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**Perlocutionary Acts in English- Arabic Translation of Argumentative Discourse:  
An Analysis of the Performance of Third-Year Students of English at Frères  
Mentouri University - Constantine**

Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctorat 3<sup>ème</sup> Cycle LMD in Applied Linguistics/Applied Language Studies

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## *Dedication*

This research work is dedicated to:

- my precious *Mother Zeghda* and *Father Segaoui*.
- my lovely family: my sisters *Bariza, Zahra* and *Samira* for their help and encouragement, my brothers *Amar, Salim, Azouz, Rachid, Mourad* and *Fares*,
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## Abstract

Students of English as a foreign language in their translation practice sessions generally encounter difficulties in translating argumentative texts and showing their pragmatic value. They do not succeed in exploiting the relationship between what they study in pragmatics, speech act theory and what they learn from argumentation in translating English argumentative texts. Consequently, this research aims at clarifying the importance of being aware of this relationship and its impact on having an appropriate translation of argumentative texts from English into Arabic. More precisely, it investigates the ability of students of English as a foreign language to understand and recognize the illocutionary force ‘arguing’ of argumentative texts on the one hand and to translate them getting the same perlocutionary effect ‘convincing’ on the other hand. **if third year students of English are aware of how important it is to combine their knowledge about speech acts, argumentation and translation in translating English argumentative texts into Arabic, then their performance will be better in terms of understanding the illocutionary force and conveying the same perlocutionary effect at the lexical, grammatical, semantic and pragmatic levels. We also hypothesize that the more Algerian EFL learners are exposed to speech acts and argumentative texts along with their translation, the more their task of producing better translation will be facilitated.** For this purpose, an experiment involving a sample of eighty third year undergraduate students of English at the department of English, Mentouri Brothers University- Constantine, was conducted. This population has been divided into control and experimental groups with the latter group undergoing the experiment and the former, i.e. the control group used for giving reliable baseline data against which the results of the experimental group will be compared. In addition, a questionnaire was administered to both groups. The results of the questionnaire emphasize the need to help EFL learners know more about pragmatics and argumentation and how to translate English argumentative texts. The results of the experiment show that the treatment has improved the performance of the experimental group compared to the control group. After getting used to dealing with argumentative discourse and translating four argumentative texts, the students have become aware of the relationship between pragmatics, speech act theory and argumentative discourse in translating English argumentative texts and have also improved in the translation of argumentative texts in terms of recognizing the parts of the text, identifying the speech acts and having appropriate translation. Thus, regarding these results, our hypotheses are confirmed.

## **List of Abbreviations**

**ACT:** American College Test

**ALA-LC:** American Library Association Library Congress

**Ctlr.:** Control

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language

**ESL:** English as a Second Language

**p.:** Probability

**RFID:** Radio Frequency Identification

**SAT:** Scholastic Aptitude Test

**Sig.:** Significance

**SL:** Source Language

**SPSS:** Statistical Package for Social Sciences software,

**ST:** Source Text

**Std. D:** Standard Deviation

**t- :** t-test

**TC:** Target Culture

**TL:** Target Language

**TT:** Target Text

**Vp:** Performative Verb

**Xp.:** Experimental

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## **Transliteration of Arabic Writing System**

Romanization is the conversion of writing form from a different writing system to the Roman or Latin script. One method of doing so for representing a written text is transliteration.

In the present research, we have used ALA-LC (American Library Association Library Congress) system of transliteration to represent the Arabic writing. It facilitates access to the Arabic translation of thesis statements and arguments. The following tables include only the consonants, vowels and diphthongs we have used. (see [http://transliteration.eki.ee/pdf/Arabic\\_2.2.pdf](http://transliteration.eki.ee/pdf/Arabic_2.2.pdf) ).

| <b>Consonants</b> | <b>ALA-LC Transliteration</b> |
|-------------------|-------------------------------|
| ا                 | —                             |
| ء                 | '                             |
| ب                 | b                             |
| ت                 | t                             |
| ث                 | th                            |
| ج                 | j                             |
| ح                 | h                             |
| خ                 | kh                            |
| د                 | d                             |
| ذ                 | dh                            |
| ر                 | r                             |
| ز                 | z                             |
| س                 | s                             |
| ش                 | sh                            |
| ص                 | ṣ                             |
| ض                 | ḍ                             |

|    |     |
|----|-----|
| ط  | t   |
| ظ  | z   |
| ع  | ‘   |
| غ  | gh  |
| فا | f   |
| ق  | q   |
| ك  | k   |
| ل  | l   |
| م  | m   |
| ن  | n   |
| ه  | h   |
| ة  | h   |
| و  | w   |
| ي  | y   |
| ى  | y   |
| لا | lā  |
| ال | al- |

| Vowels and diphthongs | ALA-LC Trnsliteration |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| آ                     | ā                     |

|            |    |
|------------|----|
| اَ         | a  |
| اُ         | u  |
| اِ         | i  |
| اَا        | ā  |
| اِى        | á  |
| اُو        | ū  |
| اِي        | ī  |
| اَا", "اِا | an |
| اُا        | un |
| اِا        | in |
| اَو        | aw |
| اِي        | ay |
| اُو        | ūw |

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# General Introduction

## 1. Rationale

Different types of English texts are based on different illocutionary forces that attempt to convey a specific perlocutionary act. Argumentation is considered one of these types. To begin with, argumentation in Eemeren and Grootendorst's words (1983: 7) refers both to “the process of making statements in order to defend a standpoint and to the product that is the result of it.” In other words, argumentation is how to defend a proposition in order to convince the reader/listener. In terms of speech acts, argumentation is an illocutionary act that attempts to achieve the perlocutionary effect of ‘convincing’. On the other hand, translation is said to be a culture specific process where the learner/translator needs not only to have a linguistic background, but also to know how to interpret any stretch of utterances or sentences from the source language to the target language. Translation seems to be difficult to achieve for learners of English as a foreign language since they lack the ability to infer the implied meaning and react as native speakers do. Pragmatics and discourse analysis emerge to solve this problem as the former deals with the use of language in social contexts and how language users interact and understand each other and the latter deals with how language is used in different texts and contexts. It indicates that what is unsaid is to be part of what is communicated. So, by means of pragmatics and discourse analysis knowledge, EFL learners can achieve native-like competence and performance. Moreover, a central helping concept in pragmatics which can help those learners is the notion of performing actions via utterances generally called ‘speech acts’. It is basically divided into three related acts: the locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. The first act is realized when a meaningful correct utterance is produced. The second act indicates the function of any utterance via a communicative force; while the third act is devoted to the effect

or what is expected from producing an utterance. This last act can create problems for EFL students in understanding and translating any authentic text. So, this research attempts to show the effect of culture on translation in general and to determine the importance of knowing the target language culture in achieving a better translation in terms of inferring the exact perlocutionary act.

Shared knowledge and cultural background play a crucial role in any translation from one language into another. If it is difficult for EFL learners/ translation students to render the meaning of the source language into the target one, it is as Kramsch (1998:13) wrote, "because they don't share the same way of viewing and interpreting events; they don't agree on the meaning and the value of the concepts underlying the words." To put it differently, there is no one-to-one equivalence across languages especially when taking experience into account.

It seems that there is a need to focus on the notion of culture in order to provide EFL students with a basic background that permits them to achieve native-like performance. The fact that English and Arabic are culturally different makes it difficult for non-native learners to determine the perlocutionary act of authentic texts in English and to render its meaning into Arabic in the appropriate form without using literal translation.

## **2. Aims of the Study**

This thesis aims at determining the difference between native speakers and EFL learners in terms of culture-based aspects, one of which is the effect of any speech act on the reader/ listener. So, our attempt, here, is to focus on the need to achieve native-like competence and performance without which EFL students cannot react in the same way as natives do. In other words, it is hard for EFL learners to render the same effect inferred from an English authentic text which is totally culture-based. More particularly, we attempt to use argumentative texts and

analyze the students' translation of those texts in order to go over the aspects that may bring forth a better translation and a better interpretation of the underlying meanings of the English language. It would be more effective for the learners as translators of argumentation as a text-type to concentrate on its features in both English and Arabic using one or more translation strategies.

### **3. Research Questions and Hypotheses**

This research sets out to explore the following questions:

- Why is pragmatics important in argumentative discourse and are EFL learners aware of this importance in translating argumentative texts?
- What are the basic factors that can ameliorate the learners' translation of argumentative discourse in terms of speech acts?
- To what extent does the teaching of speech acts and argumentative discourse influence EFL learners' translation performance of argumentative texts?
- How can we improve the learners' translation of the perlocutionary acts in argumentative texts ?

When learners of English as a foreign language render the meaning of texts into their first language, they will be influenced by many factors like the cultural aspect, the source language, target language, text-type and genre, text structure, context and different levels of meaning. So, we hypothesize that if third year students of English are aware of how important it is to combine their knowledge about speech acts, argumentation and translation in translating English argumentative texts into Arabic, then their performance will be better in terms of understanding the illocutionary force and conveying the same perlocutionary effect at the lexical, grammatical, semantic and pragmatic levels. We also hypothesize that the more Algerian EFL



learners are exposed to speech acts and argumentative texts along with their translation, the more their task of producing better translation will be facilitated.

#### **4. Methodology**

In this study, we attempt to explore the area of understanding the underlying language when translating from English into Arabic. For this reason, the sample will be selected from third year students of English. The main reason for choosing third year students of English is that they are expected to have a sufficient and adequate knowledge about the English language and its cultural aspects. However, as non-native speakers of English they do not really have this ability to infer the expected meanings and so cannot react in the same way when translating argumentative discourse.

This research work is conducted in order to focus on the students' ability to infer the appropriate perlocutionary acts when translating authentic texts taking into consideration their ability to recognize argumentative discourse as a text type with its specific features. Therefore, a questionnaire of 17 questions is administered to students in order to collect data about their knowledge in the fields included in the present research and to see their level in terms of being a homogeneous sample. Next, the subjects will undergo an experiment during a two month period. This experiment is based on four argumentative texts. Two groups (control and experimental groups) will be selected randomly. Before undergoing the experiment, a pre-test will be administered to evaluate the subjects' preliminary performance. Then, in the control group, we will follow the usual program of translation while for the experimental group we will focus more on argumentative texts, the illocutionary force of arguing and the perlocutionary act of convincing. After finishing the experiment period, a post-test will be administered to the subjects of the experimental group to assess their final achievements. Then, a brief comparison will be

done between the results of the pre-test and the post-test to see the difference in level and performance of the subjects when translating English argumentative texts into Arabic in terms of grammatical, lexical, semantic and pragmatic features of argumentation as a text type.

## **5. Structure of the Study**

The present research is divided into five chapters. The first two chapters are theoretical: ‘Argumentation and Speech Acts’, and ‘Translating Argumentative Texts’. Then, the third chapter is ‘Research Method’. The last two chapters are practical: ‘Analysis of the Students Questionnaire’ and ‘Analysis of the Experiment’.

After giving a detailed introduction that identifies the scope and aim of the study and includes definitions of keywords and research questions followed by the research hypothesis, chapter one ‘Argumentation and Speech Acts’ will explain basic terms related to pragmatics, speech acts and argumentation from which the speech act of arguing is our concern.

The second chapter is devoted to the problems of translating English argumentative texts into Arabic after giving a clear idea about translation and its theories of equivalence and argumentation as a text-type in English and Arabic.

The third chapter is devoted to the research method in which we explain the research tools used in this study. This chapter gives a clear picture about the research setting including time, place, population and sample. We have opted for a study of the performance of third year students of English using a questionnaire supported by an experiment as data collection tools together with the pre-test and the post-test. Then, a description of the research tools is provided along with the method of analysis to be used. In the end, we attempt to determine the potential problems and limitations of this work.

Chapter four gives a detailed description and analysis of the questionnaire using tables and figures to illustrate frequencies and percentages followed by a discussion of the results.

In the fifth chapter which is devoted to the experiment composed of its two tests, an illustrated description is given to the subjects' performance and translations in the pre-test and in the post-test supported by tables of frequencies and percentages of the scores and followed by an interpretation of the results. Furthermore, SPSS or Statistical Package for Social Sciences software is used to measure the subjects' scores and testify the validity of the research hypotheses using the t-test.

Finally, a general conclusion will discuss the outcome and the findings of the present research work and formulate certain recommendations that help in improving the learners' performance in translating English argumentative texts. These recommendations attempt to build the platform for further research.

# *Chapter One*

## *Speech Acts and Argumentation*

# Chapter One: Speech Acts and Argumentation

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## **Chapter One**

# Speech Acts and Argumentation

## Introduction

This chapter is devoted to establishing a thorough background for speech act theory and at the same time to make an introduction to argumentation as a complex speech act. By providing some definitions of specific key words like discourse analysis, pragmatics and speech acts, it would be easier to get in the scope of the study.

### 1.1. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is, as Coulthard (1977: 7) describes, concerned with “the functional use of language” taking into account what Labov (1972) insists on as the most important point in discourse analysis, which is simply differentiating between what is said and what is done by language users. Discourse is not composed of a sequence of grammatically well-formed utterances or sentences; it is rather composed of units that have specific function in a specific situation. An important problem discourse analysts point out is, as Coulthard (op.cit. :9) argues, “to show how the functional categories are realized by formal items- what is the relationship between ‘request’ and ‘question’ and the grammatical options available to the speaker.” While the main concern of grammarians is with the rules of usage, discourse analysts deal with the rules of use in which utterances perform social actions. Texts are constituted of sentences that are related with each other in terms of grammatical cohesion; whereas discourse is formed by a combination of utterances that are related by aspects of coherence. In terms of concentrating on form or meaning, linguistic philosophers put the study of meaning as their main concern. They focus on sense, reference and implications of sentences.

Discourse analysts who study language in use from a pragmatic angle, are concerned with the description of the existing relationship between the speaker/writer and utterances/sentences rather than focusing on the relationship between one sentence and another. In order to describe what speakers and hearers do, terms like: reference, presupposition, implicature and inference, are used. Before moving forward, a brief definition of elements of discourse analysis is needed.

### **1.1.1. Reference**

By reference it is meant to use words in order to refer to things. More precisely, Brown and Yule (1983) deal with reference according to the views that Lyons (1968, 1977), Strawson (1950) and Searle (1979) have to reference in discourse analysis. As quoted in Brown and Yule (op.cit. :28), Lyons (1977: 177) in explaining the nature of reference says that “it is the speaker who refers {by using some appropriate expression}: he invests the expression with reference by the act of referring.” Earlier, Strawson (op.cit.) gives such a pragmatic nature to reference in the sense that reference is when the speaker can use an expression to do something. As a support to these two concepts, Searle (op.cit. :155) sees that “expressions do not refer any more than they make promises and give orders.”

### **1.1.2. Presupposition**

The term presupposition covers the assumptions the speaker makes and at the same time the hearer is likely to accept them without discussion as being the shared and common knowledge by the members of the same speech community; that is, speakers and hearers. Stalnaker (1978: 321) simply summarizes this idea in his definition in which he states: “presuppositions are what is taken by the speaker to be the common ground of the participants in the conversation.” Presuppositions as seen by Griffiths (2006: 143) are ‘the shared background



assumptions that are taken for granted when we communicate.’ A presupposition, according to van Dijk (1985: 114), is “a proposition assumed to be known to the hearer from previous text or from the context. Formally speaking, such a proposition is entailed by both the presupposing sentence and the negation of that sentence.”

### **1.1.3. Implicature**

The notion of implicature is introduced by Grice (1975). It is used to know the implications, suggestions or meanings the speaker can make, which is different from what the speaker says in its literal form. What is mainly important for discourse analysts is the aspect of conversational implicature which is derived from the cooperative principle which Grice (ibid:45) describes as to “make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.” This principle is supported by four maxims: quantity, quality, relation and manner. Brown and Yule (op. cit. : 32) provide an explanation for each maxim:

*Quantity:* Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange). Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

*Quality:* Do not say what you believe to be false. DO not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

*Relation:* Be relevant.

*Manner:* Be perspicuous.

Avoid obscurity of expression.

Avoid ambiguity.

Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

Be orderly.

### **1.1.4. Inference**

The fourth and last aspect to be used in the description of what the speakers and hearers do is ‘inference’. Here, the hearer has to derive the intended meaning of an utterance following a

process of inference deriving a conclusion from premises; however, it is not necessarily in everyday discourse. Brown and Yule (op.cit. : 33), on the difficulty of knowing the underlying meaning of an utterance, see that:

Since the discourse analysts, like the hearer has no direct access to a speaker's intended meaning in producing an utterance, he often has to rely on a process of inference to arrive at an interpretation for an utterance or for the connections between utterances. As the element of inference leads to the development of an important notion in the study of language which is pragmatics, the four elements together are considered pragmatic concepts as well as they are used to point out the relationships between "discourse participants and elements in the discourse" according to the context in which it occurs, Brown and Yule (*ibid.*: 35) conclude.

## **1.2. Pragmatics**

Thomas (1995) sees that the history of pragmatics started in the early 1980s when it was discussed in general textbooks on linguistics. These textbooks give common definition like: meaning in use or meaning in context. These definitions seem to be accurate; however, they are too general. Pragmatics emerges to complete what semantics gives to describe language. It is as Yule (1996: 3) sees concerned with "the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader)." It includes, as he (*ibid.*) states, "the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said." This type of study deals with the way listeners cope with the speakers' utterances in order to infer the exact interpretation or to get the intended meaning. This can be done when members of the same speech community recognize what is unsaid from what is communicated. The choice between the said and the unsaid is based on the notion of distance, that is, on the assumption of how close or distant the listener is, speakers determine how much needs to be said. Moreover,

pragmatics investigates the relationship between linguistic units and their users (speakers and listeners). In addition to that, the advantage of using pragmatics to study language is that, as Yule (*ibid*: 4) argues, “one can talk about people’s intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions (for example, requests) that they are performing when they speak.” However, it is very difficult to deal with and analyze the concepts objectively. So, pragmatics is the study about how people make sense of each other using language; however, it is difficult to make sense of what goes around in people’s minds, as Yule (*ibid*) points out that “pragmatics is appealing because it is about how people make sense of each other linguistically, but it can be a frustrating area of study because it requires us to make sense of people and of what they have in mind.” What can facilitate the task of language users is to share the same background knowledge or conventions of a language as Yule (*ibid*: 8) sums up, “the more two speakers have in common, the less language they’ll need to use to identify familiar things.” Al-Jayroudy (2011: 15) confirms that:

The construction of meanings in discourse, i.e. processes of comprehension, interpretation and reproduction of meanings which individuals and social members use in order to make sense of discourse and the world around them, is considered to be closely related to the study of pragmatics

### **1.2.1. Context**

Brown and Yule (1983:35) provide two views to context and its importance in the interpretation of sentences according to Sadock (1978) and Fillmore (1977); they quote:

There is, then, a serious methodological problem that confronts the advocate of linguistic pragmatics. Given some aspects of what a sentence conveys in a particular context, is that aspect part of what the sentence conveys in virtue of its meaning . . . or should it be 'worked out' on the basis of Gricean principles from the rest of the meaning of the sentence and relevant facts of the context of utterance? (Sadock, 1978: 281)

The task is to determine what we can know about the meaning and context of an utterance given only the knowledge that the utterance has occurred. . . I find that whenever I notice some sentence in context, I immediately find myself asking what the effect would have been if the context had been slightly different (Fillmore, 1977:119)

From these two views, context plays a crucial role in the understanding and interpretation of any sentence or utterance. As the context in which a certain sentence/utterance occurs, a new different meaning is inferred.

Sperber and Wilson (1986: 15-6) try to give a different and clear definition to the term ‘context’ in terms of playing a role in the interpretation of utterances, they state:

The set of premises used in interpreting an utterance... constitutes what is generally known as the context. A context is a psychological construct, a subset of the hearer’s assumptions about the world. It is these assumptions, of course, rather than the actual state of the world, that affect the interpretation of an utterance. A context in this sense is not limited to information about the immediate physical environment or the immediately preceding utterances.

To put it differently, context is not only related to the physical setting of an utterance but it is also tied to other features like, as Sperber and Wilson (ibid. :16) list, “expectations about the future, scientific beliefs, anecdotal memories, general cultural assumptions, beliefs about the mental state of the speaker” that all together play an important role in the interpretation of an utterance. Wilson (1994:43-4) argues that interpretation is a process of inferring and not decoding. She says:

The intended interpretation of an utterance is not decoded but inferred, by non-demonstrative inference process- a process of hypothesis formation and evaluation- in which linguistic decoding and contextual assumptions determine the class of possible hypotheses, and these evaluated in the light of certain general principles of communication which speakers are expected to obey.

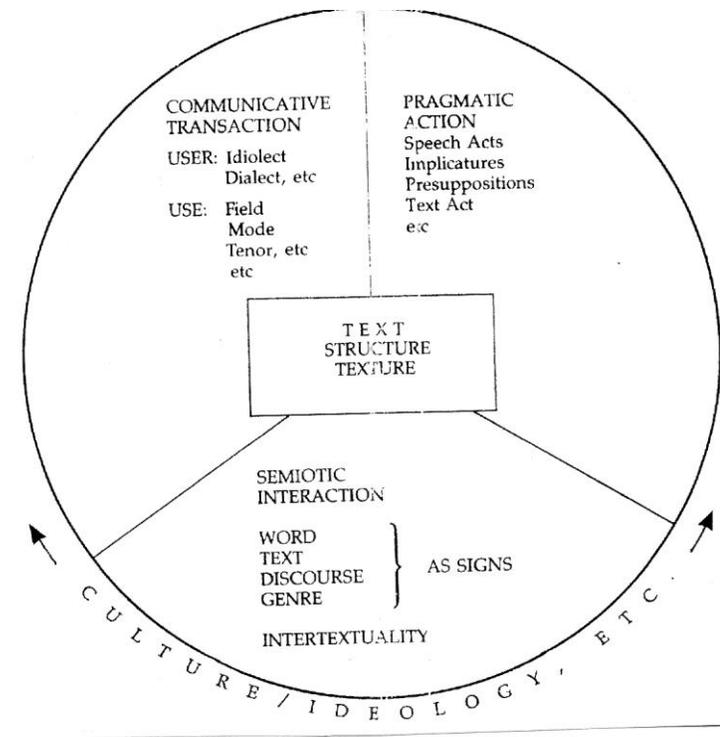
However, it is clearly noticed that this explanation contains contradiction. It is mainly about the nature of inference process as Widdowson (1998:16) objects that inference is considered, in Wilson's explanation, distinct from decoding but what follows says that it is at the same time part of it. "The difficulty," as Widdowson (ibid.) claims, "lies in the ambiguity of the term 'decoding' ". In other words, if the utterance is based on taking the linguistic signal and relate it to the code so it is obvious that no pragmatic meaning can be inferred. However, if the intention is to relate the signal to different pragmatic possible hypotheses it is, then, starting from semantic signification to reach pragmatic signification. The result, here, is that decoding is not distinct from inference but it is, as Widdowson (ibid.) considers, "the crucial pre-requisite in the process"; in short, examining an utterance means starting from its linguistic units and then seeing what can be made of it. Brandon (2000: 62) states that:

The context to which one is committed by using the concept or expressions may represented by the inference one explicitly endorses by such use, the inference, namely, from the circumstances of appropriate employment to the appropriate circumstances of such employment.

Hatim and Mason (1990:58) introduce this figure represents the three dimensions of context which are the communicative, pragmatic, and semiotic dimensions.

They (ibid.:57) identify each dimension as follows:

The problem with register analysis, then, is that the insights which it affords into the communicative dimension of context, valuable as they are, are not in themselves sufficient. As we have seen, a further dimension of context can be distinguished. It is the pragmatic dimension which builds into the analysis values relating to the ability to 'do things with words'. There is, however, a third dimension which we shall call semiotic-treating a communicative item, including its pragmatic value, as a sign within a system of signs.



**Figure 1: Three Dimensions of Context (adapted from Hatim and Mason 1990: 58)**

So, according to Hatim and Mason (ibid), pragmatic and semiotic dimensions are the most important aspects that help the translator convey the exact meaning or message from source language into target language.

The Pragmatic Dimension of Context is based on the work of Austin (1962) and Searle (1976) who focus on the theory of speech acts. To sum up, Hatim and Mason (op.cit.:59) see that “Austin noted that in fact all utterances, in addition to meaning something, actually have some communicative force which is the dynamic element in communication, the element which moves communication forward.” This dimension is based on speech acts, felicity conditions, the cooperative principle and the Gricean maxims, and implicatures.

