

(3.33) Has he checked the accounts? He is doing them now.

(c) *The noun phrase*: The structure of a noun phrase in English comprises the head optionally preceded by one or more modifiers, and optionally followed by a post modifier. The head may be ellipted and replaced by an element of premodification, as in:

(3.34) Can you lend me some money? I do not have any (money).

In (3.34) the elliptic head establishes a cohesive relationship with the preceding part of the text.

Substitution in the noun phrase is achieved by the preform one and its plural ones.

(3.35) Do you like the green shirt? No, I prefer the blue one.

In (3.35), one is a definite preform, which should be distinguished from the indefinite one, which has no plural, as in:

(3.36) Do you need any towels? There is one in the cupboard.

Possessive pronouns may also be regarded as substitutes for the noun phrases:

(3.37) this is my pen. The other must be yours.

Arabic, on the other hand, belongs to three groups of languages which use these two linguistic phenomena less frequently. Ellipsis and substitution may involve (a) the clause, (b) the verb phrase and (c) the noun phrase.

(a) *Clause ellipsis and substitution*:

The whole clause may be ellipted in polar questions, with the exception of the polar marker.

(3.38) هل تعرف هذا الرجل؟ - نعم / لا (اعرف هذا الرجل)

(Do you know this man? Yes / no (I know this man / I don't know this man).

The part of the clause following the polarity mark may be replaced by pro-form. In this type of substitution the verb form فعل is normally used.

(3.39) هل كافأت هذا الرجل؟ نعم فعلت ظ كلاً لم أفعّل

(Did you reward this man? Yes, I did / No, I didn't)

(b) The verb phrase:

In Arabic, the verb phrase is basically simple, composed of one element only. Thus, cohesion based on the ellipsis of one part of the verb phrase, as in English, is not possible. The verb has to be repeated, or ellipped completely.

(3.40) هل انتهوا من حفر الحديقة؟ - نعم (انتهوا)

(Have they finished digging the garden? – Yes, they have.)

(c) The noun phrase: The structure of the noun phrase in Arabic is flexible. Most of the elements may either precede or follow the head. Of the deictic elements, the following have a fixed position:

(i) أي (which / what man) or an indefinite determiner, e.g., أي رجل..؟ (any man), is followed by an indefinite singular or plural noun in the genitive (Aziz, 1989: 103).

(ii) The definite article, which is prefixed to the head, e.g., الرجل (the man).

(iii) The possessive determiner, e.g., كتابي (my book), كتاب الرجل (the man's book) always follows the head.

The remaining deictic element, the demonstrative, may either precede or follow the head: هذا الكتاب (this book), الكتاب هذا (the book this; this book). Arabic demonstratives are always used with a definite article; properly speaking, they are therefore not determiners, but predeterminers when they precede the head. When they follow the head they are appositives (ibid.: 101).

These elements play a limited role in ellipsis and substitution as cohesive devices. Arabic has no equivalent of the pronominal possessives, mine, yours, hers, theirs, his and its. The head is repeated in Arabic.

(3.41) كانت حياة والديها صعبة: أما حياتها فكانت سهلة نسبياً.

(Her parent's life had been difficult: hers was relatively easy) only the demonstratives are used in ellipsis:

(3.42) لا أريد تلك الساعة. أريد هذه.

(I don't want that watch. I want this)>

Numeratives, which may precede or follow the head, often replace an ellipted head.

كنت قد التقيت ثلاثة من أصدقائي القدامى في مقهى صغير بباريس. ثم مضت أعوام (3.43) طويلة. فرأيت ثلاثة مرة أخرى وقد أصبحوا تجاراً أثرياء.

(I met three of my old friends in a small café in Paris. Then many years passed before I met the three again. They had become rich merchants).

Probably the main difference between Arabic and English concerning ellipsis involves epithets. In Arabic they are frequently used in place of the head in elliptical constructions. This is mainly attributed to the fact that an Arabic adjective has most of the characteristics of a noun namely gender, number, case and definiteness. The Arab grammarians usually place adjectives and nouns in one class: substantives. Thus, adjectives in Arabic are a productive source of ellipsis; almost any adjective can replace a noun head (Aziz, 1998: 101).