Gee (2014: 6) sees that context is important in discourse analysis in that “in order to speed things along, any speaker leaves things out...and assumes they will be understood based on listener’s knowledge of the context in which the communication occurs.” Apart from setting (time and place) and participants of a communication (speaker-listener/ writer-reader), shared knowledge or even cultural knowledge play a crucial role in the success of any communication.

## **1.2.2. Meaning**

Another important notion to understand what people say is to understand and infer their underlined meaning. As Yule (op.cit. 47) states: “in attempting to express themselves, people do not only produce utterances containing grammatical structures and words, they perform actions via those utterances.”

### **1.2.2.1. Levels of Meaning**

According to Thomas (op.cit.), there are three levels of meaning to consider in examining any utterance: abstract meaning, contextual meaning (utterance meaning) and the force of an utterance.

#### **- Abstract Meaning**

First of all, abstract meaning is concerned with what a linguistic unit (word, phrase or a sentence) could mean. Thomas (ibid. 3) gives an example that illustrates this idea:

What we want is the army to take over this country. See a bit of discipline then, we would... The forces, that’s the thing. We knew what discipline was when I was in the forces.’ Pop always spoke of his time at Catterick Camp in the nineteen-fourties as being in the forces as if he had been in the navy and air force and marines as well. ‘Flog’ em, is what I say. Give’ em something to remember across their backsides.’ He paused and swigged tea. ‘What’s wrong with the cat?’ he said, so that anyone coming in at that

moment, Alan thought, would have supposed him to be enquiring after the health of the family member

(as cited in Rendell, 1980: 29)

In this extract, the first meaning which is given to the word 'cat' is a 'pet'. However, relying on the context in which the word 'cat' is used; the appropriate meaning refers to military life in earlier times.

Moreover, abstract meaning is not only applied to words, but also to larger linguistic units like phrases and even sentences. Thomas (op.cit.) gives a good example to clarify this idea. He states (ibid. 4) "Supposing in a party you heard someone saying: The Pearsons are on coke." There are three abstract meanings for the word 'coke': Coca-Cola, cocaine or a coal derivative. "What the words actually meant on the occasion in question could only be determined in context"

Thomas (ibid.) believes that the problem of determining the appropriate meaning of an utterance is not encountered by the native speakers but rather by EFL 'English as a Foreign Language' learners. He states (ibid.: 4) that "competent native speakers do not have to seek laboriously for the contextual meaning of a word, phrase or sentence in the way the two previous examples may have implied. He goes on explaining that there should be no alternative interpretations for a word as the contextual meaning is so obvious. A native speaker will not think twice about what the expression 'send you a card from Rome' means. A native speaker would not think whether the word 'card' refers to a picture card, a playing card or a business card. The last two interpretations do not even cross the mind.

## - Utterance Meaning



Second, Thomas (ibid.) defines utterance meaning as the first level of the speaker meaning which indicates that the speaker “actually does mean by these words on this particular occasion.” (16) It is, as Gadzer (1979) describes, ‘a sentence-context pairing’.

### - **Force of an Utterance**

Third, Thomas (op.cit.) distinguishes the second level of speaker meaning which is the force of an utterance. As Miller (1974) indicates, if there is a problem in defining the force of an utterance, it is not because of inability of hearing people or parse their sentences or understanding their words, but rather it is a matter of difficulty in communication or simply it is a failure in understanding the speaker’s intention. Thomas (op.cit.) concludes that the term ‘force’ refers to what is called in pragmatics ‘the speaker’s communicative intention’. To illustrate this idea, Thomas (ibid. 18) uses the following example: ‘Is that your car?’ He explains that there is no sign of ambiguity in this sentence as there are two words that explain the context: ‘that’ and ‘your’. However, the hearer may not understand the force behind the question. Many interpretations will appear in analyzing this utterance. The hearer may understand that the speaker admires his car, complains as the car is blocking the drive or requests a lift.

Thomas (ibid.) then tries to explain the relation between the two components of the speaker’s meaning: utterance meaning and force. There are four possible cases in understanding these components. The first case is when the hearer understands both utterance meaning and force. However, the hearer may not understand one of the two components and this is the case in the second and third permutations; that is, understanding utterance meaning but not force, and understanding force but not utterance meaning. The fourth case is when the hearer fails to understand both utterance meaning and force.

Utterance meaning and force interrelate in the sense that force is derived from utterance meaning, yet paralinguistic and non-linguistic features are used to work out the intended force. Context is another way to infer this intended meaning.

### **1.2.2.2. Types of Meaning**

Pragmatically speaking, Aziz and Lataiwish (2000) distinguish three types of meaning: first, the force of an utterance introduced by Austin (1962); second, the implicature of an utterance as Grice (1975) explains in his Conversational Implicature; third and last, the sense of politeness mentioned by Leech (1983).

#### **- The Force of an Utterance**

Aziz and Lataiwish (op.cit.) point out the difference between an utterance and a sentence. They state (61) that an utterance is “a unit of speech” while a sentence is “a unit of language”. An utterance is composed of larger linguistic units uttered by the speaker in a certain context. They (ibid.) mentioned that Austin was the first to argue that in terms of being true or false not all utterances can be said true or false.

Austin, first, dealt with utterance as divided into two types: connotative and performative utterances. Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid.: 62) state that connotative are those utterances which “can be judged in terms of their truth value (true or false) and see that performative utterances are those “ are described in terms of whether the act is performed (in happy, felicitous) or not performed (unhappy, infelicitous)”.

However, Austin, as mentioned by Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid.), abandons this view and he gives instead one type for all utterances which is 'performative'. They (ibid: 62) illustrate the idea of an utterance to be performative with the change in the forms of four sentences:

1. The plane has left.
2. Has the plane left?
3. Leave the plane.
4. What a beautiful plane.

All these four sentences are performatives. The first sentence performs the act of stating. The second sentence performs the act of questioning. The third sentence performs the act of ordering. The fourth sentence performs the act of exclamation.

Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid.: 62) mention the fact that Austin states that whenever a speaker says something, there will be a performance of three speech acts. They put these three speech acts as follows:

- a. Locutionary act: the speaker utters certain words which have meaning; i.e. sense and reference.
- b. Illocutionary act: the speaker does something in uttering the words, he/she promises, threatens, asks, begs, etc.
- c. Perlocutionary act: by uttering certain words the speaker wants to influence the hearer, encourage, frighten, discourage, etc.

Aziz and Lataiwish go on to relate each type of speech act to its field of meaning. They see that the locutionary act relates to the branch of semantics. The illocutionary act which is the force of an utterance is completed with the presence of the speaker, the hearer and the appropriate context. The third act, perlocutionary act, is related to the hearer; it, as Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid. :63) think "falls within the domain of psychology."

As Austin puts his focus on the second type of speech act, illocutionary act, Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid.) state that “the performative force of an utterance described in (b) may be expressed explicitly or implicitly”. They go on with this idea by giving a clear example:

- I promise I’ll pay the money.
- I’ll pay the money.

In the first sentence the use of the word (promise) make it explicit as an act of promise. However, in the second sentence there is no explicit word to say that it is a promise; it is just understood implicitly that it is an act of promise.

### - **The Implicature of an Utterance**

Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid.) move to describe the second type of meaning -conversational implicature- which is about the implied meaning rather than the expressed one. They mention what Grice (op.cit.) called the co-operative principle. In order to produce a smooth conversation, the participants of this conversation should follow the implied cooperative principle that consists of four maxims: quantity, quality, relation and manner.

When the speaker provides enough information, he is said to be as informative as required. This criterion points out the maxim of quantity. Moreover, if the speaker is saying the truth in his utterance, then he obeyed the maxim of quality. The maxims of quantity and quality usually go together as Leech (1983) mentions.

Aziz and Lataiwish (op.cit. :65) state that the third maxim which is the maxim of relation means that “the speaker’s contribution should be relevant”. However, the last maxim which is ‘manner’ relates to the way in which the speaker utters his utterance. In other words, the speaker should leave no room for obscurity and ambiguity but rather be brief, clear and orderly.

If the speaker does not obey the maxims in his/her contribution, he/she violates or flouts these maxims for specific reasons and purposes. By flouting any maxim, the speaker provides or intends to have a new meaning different from the expected one. Aziz and Lataiwish use some examples to refer to the violation of the four maxims and the meanings that can be inferred from the sentences. First, they (ibid) refer to the maxims of quantity and quality used in the following sentences:

- 1- I have seen some of these men.
- 2- I have not seen all of these men.

One may infer that both sentences are true. However, it is different in saying

- 3- I have seen all of these men. This sentence is said to be false relying on what is said in the first sentence.

After giving these examples, they (ibid.) conclude that these meanings: (2) is true and (3) is false, are “implicatures arrived at by the hearer through reasoning that the speaker is obeying the cooperative principle and is contributing a maximum amount of information which is true”. However, is it logical to say that the third sentence is false? This third sentence can exist even if the first sentence is true in that the term ‘some’ is included in the term ‘all’. In other words, if the speaker has seen all of these men, he has certainly seen some of them. So, the first and the third examples are both true. Moreover, the second sentence and the third one as considered false are implicatures that can be cancelled easily; and result in the fourth sentence:

- 4- I have seen some of these men; in fact, I have seen all of them.

Concerning the maxim of relation, Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid. 66) give the following example:

- 5- John: Who has taken my dictionary?  
His wife: The children were in your room, this morning.

Here, the wife's response is apparently violating the maxim of relation. The husband (John) asks about something and his wife answers with a sentence that is totally different from what is expected to be as an answer. One may expect to have an answer like:

- I don't know. or
- I took it. or
- The children took it...and so on.

Having such a direct answer makes it easy to have a relevant answer. However, looking deeper in the wife's answer, one may understand that she is obeying the maxim of relation. The wife's answer means that there is a possibility that the children have taken the dictionary. That is, being present in the husband's room, the children are the first to be accused of taking the dictionary. Here, the wife did not say it clearly either because she is not sure or because she wants to hide the fact for a specific reason.

To illustrate the violation in the fourth maxim 'manner', Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid. 66) use the following example that says:

- 6- Hassan has broken the window, and Hassan should pay for the window.

Instead of saying: 6 (a) Hassan has broken the window, and he has to pay for it. In (6) the speaker is not obeying the maxim of manner because he is not brief; he is repeating words that can be replaced by pronouns to avoid repetition. However, when insisting on using full words without reference, the speaker is trying to give a new meaning to his sentence. In other words, the speaker is trying to involve his emotions rather than to be neutral in sentence 6 (a).

## - **Sense of Politeness**

Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid.) refer to the third type of meaning as the sense of politeness which means the manner when expressing a social state appropriately. So, it is a culture bound aspect. Leech (op.cit.:132) divides the principle of politeness into six maxims: “(a) tact maxim, (b) generosity maxim, (c) approbation maxim, (d) modesty maxim, (e) agreement maxim and (f) sympathy maxim.”

Austin failed to find any grammatical criteria for distinguishing performative sentence from constative ones. So, he suggests at the end of lecture ( ) to make a ‘fresh start on the problem’. This fresh start is based on one criterion of performative sentences which is making the difference between saying something and doing something that is, performing something when saying an utterance.

Meaning as explained by Gee (op.cit. : 151) is complex and can be divided into two types “one important distinction we can make is between the general meaning a word or utterance has (sometimes called ‘utterance-type meaning’) and the specific meaning a word or utterance takes on in a specific context of use (sometimes called ‘utterance token meaning’).”

### **1.3. Speech Acts**

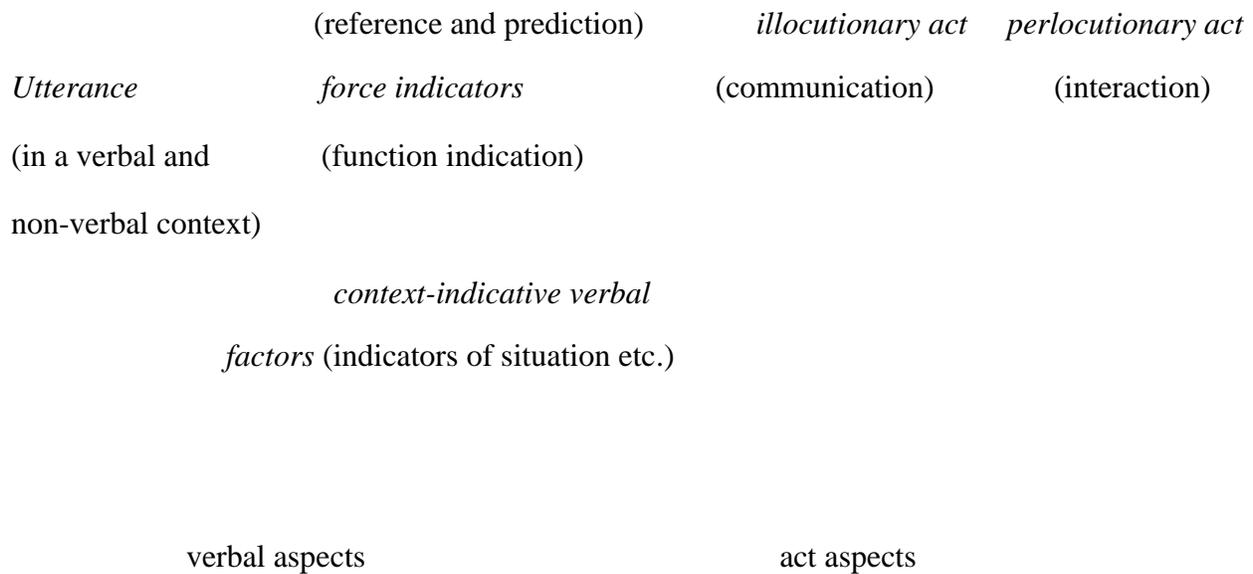
In his lectures, Austin (1962) represents certain acts as connected with certain sentences. He introduced many acts. The most important ones are: locutionary, illocutionary, and

perlocutionary acts. The first seven lectures are concerned with constative and performative sentences while the following lectures focus on locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary actions. Austin (ibid.) introduces a doctrine of three different acts: first, the act of saying something, technically called the locutionary act. Second, the illocutionary act. The third act which is typically performed when words are issued; this Austin called the perlocutionary act. Austin focuses on the second act ‘illocutionary act’ by contrasting it to the two other acts.

Many linguists investigate the universal applicability of speech acts (Levinson, 1983; Green, 1989; Searle, 1969; Grice, 1975; and Brown and Levinson, 1987). Some of these linguists argue that speech acts are the same for all languages as Fraser et al. (1980:78) explain that every language “makes available to the user the same basic set of speech acts... the same set of strategies- semantic formulas- for performing a given speech act.” On the contrary, Wierzbicka (1985a, 1985b); Flowerdew (1990); and Wolfson et al. (1989) claim that speech acts across languages are not comparable (cited in Kachru, 1998).

Yule (op.cit.: 47) explains that “actions performed via utterances are generally called speech acts and, in English, are commonly given more specific labels, such as apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise, or request.” There is no one to one correspondence between utterances and actions. The speech act is interpreted according to the context. So, one utterance can have one or more interpretations. Cohen (1978: 20) sees that “the root idea of an act which when used by saying something can be redescribed as the performance of an illocutionary act with certain consequences.”





**Figure 2: Analytical reconstruction of a ‘complete’ speech act (taken from Cohen, 1978: 20)**

According to Yule (op.cit. 80) there are three related acts which compose the operation of performing actions by producing utterances. The locutionary act which is “the basic act of an utterance, or producing a meaningful linguistic expression” is formed “with some kind of function in mind”. That is to say, the illocutionary act is “performed via the communicative force of an utterance.”(ibid.) He (ibid. :49) adds that “the illocutionary force of an utterance is what it ‘counts as’ ” The third dimension which is the perlocutionary act is explained in Yule’s (op.cit. 48) words that “We do not... simply create an utterance with a function without intending it to have an effect”.

Austin sees that to perform an illocutionary act is, firstly, to produce an act which entails conventional consequences, and secondly, to produce them by letting a hearer know that the act is performed. Austin deals with illocutionary acts in various texts. The most relevant ones are “Performative utterances” (1956), “How to Do Things with Words” (1962), and “Performative-Constative” (1963). Austin gives better explanation of the notion of illocutionary act in “Words”

which is the print edition of the famous William James Lectures Austin gave in 1955 at Harvard. It is almost like the “Words and Deeds” in Oxford.

### **1.3.1. Constative Vs. Performative**

Austin (1962) introduces two technical terms: constative and performative sentences in order to distinguish between sentences which are true or false from those which actually seem to be true or false. Ethical propositions often contain curious words like good or suspect auxiliaries like ‘ought’. The performative is a type of sentences similar to ethical propositions in that they both belong to masqueraders. However, performatives are more similar to truth-evaluable sentences. Masqueraders are those sentences which are hard to be distinguished from sentences that can be whether true or false. Austin gives some examples for performative sentences such as: “I do take this woman to be my lawful wedded wife” as uttered in the course of the marriage ceremony. “I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth” as uttered when smashing the bottle against the stem. These sentences, given in these contexts, indicate that the speaker is performing some actions when uttering them. These sentences seem to be true or false. However, Austin (ibid.) says that they are all neither true nor false. To issue a truth-evaluable sentence, Austin (ibid.) assumes, is to ‘say’ something. However, in the case of performatives, it is not just saying something but it is also doing something.

### **1.3.2. Types of Speech Acts**

#### **1.3.2.1. Locutionary Act**

Austin divides the locutionary act into three different acts. First, the phonetic act which I the act of ‘uttering noises’. However, it seems not to involve any linguistic systems in contrast to

the real meaning of phonetics which deals with the noises or sounds made by speakers in using linguistic devices. Austin illustrates this idea by giving an example about the noise made by the monkey in saying 'go'. He states (ibid: 95):

Obviously, to perform a phatic I must perform a phonetic act, or, if you like, in performing one I am performing the other [...]: but the converse is not true, for if a monkey makes a noise indistinguishable from 'go' it is still not a phatic act.

Still, as the monkey's noise 'go' is associated with the English word 'go', one may assume that there is a phonetic act that includes using linguistic devices. A logical explanation to this example is that the monkey's noise 'go' is just produced by chance similar to the English word 'go'. In other words, there is no linguistic competence for the monkey to use linguistic devices deliberately.

A sufficient condition for a phonetic act to occur is the issuing of some sounds regardless of grammar and lexicon. However, saying something means using sounds according to grammatical and semantic rules. That is to say, the utterance produced by a speaker should be correct and meaningful. According to Austin (ibid), these two aspects of grammar and meaning are covered by the two other acts: the phatic act and the rhetic act. The second type of the illocutionary act is called the phatic act. It is "the uttering of certain vocables or words, i.e. noises of certain types, belonging to and as belonging to, a certain vocabulary, conforming to a certain grammar." Austin (ibid.) does not involve the aspect of meaning in the description of the phatic act. He focused just on grammar and vocabulary and the meaning of the issued words. This aspect, according to Austin, is covered by the rhetic act. The latter is "the performance of an act of using those vocables with a more-or-less definite sense and reference. Thus 'he said "The cat is on the mat"', reports a phatic act, whereas 'He said that the cat was on the mat' reports a rhetic act". Austin differentiates between phatic and rhetic acts using the criterion of the form. In

other words, phatic acts are characterized by quoting sentences and rhetic acts are characterized by the notion of indirect speech report. That is, in saying: He said “Is it in Oxford or Cambridge?” it is to be noticed as a phatic act. It is a quoted sentence presented as issued by the speaker. While in saying “He asked whether it was in Oxford or Cambridge”, it is said to be a rhetic act in that it is presented in the form of an indirect reported speech. What is specific in this example is that it involves the meaning of what is said in the sentence.

Related to Austin’s classification, Oishi (2006:3-4) distinguishes three acts of the locutionary act: phonetic acts, phatic acts and rhetic acts. He defines the phonetic acts as “acts of pronouncing sounds” and phatic acts as “ acts of uttering words or sentences in accordance with the phonological and syntactic rules of the language to which they belong” and he (ibid) sees that the third type- rhetic acts- as “ acts of uttering sentences with sense and more or less definite reference.” Searle (1975) argues that this criterion of meaning in the rhetic act, which is a type involved in the locutionary act, is the same criterion found in the illocutionary act especially in using the words ‘say’, ‘tell’ and ‘ask’ as used in Austin’s examples.in other words, Searle is saying that there is no difference between locutionary and illocutionary acts which are used by Austin as two different acts.

### **1.3.2.2. Illocutionary Act**

Different illocutionary forces for the same utterance may cause a problem for the reader/ hearer. The question is: how can speakers assume that the intended illocutionary force will be recognized by the hearer? Yule (1995:49) argues that “the most obvious device of indicating the

illocutionary force is an expression where there is a slot for a verb that explicitly names the illocutionary act being performed. Such a verb can be called a performative verb Vp.”

Before going in details with speech acts, Kearns (1984) explains the notion of intentional acts. An intentional act is an act which is done on purpose; that is to say, there is an intention from the actor being aware of doing something in saying something. Intentional acts done for a purpose are either acts of commission or acts of omission. Kearns (ibid: 44) differentiates two types of speech acts: intentional and sentential acts which both relate to each other as “a sentential act is the minimal act performed in using a sentence. A sentential act is normally a complex intentional act.” However, he (ibid: 45) sees that “the sentential act must be conventional or customary in the sense that this act is ‘provided for’ by a language”. Kearns (ibid: 46) adds that there are both linguistic and non-linguistic illocutionary acts and linguistic illocutionary acts are fundamental. He (ibid.) gives some examples to explain the notion of illocutionary act in the sense that “a sentential act performed with a complete and separate sentence is the paradigm case of an illocutionary act.” For instance, Kearns (ibid.) uses the following example to illustrate an assertion.

Steve’s saying ‘Switzerland is mountainous’

If a man tells his daughter, ‘Your uncle will take you to the circus tomorrow’, he may be performing different acts his assertion is an illocutionary act because he does not do something with the sentence to assert. As well as asserting, the father may be reassuring his daughter who feared that her uncle was leaving town that very night. He might reassure her without intending to, for he might be ignorant of his daughter’s fears. But, if the father reassures her intentionally, this reassuring is an intentional act but not an illocutionary act. The reassuring is not a minimal act performed with the sentence. The father asserts in order to reassure.

Kearns (ibid.) sees that “English is fairly flexible about jamming sentences together to form bigger sentences; this jamming together sometimes allows the components to be used to perform the same acts that could be performed when they stand alone”; for example, in presenting a premise-conclusion argument, we can present the premises as separate sentences and the conclusion as a separate sentence.

Any illocutionary act will be a complex intentional act when performed by a deliberate language user. It contains other illocutionary acts as components as Kearns (ibid: 49) states:

Illocutionary acts, especially sentential illocutionary, are important to the study of language because knowing how to perform these acts, and being able to recognize the when performed by someone else, are inseparable from the ability to use and understand language.

Searle gives more attention to illocutionary acts listing the different conditions and rules that are involved in these acts. In differentiating between illocutionary acts, Searle (1976:1) presents three dimensions: “illocutionary point, direction of fit, and expressed psychological state” which are the basis of the five classification of illocutionary acts: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives. This taxonomy replaces the taxonomy of illocutionary acts introduced by Austin presenting five classifications: verdictives, exersitives, commissives, expositives and behabitives. Trying to show the weakness in Austin’s classification, Searle (ibid.) presents an alternative taxonomy.

### **1.3.2.3. Perlocutionary Act**

According to Searle (1971), performing an act means, as Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1983: 21) put it, “performing an activity which is subject to a set of rules in rather the same way as is the playing of a game like soccer.” Here, they compare the rules governing the football

game with the rules governing the language used to argue, to give promise or to criticize a statement. They (ibid) also see that the central hypothesis of Searle is that “the semantics of a language can be regarded as a series of systems of constitutive rules and that the illocutionary acts are acts performed in accordance with those constitutive rules.” Like Searle (1971), van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1983) believe that native speakers of a language must know these rules in the performance of illocutionary acts.