جاءت فتاتان إلى بئر ماء. ثم طلبت الصغيرة منه أن يساعدها في ملء إنائها بالماء. (3.44)

(Two girls came to the well. The young (one) asked him to help her to fill her vessel with water).

In (3.44) the epithet الصغيرة replaces the head and thus creates a cohesive tie. However, English prefers substitution to ellipsis in such constructions. Note the use of one in the clause above.

Classifiers are as versatile as epithets with regard to ellipsis. They freely act as the head of a noun phrase.

أتريد القطار الكهربائي أم القطار الآلي؟ أريد الكهربائي. (3.45)

(Do you want the electric train or the mechanical one? – I want the electric one).

The forms واحد , واحدة , and the compound الشيء نفسه or نفس الشيء are sometimes used as substitutes for the noun phrases.

هل تحتاج إلى منشفة؟ خذ واحدة من الدولاب (3.46)

(Do you need a towel? Take one from the wardrobe).

□

3.2.3 Conjunctions:

Conjunction refers here to a formal linker of parts of a text; it covers traditional conjunctions and conjuncts. Conjunctions comprise a large class and are realized by lexical items such as and, yet, and expressions like, on the contrary. They will be classified here according to their cohesive and semantic role. The following classification is adopted from Halliday (1994, 324-26; cf., Quirk, 1985: 634). Three main relationships: elaboration, extension and enhancement, are recognized with a number of divisions.□

(a) *Elaboration*: This relationship has two subdivisions (i) apposition and (ii) clarification.

Apposition is subdivided into expository and exemplifying. The former uses words such as: in other words, that is to say, I mean to say.

(3.47) All the three projects are facing serious problems; I mean to say they have to be re-examined carefully.

In exemplifying expressions such as for example, for instance, are used.

(3.48) Some consonant clusters are very difficult for the foreign learner to pronounce even after a long period of training. For example, spr in spread and spring are not easy to master.

Clarification is subdivided into : corrective, transitional, dismissive, particularizing resumptive, summative, and verification.

Corrective: e.g., or rather, at least, to be more precise.

(3.49) He was in a defying mood although his careless behaviour caused a lot of damage to the company. He should at least have apologized.

Transitional: e.g., by the way, incidentally.

(3.50) I spent the whole afternoon reading a novel. By the way, have you met our new neighbours?

Dismissive: e.g., in any case, anyway, leaving that aside.

(3.51) The danger may look remote or even improbable. We must in any case be on our guard.

Particularising: e.g., in particular, especially.

(3.52) A number of rare birds and animals are threatened with extinction. The Asian elephant in particular will soon disappear unless very strict measures were not taken.

Resumptive: e.g., I was saying, to resume, to get back to the point.

(3.53) There came a hectic period when everyone was busy with one thing or another. We did not seem to notice what was happening in our neighbourhood. As I was saying, there was this single, old man who lived next door to us.

Summative, e.g., in short, briefly, to summarize.

(3.54) The apartment has good furniture, including a coloured television, a luxurious bathroom, a spacious sitting room and a splendid bedroom. In short, you have everything you need to live a pleasant life.

Verification: e.g., actually, as matter of fact, in fact.

(3.55) It is well past midnight; in fact the dawn is breaking over the hills.□

(b) *Extension*: Three divisions may be recognized in this relationship: addition; adversative and variation.

Addition: and, also, moreover, in addition, nor.

(3.56) The beach is quiet, the sand is clean and warm; you can lie for hours there and read a book. And there is an excellent restaurant which opens twenty-four hours a day.

Adversative: e.g. but, yet, on the other hand.

(3.57) Cyprus has usually a mild winter because it is an Island. Germany, on the other hand, has a severe winter.

Variation: Within this relationship three subtypes are distinguished: replacive, exception and alternative.

(3.58) The audience were not bored although the show went on for two hours; on the contrary, every one seemed to enjoy it. (Replacive)

(3.59) The weather was sometimes cold and windy, which forced us to stay indoors. A part from that, I had the most enjoyable time. (Exception)

(3.60) We could go to Athens and visit some ancient sites: Alternatively, we could go to Paris and see some famous and fashionable houses. (Alternative).

(d) *Enhancement*: Five subdivisions may be recognized within this relationship: Temporal, Causal, Condition, Concession, and Respect.