Yule (op.cit.:49) indicates that “there are certain expected or appropriate circumstances, technically known as felicity conditions.” These conditions, as Pratt (1977) assumes, are important in the use of language. He (ibid: 81) argues that speech acts are “correctly or felicitously performed only if certain conditions obtain.” These appropriateness conditions rules which “speakers assume to be in force of their verbal dealings with each other; they form part of the knowledge speakers of a language share...” in using these felicity conditions, speakers will use language correctly and effectively. Pratt (ibid.:82) gives an example of the illocutionary act ‘asking a question’ to illustrate the idea of felicity conditions. Four conditions are required:

1. Speaker does not know the answer.
2. Speaker believes it is possible hearer knows the answer.
3. It is not obvious that hearer will provide the answer at the time without being asked.
4. Speaker wants to know the answer.

The notion of perlocution remains ambiguous in terms of being either the intended meaning or the actual achieved effect. Austin (1962: 101) did not give a clear picture for the ambiguity of perlocutionary act, he states

Saying something will often, or even normally, produce certain consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts or actions of other persons: and it may be done with the design, intention or purpose of producing them; ... We shall call the performance of an act of this kind the performance of a *perlocutionary act* or *perlocution*.

However, it can be noticed that it is more ambiguous and difficult as Allwood (1977:58) says, “by the fact that Austin included in the illocutionary force of an act its ‘pure uptake’ by a receiver.” On the contrary, it would be easier for the listeners or readers to make the distinction between illocutionary and perlocutionary acts, if their reactions are seen as perlocutionary effects.

Allwood (ibid.) criticizes the definition Austin gives to differentiate between locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. Austin (op.cit:108) states that:

*/Performing/ a locutionary act ... is roughly equivalent to uttering a certain sentence with certain sense and reference which is again equivalent to meaning in the traditional sense. Second, we said that we also perform illocutionary acts such as informing, ordering, warning, undertaking, etc. i.e. utterances which have a certain conventional force. Thirdly, we may also perform perlocutionary acts: what we bring about or achieve by saying something, such as convincing, persuading, deterring and even, say, surprising or misleading.*

First of all, Allwood (op.cit.: 54) objects to the terminology ‘act’ in this definition as it gives the “impression that Austin is talking about temporally distinct activities rather than simultaneous aspects of one and the same action.” Second, he (ibid) sees that the locutionary aspect of an action is related to the given information which is conventionally tied to the utterance itself. While the illocutionary aspect of an action is related directly to the conventional force of this utterance; this concept differs from one utterance to another. For instance,

1. It’s snowing.
2. I promise to buy you a drink.

In examining these two examples, it is to be noticed that the locutionary aspect for the first example is saying something about how the weather is; while the second example is a sentence



that says something about promising. The illocutionary force of the first sentence, according to what Allwood thinks, is the function of a statement. The second sentence has the illocutionary aspect of an indicative statement that is based on the word 'promise'. The difference between both sentences is that in the second the speaker is committing himself to future action whether he is saying the truth or not. The conventions tied to the illocutionary force are based on different contexts, however.

A third remark Allwood (*ibid.* :55) makes is about illocutionary forces and their relation with being conventional. He turns to the question of in what sense illocutionary forces are conventional and answered that the only conventions that are needed are when the speaker uses direct lexical conventions in, for instance, connecting the word 'warn' with its context of warning in saying:

3. There is a bull in the meadow.
4. I warn you there is a bull in the meadow.

Moreover, Allwood (*ibid.*) sees that some clarifications or explanations for Austin's account of speech acts are needed to solve the problem of ambiguity to differentiate between one act and another. He considers some features to be fulfilled in order to go with the direction of clarifying concepts or even changing the terminology. In Allwood's (*ibid.* :58-9) words, the following features are more suitable for the study of communicative actions.

1. The intention and purpose (intended effects) of a communicative action.
2. The actual overt behavior used to perform the communicative action.
3. The context in which the communicative action is performed.
4. The actually achieved effects in a receiver of the act of communication (these effects need not be identical with the intended effects.)
5. As an extension of 4, the notion of conventional force, i.e. the social consequences of a certain communicative action.

Finally, Pratt (op.cit. 81) mentions that “a speaker who performs an illocutionary act may also be performing a perlocutionary act”. In other words, in saying something, the speaker may achieve some intended effects or influence the listener. For instance, by warning a speaker may frighten or by arguing a speaker may convince. Here, there is an assumption that the speaker and the listener assume that all these conditions meet together otherwise the question will be inappropriate and infelicitous. These conditions are classified by Searle (1969) as either preparatory, essential or sincerity conditions. When taking the previous example of ‘asking a question’ into account, conditions 1 and 3 are preparatory conditions, condition 4 refers to the sincerity condition.

Van den Broeck (1986: 38) sees that speech acts are actions which require “global planning and interpretation”; in other words, these speech acts are performed via a sequence of different speech acts which are intended, understood, and “function socially, as one speech act”. This type of speech act is called global or macro- speech act. Hence, he (ibid.) argues that a text is “a well-organized sequence of utterances which globally functions as a certain type of speech act.” That is, different types of speech acts distinguish different types of discourse; for instance, narration, argumentation, poems, and so on. Moreover, van den Broeck (ibid.) states that it depends on the type of illocutionary force to have certain type of discourse. This gives the following classification: assertive discourse, expressive discourse, directive discourse, commissive discourse and reflexive, ritual, or poetic discourse

The illocutionary forces like assertions, commands, requests...etc. follow universal, underlying conventions. Van den Broeck (ibid.) sees that the way these acts are performed varies from language to language, from culture to culture, from context to context. It depends mainly on

the relationship between speaker (writer) and hearer (reader), their status, the cultural norms and the traditional conventions shared by the members of the same linguistic community. The main idea here is that the fact that speech acts vary from one culture to another is that their felicity conditions relate to culture-bound social factors. Van den Broeck (ibid.) sees that a speech act may be called successful when the speaker/writer succeeds in the illocutionary force to bring about some change on the hearer/ reader; what may simply be called a perlocutionary act. As Van Dijk (1977: 199) believes that “hence a perlocutionary act is an act of which the conditions of success are given in terms of purposes of the speaker with respect to some change brought about in the hearer as a consequence of the illocutionary act.” He illustrates the idea of a successful act by giving the example of an advice. That is, if the hearer follows the advice, it is to be said that the advice is perlocutionarily successful. Oishi (op.cit. :4) states that perlocutionary acts are “acts attributed to the effect of uttering a sentence.” In distinguishing between the three speech acts, Oishi (ibid. :4) explains that: “Austin says that in uttering a sentence the speaker performs an illocutionary act of having a certain force, which is different from locutionary act of uttering the sentence.” Morini (2013:16) sees that “illocutionary force and perlocutionary effect are to be kept separated in theory as well as in practice.”

### **1.3.3. Speech Act Classification**

Gee (op.cit. 42) discusses an important idea on speaking about language functions apart from giving information which according to him “it is always useful to ask of any communication what is the speaker trying to DO and not just what is the speaker trying to SAY?” Generally, there are five types of general functions performed by speech acts: declarations, representatives, expressives, directives, and commissives. Kachru (1998) sees that culture plays a crucial role in characterizing the different speech acts across various languages in

terms of the conventions used in expository and argumentative discourse. Pratt (op.cit. :80-1) clarifies the different illocutionary acts divided by Searle (1973) by giving examples to the five basic categories:

Representatives: illocutionary acts that undertake to represent a state of affairs, whether past, present, future, or hypothetical, e.g. stating, claiming, hypothesizing, describing, predicting, telling, insisting, suggesting, or swearing that something is the case.

Directives: illocutionary acts designed to get the addressee to do something, e.g. requesting, commanding, pleading, inviting, and daring.

Commissives: illocutionary acts that commit the speaker to doing something, e.g. promising, threatening, vowing.

Expressive: illocutionary acts that express only the speaker's psychological state, e.g. congratulating, thanking, deploring, condoling, welcoming.

Declarations: illocutionary acts that bring about the state of affairs they refer to, e.g. blessing, firing, baptizing, bidding, passing sentence.

Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1983) make a comparison between the way Austin and Searle classify the different sorts of a speech act. However, these two former linguists agree on the definition of a speech act; they see that language is considered a 'form of verbal acting.' However, Searle (1970) gives a slightly different classification of speech acts from that of Austin (1962). He distinguishes three types of speech acts; first, an utterance which is 'the bringing forth of certain speech sounds, words and sentence', as van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1983:19) explain it. The second type is a propositional act which is the reference to something or someone with prediction of some properties that concern that person or thing. Third, an illocutionary act in which there is a communicative force of promise and so on of an utterance. In addition to the forth act, a perlocutionary act, in which the speaker performs an act when uttering an utterance. However, these acts may not occur together in one sentence.

### 1.3.4. Speech Act Theory

Language is seen as a form of acting in terms of speech act theory. Answering the question of what speakers and listeners do when they use language, gives this speech act theory this great impact on discourse studies.

Ali (2008:113) gives a short and precise definition in his dictionary for the term ‘performative act’ or ‘الحدث (الكلامي) الأدائي’ in Arabic, he states:

الكلام أو القول الذي يؤدي أو ينجز ما ينص عليه, مثال ذلك: زوجتك فلانة, أو أنت طالق! أو أعدك بذلك.

Ali (2008:138) defines speech acts by explaining the specificity of the speech act theory that cares about the implied meaning rather than the literal meaning of words and structures.

نظرية الحدث الكلامي:

نظرية في المعنى لا تتحدد بالمعنى الحرفي للكلمات و التراكيب, و انما تذهب الى أبعد من ذلك بأن تصف الأقوال حسبما تعبر عنه ضمنيا و ليس ظاهريا...ان ادراك هذا المعنى الضمني أمر مهم للمتوهم الذي قد يجد من المناسب أحيانا أن يعبر عنه صراحة في اللغة الهدف.

Kearns (1984: 1) clarifies that “this theory leaves room for both syntax and semantics. But syntax and semantics are abstract theories while this speech act theory is not” (less abstract). In fact, it provides “a framework within which these studies can be located.” It determines the shapes of acceptable theories of syntax and semantics.” What characterizes the speech act theory is that it focuses on the relations between linguistic acts. Without understanding the relationships between different types of speech acts (component and complex acts), there is no comprehensive speech act theory and there can be no satisfactory explanation of language or linguistic activity. (2) Kearns (ibid: 11) argues that “a natural language must ultimately be identified with a linguistic activity (talking, writing, listening, reading) and the linguistic skills of a community

over a period of time.” When a linguistic theory does not include speech acts, it is to be called a partial study and it is ignoring the reality that language is also concrete not only abstract.

There has been a criticism for speech act theory as it is or tries to be too comprehensive and concrete. Moreover, Katz (1977) criticizes the speech act theory for including both semantic and pragmatic materials. However, this criticism is misleading because a speech act theory should be comprehensive and concrete at the same time. Moreover, it shapes a framework where we can locate abstract branches of the language. Kearns (op.cit. :163) sees that speech act theory is “incompatible with theories which recognize deep and surface structure”. He goes on to explain how this theory of speech acts supplants the theory of deep and surface structure.

It should explain why those theories often seem natural and intuitively plausible. For sentences where a deep structure explanation is illuminating, the speech act theory should prove equally enlightening. The speech act theory should explain why deep structure explanations are useful without being correct.

There is, however, a larger issue at stake as well. There have been recent calls for speech act theory to take into account the active role played by the hearer in the co-construction and negotiation of meaning, so that the hearer is not merely relegated to reconstructing as faithfully as possible the intentions of the actor. In what follows, we give a crystal clear picture of argumentation as one of the complex speech acts by defining it and explaining its aspects in relation to pragmatics.

#### **1.4. Argumentation**

Although authors like Hamblin (1970) claims that it is not necessary to start with a definition of argumentation theory and its objects, others like van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1984) and Johnson (2000) argue that it is important to give a clear definition of argumentation

start from the beginning. Hamblin's view (1970) is due to the fact that giving a definition to argumentation first will limit it to theoretical aspect; however, it should achieve the aim of argumentation which is, as Bermejo-Luque (2011: 11) explains, "to give an account of any phenomenon involving the activity of giving and asking for reasons." On the contrary, van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1984) argue that to provide a good definition of argumentation would deal with every aspect of the discipline; otherwise, it would be useless for the evaluation of real use of argumentation.

Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1983) attempt to solve certain problems related to argumentation and pragmatics or namely speech acts. They see that the speech act theory plays a crucial role in developing descriptive interpretive pragmatics. This theory which focuses on one type, the locutionary act, classifies argumentation as an illocutionary act. However, argumentation theorists see that this classification is questionable. Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (*ibid.*: 3) wonder "whether argumentation really ought to be treated as an illocutionary act," and they ask about the conditions which "may be deemed to have fulfilled if a series of utterances is regarded as an argumentation." Moreover, these argumentation theorists bring up more questions one of which is the very little attention given by speech act theorists to perlocutionary act. They (*ibid.*) see that argumentation is "an attempt at convincing the listener of the acceptability or unacceptability of an expressed opinion, and convincing is the perlocutionary act". They try to point out to the unclear relationship between illocutionary and perlocutionary acts in that it is not quite clear how the performance of the speech act of argumentation is concerned with pursuing a specific perlocutionary effect.

There is a difference between logicians and argumentation theorists in dealing with the term argumentation. Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (*ibid.*:4) believe that argumentation is not as

logicians think composed of “combination of premises and conclusions” but from “constellations of statements by language users which may in principle mean more than one thing and which must be interpreted by other language users.” Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (op.cit.: 4) bring out another difference in which they see argumentation as “a form of language which is in principle designed to convince other language users of the acceptability or unacceptability of a given expressed opinion.” This goes against the idea of logicians about the components of argumentation which shows that there is a necessity for a conclusion to follow certain premises. This idea leaves aside that these components have “a specific communicative and interactional function.”(ibid.) An argumentative text, as Abbadi (2014:726) defines it based on the thoughts of authors like Toulmin (1958), Werlich (1976), De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), is “a form of discourse that attempts to persuade readers to accept claim, whether that acceptance is based on logical or emotional appeals, or both”. Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (op.cit. :18) attempt to clear up the term argumentation by giving the following thorough definition:

Argumentation is a speech act consisting of a constellation of arguments designed to justify or refute an expressed opinion and calculated in a regimented discussion to convince a rational judge of a particular standpoint in respect of the acceptability or unacceptability of that expressed opinion.

Bermejo-Luque (2011) in his book “Giving Reasons” gives a broad understanding to argumentation. First of all, he (ibid: 1) sees, in explaining the relationship between language and argumentation, that “arguing presupposes the possibility of establishing support relations between claims. Thus, even the simplest forms of argumentation turn out to be quite a sophisticated type of communication involving a language able to implement some meta-linguistic practice.” So, here, Bermejo-Luque thinks that argumentation is related to the specifics of language. Others, like Ducrot, Anscombe (1991), Habermas (1998), and Brandon (2000) as



mentioned in Bermejo-Luque (ibid), see that it should be understood the other way round; that is, specifics of language are to be seen in terms of argumentation. Ducrot and Anscombe (op.cit. :35) claim that “argumentation is written into the language-system itself, into the most linguistic aspect of the structure of our utterances.” Bermejo-Luque (op.cit. :118) introduces a very broad and clear definition of argumentation as he states:

The activity of arguing plays two basic roles, both of which are fundamental to humans as rational and social beings. On the one hand, argumentation is a tool for knowledge, because it is the way we justify our beliefs and claims: in giving reasons for a claim, we try to show that it is correct in a certain sense and that it is not up to our audience to accept it or not. Argumentation is a means of justifying our claims, in the sense of ‘showing them to be correct’. On the other hand, argumentation is also a tool for interaction among individuals, a mechanism with causal powers: it is not only that we place a commitment on our addressees to accept the claims for which we afford good reasons; it is also that by means of our reasons, we sometimes manage to cause certain beliefs in our addressees, we are able to persuade them of our claims. Argumentation is also to produce ‘rational persuasion,’ that is, to produce persuasion prompted by reasons.

Bermejo-Luque (2011) aims at approaching argumentation as a speech act from a linguistic-pragmatic angle. For Johnson (2000: 145), giving a clear definition to argumentation will have its significant effect on the theory because “an adequate apprehension takes a toll, both in the theory of analysis and the theory of appraisal.”

While clarifying the relationship between the illocutionary act of arguing and the perlocutionary act of convincing, van Eemeren and Grootendorst (ibid. :47) mention that Austin and Searle were not, unlike Cohen (1973), concerned with perlocutions. Cohen (ibid. :499) sees that there is a link between the illocution argumentation and the perlocution convincing. To put it clearly, he believes that the perlocutionary act to convince is brought about through the illocutionary act to argue to the point that he states that this relationship is “tidy and obvious.” In

differentiating between convincing and persuading, van Eemeren and Grootendorst (op.cit. : 48) clarify the meaning of the word to convince as using “pro-argumentation to induce a listener to accept an expressed opinion, or to use contra-argumentation to induce a listener to reject an expressed opinion.”

The following figure provided by Smekens Education Solutions Inc. (2011) demonstrates 6 significant differences between persuasion and argumentation.

## Subtle, but Significant differences between Persuasive Writing v. Argumentative Writing

|  |   |
|--|---|
| <p><b>Goal</b> of persuasive writing:<br/>To get reader to agree with you/your point of view on a particular topic.</p>  | <p><b>Goal</b> of argumentative writing:<br/>To get reader to acknowledge that your side is valid and deserves consideration as another point of view.</p>  |
| <p><b>General technique</b> of persuasive writing:<br/>Blends facts and emotion in attempt to convince the reader that the writer is “right.”(Often relies heavily on opinion.)</p>  | <p><b>General technique</b> of argumentative writing:<br/>Offers the reader relevant reasons, credible facts, and sufficient evidence to honor the writer has a valid and worthy perspective.</p>   |
| <p><b>Starting point</b> of persuasive writing:<br/><i>Identify</i> a topic <i>and</i> your side.</p>  | <p><b>Starting point</b> of argumentative writing:<br/><i>Research</i> a topic and <i>then</i> align with one side.</p>   |
| <p><b>Viewpoint</b> presented in persuasive writing:<br/>Persuasion has a single-minded goal. It is based on a personal conviction that a particular way of thinking is the only sensible way to think. Writer presents one side— his side.</p> <p>(Persuasive writing <i>may</i> include ONE opposing point, it is then quickly dismissed/refuted.)</p> | <p><b>Viewpoint</b> presented in argumentative writing:<br/>Acknowledge that opposing views exist, not only to hint at what a fair-minded person you are, but to give you the opportunity to counter these views tactfully in order to show why you feel that your own view is the more worthy one to hold.</p> <p>Writer presents multiple perspectives, although is clearly for one side.</p> |
| <p><b>Audience</b> of persuasive writing:<br/>Needs intended audience. Knowing what they think and currently believe, the writer “attacks” attempting to persuade them to his side.</p>  | <p><b>Audience</b> of argumentative writing:<br/>Doesn’t need an audience to convince. The writer is content with simply putting it out there.</p>  |
| <p><b>Attitude</b> of persuasive writing:<br/>Persuasive writers want to gain another “vote” so they “go after” readers more aggressively. Persuasive writing is more personal, more passionate, more emotional.</p>   | <p><b>Attitude</b> of argumentative writing:<br/>Simply to get the reader to consider you have an idea worthy of listening to. The writer is sharing a conviction, whether the audience ends up agreeing or not.</p>  |

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**Figure 3: The Difference between Argumentation and Persuasion (taken from [www.SmerkenEducation.com](http://www.SmerkenEducation.com) 2011)**

Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (op.cit.:50) see that argumentation is said to be happy if the speaker performs the illocutionary act arguing correctly so that the listener understands what the speaker tends to do. The following table illustrates speech acts in terms of communicative and interactive aspects of language using examples for each case.

| speech act | communicative aspects |                                 | interactional aspects |                                |  |
|------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|--|
|            | illocution            | illocutionary effect            | perlocution           | inherent perlocutionary effect | consecutive perlocutionary consequence       |
| example 1  | <i>advising</i>       | understanding the advice        | <i>Cheering up</i>    | accepting the advice           | enrolling for a new course                   |
| example 2  | <i>arguing</i>        | understanding the argumentation | <i>convincing</i>     | accepting the argumentation    | desisting from opposition to a point of view |
| example 3  | <i>requesting</i>     | understanding the request       | <i>persuading</i>     | accepting the request          | abandoning the intention to leave            |
| example 4  | <i>Informing</i>      | understanding the information   | <i>instructing</i>    | accepting the information      | henceforth using contraceptives              |
| example 5  | <i>Warning</i>        | understanding the warning       | <i>alarming</i>       | accepting the warning          | keeping mouth shut                           |

**Figure 4: Illustration of communicative and interactional aspects of language (taken from Van Eemeren and Grootendorst 1983:50)**

Argumentation schemes are, in the words of Godden and Walton (2007:267-8), those “stereotypical patterns of defeasible reasoning that typically occur in common, everyday arguments...representing different types of plausible arguments which, when successfully deployed, create presumptions in favor of their conclusions and thereby shift the burden of proof to an objector.” They (ibid.) also explain how argumentation schemes organize arguments especially when associated with critical questions.

### **1.4.1. Types of Argumentation**

Van Eemeren and Garssen (2008:5) try to clarify the relationship between a controversy, a discussion and a dispute defining a controversy as “a type of debate that occupies an intermediate position between a discussion and a dispute.” However, Dascal (2001:316) sees that a discussion can be viewed as a rule-based rational procedure; while a dispute is different in terms of being characterized by “extra-rational factors”. Discussions and disputes, like controversies, start with a specific and clear thesis statement that indicates the problematic issue; however, a controversy, as Dascal (ibid. :315) describes, “spreads quickly to other problems and reveals profound divergences.” What is interesting in a controversy is that the objective put to be reached is neither victory which is the aim of a dispute, nor proof like in discussions, but rather rational persuasion. To put it differently, and in Dascal’s words (ibid. :316) “discussions are basically concerned with established the truth, disputes with winning, and controversies with persuading the adversary and/ or competent audience to accept one’s position”

#### **1.4.1.1. Explicit Argumentation**

Van Eemeren et al. (2002:38) argue that “once it has been determined what the standpoint is, it is to figure out which utterances form the argumentation for this standpoint.” To

put it differently, the use of verbal units like: *in my opinion, I think that, I conclude by saying that, and I hope I have shown that* ...facilitates the task of the analyst or reader of an argumentative text to recognize its standpoint. This will, in its turn, facilitate the recognition of arguments.

Explicit announcement, like “*my arguments for this are...*” or “*I have concluded my defense*” are the exception not the rule. This explicitness is only found in the case of avoiding misunderstanding, emphasizing or for legal or formal reasons. However, it is not necessary for writers or speakers to use such explicit expressions in order to present argumentation, but rather to use certain indicators such as: *therefore, thus, so, consequently, of course, because, since* and *given that*. These indicators make it easy to identify both standpoints and argumentation. Some indicators make it even clearer for the recognition of the type of a standpoint. For instance, in using the clues: *because* and *since*, the standpoint is said to be retrogressive while in using the indicators: *thus, for that reason* and *therefore*, the standpoint is said to be progressive. In the former type, the standpoint is placed before the arguments whereas in the latter, the indicators signal that a standpoint will follow the given arguments.

Other indicators are less obvious, like: *on the one hand...on the other hand, on the grounds of, firstly...secondly..., because of, ought to, should, all in all, in short*. However, these indicators may be used for other purposes different from argumentation. For instance, the word ‘so’ can be used only like filler, the same purpose shown in the example given by van Eemeren et al. (ibid. :40):

So then I asked her when she was going to leave, and she got mad, so she slammed the door in my face, so that’s the last I’ve seen of her.

### 1.4.1.2. Implicit Argumentation

On the contrary, argumentation can be implicit in a way that there is no use of indicators. However, the interpretation depends on the context. In this case, different interpretations are given to the same utterance depending on what kind of standpoint is: progressive or retrogressive. To illustrate this idea, van Eemeren et al. (ibid: 4) give the following sentences as an example:

Carla doesn't ever want to see Bob again. She won't call him.

There could be two possible interpretations: the first is presented retrogressive: Carla doesn't ever want to see Bob again, so she won't call him; or progressively: Carla doesn't ever want to see Bob again, so she won't call him. In both interpretations, there are two different arguments to two different standpoints.

### 1.4.2. Expressions of Argumentative Discourse

Van Eemeren et al. (ibid.) introduce some expressions that are used to express standpoints and doubt, such as: *my standpoint is that ...*, *we are of the opinion that...*, *I think that...*, *if you ask me ...*, *my conclusion is that...*, *that's why...*, *it simply isn't true that...*, *thus...*, *therefore,...*, *I'm convinced that ...* . Other expressions introduce standpoints without providing certainty because a van Eemeren et al. (ibid. :11) states “(without more contextual information) it leaves room for a different interpretation.” For instance, expressions like: *the way I see it,...*; *in short,...*; *in other words,...*; *in actual fact,...*; *I would go so far as to say that...*; *all thing considered,...*; *what we need to agree on is ...*; *it is nonsense to ...*; *it's a good idea to... .*

In other cases, the standpoint is clearly expressed with the use of certain verbal patterns like: *should be, shouldn't be, ought to be, you must never, that ...is...* and so on.

On the other hand, doubts, which are often implicit, are more difficult to recognize than standpoints. There are some expressions that facilitate the recognition of doubts like: *I don't know whether..., I'm not entirely sure..., I'm not yet convinced that..., couldn't it be that..., I don't really understand why..., I'll have to think about whether...*, and so on.

Rocci (2009) gives importance to the role modals play as indicators of argumentative discourse. These indicators include expressions like modal verbs or other lexical and grammatical devices like: modal adjectives, adverbs and nouns. Rocci (ibid. :207) illustrates each type of indicators; for modal verbs, he lists the following modal verbs: may, can, must, should and will. Concerning modal adjectives, he gives the examples of: possible, necessary, probable, likely, certain; for adverbs: may be, necessarily, certainly, probably, likely, perhaps. Possibility, necessity, and risk are some examples given to illustrate nouns.

Argumentative discourse employs certain linguistic indicators. Some are progressive in which the standpoint follows the argumentation. Other indicators are called retrogressive because the standpoint precedes the argumentation. The role of the analyst of argumentative discourse would be easier if the text follows a well-defined context that gives background information. In case there is no background information, the analyst should give the most appropriate argumentative interpretation.

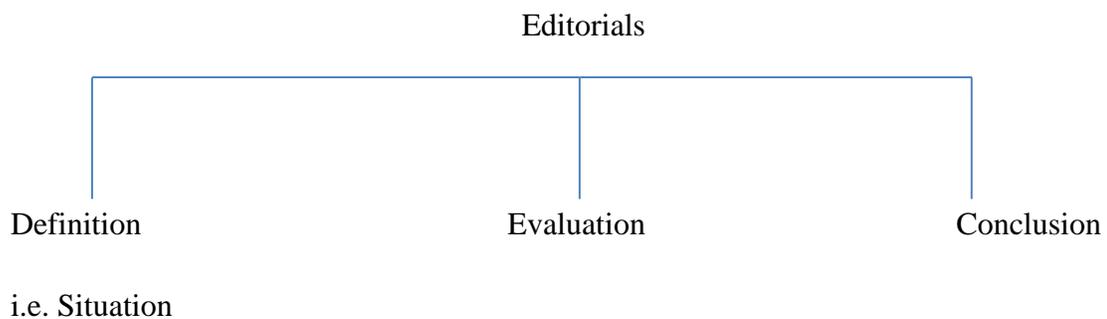
Arguments used in resolving a difference of opinion, can be recognized by means of different types of clues. Types of arguments can be identified depending on the aim behind defending a standpoint; either justifying, if the standpoint is positive; or refuting, if the



standpoint is negative. Thought it is not easy to recognize argumentation., the use of some clues increases the possibility to identify argumentation readily.

### 1.4.3. Editorials as Type of Argumentative Discourse

It is claimed as El-Shiyab (1990:68) mentions that editorials, as a type of argumentative discourse genres, are “intended and structured in such a way as to express and convey the assessment and the belief of the newspaper.” Van Dijk (1989) believes that editorials are structured as follows: a definition, an evaluation and recommendation. In other words, editorials begin with statements that define or describe the situation. Second, the sentences that follow explain this situation in a cause-effect relationship: and finally, the concluding sentences express the recommendations or what should happen later. El-Shiyab (op.cit. :69) puts the following diagram to illustrate the structure of editorials.



**Figure 5: Representation of English Language Editorials**

Here, van Dijk (op.cit.) believes that these editorials as statements of opinion can be defensible and acceptable. More explicitly, editorials should always be supported by explanations, reasons and justifications; these texts, as El-Shiyab (op.cit. :70) describes are “goal-oriented, (i.e. they have the tendency to persuade).”

Shaheen (1991: 92) argues that Arabic and English employ different methods of argumentation. The English approach to argumentation is like “the exposition of a situation, followed by evidence and substantiation.” While the Arabic approach of the same content employs “two topic sentences which may be loosely connected through syllogisms”, what follows as evidence may contain repetition.

As quoted in Al-Jayrudy (2011: 12), Fowler (1991: 232) notes that:

Discourse always has in mind an implied addressee, an imagined subject position which it requires the addressee to occupy. Newspapers are concerned – and deliberately, despite the unnoticeability of the discursive processes – to construct ideal readers.

#### **1.4.4. Analysis of Argumentative Discourse**

Van Eemeren et al. (op.cit.) argue that in order to analyze argumentative discourse, there should be an identification of the main difference of opinion in which types of this disagreement are specified. They introduce three types of difference of opinion depending on the type of relationship found between both parties’ standpoints. First of all, if there is only doubt between the claim and the counter-claim, then this difference of opinion is single and non-mixed. However, the second type is known as being mixed when the other party is not only doubtful but also opposing to the first standpoint. Moreover, the third type is more complicated for the reason that it involves more than one proposition that is why it is called ‘multiple’. The origin of argumentation is the existence of a disagreement of opinions between two parties or two

standpoints. However, it would be unusual to leave this difference of opinions without discussion trying to agree on a solution or an approximate opinion. This is simply called an argumentative discussion. When analyzing argumentative discourse, the focus would be on the difference of opinion which can be either explicit or implicit. The following example, given by van Eemeren et al. (ibid. :4-5) explains clearly how a disagreement can be explicit or implicit. The example develops as follows:

- a) Paula: I think schools should spend more time teaching writing skills.  
Jack: I don't know, I've never really thought about it.
- b) Paula: I think schools should spend more time teaching writing skills.  
Dan: that's ridiculous! More than enough time is spent that already.
- c) Paula: I think schools should spend more time teaching writing skills because students these days have a hard time putting thoughts on paper. Furthermore, our schools spend ridiculous little time on these skills compared to other countries.

In the first example (a), there is a doubt of the second standpoint towards the first claim. That is, Jack is not sure about Paula's opinion. Moreover, in the second pair (b), there is not only a strong disagreement about what Paula introduces as opinion but also a total rejection of the standpoint by 'Dan'. In these two first examples (a and b), the standpoint is clearly expressed and the opposed standpoint or rejection is explicitly developed. However, it is not as simple as that. The third example (c) makes it clear that some differences of opinion can be implicit in a way that only one standpoint is explicitly expressed while the opposing opinion should be implicitly inferred. This is especially the case of written argumentative texts.

The quality or content of a proposition differs depending on the kind of commitment of speakers/writers to particular standpoint. Starting from this point, standpoints can be positive,

negative or neutral. At the same time, the force of these standpoints can vary as well. It can be introduced as a conviction or simply as a suggestion.

Behrens et al. (2005) use an argument synthesis 'Keeping Volunteering Voluntary' to illustrate the idea of an argumentative text. In the second and third paragraphs they use two topic sentences to support the claim that there should be resistance to compulsory service. They (ibid.:218-9) state "it's not a stretch to imagine the senators and the others at the same point endorsing a program of compulsory service, an idea that has been around near for nearly a century" and "the question of what sort of service, or obligation, citizens owe a country is as old as the first gathering of people into a collective for mutual safety and comfort." In these two sentences, the writers want to set the historical context for the text by explaining the cultural importance of service in America. The translation of such sentences will be difficult for EFL learners because of its cultural specificity; they translate the sentences according to their semantic meaning without paying attention to their pragmatic interpretation. Behrens et al. (ibid.:64) insist that writing is "frequently intended to persuade- that is, to influence the reader's thinking." In order to succeed in doing this, the writer should follow a writing structure that can have an effect on the reader. First of all, the writer should, as they (ibid.) explain, "begin with an assertion that is arguable," which is called the thesis statement. Then, the writer must know how to arrange the arguments to be used as evidence to support the claim. Finally, the writer concludes the text by giving a summary, solution or rewriting the thesis statement. Behrens et al. (ibid. :69) assert that for the argumentative text to be convincing, it "should be governed by principles of logic- clear and orderly thinking," which is at the same time biased, that is, "an argument weighted toward one point of view and against others, which is in fact the nature of argument- may be valid as long as it is logically sound."

Ward (2010:136) presents an example of how to distinguish between arguments and counterarguments in an argumentative text.

Parents have a responsibility to monitor what their children are doing on the internet. Many children, especially teenagers, believe that they have a right to privacy even though they are not yet adults. Furthermore, they argue that parents monitoring their internet usage can lead to a lack of trust. However, until children are old enough to live on their own, parents should have the right to see how their children spend their time on the Web. Most monitor them because they want to make sure they are safe, not because they are interested in their private affairs. As the old saying goes, “It’s better to be safe than sorry.”

The underlined sentences are put forward to support the counterargument that children claim to have the right of internet privacy while the double-underlined sentences show the arguments of the author which are in favor of monitoring children use of internet. Ward (ibid.: 144) sees that argumentative texts concentrate on “a controversial topic or on a subject about which people disagree. Writers of an argumentative essay must give their position on a topic (supporting or opposing) and present reasons that support their belief.” He (ibid. :145) illustrates the organization of an argumentative text by giving explanation to each part followed by an example taken from an argumentative essay he presented (ibid. :144-5) entitled “Tag, You’re It!” that speaks about using RFID technology (Radio Frequency Identification). First of all, he describes the first part: introduction. Apart from defining key words and giving the significance of such a topic, the author places his/her thesis statement that identifies the author’s point of view clearly from the beginning. It is usually put at the end of the introduction as it is the case for the example Ward (ibid. :144) gives:

Using RFID to track people and their purchases would compromise our privacy and security. Because of this, I feel the technology should be banned altogether.

For the next part of the argumentative text, in the body paragraphs, the writer should include the arguments, counterarguments and the refutation. Using explanation and examples to support arguments and counterarguments is necessary. Apart from supporting your claim with strong arguments, it is important to know how to refute the counterargument. Ward (ibid: 146) clarifies the idea of opposing the point of view of the author using the following example:

Supporters of RFID technology say it is giving people what they want-convenience.

Followed by the explanation of the counterargument, Ward (ibid.) identifies the reason people who support that claim may give:

Not having time to swipe a credit card saves time. In today's fast-paced world, saving time is a good thing.

In refuting the counterargument, the author should show the weaknesses in the counterargument as Ward (ibid.) points out in his refutation:

However, we have to ask ourselves what is more important-convenience or personal security and privacy? The truth is that RFID is an invasive technology that prevents us from keeping our personal information private and safe. In this case, security needs to be given more importance than convenience.

And then it is time for the last stage, the conclusion. The author reformulates his/her thesis statement and as Ward (ibid.) explains “finish with strong final thoughts that will help persuade readers to agree with your position.”

#### **1.4.5. Rules for Communication and Argumentation**

In their article ‘Rules of Argumentation in dialogues’ (1988:5), van Eemeren and Grootendorst identify the type of rules for communication and argumentation in order to resolve

disputes. Those rules are not “completely alien to the rules which already exist among any given community of language users.” There are four main types of rules for communication: first, syntactic rules when producing or interpreting larger linguistic units; second, semantic rules for the notion of meaning used in these units and third, communicative rules “for a recognizable and correct performance of the elementary and complex speech acts” found in these sentences. Fourth and last, interactional rules which help maintain all types of discourse in which there are sequences of speech acts. In other words, grammatically speaking, language users must know syntactic and semantic rules; otherwise, they will exclude themselves from the language community. Pragmatically speaking, those language users must observe the best conditions in performing their speech acts and comply with the requirements for appropriate discourse. If not, they will not be a part of the communicative community. These four categories are ordered hierarchically; that is to say, the fourth type of the rules presupposes the third type and the third type presupposes the first and second types. These four categories are interrelated. Having the fact that rules of communication are of a social nature, they can be violated. This may have an impact on the understanding or acceptability of the discourse.

The violation of rules sometimes may be deliberate. The reason behind this is when language users want to achieve a particular effect; for example, in the case of using indirect speech acts and conversational implicatures providing that the context or the knowledge shared by these members of the same community will offer a solution for the problems caused by this violation.

Van Eemeren and Grootendorst give more importance to discuss the communicative and interactional rules which relate to the field of pragmatics rather than discussing the grammatical rules which relate to the branch of pure linguistics.

### 1.4.6. A Critical Argumentative Discussion

Van Eemeren et al. (op.cit.) see that a critical argumentative discussion should go through four phases: the confrontation stage, the opening stage, the argumentation stage and the concluding stage. It can be that only one standpoint is expressed and here the argumentative discussion would be implicit. Before presenting a modal of a critical argumentative discussion, a distinction between an argumentative discussion and an informative discussion should take place. The former tries to, as van Eemeren et al. (ibid. :24) put it, “determine to what extent a given standpoint is defeasible,” while the latter just “serves primarily to convey information.” However, these two types of discussions are often combined. A critical discussion, which involves both a party that defends a standpoint or simply the protagonist and a party that challenges or objects this first standpoint, the antagonist, aims at resolving a difference of opinion by proceeding through from different phases which are clearly explained in the modal given by van Eemeren et al. (ibid. :25) as follows:

1. In the *confrontation stage* the parties establish that they have a difference of opinion. In a non-mixed difference of opinion, this simply means that one party’s standpoint is not immediately accepted by the other party, but is met with doubt or criticism. In a mixed difference of opinion, the other party advances the opposite standpoint.
2. In the *opening stage* the parties decide to try to resolve the difference of opinion. They assign the roles of protagonist and antagonist (in a mixed difference, there are two protagonists and two antagonists). They also agree on the rules for the discussion and on the starting points.
3. In the *argumentation stage* the protagonist defends his or her standpoint against the sometimes persistent criticism of the antagonist by putting forward arguments to counter the antagonist’s objections or to remove the antagonist’s doubts.
4. In the *concluding stage* the parties assess the extent to which the difference of opinion has been resolved and in whose favor. If the protagonist withdraws the standpoint, the difference of opinion is resolved in favor of the antagonist; if the antagonist abandons his or her doubts, it is resolved in favor of the protagonist.



Taking the pragma-dialectical approach into account, an ideal modal of a critical discussion is shaped according to the theoretical component of reasonableness. This modal is composed of four stages: the confrontation stage, the opening stage, the argumentation stage and the concluding stage. Van Eemeren et al. (2009) present a more simplified version than that introduced by van Eemeren and Grootendorst (2004) in which the rules were more technical. Van Eemeren et al. (2009 :21-4) offer a recapitulation composed of ‘ten commandments’ that points out the incorrect moves which hinder the resolution of a disagreement in an argumentative discourse:

1. *Discussants may not prevent each other from advancing standpoints or from calling standpoints into question.*
2. *Discussants who advance a standpoint may not refuse to defend this standpoint when requested to do so.*
3. *Attacks on standpoints may not bear on a standpoint that has not actually been put forward by the other part.*
4. *Standpoints may not be defended by non-argumentation or argumentation that is relevant to the standpoint.*
5. *Discussants may not falsely attribute unexpressed premises to the other party, nor disown responsibility for their own unexpressed premises.*
6. *Discussants may not falsely present something as an accepted starting point or falsely deny that something is an accepted starting point.*
7. *Reasoning that in an argumentation is prevented as formally conclusive may not be invalid in a logical sense.*
8. *Standpoints may not be regarded as conclusively defended by argumentation that is not presented as based on formally conclusive reasoning if the defense does not take place by means of appropriate argument schemes that are applied correctly.*
9. *Inconclusive defenses of standpoints may not lead to maintaining these standpoints, and conclusive defenses of standpoints may not lead to maintaining expressions of doubt concerning these standpoints.*
10. *Discussants may not use any formulations that are insufficiently clear or confusingly ambiguous, and they may not deliberately misinterpret the other party’s formulations.*

Moving from one rule to another, a brief explanation is needed. First of all, commandment 1 is put to make sure that the discussants are expressing their standpoints freely. By doing so, both parties make the confrontation stage properly completed. In the commandment 2, there is an assumption that both parties defend standpoints which are put forward. In other words, the disagreement stops in the opening stage without being resolved if the protagonist who advanced a standpoint is not prepared to fulfill this role. Commandment 3 explains that the attacks and defenses should relate to the advanced standpoint. That is, the antagonist should criticize the protagonist's original standpoint; otherwise, the disagreement cannot be resolved. The fourth commandment, relevance rule, goes in the same sense of the third one. There would be no resolution to the difference of opinion in an argumentative discourse if the protagonist does not put forward any arguments or gives irrelevant arguments to defend the standpoint. Commandment 5, the unexpressed premise rule, deals with the unexpressed premises that are left implicit by the protagonist; that is, the protagonist must take responsibility for the implicit premises and at the same time, the antagonist must try to recognize what the protagonist can be held to accurately. Commandment 6, starting point rule, is designed to ensure that both protagonist and antagonist agree on and know their starting point. The seventh commandment, validity rule, is intended to ensure that the protagonist uses only valid reasoning in a logical way. Following the commandment 8, argument scheme rule, standpoints can be conclusively defended by arguments if the discussants agree on a method in which they test the appropriateness of argument schemes put to be employed correctly. Van Eemeren et al. (ibid. :23) argue that this means that both parties "must examine whether the argument schemes that are used are, in principle, admissible in the light of what has been agreed upon in the opening stage, and whether they have been correctly fleshed out in the argumentation stage." Commandment 9, the concluding rule, as its name expresses deals with the concluding stage of the argumentative

discussion. The discussants, here, should make a necessary move when ascertaining the conclusion of argumentation in this stage. Sometimes, this part of analyzing the argumentative discussion which is important is neglected. When both parties agree whether the defense of their standpoints was successful or not, then the disagreement is said to be resolved. The last commandment, language use rule, deals with problems of formulation and interpretation that can occur at any stage of argumentation. Both parties, following this rule, should make efforts to avoid misunderstandings by using clear, correct and appropriate formulation in the argumentative discussion.

To sum up, each of these previous rules points out a separate norm for a critical discussion. Any violation of these rules makes a threat for the resolution of the difference of opinion in an argumentative discourse.

#### **1.4.7. Fallacies**

Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1984, 1992, and 2004) make efforts to change the idea that all fallacies are logical errors as van Eemeren et al. (2009:20) argue that fallacies “could be better understood if they were treated as faux pas of communication- as wrong moves in argumentative discourse.” Starting from this reason, a fallacy can be seen as hindrance to solving a difference of opinion. The pragma-dialectical approach to fallacies is not only broader but also more specific than other approaches. According to this approach, a fallacy is, as van Eemeren et al. (ibid.) state, “a speech act that counts as a violation of one or more of the rules for a critical discussion, which impedes the revelation of a difference of opinion.” Fallacies in this approach are analyzed and seen as the same way Aristotle based on the conception of a dialectical perspective. That is, they are incorrect and unreasonable moves that interfere in an argumentative discourse.

### 1.4.8. Argumentation Approaches

Bermejo-Luque (op.cit. :12) claims that “any piece of argumentation is an attempt to address a particular background and to that end, every communicative element in it is supposed to play a role. Argumentative elements constitute individual communicative acts that are pragmatically determined as contributions to an overall communicative goal.” He (ibid.) adds that the aim of interpreting argumentative discourse is “to understand the meaning of the claims involved in the argumentative discourses and texts.”

As quoted in Bermejo-Luque (ibid. :2), Habermas (1998:232) claims that:

We understand a speech act when we know the kinds of reasons that a speaker could provide in order to convince a hearer that he is entitled in the given circumstances to claim validity for his utterances...in short, when we know what makes it acceptable.

Bermejo-Luque (op.cit. :11) sees that the three approaches of argumentation “cannot be seen as merely parallel, non-conflicting views. They are put forward as rival theories,” in that, they share the same aim which is as he (ibid.) mentions “to provide a comprehensive normative account of the real phenomenon Argumentation Theory is opposed to deal with.”

In his linguistic-pragmatic model, Bermejo-Luque (ibid. :53) defines argumentation as “a communicative activity whose constitutive goal is to show a target-claim to be correct.” In fact, what characterizes this model is that argumentation is seen as “a second order speech-act complex.” (ibid.)

In order to interpret the communicative meaning of argumentation, Bermejo-Luque (ibid.) provides two normative constraints. The first one is the regulative constraints that “determine the achievement of certain properties that we value; in other words, they provide

rules for evaluating argumentation from one to another point of view,” he (53) explains. He goes on to identify the function of the second type of constraints, constitutive constraints, which is to “determine the identification of certain objects of the world as argumentation.” (ibid.) These constraints put together are very significant to achieve the goal of linguistic-pragmatic model.

To explain the criteria of correctness, Bermejo-Luque (ibid. 54) points out that it represents “the illocutionary aspect of arguing. Yet, perlocutionarily speaking, argumentation may also be described as a means to include beliefs, to persuade.” The linguistic-pragmatic approach deals with both illocutionary and perlocutionary aspects of arguing as Bermejo-Luque (ibid.) calls them “justificatory and persuasive power” respectively.

#### **1.4.8.1. The Logical Dimension of Argumentation**

The logical dimension of argumentation is summed up in what Toulmin (1958) started with as a model of argumentation. Bermejo-Luque (op.cit.:82) explains Toulmin’s work on argumentation as a different from other approaches in that it “is concerned with appraising the arguments we put forward to support our claims, not with describing reasoning or with prescribing rules for it.” The basic point of Toulmin’s model is that arguments differ according to the domain they are in as he (op.cit. :14) states:

Two arguments will be said to belong to the same field when the data and conclusion in each of the two arguments are, respectively, of the same logical type: they will be said to come from different fields when the backing or the conclusions in each of the two arguments are not of the same logical type. (quoted in Bermejo-Luque, 2011:82)

Bermejo-Luque (ibid.) argues that there are two features that help in recognizing argumentation as a speech act and in differentiating it from other speech acts types. He (ibid:108) explains these two aspects as follows:

First, when we argue we do not merely try to communicate beliefs, but also try to show certain beliefs to be correct. Secondly, that attempt is conducted by reasons. Thus, in order to interpret a piece of discourse as argumentation, we must at least recognize the target-claim to be shown correct and the reason by means of which we try to do so, whether or not either of them is implicit, non-literal or indirect in the speech-act as actually performed.

#### **1.4.8.2. The Dialectical Dimension of Argumentation**

First, the dialectical approach focuses on using argumentation as “an instrument for critically testing the tenability of the standpoint at issue in a difference in opinion”. Bermejo-Luque (ibid.:117) argues that the dialectical dimension should be seen from the “recursive nature of acts of arguing and the second order intersubjectivity that they enable.” He (ibid) also concludes that “argumentation, apart from having some perlocutionary powers, can be characterized as the illocution of trying to show a target-claim to be correct.” According to the dimension of argumentation, as Bermejo-Luque (ibid. :118) summarizes it, argumentation in the first place is “a means to justify claims and beliefs, i.e., a means to determine the theoretical correctness of claims and beliefs regardless of its persuasive efficacy.” Van den Hoven (1988:29) sees that van Eemeren and Grootendorst analyse argumentation as a speech act in terms of “an illocutionary act complex, situated on an above level” taking into account certain correctness conditions.

Changing the focus from semantic approach to pragmatic approach in argumentation theory, means that argumentation changes its focus from logic of argumentation to the dialectics

of argumentation. What Bermejo-Luque (op.cit.) is trying to say is that pragmatically speaking, argumentation should focus on its nature as a communicative activity rather than its powers; that is to say, argumentation should be based on its illocutionary act not on its perlocutionary act.

Bermejo-Luque (ibid.: 119) in explaining the aim of pragma-dialectical approach states that:

...as pragma-dialecticians have repeatedly stressed, pragma-dialectics aims at 'externalizing' the treatment of argumentative procedures, and is thus not concerned with the actual persuasive powers of argumentation, but with the normative conditions for solving a difference in opinion.

Then, in criticizing the pragma-dialectical approach, Bermejo-Luque (ibid.:119) argues that "solving a difference in opinion in an acceptable pragma-dialectical way is not equivalent to justifying the claim agreed to."