Temporal conjunctions have a wide range of meaning: there, next, at once, soon, at this point, here and now. Some of them refer to a sequence of events in the text:□

(3.61) I have finished discussing the main characteristics of the Romantic Movement. At this point, I want to introduce a slight digression.

Manner may be comparison (e.g., similarly, likewise, in a different way) or means (e.g., thus, thereby, by such means).

(3.62) A successful campaign against drugs could be carried out; Likewise other serious crimes should be eliminated or at least reduced. (Comparison)

(3.63) We dug two tunnels under the wall, one leading to the fields and the other to the central park. Thus, we were able to escape from the camp. (Means)

Causal relationships may express result. Cause, reason, or purpose.

(3.64) The path up the mountain became narrower and narrower, and sometimes we had to walk in a single file. As a result, it took us five hours to walk one mile only. (Result).

(3.65) John Lived a mysterious life, he never mixed with other villagers. For this reason, he had become very unpopular. (Reason).

(3.66) John wanted to become rich and marry the girl he loved. With this in view, he left his village and went to work in a gold mine. (Purpose)

(3.67) Give my regards to our friends there. Then you are not coming (Condition)

(3.68) They are poor and live from hand to another. Yet, they are happy. (Concession)

(3.69) These tribes are superstitious and primitive in their attitude to life. In other respects, they can be pleasant to deal with. (Respect)□

As for Arabic, it makes frequent use of conjunctions to build texts. The phenomenon which Halliday (1994: 327) terms as an implicit conjunction is rare in Arabic texts. The general tendency is how to express explicit relationships between the sentences of a text. However, implicit conjunction is frequently used in English. This may be illustrated by comparing the following simple texts from English and Arabic.

(3.70) It was very hot. We did not go out.

(3.71) كان الجو حاراً ، فلم نخرج.

In the English text (3.70) the two sentences are not joined by any explicit conjunction; the two sentences of the Arabic text (3.71) are linked by an explicit conjunction —————. It would be unusual to omit the conjunction in (3.71). كان الجو حاراً. لم نخرج.

All the semantic relationship discussed concerning English conjunctions have their equivalents in Arabic texts. Here, elaboration will be mentioned in some detail. The other types will be discussed briefly.

A. Elaboration:

(a) Apposition:

(i) Expository:

بكلمة أخرى ، اعني ، أي

□ إن المشاريع الثلاثة جميعها تواجه مشكلات صعبة. أي أنها ينبغي أن تدرس بدقة (3.72)

(ii) Exemplifying:

مثال ذلك ، مثلاً ، على سبيل المثال

بعض الحروف الصحيحة يجدها المتعلم صعبة. مثال ذلك ng في كلمة spring (3.73)

(b) Clarification:

(i) Corrective

في الأقل ، بعبارة أدق ، بالأحرى ، أو ، بل

كان سلوكه يتسم بالتحدي مع أنه سبب ضرراً كبيراً للشركة. فكان ينبغي في الأقل أن (3.74)
□ يعتذر.

(ii) Transitional:

بالمناسبة ، بهذه المناسبة

- (3.75) لقد قضيت الامسية كلها بقراءة رواية. بهذه المناسبة هل التقيت جيراننا الجدد؟
(iii) Dismissive: على أية حال ، على كل حال
(3.76) قد يبدو الخطر بعيداً أو غير محتمل. وعلى كل حال ينبغي أن نكون حذرين
(iv) Particularizing: على وجه الخصوص ، أخص بالذكر ، خاصة ، لا سيما
(3.77) ان عدداً من الطيور والحيوانات مهددة بالانقراض. خاصة الفيل الآسيوي
(v) Resumptive: نعود إلى موضوعنا ، كما ذكرنا ، كما قلنا
(3.78) ثم جاءت فترة عصيبة انشغل فيها الجميع بالأمور اليومية. وكما ذكرت لم يفكر أحد بجاره
(vi) Summative: في الختام ، موجز القول
(3.79) للشقة أثاث جيد وحمام فاخر وغرفة للاستقبال. موجز القول فيها كل ما تحتاج إليه.
(vii) Verification: في الحقيقة ، في الواقع ، بل.
(3.80) لقد تجاوزت الساعة منتصف الليل بل لقد أخذ الفجر يطلع.
B. Extension:
This relation often involves positive addition , ثم ، و negative addition , عوضاً عن ذلك ، or variation ranging from replacive and alternative , ما خلا subtractive , ولا (Aziz, 1998: 104).
Here are some examples of these relations:
(a) *Positive addition*:
(3.81) دخل الزائر الغرفة. واخذ ينظر إلى الحاضرين.
(b) *Negative addition*:
(3.82) فلم تقل الفتاة شيئاً. ولا اعترضت على ما قيل عنها.
(c) *Replacive*:
(3.83) كانت المدينة هادئة جداً. وعلى خلاف ذلك الساحل الذي كان يعج بالناس.
(d) *Substructive*:
(3.84) جميع هذه الطرق صالحة للاستعمال. باستثناء الطريق التي تؤدي إلى الساحل الشرقي فهي وعرة.
(e) *Alternative*:
(3.85) يجب أن ننهي من العمل اليوم. أو ننجز ما يبقى هذا المساء غداً.