Two of the most important specialists in argumentation, Frans H. van Eemeren and Rob Grootendorst, wrote a comprehensive overview of the pragma-dialectal approach to argumentative discourse in "A Systematic Theory of Argumentation. The Pragma-Dialectical Approach" (2004). In this book, the authors view argumentation as a means of resolving a difference of opinion by testing its acceptability of the standpoints advanced. This book, as van Eemeren states in the preface, provides a final approach on the work of the two authors together aiming to make argumentation more accessible to those interested in the subject. They intend to show that argumentation is a theoretical framework for solving problems in relation to argumentation structure, schemes and fallacies. They achieve their objective following a critical discussion. Hence, van Eemeren and Grootendorst (ibid.: 1) see argumentation as both a process of arguing and as a product of resulting from arguing. They state:

Argumentation is a verbal, social, and rational activity aimed at convincing a reasonable critic of the acceptability of the standpoint by putting forward a constellation of propositions justifying or refuting the proposition expressed in the standpoint.

In other words, the act of arguing involves the use of the language which is directed to other people; the arguer is a rational person who advances a stand point which he/she defends aiming to convince the reader/ listener with the acceptability of the standpoint. The authors argue that the study of argumentation is part of “normative pragmatics”.

The purpose of van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1992) is to provide a social modal for efficient argumentation. Their theory of pragma-dialectal argumentation combines empirical and normative rules. They (ibid.: 202-9), depending on Grice’s implicatures, put some criteria for a successful argumentation in which:

- Parties must not prevent each other from advancing standpoint or casting doubts or standpoints.
- When attacked, a standpoint must be defended.
- Don’t present something as premise, if the other party did not express it as such.
- A party may only use arguments that are logically valid r to be validated by explicating one or more unexpressed premises

In other words, they are explaining the principal rules of argumentation, which can simply be expressed in one sentence: the writer or speaker justifies the claims with acceptable and convincing arguments without ignoring the opponents’ claims and arguments.

Van Eemeren and Houtlosser (2009:1) see that the pragma-dialectal theory of argumentation gives the analysts of argumentation the ability to make a “theoretically motivated reconstruction of the discourse that results in an ‘analytic overview’ of all elements that are pertinent to a critical evaluation.” What is important, here, is the analytic overview that clarifies the different aspects of argumentation: positions of the participants, the procedure of opening, developing and closing the argumentative discourse. This analysis is purely based on the



pragma-dialectical modal which is in turn based on a survey of all speech acts. However, van Eemeren and Houtlosser (ibid.: 9) argue that this reconstruction will be better if it includes a rhetorical dimension, they state:

A pragma-dialectical theory that is thus extended will, because the strategic function of argumentative moves is taken into account, also allow for a more realistic treatment of the fallacies in the evaluation of argumentative discourse.

### **1.4.8.3. The Rhetorical Dimension of Argumentation**

A second approach to argumentation is the rhetorical dimension which concentrates on how argumentation is used to persuade an audience. Tindale (1999:7) argues that a rhetorical model of argumentation is a model that “offers the most complete and satisfying account of what arguing is, of what it is like to be engaged in argumentation, to be argued to, and to evaluate arguments.” The main point of Tindale’s model is ‘addressivity’ that is every argumentation is related to specific addressee or audience. Kock’s view to rhetorical argumentation in contrast to the pragma-dialectics is that he claims that rhetorical dimension of argumentation is seen in deliberation as a separate type of argumentation by itself which is characterized by its openness and pluralism. Kock (2007: 787) states that:

By contrast, the most important thinkers in the rhetorical tradition itself do see rhetorical argumentation as rooted in a certain domain of issues. This domain is that of action: rhetorical argumentation is rooted in deliberation about choice, i.e. choices between alternatives courses of action.

However, Bermejo-Luque (op.cit. :146) thinks that deliberation is not a special type of argumentation but can be seen as “a special communicative activity that includes argumentation.” At the same time, he agrees with Kock (Cited in Bermejo-Luque, ibid.) that deliberation is different from other types of argumentation but still, as he mentions, is just

because it involves acts of arguing. Biber (1988), as cited in Bermejo-Luque (op.cit.), explains that argumentation texts employ modals of prediction, necessity and possibility, conditional clauses and suasive verbs which have a persuasive effect on readers. While De Beaugrande and Dressler (1984:184) state that argumentative texts are:

Those utilized to promote the acceptance or evaluation of certain beliefs or ideas are true vs. false, or positive vs. negative. Conceptual relations such as reason, significance, violation, value, and opposition should be frequent. The surface texts will often show devices for emphasis and insistence, e.g. recurrence, parallelism, and paraphrase.

More importantly, Kearns (op.cit. :49) believes that “success in persuasion requires more than a knowledge of the language” which indicates that in order to succeed in writing or interpreting argumentative discourse, one must combine different fields together. Taking into consideration how important is each field and being aware that there is a link between domains like pragmatics, argumentative discourse, translation that play a crucial role in facilitating the task of learners writing, analyzing, understanding or translating argumentative texts.

## **Conclusion**

In conclusion, in this first chapter “Argumentation and Speech Acts”, after explaining each aspect apart, we understand that in order to study argumentative discourse, learners should go beyond argumentation and apply their knowledge in different fields especially pragmatics and discourse analysis. Speech acts theory plays an important role to facilitate the task of understanding argumentative texts in terms of knowing the underlying meaning and being able to

convey it to others, for instance, in the translation of argumentative discourse which will be discussed in the second chapter.

*Chapter Two*

*Translating Argumentative*

*Texts*

## Chapter Two

### Translating Argumentative Texts

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## Chapter Two

### Translating English Argumentative Texts into Arabic

#### Introduction

One reason behind learning about speech acts and argumentation is to solve problems encountered by learners in translating argumentative discourse. So, after clarifying and identifying these keywords, now and in this chapter, we will shed some light on translation and the difficulty for Algerian EFL learners in translating argumentative texts as such. Hence, as a first step, terms like translation, equivalence, theories and types of translation need to be defined and clarified.

#### 2.1. Translation

Faber (1998) confirms that most of the time translators are not aware of any concept related to the source and target texts in translation; however, they just translate. He (ibid. :9) sees that translation as a process,

when considered in its microcontextual or narrower sense, is that which leads strictly from source text analysis to the production of the target language text. In a wider or macrocontextual sense, the strategies translators use and the decisions they make are oriented to the totality of the target text and thus influenced by a great variety of factors, of which the most important is the intended purpose of the target text in the target culture.

Catford (1965: 20) defines translation as “the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).” By textual material we mean that in the normal conditions it is not the entirety of a SL text which is translated, that is, replaced by TL ‘equivalents’. Moreover, he (ibid. 1) argues that translation is “an operation

performed on languages: a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another.” This definition relates to the general linguistic theory which is purely about the manner in which languages work. As language is a means of communication and interaction between human beings, it is a process of passing a message from a performer to an addressee using a spoken or written medium. Yet it is translation that transmits this message from a SL into a TL. This is clearly explained by Catford (ibid. :20) that translation is "always uni-directional: it is always performed in a given direction", which indicates the direction from source text into target text.

An important point Al-Qunai (2000:498) mentions, is that idea about the significance of intuition in conveying the message of the writer of a source text, he states: “translation is a complex hermeneutic process in which intuition plays a crucial role in interpreting the intentions of the ST writer”. Ghazala discusses translation in a wide range including its problems for EFL/ESL learners. He states in his book “translation as problems and solutions” (1995:1) that translation is “generally used to refer to all the processes and methods used to convey the meaning of the source language into the target language”. Ghazala (ibid: 2) concentrates on meaning when translating rather than grammar and lexis, in saying “we translate neither grammar, words, style nor sounds.....we always translate one thing only: MEANING”. That is, when translating, the translator should take into consideration the whole meaning. This latter includes the various parts of language as: sounds, vocabulary, grammar and style with reference to each sub-class of these parts.

In the meantime, Aziz and Lataiwish (2000:11) believe that translation refers to both the process and the product, in saying “As a process, translation is a human activity which has been practiced by nearly every person at one time or another.” In other words, lexical items, expressions or texts are translated from a source language into another target language. They add



that translation refers to “the product of this human activity.” Here, Aziz and Lataiwish consider the final translated text ‘the product’ as another way of referring to translation because they inform us about ancient history of different civilizations. In addition, they (ibid.) state that translation is replacing a text in one language by another text in another language. This seems to be a very wide definition; that is why they try to narrow it down involving two aspects. The former relates to text translation which is based on linguistic unit consisting of more than one sentence. The latter relates to the language included when translating, this is called ‘translation proper’. It is explained in Aziz and Lataiwish's words (ibid: 12) as “replacing a text by another text in the same language is often termed ‘rewording or interpretation’. Translation proper is always between two languages.”

Translation as a term was widely discussed by many linguists. Translation as Hatim and Munday (2002:3) define it according to ‘The Concise Oxford English Dictionary’ in two ways. First, translation is “the act or an instance of translating”; and second, it is “a written or spoken expression of the meaning of a word, speech, book, etc. in another language”. The former definition indicates the aspect of ‘process’ while the latter refers to translation as a ‘product’. In other words, the first definition relates to the translator who takes into account the two languages; that is, the source and the target languages. However, the second definition focuses on the final text produced by the translator. Hatim and Mason (1990:3) state that: “readers perceive an end-product, a result of a decision-making process; they do not have access to pathways leading to decisions, to the dilemmas to be resolved by the translator”. In other words, there is a tendency to focus on the product or translated text rather than on the process the translator goes through until making decisions as Bell (1987) observes. In that, if translation is seen as only a product and not also as a process, “our understanding of the nature of translating

will be impaired,” Hatim and Mason (op.cit.) explain. Bell (1991: 4) claims that translation is seen in two different ways as a science and as an art. He states:

The linguist inevitably approaches translation from a ‘scientific’ point of view, seeking to create some kind of ‘objective’ description of the phenomenon. [...] It could, however, be argued that translation is an art or a craft and therefore not amenable to objective, scientific description and explanation.

In other words, translation can be either seen as a science according to the fact that it could be explained scientifically, it is objective; however, avoiding all scientific rules may end up with a translated text based on art. From a different point of view, Emery (2004: 143) defines translation as:

A construct comprising both process translating and product equivalent. The translation process is characterized as a double negotiation, consisting of two phases: 1. Interpretation of a source text’s pragmatic meaning and 2. Rendering this into a target text in line with target language expectancy norms.

A major characteristic of a good translator or in Emery’s terminology (ibid. :143) an intertextual negotiator is to be “highly sensitive to both source language and target language conversational and conventional implicatures”.

Ghazala (op.cit. :1) defines translation as the reference to “all the processes and methods used to convey the meaning of the source language into the target language.” It is understood that what is mostly translated, here, is meaning. According to Morini (2013: 15), pragmatically speaking, “translation cannot do without a theory of text acts, because translators and theorists have to look at the intended and real effects of source texts and bi-texts in order to re-produce or analyse them.” He (ibid: 15-16) clarifies that:

If a translator aims at ‘doing what the source text does’ in the target language-with all the obstacles posed by linguistic and cultural barriers- he/she must translate a ‘text act’ rather

than a mere 'text'; and translation scholars must consider translations in this light if they want to understand how they change or aim at changing an existing 'state of affairs'.

As cited in Morini (ibid. :8-9), Bassnett and Lefevere (1990: preface) state that translation is "a rewriting of an original text. All rewritings, whatever their intention, reflect a certain ideology and a poetics and as such manipulate literature to function in a given society in a given way".

## **2.2. Equivalence**

Emery (op.cit. :143) sees that "translation and equivalence are defined in terms of text-author's pragmatic meaning 'intention'." To begin with, Koller (1995) considers equivalence as relative term in various aspects: it is determined first by the cultural conditions under which target texts are produced and second by a range of linguistic, textual and extra-linguistic features. He also has shed light on the idea of 'double-linkage' which is very important to 'linguistic-textual' approach in translation studies. It is meant by 'double linkage' the link to the source text and the link to the communicative conditions on the audience. This aspect relates to defining and differentiating equivalence. Thus, he distinguishes many types of equivalence. Translational equivalence is one of them. It indicates the transparent relationship that is found between the source and the target texts which are called a source 'primary' one and the resultant one.

Equivalence as explained in Kaddoura's terminology (2009: 10) "tends to either be embraced for its obvious qualities or avoided for its obvious shortcomings. Some constraints born from the theoretical definitions of equivalence become ambiguous or impossible in practice." Kaddoura, here, gives an important observation about theoretical definitions of equivalence showing its good and bad sides.

The notion of equivalence is one of the most problematic areas in translation; this term has been extensively analyzed from different points of view. This results in having various theories which discuss the notion of equivalence presented by many theorists. Their theories fall into three groups. The first group focuses on the linguistic notion of translation. The second group indicates the cultural notion while the last group stands in the middle as a matter of convenience (Kenny, 1998).

Theoretically speaking, we distinguish the following theories of equivalence that were offered by theorists like: Popovič, Nida and Taber, Vinay and Darbelnet, Jakobson, Catford, House, Newmark, Koller, Neubert and Baker.

### **2.2.1. Popovič's Theory**

Popovič (1976) (as cited in Bassnett, 2002: 32) identifies four reader-oriented types of equivalence: linguistic, paradigmatic, stylistic and textual equivalence.

- Linguistic equivalence: lexical equivalence, word for word translation
- Paradigmatic equivalence: equivalence in grammatical elements; more complex and advanced than lexical equivalence.
- Stylistic (translational) equivalence: functional equivalence; preserving the expressive identity that comprises an essential and unchanging element (example, translating idioms by completely overlooking ST linguistic elements using a TL word or phrase that will serve the intention of the ST).
- Textual (syntagmatic) equivalence: equivalence of form and shape, i.e. the overall structure.

According to Kaddoura (op.cit.), these types, although they represent the steps of translation as a process but still the standpoint of Popovič (op.cit.) in what concerns stylistic equivalence has the risk to produce a biased target text.

### 2.2.2. Nida's Theory

What makes Nida's theory different from what precedes is its dynamic equivalence because it gives importance to the fact of reproducing the effect of the ST on the source reader in the TT effect on the target reader. Kaddoura (op.cit. : 11) explains that the aim of this model is "to preserve the relationship between the original text and reader in the translation process". However, he (ibid.) argues that while initially it seems very attractive to effect both readers similarly, it is difficult to carry out" and here we notice how it is difficult to render the same perlocutionary effect on the target reader the source readers or native speakers have with no difficulty.

In spite of the fact this model is useful in terms of avoiding word for word translation, still linguists like Munday (2001) and Bassnett (2002) see that it has some weaknesses in that Munday (op.cit.) point out the lack of a precise way or means to measure the original effect so that it is impossible to reflect this effect on the target reader. However, Munday (*ibid.* : 43) sees that Nida "factored into the translation equation the receivers of the TT and the cultural expectations".

Equivalence, according to Nida, (1964) falls into two different kinds: formal and dynamic equivalence. The former, Nida (*ibid.* :159) states, "focuses attention on the message itself in both form and content", unlike the latter which depends on "the principle of equivalent effect". In brief, formal correspondence has a target language component that represents the equivalent of a source language word or expression; while dynamic equivalence relates to having a translation in which there should be the same impact on the target text audience as that on the source text audience carrying the same original meaning. It is obvious here that Nida insists on dynamic

equivalence because it takes into account the context of situation and it fulfills Nida's most concern which is the semantic quality as it concentrates on carrying the same meaning from one language into another in order to have the same effect on both audiences. Nida (ibid.) claims that translation based on dynamic equivalence focuses on having natural expressions and making them relevant to the cultural context; however, it does not mean that the translator should know all the cultural patterns of the source language in order to understand the message given to the potential audience.

### **2.2.3. Newmark and Koller's Theory**

Influenced by the work of Nida on formal and dynamic equivalence, Newmark brings about a new theory of equivalence that focuses on the semantic level which is known as communicative equivalence. This model is similar to that of Nida however it is more about reproducing the same source contextual meaning but keeping the same target language syntax and semantics (Hatim and Munday, 2004). While Newmark deals with equivalence effect differently, Munday (op.cit.) still argues that it is not the case as Newmark (op.cit.) did not consider the target language reader something that Koller (op.cit.) deals with in his model of pragmatic equivalence. He introduces five methods or models of equivalence: denotative, connotative, text-normative, formal in addition to pragmatic equivalence. The latter is achieved when the translator puts in his mind the target reader.

### **2.2.4. Neubert's Theory**

A thorough model of equivalence that is considered a solution in dealing with the problem of translation equivalence is that proposed by Neubert in which he argues that translation "must be considered a semiotic category, comprising a syntactic, semantic and

pragmatic component” (as cited in Bassnett, 2002: 34). Bassnett (ibid.) mentions that in this model semantic equivalence comes first, then syntactic equivalence and last pragmatic equivalence which controls the two first types. By converting SL signs to TL signs appropriately based on the same context and paying attention to both readers and especially the target reader, this formulates an equivalence that, as Kaddoura (op.cit. :13) assumes “creates a translation oriented to the target reader without neglecting the fundamental meanings and grammatical features of the ST.”

### **2.2.5. Vinay and Darbelnet’s Theory**

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 342) see the notion of equivalence as a procedure that “replicates the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording.” They consider equivalence as the ideal method for the translator who tackles the problem of proverbs, idioms, clichés, and other special expressions which are socio-cultural aspects. First, they rely on the equivalents which are found in bilingual dictionaries, but later they note that this is not enough for idiomatic expressions, for example, which need to be found in their situational contexts. They (ibid.: 256) state that idiomatic expressions “can never be exhaustive.”

### **2.2.6. Jakobson’s Theory**

Jakobson (1959: 233) introduces something new for the equivalence theory which is the concept of “equivalence in difference”. So, he introduces three types of translation: intra-lingual, inter-lingual and inter-semiotic. The first type is within one language; that is, rewording or paraphrase. The second type is rather between two languages. The third and last type concerns translation between sign systems. Jakobson focuses on the second type where the translator uses synonyms in order to arrive at the best form of the target text in relation to the source text; so,

there is no full equivalents between the translation components; that is, “translation involves two equivalent messages in two different codes”. The theory of Jakobson is based on the notion of translating from one language or source language into the second or target language; then, even if there are grammatical differences between both languages, a translation is not impossible. In other words, the translator can use loan words or loan-translation, for instance.

### **2.2.7. Catford’s Theory**

Catford (op.cit.) sees the term equivalence from a linguistic approach introducing three broad types of translation:

- 1-Full versus partial translation (based on the extent of translation)
- 2-Rank-bound versus unbounded translation (based on the grammatical rank)
- 3-Total versus restricted translation (based on the levels of language)

The type which is related to equivalence is the second one. Leonardi (2000) notes that in rank-bound translation “an equivalent is sought in the target language for each word; or for each morpheme encountered in the source text. In unbounded translation equivalences are not tied to a particular rank, and we may additionally find equivalences at sentence, clause and other levels.” Catford (op.cit.:73) considers the competent translator as one who can observe and cope with the changes that occur in the target language text. He defines those translation shifts as “departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL”.

### **2.2.8. House’s Theory**

The theory of House (1977) is based on semantic and pragmatic equivalence. She considers two texts (ST and TT) equivalent when they have the same situational features. House



(ibid.:49) states that “a translation text should not only match its source text in function, but employ equivalent situational-dimensional means to achieve that function”. The core of House's theory is the concept of overt and covert translations. The former type is not directly addressed to the target text audience, so it is not necessary to consider the original since an overt translation “must overtly be a translation” (ibid.:189). On the other hand, covert translation means the production of a text which is functionally equivalent to the ST. She (ibid: 194) also notes that in covert translation the ST “is not specifically addressed to a TC audience.” We notice that House's theory is more flexible than Catford's as she relates linguistic features to the context of both source and target text giving original examples with complete texts.

### **2.2.9. Baker's Theory**

The most fruitful discussion was given by Baker (1992) who covers many aspects of equivalence. First, she states that equivalence can be at word level or above word level. Then, she moves to speak about types of equivalence grammatical, textual and pragmatic. Grammatical equivalence deals with the different grammatical categories across languages which may cause some problems in terms of finding a direct correspondence in the TL and changing the messages. Here, the translator has to make a decision that fits the TT either by adding or omitting information. Second, textual equivalence refers to equivalence in terms of information and cohesion. In other words, the translator should produce a cohesive and coherent text for the target audience according to the type and context of the text. The third type, pragmatic equivalence, refers to the implicatures and strategies of avoidance during the translation process; that is to say, the translator should make a greater effort to deal with implied meanings in order to get a target text that carries the same intention and culture for the target reader. (Cited in

Leonardi, 2000). The difficulty in defining equivalence lies behind the impossibility of having a universal approach to this notion.

We conclude that there is a relationship between translation and equivalence which Catford (op.cit.: 21) points out as “a central task of translation theory is that of defining the nature and conditions of translation equivalence” and it poses at the same time a problem in translation, he (ibid) writes: “the central problem of translation practice is that finding TL translation equivalence.”

Kelly (1979) mentions that there have been two types of equivalence: dynamic and formal. The former, as Nida (1964:166) sees it, is “the closest natural equivalent to the source language message.” While Kelly (op.cit.: 24) sees that the latter is the “correspondence between linguistic units independent of any idea of content.” Beekman (1965:88) made a clear distinction between formal and dynamic equivalence in the following table: (cited in Kelly 1979: 24)

| Types of Correspondence                          | Illustration of Types                               |                   | Meaning                    |
|--|---|-------------------|----------------------------|
|  | Source Language                                     | Receptor Language |                            |
| (1) Correspondence of form and function          | Form --- form<br>Function --- function              |                   | correct                    |
| (2) correspondence of form but not of function   | Form --- form<br>Function --- function              |                   | Wrong or at best obscure   |
| (3) correspondence of function and not of form   | Form --- form (if present)<br>Function --- function |                   | Correct if form irrelevant |
| (4) no correspondence of either form or function | Form --- form<br>Function --- function              |                   | zero                       |

**Figure 6: Contrast between Linguistic Units and Dynamic Equivalence**

### **2.3. Problems in Translation**

Ghazala (1995) points out that what is difficult for the translator is the understanding of the right meaning of the expression which is not inferred from the literal meaning of the separate words poses a great difficulty for the translator. English and Arabic languages are different as Ghazala (ibid. : 32) states that “they belong to two different and distant language families: Germanic and Semitic”. So, they have grammatical system and rules which create problems for ESL/EFL students in learning or translating. Thus, we distinguish many types of translation problems from English into Arabic such as: grammatical, lexical stylistic and phonological problems. In brief, Ghazala (ibid.) lists down some examples for each problem. First of all, the grammatical problems are caused by: complicated source language grammar, different target language word order: second, lexical problem relates to the meaning of a word or an expression that cannot be understood easily: for instance, literal translation, synonymy, polysemy, collocations, idioms, proverbs, metaphors, in addition to proper names, titles, political associations, geographical terms and acronyms. While phonological problems concern the role of sound in affecting the meaning. The stylistic ones bring about many difficulties that affect the overall translation. For example, formality of language, parallelism, ambiguity, complex or simple style, short and long sentences, the voice, repetition, redundancy, the show of the muscles and nominalization versus verbalization. From all these problems, the concern of the present research relates to problems of meaning in use in argumentative discourse.

In order to translate a text from its source language into another language- which is the target language- in a proper way, the new translated version should be equivalent to the source text. It can be equivalent in different aspects; for instance, form or meaning. Aziz and Lataiwish (op.cit.) mention what ancient Arab translators called literal and non-literal translations. It was

the first division of the term transnational equivalence. The first type, literal translation, concerns word by word translation; translators like Yohanna Ibn al- Batriq and Ibn al- Na'ima al- Himse practice this kind of translation in translating the Greek words into Arabic. The second type, non-literal translation, deals with rendering the meaning of the source sentence into another sentence in the target language that has the same meaning. Not only Arab translators use literal and non-literal translations, but also theorists in the west tend to use this division. Nida (op.cit.), Catford (op.cit.) were the first theorists to deal with these terms. First, Nida concentrates on non-literal translation which he calls dynamic translation. Then, Catford (ibid.) sees that there are five degrees of literal translation: morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence. He considers literal translation as important as non-literal translation especially when used in its appropriate place. Literal translation is something with benefit as it is faithful to the source text, especially when it shows and describes grammatical structures of the source language. Still, non-literal translation is better than literal translation in terms of having more appropriate meaning. But as Aziz and Lataiwish (op.cit. :83) state the term meaning is vague and “a distinction should be drawn between two levels of meaning: semantic meaning and pragmatic meaning.”

Hatim and Mason (1990) argue that Nida (op.cit.) view to translation in terms of formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence is more useful in that it shifted from literal and free translation to something more appropriate. They (op.cit. :7) distinguish between both types of equivalence as they mention that formal equivalence is the “closest possible match of form and content between ST and TT” and dynamic equivalence is the “principle of equivalence of effect on readers of TT.”

In comparing between literal and free translation, Hatim and Mason (ibid.) go back to what Al-Safadi argues about giving an equivalent term in Arabic to each Greek word. Hatim and Mason (ibid.:5) complain that this procedure is wrong in two aspects:

1. It is erroneous to assume that one-for-one equivalents exist for all lexical items in Greek and Arabic.
2. The sentence structure of one language does not match that of another.

Still, according to Hatim and Mason (ibid.), if translators see that in order to translate they have to write a text composed of the meanings of each word, important meanings will be missed. Newmark (1988: 69), one of the defenders of literal translation, claims that “literal translation is correct and must not be avoided, if it secures referential and pragmatic equivalence to the original”.

The semantic level of meaning concerns reference and sense. Translation based on this semantic level of equivalence is suitable for the purpose of conveying information. Philosophers like Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and linguists like Leech (1983) were the first to explore the pragmatic level of meaning. This level takes into consideration. As Aziz and Lataiwish (op.cit.: 86) state, “how the message is arranged into theme and rhyme, and how information expressed by an utterance is distributed into given and new”. They go on to add the force of an utterance, the implied and explicit meaning besides reference and sense. The texts that require pragmatic equivalence in translation are those complicated texts.

Aziz and Lataiwish (ibid.: 129) consider journalistic texts as texts in which their main function is “to convey information”. However, “the style of these texts is also important”. They see that the language used by journalists has developed especially in style. In other words, the

journalist tries to convey information in a dramatic way that attracts the attention of the reader or the writer wants to influence readers' opinions.

Ghazala (op.cit.) sees that the role of the translator is to transmit the message of the source text into an equivalent target text only without trying to solve the problem of different interpretations which is the task of the readers. He (ibid.) discusses two old and new methods of translation that explain the other complicated methods. He compares between literal translation and free translation. First of all, he divides the literal translation method into three sub-types: literal translation of words, one to one literal translation and literal translation of meaning. To begin with, literal translation of words or word for word translation is a method in which the translator gives each word in English its equivalent in Arabic with the same word order. For example,

He is living from hand to mouth.

(فم الى يد من عائشا يكون هو)

هو يكون عائشا من اليد الى الفم.

which is totally wrong. The correct translation is: " انه يعيش على الكفاف "

This man is a big shot.

(هذا الرجل يكون كبيرة قذفة)

هذا الرجل شخص عظيم الشأن (هام) Instead of هذا الرجل كبيرة قذفة

From these two examples, it is observed that this method of translation is not useful; moreover, it destroys the meaning of the source text totally. The reason why word for word translation is considered dangerous is that it sees translation as just giving equivalents of individual words without taking into consideration the differences between both languages English and Arabic in terms of grammar, word order, context and usage. Furthermore, the target language should imitate the source language. This easiness makes it common among students.

The second type, one-to-one literal translation, is more acceptable than the first type because it focuses on having one-to-one identical grammatical categories. For instance, a noun is translated into a noun, a verb into a verb, an adjective into an adjective and so on. It is identical even in number; that is, two nouns into two nouns, etc. Moreover, idiomatic expressions are translated into equivalent idiomatic expressions, collocations into collocations, proverbs into proverbs, metaphors into metaphors and so forth. This type of translation is done in context, for example: this mission is a can of worms. هذه المهمة تكون علبة مصائب

This kind of translation is similar to word-for-word translation in keeping the same word order and having the same number of words. However, it is different from literal translation of words in taking the context and special usage into account. Still, one to one literal translation is not satisfactory as it has many drawbacks. It follows the source language word order which causes many problems; first, the ignorance of the nominal sentences and the verbal sentences. Second, what is always observed in that type of translation is that it translates the verb to be as " يكون and the verb to have as 'يملك' , in addition to translating all personal pronouns.

The one to one literal translation that focuses on having the same number of words is not always correct and acceptable because it is impossible to have an equivalent to every idiom, collocation and metaphor.

However, the best method of literal translation is the third type 'literal translation of meaning'. It is, as Ghazala (ibid. :10) states "very keen on translating meaning as closely, precisely and completely as possible." This method is also called 'direct translation' in which the translator focuses on translating meaning in context and at the same time considers the differences in grammar, word order between the source language and the target one. Moreover, it

takes into account the metaphorical uses of the language. Ghazala (ibid. :11) describes this method as “full translation of meaning”. The word literal here does not mean the first meaning of a word only, but it is the one meaning in context which gives different meanings to one word. He illustrates this idea by giving the example of the word ‘run’ which does not always mean ‘يجري’ in different contexts. For instance:

- |                               |  |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1. To run in the race .....   | يجري/يركض في السباق                              |
| 2. To run a company.....      | يدبر شركة  |
| 3. In the long run.....       | على المدى البعيد                                 |
| 4. To run short of money..... | ينفذ ما عنده من مال                              |
| 5. To run round.....          | يطوف/ يقوم بزيارة خاطفة                          |
| 6. To run to fat.....         | يميل إلى السمنة                                  |
| 7. To run through.....        | يتصفح/ يمر مرور الكرام                           |
| 8. To run wild .....          | يتيه/ يسير على هواه                              |
| 9. To run across.....         | يصادف  |
| 10. To run back.....          | يعود بذاكرته إلى الوراء                          |
| 11. To run into.....          | يلقى مصادفة                                      |
| 12. To run its course.....    | يجري مجراه الطبيعي                               |
| 13. To run in .....           | ينضد السطور المطبعية/ يقحم/يعتقل و يرمى في السجن |
| 14. To run on.....            | يستمر  |
| 15. To run out.....           | ينفذ/ يأخذ في التناقص                            |
| 16. To run dry.....           | ينضب   |
| 17. The runs.....             | إسهال  |

Taken from Ghazala (1995:11)

Hence, for the word ‘run’ there are 20 literal meanings in 17 different contexts. So, translating the word ‘run’ as ‘يجري’ in all contexts is, as Ghazala (ibid. :12) describes, “not a literal translation but a wrong translation, because we do not say ‘يجري/يركض شركة’ in Arabic, but only (يدبر شركة)”. This method is the most acceptable one of literal translation; this is why it is widely used by the translators. He (ibid.) considers this method a recommended one for students. The second method, free translation, is the type in which Ghazala (ibid. :14) mentions that “the translator is not confined by the text or context, or the direct and available meanings of words and phrases.” In other words, the translator here translates freely or according to his/her



understanding. Ghazala (ibid.) distinguished two types of this method: bound free translation and loose free translation. The former is related in some way or another to context; however, it may deviate from the direct context in the sort of exaggeration, expressivity or strong language. For instance,

1. He got nothing at the end.....(خالي الوفاض) عاد بخفى حنين
2. She was sad deep down.....تفطر قلبها من الحزن
3. You look quiet.....تبدو رابط الجأش
4. Swearing is a bad habit.....سباب المسلم فسوق
5. East or west, home is best.....بلادي و إن جارت علي عزيزة و قومي و إن ضنوا علي كرام
6. Love me, love my dog.....و أحبها و تحبني و يحب ناقتها بعيري
7. Come down to earth.....كفاك تيتها/أقلع عن أوهامك
8. My friend got to the top very soon.....إمتطى صديقي صهوة المجد في أسرع من البرق
9. She had a new baby.....رزقها الله بمولود جديد
10. Are you lying to me? .....أتفتري علي الله كذبا؟

(Taken from Ghazala, 1995: 14)

It is observed that these translations are equivalent to the source original examples to certain extent; however, they go beyond the context. The Arabic translation of these examples is noted for being expressive and very formal. For instance, the translation of the last example is taken from the Holy Quran and the fourth one is taken from the prophet's sayings. In addition, poetry is found in the translation of the fifth and sixth examples. The translations of the second, third, fourth and eighth examples are collocations; finally, the translation of the seventh example includes pompous and strong expressions.

Bound free translation, in the contrary to loose translation, has some limitations as it is bound to the linguistic context. For this reason, it can be acceptable. On the other hand, loose translation is different from the original text. Here, the translator translates the source text according to what he concludes from it for different reasons; for example:

No bacon with my breakfast, please. ....أنا مسلم  
 Honesty is the best policy. ....أنت خنت الأمانة  
 Books are very expensive today. ....لقد عزف الناس عن القراءة اليوم.  
 (Cited in Ghazala, 1995:15-6)

For the example 6, the translation indicates that the speaker is Muslim. ‘No bacon’ here means that pig’s meat is forbidden in Islam. So, this translation has religious reasons. In the example 7, the speaker tries to express his/ her attitude towards a betraying person. However, in the example 8 speaks about the expensiveness of books but the translation puts it as a reason for the lack of interest in reading.

Hence, these examples illustrate loose translation perfectly. These translations are based on personal interpretations which differ from one translator to another. It is obvious that these translations are different from the source text in a way that they seem unrelated. These translations deviate one or more of the maxims of the cooperative principle of Grice (1975).

Ghazala (op.cit.: 17) concludes that the job of the translator is to render the meaning of the source text into an equivalent target text and not to “interpret and reveal what the source text hides, or says indirectly.” It is, here, the responsibility of the reader to decide what the hidden or underlying meanings to be translated are. Kelly (op.cit. :25) argues that “a well translated text will produce in its reader the appropriate cognitive and emotional reactions”; that is to say, the translated text will have the right impact on its reader.

Hatim and Mason (1990: 21) point out that the problems translators face are always the same; these problems are summed up in the following list:

1. Comprehension of the source text:
  - a. Parsing of the text (grammar and lexis)
  - b. Access to specialized knowledge
  - c. Access to intended meaning
2. Transfer of meaning:
  - a. Relaying lexical meaning
  - b. Relaying grammatical meaning
  - c. Relaying rhetorical meaning, including implied or inferable meaning, for potential readers.
3. Assessment of target text:
  - a. Readability
  - b. Conforming to generic and discursal TL conventions.
  - c. Judging adequacy of translation for specified purpose.

These, however, are not the only problems for translators. Yet, they can be used as guiding aspect to develop a linguistic theory relevant to translation.

## **2.4. Translation and Culture**

The difference between cultures poses problems in translation especially the lack of equivalence; this was covered mainly by Nida (1964), Vinay and Darbelnet (1995). However, Kelly (op.cit. :43-4) sees that still there are other gaps for “there is no allowance made for the reason why one translates a given text, and what one does to one’s text under the influence of the fate one intends for it and the function it is to fulfill.” Still, it is worth to consider the crucial role these models play in “delineating the actual process of translation, and the steps through which one goes.” According to Azab (2007:31), culture is of great importance to any language in that it is “a complex collection of experiences, which includes history, social norms, religion, traditional customs and geographical and environmental features...etc.” Culture is defined differently depending on the various domains it is considered part of as claimed by Hinkel (1999). However, an old and most used definition that Tylor (1871:1) provides as he sees culture as “...the complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, custom and any

other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of a society.” This definition includes features that characterize human society or speech community from an anthropological aspect. It is obvious that culture is the basis of any human communication and it is clearly noticed that in order to understand a text to achieve better translation, a translator should have enough knowledge and background of all cultural aspects. This happens when the translator puts down, as Stolze (2009: 124) summarizes, “implicit cultural references to certain structures on the text level. Cultural elements appear in the text on all levels- from the concept and form of words.”

The relationship between language and culture in terms of meaning is that, as Azab (op.cit. :31) mentions, cultural meanings of a text are “subtly and intricately woven into the texture and span of the language.” Kussmaul (1997:69) sees culture as “a very complex notion” in that the designers of its studies cannot decide easily on topics included in this field like politics, history and education. However, he claims that culture should be categorized according to its types of knowledge: common factual knowledge and behavioural knowledge, insisting on the second type as it is important for what intercultural competence and translation competence aim to achieve using cultural norms, conventions and opinions.

Kelly (op.cit.:131) considers that formal equivalence depends on one-to-one correspondence of small linguistic units taking into account that translation is based on “the significant for the terminological or artistic reasons.” On the other hand, he sees that dynamic equivalence unit of the source text has a communicative function. Campbell (1979:450) writes that:

The translator’s only possible method of rendering words justly is by attending to the scope of the author, as discovered by the context, and choosing such a term in the language which he writes as suits best the original term in the particular situation in which he finds it.

Campbell gives a clear picture of the process of translating a source text into a target language, seeking fidelity. He (ibid. :445-6) writes:

The first thing, without doubt, ... is to give a just representation of the sense original ... the second thing is, to convey into his version, as much as possible, in a consistency with the genius of the language which he writes, the author's spirit and manner, and ... the very character of his style. The third and last thing is, to take care, that the version has, at least, so far the quality of an original performance, as to appear natural and easy...

Belloc (1924:153) puts some conditions for a good translation which should “consciously attempt the spirit of the original at the expense of the letter.” That is to say, the translator should be talented enough to be able to create powerful target version of the original text.

To be faithful in translating from original text into target one, the translator will ensure having a significant exchange conserving the power of meaning. Kelly (op.cit. :63) sees the process of translation as an “interaction between translator and translated; for the ruling question is what does the translator want?” He compares the texts to be translated to translator as similar in terms of offering opportunities for all types of contact.

Another important problem which is encountered by translators is the appropriate interpretation of original texts. This is what Tytler (1790:64) considers as the root problem. He writes:

A good translator must be able to discover at once the true character of his author's style. He must ascertain with precision to what class it belongs; whether to that of the grave, the elevated, the easy, the lively, the florid...

Ali (2008) sees that translation criticism or evaluation is what relates translation theory with its applications. Moreover, he (ibid: 148) states that this evaluation should cover five aspects:

(1) تحليل موجز لنص اللغة المصدر مع التركيز على توجهات أو موقف الكاتب من الموضوع المطروح، و طبيعة القراء الذين يخاطبهم في ذلك النص. (2) تفسير المترجم لتوجهات نص اللغة المصدر، و طريقتة في الترجمة و قرانه المحتملون. (3) مقارنة الترجمة بالأصل مقارنة انتقائية و لكن نموذجية و تفصيلية. (4) تقويم الترجمة (أ) من وجهة نظر المترجم، و (ب) من وجهة نظر الناقد. (5) تحديد أهمية المكانة التي يحتمل أن تحتلها في ثقافة اللغة الهدف و ما يمكن أن تتركه من أثر في اللغة ذاتها.

Ali (ibid. :73) sees that illocutionary meaning is the meaning conveyed through the used words and not the meaning of the words themselves. He writes:

ما يرمي اليه المتكلم أو يقصده من كلامه و ليس الكلمات التي يستخدمها بالفعل... من الواضح أن ادراك هذا المعنى أمر ضروري للمترجم-كما هي الحال بالنسبة للقارئ- ليحقق الفهم الكامل و الدقيق للنص المصدر، و من ثم ليكون قادرا على ترجمتها ترجمة أمينة.

As there was a focus on the communicative role of translation, Hymes (1972) introduced the term ‘communicative competence’. Relating this concept to translation, Newmark (1981:22) sees the communicative nature of translation as “a mode which seeks to produce the same effect on the TL readers as was produced by the original on the SL readers.”

Concerning the context of communication, De Beaugrande (1978:13) argues that “the attention should be focused on the underlying strategies of language use as can be seen from the text signs. Translation was envisaged as a process of interaction between author, translator and reader.”

## 2.5. Difficulty of Translating Argumentative Texts

Students of English as a foreign language encounter problems in understanding argumentative texts and in translating them into Arabic. It is necessary for EFL learners to study

argumentation from a pragmatic point of view in terms of speech acts; or namely, the illocutionary act of arguing and the perlocutionary act of convincing. The aim behind learning argumentation in relation to pragmatics is to explore the students' ability to translate argumentative texts for the sake of ameliorating their level in having an equivalent translation.

Cook (2003: 8) explores some shared assumptions about native speakers. First, he states that, "there is the question of personal history. Native speakers are considered to be people who acquired the language naturally and effortlessly in childhood." Second, "there is a question of expertise", that is, native speakers use structures of their language correctly and appropriately, and know by intuition what is acceptable and what is not. Third, "there is a question of knowledge and loyalty." Native speakers are members of a speech community who have a shared background and loyalty under which they follow certain conventions. On the other hand, proficiency of native speakers may be in speech, not in writing. That is, some native speakers are illiterate but they use their language correctly. Moreover, native speakers use their language implicitly rather than explicitly as they use the rules in a correct way, but they cannot explain them.

Hatim and Mason (1990: 2) explain that "the ability to recognise texts as instances of a type- exposition, argumentation, instruction- depends on our experience of previous instances of the same type" which refers to recognizing texts as signs.

As quoted in van den Broeck (1986), Dressler (1972) argues that "...der Übersetzer ist eine neue Textsorte. Der Text hat ein neues Publikum. Dadurch wird eine Übersetzung *pragmatisch* zu einer eigenen Textsorte, bei der sich... sowohl die illocutionary force, als auch die perlocutionary force ändert". Broeck sees that Dressler's statement can be interpreted in the

sense that translation is “a metatextual operation and thus produces a text that stands to its prototext in an asymmetric relationship” in van den Broeck (1986: 38)’s words.

El-Shiyab (op.cit.:331) raises an important point which explains that awareness of rhetorical and cultural styles resolves many problems in translating argumentative texts. He states:

Because of the fact that Arabic and English utilize different rhetorical style for conveying their counter- argumentation, the Arabic reader is likely to misapprehend English counter-argument, and vice versa. However, the awareness of these rhetorical styles of both languages within the field of argumentation resolves this communicative problem.

In other words, the reader has to be aware of the intended meaning and the structure of the source text.

Callow (1974) indicates that in order to translate, there should be a full understanding of the original text, for any misunderstanding leads to wrong interpretation of this text. Al-Khuli (2001: 8) insists on having the same perlocutionary effect when translating from the source language to the target one. He states:

يستحسن أن ينقل المترجم التأثير الذي قصده الكاتب في اللغة المصدر إذا كان المترجم مدركا لذلك التأثير. هل كان الكاتب ساخطا أم هازنا أم غاضبا أم منفعا... إلخ؟ وهذا لا يتأتى إلا بالممارسة والخبرة والدراسة باللغتين (اللغة المصدر و اللغة الهدف)

Here, Al-Khuli believes that to obtain equivalent source and target texts is based on transmitting the same perlocutionary act. If the translator succeeds in rendering the same meaning from one language to another, then the translation will be considered equivalent, faithful and successful. However, as he argues, this cannot be realized if the translator lacks the



accurate and thorough knowledge of both source and target languages. This ability to translate faithfully grows with the possibility of having more practice and experience.

It is observed that other types of texts are less difficult than argumentative ones for EFL learners either in understanding or in translating. Machlab and Kobaya (2001:62) mention that legal texts are special and different than other types of texts in their translation; in addition to that, Tirkkonen-Condit (1986) believes that argumentative texts are more difficult to translate than other types. He sees that what facilitates the students' task when translating argumentative texts is to provide them with the whole text and not only an extract of it. In other words, the contextual situation of a text is very important to determine the ability of an EFL learner to translate it with less difficulty. Obeidat (2011) sees that political journalist argumentative texts are challenging for translators from English and Arabic. The difficulty lies in the translation of conjunctions with their various meaning and functions.

Al-Khuli (op.cit. :14) sees that perfect translation is sometimes possible but satisfying translation is always possible, however, the latter requires exactitude, knowledge and experience. It is clearly stated in Al-Khuli's words as:

الترجمة الكاملة ممكنة أحيانا, ولكن الترجمة المرضية ممكنة دائما, إلا أنها تتطلب الدقة و الدراية و الخبرة.

The translator should be good at both source and target languages in order to understand the text with the former and write the translation with the latter. In explaining this idea, Al-Khuli (ibid.) states:

يتوجب على المترجم أن يتقن اللغتين: اللغة المصدر و اللغة الهدف. يتقن الأولى ليفهم النص و يتقن الثانية سيجعل الكتابة ليكتب بها و من الواضح أن عدم الإتقان للأولى يجعل الفهم مختلا و أن عدم الإتقان للثانية نوع. وتصل الأمور إلى حد الكارثة إذا كان المترجم ضعيفا في اللغتين: هنا تنشأ مليئة بالأخطاء من كل أخطاء عديدة فهي فهم اللغة المصدر و أخطاء عديدة في التعبير باللغة الهدف.

In order to translate a text from its source language into another language- which is the target language- in a proper way, the new translated version should be equivalent to the source text. It can be equivalent in different aspects; for instance, form or meaning. Aziz and Lataiwish (op.cit.) mention what ancient Arab translators called literal and non-literal translations. It was the first division of the term transnational equivalence. The first type, literal translation, concerns word by word translation. The second type, non-literal translation, deals with rendering the meaning of the source sentence into another sentence in the target language that has the same meaning. Al-Khuli (op.cit.) sees that it is much easier for the Arab student to translate from English into Arabic because translation from English into Arabic requires understanding English and writing in Arabic but the translation from Arabic into English requires understanding Arabic and writing in English and there is no doubt that expressing is more difficult than understanding.

Shaheen (1991) argues that there is a difference between English argumentation and Arabic argumentation in terms of employing different methods. Hatim (1989) goes in the same direction in seeing that Arabic uses direct argumentation unlike English. In Arabic, the writer's opinion is presented first followed by a pro- or counter- argument. In English, it is the other way around: the opponent's opinion is presented first followed by the text- producer's pro- or counter claim.

## **2.6. Argumentation as a Text-type**

Pointing out to the ambiguity of text-type, Kussmaul (1997) sheds some light on the problem of confusion in choosing to keep the source text-type structures or change to the target text-type conventions. He (ibid: 80) states:

When translating the microstructures we are faced with the same decisions as when translating macrostructures. Shall we preserve the source text-type structures and thus create a kind of alienation effect, or shall we conform to the target text-type conventions and thus create a text which looks perfectly normal?

To answer these questions, Kussmaul (ibid.) mentions three cases which clarify the ambiguity:

1. ... “sometimes we cannot stick to the source-text forms of the illocutionary indicator simply because they would not be idiomatic in the target language”.
2. Sometimes... “the illocutionary indicator is determined by a specific text type,” however, it is doubtful if the speech act would be felicitous if we do not stick to the target text type conventions”.
3. “there are the cases where the illocutionary force indicator as such is not directly concerned but where an influence of STATUS, SOCIAL ATTITUDE and PARTICIPATION on the form of the speech act can be observed”

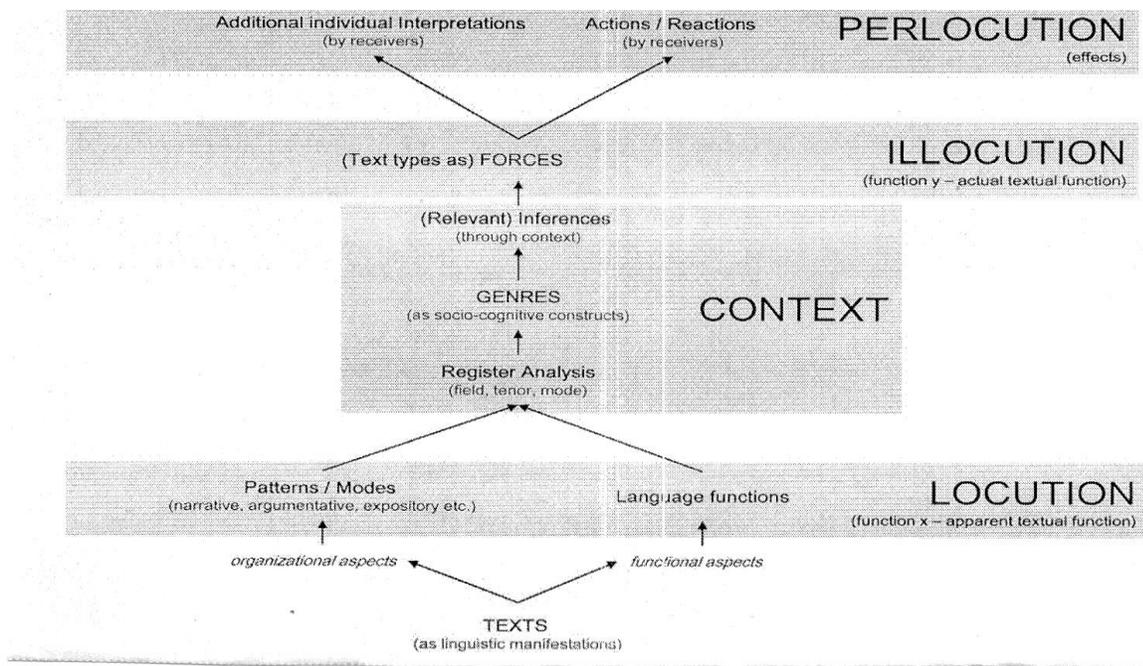
Puchala (2011:357) sees that “a text type is one of the basic factors that allow the translator to recognise the function and the purpose of the text as well as the author’s intention.” He (ibid.) argues that “identifying the text type also helps the translator to select the appropriate translation strategy.” In identifying the term text, it is not just about semantic or syntactic structures, it is also as Puchala (ibid. 358) translates what Damska Prokop (2003:230) says “a certain communicative action of a complex structure that functions in a specific semantic space and is to fulfil specific functions, for instance: informative, **esthetic**, pragmatic function, etc.” This means that the result is not the only thing the author wants to convey but also the product that has a communication function while giving the right interpretation.. In defining the term discourse, Puchala (op.cit.) mentions what Tomaskiewicz (2006:35) states that it is “a sequence of linguistic signs that are organized according to the rules of a given language and representing what the sender wishes to communicate to the addressee.” According to Puchala (op.cit.) the term discourse is broader than the term text as it covers larger concepts such as pragmatic

context: text can be seen as a linguistic unit while discourse relates to the pragmatic situation which includes the notion text and context. She (ibid: 258) sees that discourse is “a superordinate term for various text types. Puchala (ibid:359), in relating discourse to translation theory, argues that the translator “needs to determine the conditions of linguistic communication, the roles of the participants in the communication as well as all the ways in which the participants manifest their presence.”