C. Enhancement:

Four kinds of enhancement contribute to texture these four are: Spatio-temporal, manner, causal – conditional and matter(ibid.).

(a) *Spatio-temporal*: وقبل ذلك ، وبعد ذلك ، وفي النهاية ، وفي أثناء ذلك
(3.86) كنا جالسين عند أحد الأصدقاء نسمع الشعر. وفي أثناء ذلك دخل علينا ضيف ما كنا نتوقعه.

(b) *Manner*: وعلى هذا المنوال ، كذلك
(3.87) وقفت الجماعة الأولى أمام المبنى وأخذوا يتلون الشعارات. وعلى هذا المنوال استمر الأمر حتى المساء.

(c) *Causal-Conditional*: نتيجة ذلك ، من أجل ذلك ، بسبب ذلك
(3.88) لم يسقط المطر منذ شهر آذار. فقد جفت الأرض بسبب ذلك ويبس النبات.

(d) *Matter*: Here the reference belongs to something previously mentioned: هنا ، عندئذ ، عند ذلك .

(3.89) ثم سأل احدهم عن المشكلات التي تعاني منها الحضارة الحديثة. قام عندئذ احد الحاضرين وناقش الموضوع نقاشاً مستفيضاً.

3.6 Closing Words:

The way a text is put together is mainly achieved by cohesive devices. Different languages have various cohesive devices. The overall level of cohesion may also vary within the same language; different texts vary in the density of their cohesive ties. Although both English and Arabic use the main types of cohesive devices: Reference, Ellipsis, Substitution, Conjunction and Lexical cohesion, the two languages may be classified under two headings: (i) distribution of cohesive devices and (ii) their frequency. For example, both English and Arabic use reference as a cohesive device, but they sometimes differ in the use of the subtypes. In the following example, Arabic uses pronominal reference, whereas English uses the indefinite pronoun.

(3.90) جاءهم جمع من النساء والرجال. قال أولهم انه البواب وثانيهم الطاهي وثالثهم البستاني ورابعهم مربى الطيور.