For the term genre, Swales (1990: 58) defines it as “a class of communicative events, the member of which share some set of communicative purposes which are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community.” Trosborg (1997:6) sees it as a “text category readily distinguished by nature speakers of a language.” Miller (1985:151) argues that “a rhetorically sound definition of genre must be centred not on the substance or form of the discourse but on the action it is used to accomplish.” Puchala (ibid.), in her turn, sees that genre can be seen as “a system for achieving social purposes by verbal means.” While genre refers to “completed texts,” as Puchala (ibid.) points out, “communicative function and text type...cut across genres.” So, the relationship between genre and text type could be as she (ibid.) states: “texts which are linguistically distinct within a genre may represent different text types, whereas linguistically similar texts belonging to different genres may represent a single text type.” As quoted in Puchala (ibid.), Neubert (1985:125) claims that text types are “socially effective, efficient, and appropriate moulds into which the linguistic material available in the system of a language is recast.” Hatim and Mason (op.cit. :140) give an overall definition of text type as they see it as “a conceptual framework which enables us to classify texts in terms of communicative intentions serving an overall rhetorical purpose.” Abbadi (2014:725) mentions that text type classifications are differently presented by linguists like Werlich (1976), Biber (1988, 1989), De

Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Hatim and Mason (op.cit.) ...and so on. Werlich (op.cit.) relies on cognitive and rhetorical basis when identifying five text types: descriptive, narration, exposition, argumentation and instruction. Biber and Hatim adopt this classification but they have seen it from different angles. Biber (ibid.) focuses on linguistic criteria in which he identifies eight text types using the co-occurrence of the syntactic and lexical features while De Beaugrande and Dressler (op.cit.) classify text types as: descriptive, narrative and argumentative according to their function.

Tsiplakau and Floros (2013:127) provide a model that explains the relationship between genre and text type in relation to speech acts and context.



**Figure 7: Modeling the Relationship between Genre and Text type (taken from Tsiplakau and Floros, 2013:127 )**

The above model comes out with what Tsiplakau and Floros (ibid.) give as a conclusion to their approach to text type as a force. Throughout their paper, they (ibid. 126) attempt to show that text type “as a pragmatically inferred overarching textual function, is an analytical category which fruitfully complements genre in investigating the function of a text as a whole”.

The approach discussed by Tsiplakau and Floros (ibid. :126) shows that:

The awareness of an actual textual force beyond the apparent textual function may prove very fruitful in terms of a *tertium comparationis*, in the sense that what is translated is, ultimately, the force of the text, above and beyond its structural features as inference-inducing mechanisms.

Tsiplakau and Floros (ibid. :121) see that text type as “a construct that is usually viewed as superordinate to genre,” so that Georga Kopoulou (2005:594) treat it as “ a principle of abstraction and classification, an analytical category that aims at capturing structural, functional, and other conventionalized patterns.” As quoted in Tsiplakau and Floros (op.cit.)

Hatim and Mason (op.cit. :2) explain that “our ability to recognise texts as instances of a type- exposition, argumentation, instruction- depends on our experience of previous instances of the same type” which refers to recognizing texts as signs. The texts that require pragmatic equivalence in translation are those complicated texts; argumentative texts are a good example of complicated texts. Aziz and Lataiwish (op.cit. : 129) consider journalistic texts as texts in which their main function is “to convey information”. However, the style of such type of texts has a great importance. They see that the language used by journalists has developed especially in style. In other words, the journalist tries to convey information in a dramatic way that attracts the attention of the reader. Moreover, the writer wants to influence readers’ opinions.

Abbadi (2014: 726), in his paper, adopts Hatim's approach (1991) to text type theory which is based on 'through-argumentation' and 'counter-argumentation' and their structures; in addition to Hatim (ibid.) who divides argumentative texts into two subtypes: through argumentation and counter argumentation which have the following features:

Through-argumentation

↓ Thesis to be argued through

↓ Substantiation

↓ Conclusion

Counter argumentation

↓ Thesis cited to be opposed

↓ Opposition

↓ Substantiation

↓ Conclusion

(Adapted from Hatim 1991, 1997, Hatim and Mason 1990)

Abbadi (op.cit. :726) explains that in through argumentation, “there is no explicit reference to any opposite viewpoint” whereas counter-argumentation is “initiated by a thesis which cites the position of an opponent followed by an opposition,” adds Abbadi (ibid.). He (ibid. :727) sees that, the difference between languages is reflected in the orientation of readers and in the presentation and organization of ideas giving various social functions and this is clearly found in written texts that follow conventions that differ from one culture to another. Hatim (1997) notices that there is a tendency to use counter argumentation in English while employing through argumentation in Arabic texts. However, he confirms that both types of argumentation are to be found in English and Arabic. Abbadi (op.cit. : 727) explains that Koch (1983) sees that “Arabic argumentation achieves persuasion by making its argumentation claims linguistically present by repeating and paraphrasing them.”

## **2.7. Text Difficulty**

An important point raised by Tsyplakou and Floros (op.cit :127) reveals the importance of the language user’s awareness to the actual function of a text whether in language teaching or translation studies. They state:

As to language teaching, the tendency towards enhancing critical literacy may best be served by the approach which allows not only for the recognition of genre, but also for the recognition of textual force, which can be correlated to the cultural and linguistic features making the force-related inferences possible in the first place. As to translation (and interpreting), the awareness of an actual textual force beyond the apparent textual function may prove very fruitful in terms of a tertium comparationis, in the sense that what is translated is, ultimately the force of the text, above and beyond its structural features as inference-introducing mechanisms.

In her thesis, Eisa (2008) expresses the need to examine the degree of awareness among Arab translators of English argumentative texts. She (ibid: 1) defines argumentation as a



“systematic way of persuading and convincing an audience using the force of logic” which can simply be seen in editorials. However, she thinks that the use of argument is included in all genres of texts. An important issue she raised (ibid.) when she points out the most important feature to be considered by speakers or writers when intending to persuade audiences, is that they “have to educate, and to raise awareness by arguing with evidence-based justifications and clarifications.” She (ibid.) confirms that there is a strong relationship between successful Arabic translation of English editorials and awareness of the different genres without which translators could mislead audience and destroy meaning.

As there was a focus on the communicative role of translation, Hymes (op.cit.) introduced the term ‘communicative competence’. Relating this concept to translation, Newmark (1981:22) sees the communicative nature of translation as “a mode which seeks to produce the same effect on the TL readers as was produced by the original on the SL readers.” Concerning the context of communication, De Beaugrande (1978:13) argues that “the attention should be focused on the underlying strategies of language use as can be seen from the text signs. Translation was envisaged as a process of interaction between author, translator and reader.”

Hatim (2001) points out the importance of some strategies like type of language use: register, genre, informativity and markedness. Hale and Campbell (op.cit.: 15) argue that “text difficulty for the purpose of translation, then, is seen as a function of the cognitive effort required to process the item in question and convert it into the target language.” To put it differently, they point out the notion of levels of difficulty encountered by translators when dealing with different text types. This notion was widely discussed by Hatim and Mason (1997) in that they consider argumentative discourse a difficult type of texts compared to other types in terms of text structure and level of markedness. For more explanation, they (ibid. :181) state that the structure

of argumentative texts is “...more complex and relatively more difficult to negotiate. Texture also tends to be opaque and to be manipulated for rhetorical effect.” However, this may explain text difficulty just at the level of initial comprehension. A more thorough model that explains text difficulty is that presented by Reiss (1982: 11). She proposes that the translator depends on five elements that represent five aspects:

- The subject matter (semantic aspect)
- The register (material aspect)
- The type of language (functional aspect)
- The pragmatics of the reader (pragmatic aspect)
- The historical-cultural context (temporal, local or cultural aspect)

Depending on these five elements, Reiss (ibid. :12) introduced a well-determined matrix that includes four levels of text difficulty:

| Difficulty levels \ Aspects | First level                               | Second level                                      | Third level                                       | Fourth level                      |
|-----------------------------|---|---|---|-----------------------------------|
| Subject matter              | General transcultural                     | General culture specific                          | Specialized transactional                         | Specialized culture specific      |
| Register                    | educated                                  | Colloquial  | Technical sociolects                              | Individual                        |
| Type of language function   | informative                               | Informative-evocative                             | evocative   | Persuasive                        |
| Pragmatics                  | universal                                 | Collective  | group   | individual                        |
| Historical-cultural context | Closely related temporally and culturally | Closely related culturally but distant temporally | Distant culturally and closely related temporally | Distant culturally and temporally |

**Figure 8: Four Levels of Text Difficulty (taken from Reiss, 1982:12)**

This model, as Hale and Campbell (op.cit. : 16) observe, is “a comprehensive discourse model that allows educators to choose texts according to levels of difficulty based on a number of criteria that ultimately describe a text type.” To sum up, the idea of Reiss (op.cit: 13), is that the educator:

Thoroughly analyse a text’s syntactic, semantic, functional and pragmatic aspects that could cause problems for the translator, annotate the text with number codes, comprising a number for each aspect from 1 to 5 and for each level from 1 to 4. That way, the educator will at least reach an appropriate classification.

Despite the fact that this modal is useful, Hale and Campbell (op.cit.) argue that it is subjective in that it does not identify the text’s features. So, they consider both Hatim and Mason’s and Reiss’s modals as not empirically based. At the same time, Hale and Campbell (ibid.) introduce their approach as the most appropriate one. The basis of their approach or what makes it different from the others is the notion of the relationship between text difficulty and accuracy. They (ibid.: 17) argue that text difficulty is due to a number of factors:

The individual’s own awareness of an incorrect choice, the individual’s linguistic and stylistic competence, the individual’s knowledge of the subject matter and the world..., the individual’s comprehension of the source text, the text’s inherent ambiguity or lack of clarity, and the translatability of the text into different languages at different levels (lexical, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic).

There was a debate on the notion of accuracy in translation. Many linguists argued that it is impossible to translate a text accurately due to the fact that there is a lack of equivalence across languages, cultures and even the individuals’ comprehension. However, others according to Hale and Campbell (ibid.:17) argue that “accuracy of translation is achievable through a pragmatic reconstruction of the source language into the target language.”

Pinker (1995: 49-50) states that: "...if thoughts depends on words...how could translation from one language to another be possible?" In other words, if we stick to the notion of linguistic determinism, then there could be no possibility to translate.

## **2.8. Strategies of Translation**

As a matter of dealing with translating argumentative, Yazdani and Hoseinabadi (2013) see that learners must go through a specific process that includes certain steps: analysis, transfer and revision. In what concerns the first stage 'analysis', they (ibid. 360) state that:

The translator's first task is to read through the text to get a general idea of the content, style, author, intended receptor, and general circumstances in which the text has been produced... This requires processing at the syntactic, semantic and pragmatic levels.

In other words, they identify the importance of situating the text by providing a thorough understanding and background of this text in the form and in the meaning. The second step, transfer is the stage where the translator starts translating the text as a first drafting which will be improved and corrected in the third stage, revision. In this last stage, as Yazdani and Hoseinabadi (ibid.) explain: 'the translator will need to check for accuracy of meaning. In doing so s/he should look for wrong grammatical forms, wrong order and collocational clashes.'

Yazdani and Hoseinabadi (ibid: 361) insist on the importance of translation strategies used by the learners and the impact these strategies have on these learners. A strategy is defined in their terminology as: "a general direction set for the company and its various components to achieve a desired state in the future. Strategy results from the detailed strategic planning process." Venuti (1998) introduces two translation strategies: **domesticating and foreignizing**. The nature of a translation strategy involves simply the basic steps to choose a text and the

strategy to be used in translating this source text into the target text. Hatim and Mason (op.cit.) assume that translation is a difficult act as it involves the translator condition in relation to language and social context. This difficulty appears when transfer the meaning of the source text into the target text.

Hatim and Mason (ibid.:3) state that: “readers perceive an end-product, a result of a decision-making process; they do not have access to pathways leading to decisions, to the dilemmas to be resolved by the translator.” In other words, there is a tendency to focus on the product or translated text rather than on the process the translator goes through until making decisions as Bell (1987) observes. In that, if translation is seen as only a product and not also as a process, “our understanding of the nature of translating will be impaired,” Hatim and Mason (op.cit.) explain. They (ibid.) argue that Nida (op.cit.) view to translation in terms of formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence is more useful in that it shifted from literal and free translation to something more appropriate. They (op.cit. :7) distinguish between both types of equivalence as they mention that formal equivalence is the “closest possible match of form and content between ST and TT” and dynamic equivalence is the “principle of equivalence of effect on readers of TT.” In comparing between literal and free translation, Hatim and Mason (ibid.) go back to what I-Safadi argues about giving an equivalent term in Arabic to each Greek word. Hatim and Mason (ibid. :5) complain that this procedure is wrong in two aspects:

1. It is erroneous to assume that one-for-one equivalents exist for all lexical items in Greek and Arabic.
2. The sentence structure of one language does not match that of another.

Still, according to Hatim and Mason (*ibid.*), if translators see that in order to translate they have to write a text composed of the meanings of each word, important meanings will be missed.

Newmark (1988), one of the defenders of literal translation, claims that “literal translation is correct and must not be avoided, if it secures referential and pragmatic equivalence to the original”.

## **2.9. Translation Assessment**

Hatim and Mason (*op.cit.* :65) point out a very interesting aspect about the translator. They state “the translator, in addition to being a competent processor of intentions in any SL text, must be in a position to make judgments about the likely effect of the translation on TL readers/hearers.” Because of the lack of objectivity in translation assessment, the focus of readers is often on the product rather than on the process: they perceive the target text as the most part and do not concentrate on the stage of decision making. Al-Qinai (2000:497) explains that:

The ST writer selects lexical items and syntactic arrangement to suit his communicative aims. The translator works at recovering those aims. But this process is fraught with subjective interpretation of ST. After all, every reading of a text is unique in its own right and is bound to evoke different responses.

Authors like House (1976), Wills (1982), Basil and Hatim (1990), Baker and Horton (1998), attempt to introduce a model of translation assessment that avoids subjectivity but still it has some drawbacks which Al-Qinai (*op.cit.* :498) explains that “there is neither a definitive reading of a text nor a perfect rendering which achieves the goals of ST, translation assessment and criticism could go forever.” According to Al-Qinai (*ibid.*), tools of translation assessment like choice of lexical connotations, sentence structure and rhetorical strategies vary from one

language to another which makes the process of translation more complex. So, it is appropriate to focus on “the adequacy of translation rather than the degree of equivalence” as Al-Qunai (ibid. 498) explains. An important remark is made by Nida (1964: 155) concerning the translation assessment as he sees that “a translator is severely criticized if he makes a mistake, but only faintly praised when he succeeds.” Al-Qassas (2008:3) claims that “translation is the transfer of textual material from a SL into a TL, a process in which the translator attempts to produce an effect on the TLt audience similar to the effect intended by the original author on the SL audience.” If the translator does not succeed in providing the equivalence between the ST and the TT, then the translation would not be successful.

Nolan (2005) summarizes the whole idea of interpreting argumentation in a thorough way, he (117) states:

Argumentation relies primarily on logic and/or emotion, in varying doses. An interpreter must be alert to both and remember that they are not mutually exclusive and that neither is better per se. A logically sound argument can be embellished or made more compelling by a poetic choice of words, or a moral argument can be stated in such powerful terms that it overwhelms all logical objections. If a speaker’s logic is faulty, the interpreter’s voice must not betray the absurdity. And if the speaker waxes lyrical to a degree that the interpreter finds ridiculous, the interpreter’s voice must not betray his skepticism. This requires interpreters to develop some appreciation of both logical and emotive rhetoric.

Schäffner (2002:2) explains the relationship between translation and other fields like linguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics and discourse analysis, as a strong one. The reason behind this idea is that:

there is general agreement that understanding a text is a prerequisite for translating it, i.e. for producing a target text (TT) on the basis of a source text (ST). Understanding includes reflecting about the linguistic structures which a text displays, realizing that the structure chosen by the text producer is (to be) seen as the most appropriate one to fulfill the intended aims and the purposes which the author wanted to achieve with the text for

specific communicative situations in a specific socio-cultural context for specific addressees.

The major problem learners face in translation is when they start translating any text without, as Schäffner (*ibid.*:6) adds, “a more conscious reflection about the text and their task.” Language awareness is very important for a learner to know the underlying meaning of the text to be translated. Donmall (1985:7) defines language awareness as “a person’s sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life” (As quoted in Faber, 1998:9) which is very important for EFL learners and especially it helps them in their translation.

In his thesis, Alharthy (2010: abstract), compares between English and Arabic editorials explaining that English editorials use relatively simple and short sentence structures. Arabic editorials, by contrast, employ complex structures. Subordinate clauses are less common in English than in Arabic. Arabic uses coordinate clauses more than English does...Arabic editorials use more nominal sentences (SVO sentences) than verbal ones (VSO sentences). He (*ibid.*: abstract) explains that

at the thematic level, Arabic displays more complex thematic structures than English. The analysis also shows that there are specific markers in the Arabic rhematic elements.[...] at the grounding level, it is found that clauses and phrases which meet the grounding expectations (that main clauses are foregrounding and subordinate clauses clauses/phrases are background) are more frequent in English than in Arabic. It is also found that clauses and phrases which do not fulfill the grounding expectations are frequent in English editorials than their Arabic counterparts.



## Conclusion

This Chapter which deals with translating argumentative discourse reflects the need to overcome the problem of equivalence between the source and target languages for EFL learners and translators. In spite of the fact that there is no one-to-one correspondence, employing the knowledge of the concepts that circle the translation of argumentative discourse and being aware of the speech acts and the pragmatics of the text will facilitate the task of determining its function. Hence, conveying the same underlying meaning in order to have the required perlocutionary effect on the target audience.

# *Chapter Three*

## *Research Method*

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### Research Method

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## **Chapter Three**

### **Research Method**

#### **Introduction**

The empirical aspect of this thesis relates to the objective of evaluating critically the EFL learners' knowledge, awareness about argumentative discourse and speech acts and their performance in translating argumentative texts in terms of recognizing the illocutionary force 'arguing' and receiving the same perlocutionary effect 'convincing'. In order to achieve this objective, we have chosen a specific population of interest 'third year students of English/ Applied Language Studies' at the department of Letters and English Language at Frères Mentouri University, Constantine- Algeria. We have selected a random sample of 80 students of this population. The present chapter gives a clear picture of the research method used in this thesis in order to investigate the effect of building students' awareness about the relationship between pragmatics, speech acts, different genres and translation in the translation of argumentative texts. Throughout this chapter a discussion of the research design will take place.

#### **3.1. Population**

In order to explore the problems encountered in translating English argumentative texts into Arabic, the population to be selected is third year students of English at the department of foreign languages- university Constantine 1. More precisely, the population is narrowed down to the students of 'Applied Language Studies' option. The reason behind choosing third year students of English is that they have appropriate amount of knowledge of eight years exposed to

English in general and more specifically three years exposed to English at higher level-university. In their third year, they are expected to deal with argumentative texts in written expression course and speech acts in pragmatics course. The choice of students of applied language studies is due to the fact that these learners study the previous modules in addition to translation course during two years.

### **3.2. Sampling**

Taking into account that the population of interest ‘third year students of English – applied language studies’ is huge to be evaluated and hard to be controlled (6 groups of at least 40 students for each), the step of sampling is needed in order to limit the research population and at the same time to avoid being biased but rather be more objective. It is very difficult to conduct a research dealing with a big number of students. Hence, a random sample of two groups is selected in order to be representative for the whole population. In short, two groups of 40 students each are randomly selected in order to undergo the experiment: one control and the second experimental.

### **3.3. Data Collection Tools**

Before the administration of the Students Questionnaire, a pilot study is to be done first. It is composed of 11 questions. It reveals the subjects’ knowledge, attitudes and points of view in relation to English and Arabic argumentation and its translation from one language to another.

In addition to a students’ questionnaire of 17 questions, this research work involves the use of a pre-test and a post-test as research tools. Having the fact that we have a control group

and an experimental group, each group will pass both tests. As a first step, the subject of the sample (both control and experimental) will undergo the pre-test (a text with specific questions) and as a final step, the same subjects deal with the post-test by answering its questions. Both groups will have the same quantity and quality of information in the translation course; however, the experimental group is exposed to additional information about pragmatics, speech acts, argumentation and translation in order to make them aware about the link between these elements in translating English argumentative texts into Arabic. Using four argumentative texts, the subjects of the experimental group are supposed to be more aware of the link found between what they study in the different courses previously mentioned and how they deal with the translation of English argumentative texts. Finally, we will compare both groups in terms of analyzing and interpreting the research findings.

### **3.4. Data Collection Description**

#### **3.4.1. The Pilot Study**

A pilot study is, as Robson and McCartan (2016:156) define, “a small scale version of the real thing; try out of what you propose so that its feasibility can be checked.” In order to avoid any risks or errors in a research, a researcher can conduct a pilot study before the intended study. In other words, the researcher tests the feasibility of the study, i.e. tests how possible the research design is in reality. This type of study is conducted on the same population of the experimental research and have the same criteria but on a smaller scale. In order to check the feasibility of the present research, a pilot study is conducted on a sample of 10 third year students of English but

not the same ones who would be chosen for the experiment as it would influence their performance in the pre-test and post-test. The pilot study is constituted of a questionnaire administered to the 10 subjects. It is composed of 11 questions. It reveals the subjects' knowledge, attitudes and points of view in relation to English and Arabic argumentation and its translation from one language to another.

#### **3.4.1.1. Description of the Questionnaire**

The first Question of the questionnaire is about translation, it tries to see the subjects' knowledge about translation. The second question tries to see what the subjects know about argumentation. In the following question, question 3, the subjects are asked if they differentiate between Arabic and English argumentation and in question 4 they are asked to justify their answers. Question 5 asks the subjects to name some types of the argumentative discourse. Moving to the structure of argumentation, question 6 asks the subjects whether they agree or not that Arabic and English argumentative texts have the same structure and they are asked to justify their answers in question 7. Question 8 moves to ask the students about pragmatics but precisely about the definition of a speech act and its types. In the next question, question 9, the subjects are asked if they see that it is necessary to know the underlying meaning of the utterance/ sentence to translate it in a faithful and equivalent way. Question 10 tries to identify which type of translation is more difficult for the students: whether English- Arabic translation or Arabic- English translation. The last question, question 11, tries to see if the subjects know the relationship between argumentation as a speech act in English and its translation into Arabic.