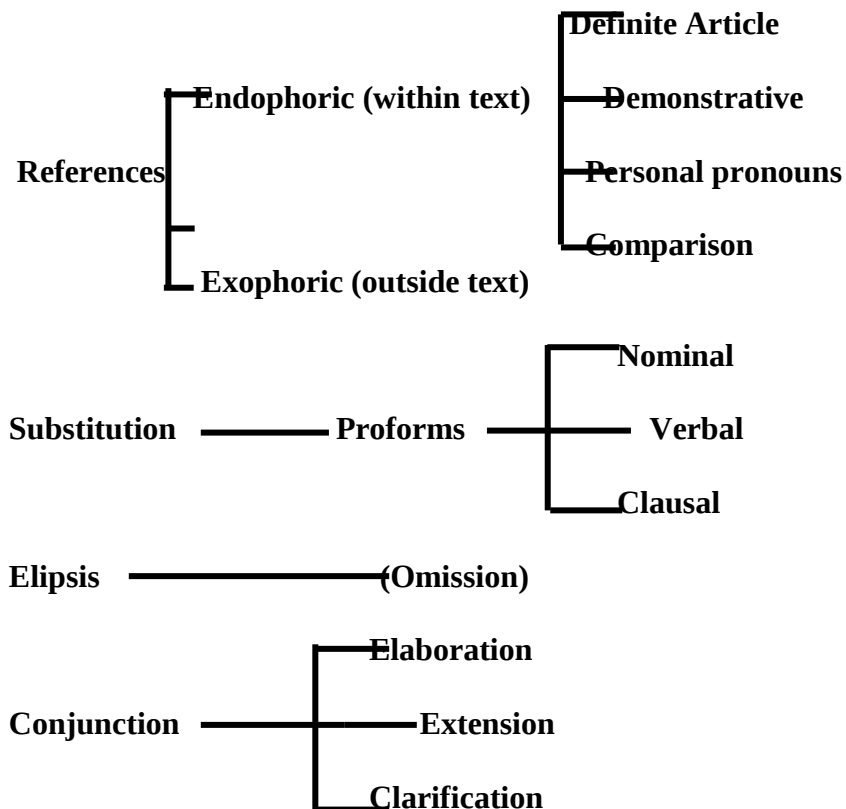
(Awladu Haratina, p.521)

(A group of men and women came to them. The first one said that he was a gatekeeper, another was the cook, the third was the gardener, the fourth was the poultry keeper).

(Awladu Haratina, p.335).

Here in Arabic the possessive pronoun is used in addition to the numeral أولهم ، ثانيهم ، ثالثهم ، رابعهم whereas the corresponding equivalents

Markers of cohesive relationships can be summarized in the following figure:



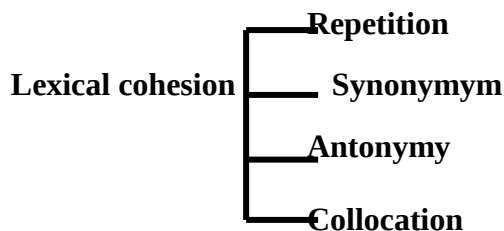


Figure (9) Markers of Cohesive Relationship

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General Conclusions

1- Although both English and Arabic use the main types of textual devices, the two languages show marked differences in their use of these devices.

2- English texts show a tendency for using structural cohesion, whereas, Arabic uses text cohesion.

3- Arabic texts incline towards the use of considerably higher number of lexical items than the English translated texts.

4- Arabic texts prefer to group information into large grammatical chunks.

5- The reader must be fully aware of the variety of the text under discussion, since different societies have different experiences, view, individuals and situations.

Suggestions for further research:-

1- Teaching texture in translation can be a rich area of investigation.

2- Macro-structure and texture in some genres such as the news papers editorials could be an area of further research.

3- The syntactic and semantic functions of the Arabic junctions and their equivalents in English may need further exploration.

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المستخلص

الادوات النصية المستخدمة في اللغتين العربية والانكليزية ودورها في الترجمة.

يُعرف النسيج النصي بأنه الطريقة التي يتم فيها بناء النص ، ويقدم البحث الحالي تحليلاً مقارناً للأدوات النصية في النصوص العربية وتراجمها باللغة الانكليزية باستخدام أسلوب (هاليداي ١٩٩٤). ويهدف البحث الحالي إلى التحقق من الأدوات النصية في الإنكليزية والعربية وبشكل مقتضب في التعرف على الأدوات المختلفة المستخدمة في اللغتين ، وحيث أن اللغتين تقودان لأصول مختلفة فسيكون من الطبيعي أن النص المقدم باستخدام مثل تلك الأدوات يواجه مصاعب جمة وخاصة بالنسبة للمترجمين الحديثي العهد وقليلي الخبرة في مجال الترجمة. وهكذا فإن هذا البحث يحاول إيجاد الدلائل للنظريات القائلة بأن اللغتان العربية والانكليزية تظهران تباينات في استخدامهما للأدوات النصية وأن اللغة العربية على نقيض الإنكليزية تُفضل جمع المعلومات على شكل أجزاء نحوية كبيرة. وتم إيجاد أن اللغتين تظهران فوارق ملموسة في استخداماتهما لهذه الأدوات النصية الرابطة ، وأن اللغة الانكليزية تفضل استخدام عدد أقل منها في اللغة العربية