### 3.4.1.2. The Analysis of the Questionnaire

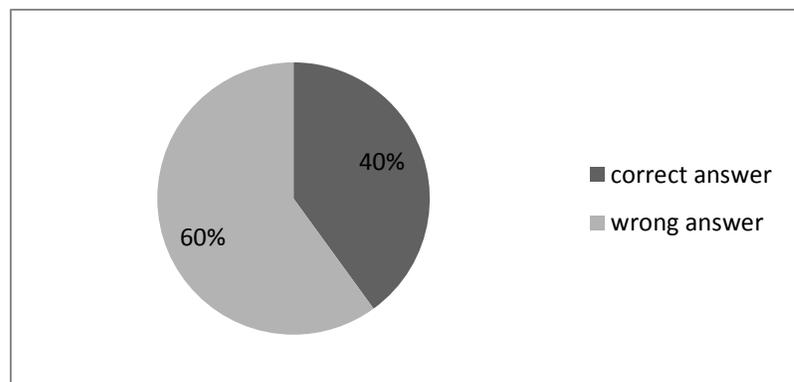
➤ **Question 1:**

What is translation?

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 4                  | 40                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 6                  | 60                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 1: Translation**

In the first question, the subjects tried to define translation. 4 of them knew how to define it while 6 of them did not. The 40% of the respondents who gave correct answers said that translation is both a process and a product and it is to render the meaning of a source text into the target text. In the contrary, the other 60% gave wrong answers as they said translation is to give each word its meaning by giving its equivalent in another language. This definition is misleading as it mentions only word-for-word translation. The results are illustrated in the following chart.



➤ **Question 2:**

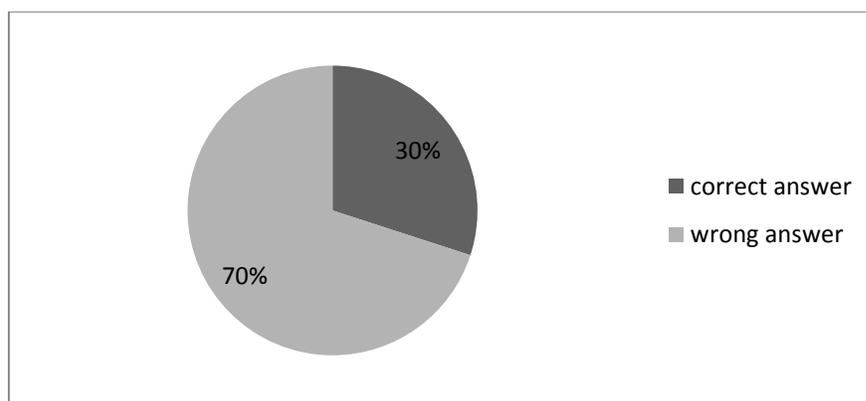
What is argumentation?



|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 3                  | 30                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 7                  | 70                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 2: Argumentation**

3 subjects, who answered question 2, gave correct answers while 7 of the respondents gave wrong answers. Most of the students are not aware of what argumentation is about and they do not differentiate between argumentative text and expository text as they focus on the function of explaining rather than arguing as it is shown in the following figure.



➤ **Question 3:**

Is there any difference between Arabic argumentation and Arabic argumentation?

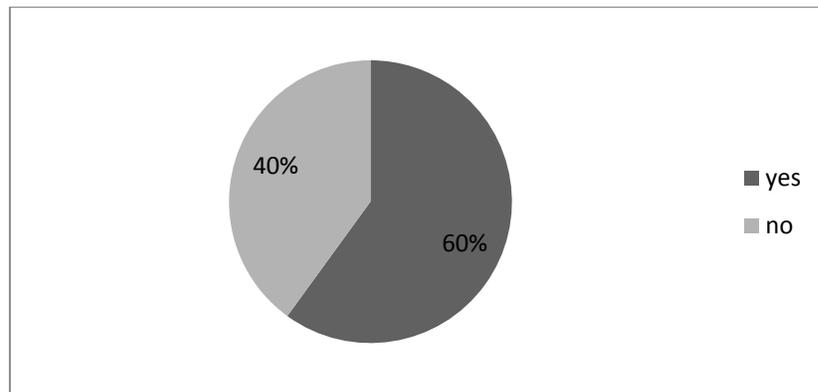
Yes

No

|                | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|----------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Yes</b>     | 6                  | 60                   |
| <b>No</b>      | 4                  | 40                   |
| <b>Total N</b> | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 3: Difference between Arabic and English Argumentation**

When asked if they differentiate between Arabic and English argumentation, 60% of the respondents agree on that while 40% did not.



➤ **Question 4:**

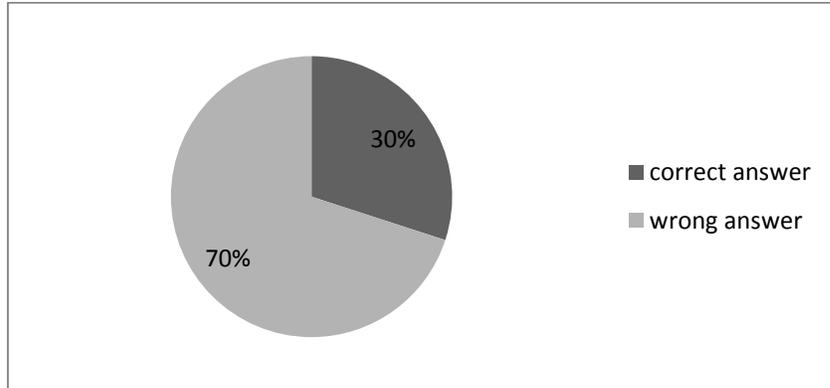
Whether 'Yes' or 'No', justify your answer.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 3                  | 30                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 7                  | 70                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 4: Justification of the Difference between Arabic and English Argumentation**

The answers of questions 4 show that either the subjects think that there is a difference between Arabic and English argumentation but do not know in which ways they differ or they just choose

the answer haphazardly as it is shown in table 4. The majority gave wrong answers while only 3 respondents gave correct justification in terms of structure, style ...and so on.

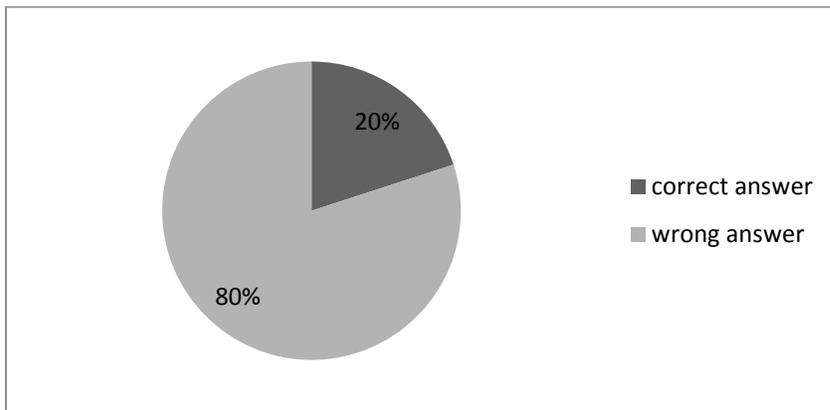


➤ **Question 5:**

What are the types of argumentative discourse that you know?

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 2                  | 20                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 8                  | 80                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 5: Types of Argumentative Discourse**



Answers to question 5 shows that 20% recognized some types of argumentative discourse while 80% did not as it is illustrated in the above table and figure.

➤ **Question 6:**

Do you agree that Arabic structure of argumentative texts is not the same as the English one?

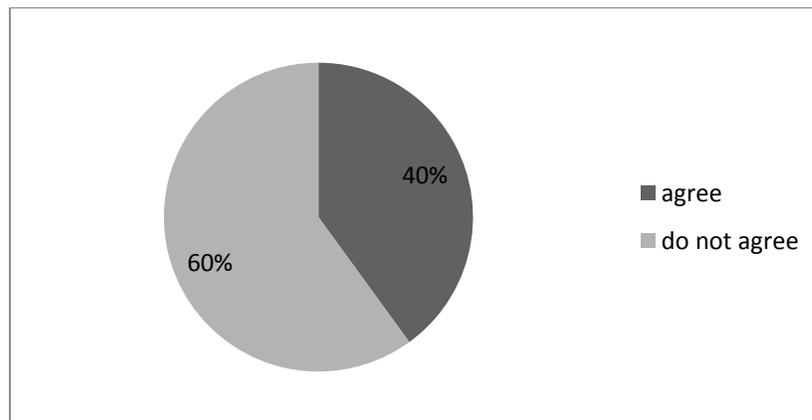
Agree

Do not agree

The following table shows that 40% of the respondents agree that Arabic and English argumentative texts do not have the same structure while 60% do not agree and see that English and Arabic structures of the argumentative discourse is the same.

|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 4                  | 40                   |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 6                  | 60                   |
| <b>Total N</b>      | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 6: Arabic and English Structure of Argumentative Texts**



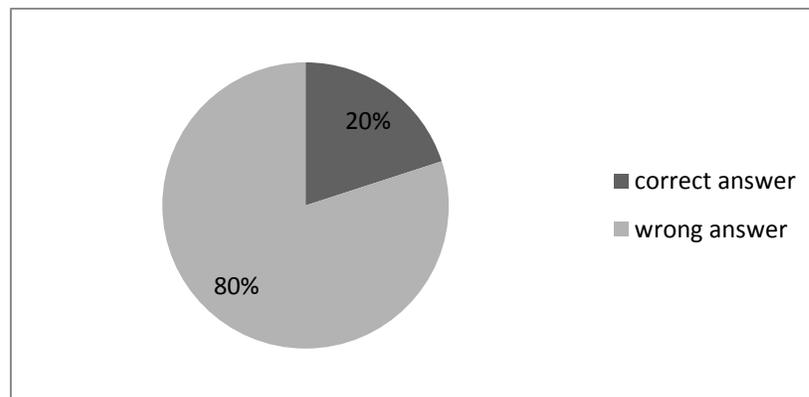
➤ **Question 7:**

Justify your answer.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 2                  | 20                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 8                  | 80                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 7: Justification on the Arabic and English Structure of Argumentative Texts**

From table 7, we observe that only 2 respondents gave correct answers while 8 of them gave wrong answers. This reflects that the majority of the subjects do not know the difference between Arabic and English structure of argumentative texts as it is illustrated in the following figure.

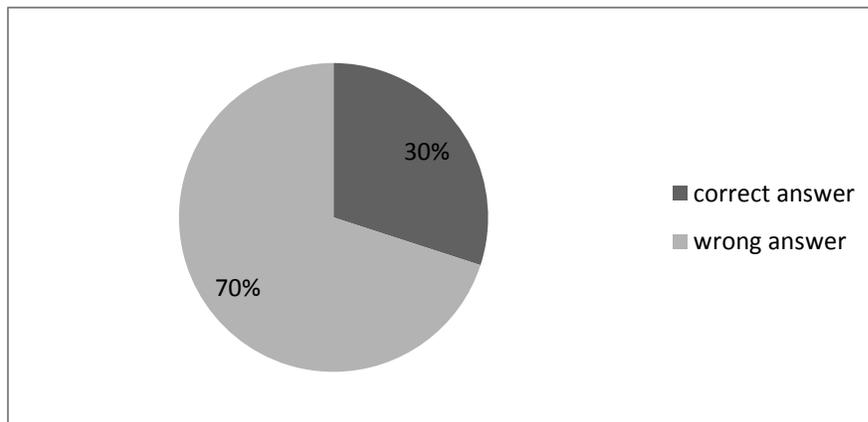


➤ **Question 8:**

What is a speech act? Identify its types.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 3                  | 30                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 7                  | 70                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 8: Speech Act and its Types**



According to the above table and figure, we observe that the majority of the respondents, 70%, do not know the term a speech act or its types while only 30% of them gave a correct answer.

➤ **Question 9:**

Do you think that it is necessary to know the underlying meaning of the utterance/sentence to translate it in a faithful and equivalent way?

Yes

No

|                | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|----------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Yes</b>     | 6                  | 60                   |
| <b>No</b>      | 4                  | 40                   |
| <b>Total N</b> | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 9: The Importance of Knowing the Underlying Meaning in Translation**

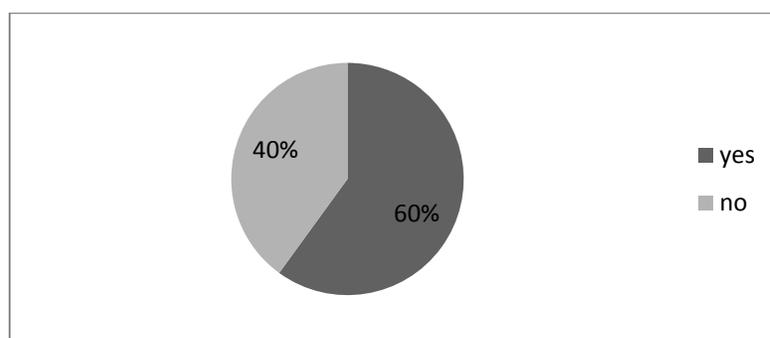


Table 9 shows that 60% of the respondents agree that it is necessary to know the underlying meaning of the sentence/ utterance in order to translate it in a faithful and equivalent way whereas 40% of them think that it is not necessary and they just have to translate one text from one language to another.

➤ **Question 10:**

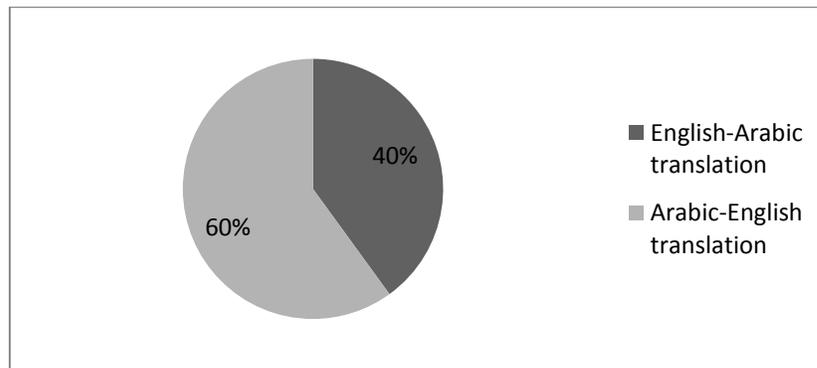
What do you think it is more difficult?

English- Arabic translation of argumentative texts

Arabic- English translation of argumentative texts

|                                    | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>English- Arabic Translation</b> | 4                  | 40                   |
| <b>Arabic- English Translation</b> | 6                  | 60                   |
| <b>Total N</b>                     | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 10: Most Difficult Type of Translation**



Answers to question 10 show that 60% of the respondents see that Arabic- English translation is more difficult than English-Arabic translation while 40% of them think that English-Arabic translation is the most difficult.

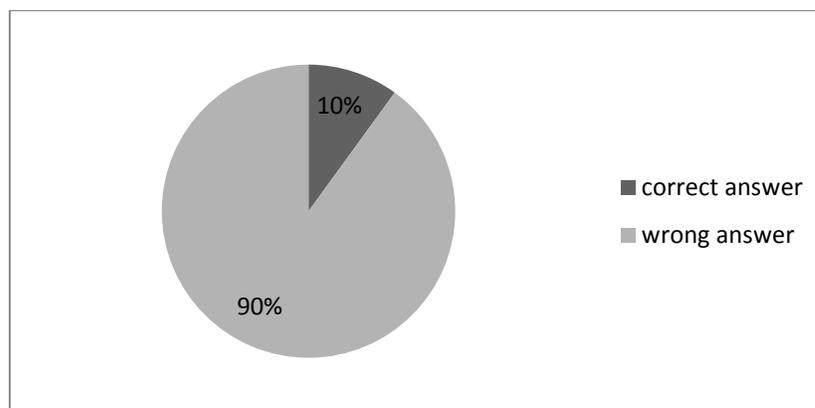
➤ **Question 11:**

Explain the relationship between argumentation as a speech act in English and its translation into Arabic.



|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 1                  | 10                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 9                  | 90                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 10                 | 100                  |

**Table 11: The Relationship between English Argumentation and its Translation into Arabic**



From table 11 and as it is illustrated in the above figure we see that the majority of the respondents, 90%, are not aware of the relationship between English argumentation as a speech act and its translation into Arabic; only 10% of these respondents know that there is a relationship between argumentation and translation.

### **3.4.1.3. Discussion of the Results**

Answers to questions 1, 2 and 5 give an idea about the learners' knowledge of important terms like translation and argumentation. The majority of the respondents do not have a crystal clear picture of these terms. Moreover, answers to questions 3, 4, 6 and 7 reveal the respondents' poor knowledge about Arabic and English argumentative discourse and the differences between

them. In addition to that, answers to questions 8 and 9 which deal with speech acts and pragmatics reflect the problems these learners face in understanding these terms. Finally, answers to questions 10 and 11 show the attitude of the respondents towards the difficulty of translation and the relationship between different aspects related to the translation of argumentative texts. For the respondents who think that Arabic-English translation is the most difficult may be it is because of their poor English vocabulary and the difference in structure and grammar; for the others who think that English-Arabic translation is the most difficult may be because of the difficulty of recognizing the meaning to be conveyed. The answers given by the respondents of the questionnaire really reflect that they have some problems in understanding and identifying some terms related to English argumentative discourse and its translation into Arabic. They are not aware of the relationship between pragmatics, speech acts, argumentation and translation in translating argumentative texts. This reveals that it is very important to raise the awareness of these students in order to improve their translation performance. This questionnaire helped in identifying the learners' needs and in exposing the aspects to be developed in order to influence their translation of argumentative texts.

## **Conclusion**

Third year students of English have some basic knowledge but do not know how to use it in order to improve their performance. They should be guided with some instructions that help them in the translation of English argumentative texts. This questionnaire shows the feasibility of the present research and gives us the start from where we can first formulate our questions of the questionnaire to be administered to the sample of the experimental research and second design instructions, pre-test and post-test.

### 3.4.2. The Students Questionnaire

A questionnaire that attempts to collect data, composed of 17 questions, is administered to the subjects of the present research in which they are asked to either put a tick whenever necessary or to write an answer to open questions.

Question 1 tries to see students' knowledge about translation being a process, a product or both of them. The second question explores the difference between arguing and persuading. The third question attempts to see whether the subjects know different types of argumentative discourse or not. Trying to move to the core of this research, the fourth question asks if subjects agree that English editorials have the same features as Arabic editorials or not. Then, question 5 asks the subjects to explain in which way they differ. Question 6 asks whether the subjects agree that the structure of argumentative texts in Arabic and English is the same or not.

Question 7 tries to investigate the learners' knowledge whether they agree or not that it is important that the reader identifies the type of the text being translated and specify its dominant speech acts. Furthermore, question 8 asks if these testees agree that argumentation is based on the illocutionary act of arguing rather than other speech acts. Question 9 attempts to see whether the subjects agree or not that knowing all types of speech acts is a condition in translating argumentative discourse. On the same basis, question 10 asks whether it is possible to translate any text without knowing its speech acts.

Question 11 is about what testees think whether it is necessary or not to know the underlying meaning of the utterance/ sentence to translate it in a faithful and equivalent way. However, question 12 asks the respondents what are the strategies they use in translating

argumentative texts and question 13 follows to ask whether they agree literal translation is enough. Question 14 attempts to know which steps of translation the respondents as EFL learners give more importance. Question 15 asks the respondents to choose the aspects they need to know all about in order to translate argumentative texts. Question 16 is about the classification of some features of argumentative discourse in terms of importance. The last question, 17, asks the subjects to give examples for some of these features.

### **3.4.3. The Experiment**

The research method adopted in this research is an experimental method in which the subjects will undergo a pre-test and a post-test. We have chosen this method in order to explore the strength of relationships between the dependent and independent variables. To begin with, an experiment simply, as Marczyk et al. (2005:3) explains, “involves comparing two groups on one outcome measure to test some hypothesis regarding causation.” To put it differently, in this type of research, the subjects are divided into two groups: control and experimental groups. These two groups will undergo an experiment of pre-test and post-test. The difference between both groups is that the experimental group will receive a special treatment about pragmatics, speech acts and translation in translating argumentative texts. The step of comparing both groups comes before the interpretation of the results in order to testify the validity of the research hypotheses. Cohen et al. (2000: 212) also indicate that:

The essential feature of experimental research is that investigators deliberately control and manipulate the conditions which determine the events in which they are interested. At its simplest, an experiment involves making a change in the value of one variable- called the independent variable- and observing the effect of that change on another variable- called the dependent variable.

This research method is selected because it is useful in testifying the validity of the research hypotheses. That is, relying on the statistics, the results are considered more objective and scientifically based. So, the choice of experimental method is clearly justifiable as it goes with the objective of exploring and investigating the students' performance in translating English argumentative texts into Arabic.

After determining the research method, the population and the sample, we will give a description of data collection. First, the experiment is structured as follows: a pre-test, the experimental group treatment and the post-test.

#### **3.4.3.1. The Pre-test**

To begin with, the pre-test of the present research is composed of an argumentative text followed by twelve questions. After reading the text, the subjects are asked to answer the questions either by putting a tick in the right box or by justifying using full sentences. It is clearly noticed that the twelve questions deal with identifying the type of the text, the thesis statement, the statements including the illocutionary force providing their translation. And finally, ask the respondents whether they recognize the perlocutionary effect of the text and if they know that is it the same effect for both source and target audience or not.

The first question asks respondents to determine the type of the text being studied by giving alternatives. The second question is put to know whether the answer of the first question is given based on the learners' knowledge or just putting a tick without knowing exactly why. It is the same thing for question 3 and 4 that concern the thesis statement; question 5 asks the

respondents to translate the selected thesis statement in Arabic. Next, question 6 moves to investigate the subjects' knowledge about the term speech act and its types. Question 7 returns to the context of the text and asks the students to determine the dominant illocutionary force of the text; and to be more precise, they extract the sentences that include the selected dominant illocutionary act when answering question 8. Question 9 asks the subjects to provide Arabic translation for the selected sentences. Questions 10 and 11 try to get some information about the respondents concerning the perlocutionary effect they receive from the text providing justification. The last question '12' asks the learners whether it is the same effect on the both source and target audience; that is, native speakers and EFL learners or not, providing an explanation to their answers.

During the teaching experience, the experimental group follows a special treatment in that the subjects are provided with four English argumentative texts: three editorials taken from newspapers and one text taken from a book. The first text is entitled '**Coalition Cuts must Pass the Fairness Test**' from 'The Observer'; second text '**Shadow Cabinet: Constructive Opposition**' from 'The Guardian'; and the third text is '**How the Citizens United Ruling Freed Political Speech**' from 'The Washington Post'. The final text is taken from the book '**Better Writing Right Now: Using Words to Your Advantage**'. These texts were used in order to make the subjects more exposed to argumentative discourse and to be more aware about argumentation and speech acts when translating these texts into Arabic.

Students of the experimental group, after answering the questionnaire and having the pre-test, were given special instructions concerning the translation of the English argumentative texts into Arabic. They dealt with four English argumentative texts in addition to raising their

awareness about the relationship between different fields like pragmatics, discourse analysis, speech act theory, argumentation and translation. During the period of instructions, the learners of experimental group were involved in discussions about argumentative discourse and its features both in English and Arabic. They enriched their knowledge about argumentation, pragmatics, and speech act theory. While translating English argumentative texts into Arabic, the subjects were aware of the importance of applying their knowledge from different fields. They also get used to identify the thesis statement and the arguments after they immediately recognize that the type of the text is argumentative in terms of its features. In what follows, a description to the four texts used in the treatment is provided in terms of recognizing the thesis statement, the arguments and their translation into Arabic.

For the first text ‘**Coalition cuts must pass the fairness test**’, the students identify and translate the following thesis statement and arguments that include the illocutionary act of arguing and the perlocutionary act of convincing.

**Thesis statement:**

- As it embarks on the most severe round of public spending cuts in living memory, the government has two vital messages it wants to transmit to the British public. First, the cuts are unavoidable. Second, they will be fair.

- بينما يتم الشروع في أشد جولة من تخفيضات الإنفاق العام في الذاكرة الحية، فإن الحكومة لديها رسالتين حيويتين تريد أن تحيلها إلى الجمهور البريطاني. أولاً، التخفيضات التي لا يمكن تجنبها و ثانياً أنها ستكون نزيهة.

## The arguments:

- The first point is rammed home at every opportunity, including in David Cameron's speech to the Conservative conference last week. The pain to come, he argued, is a consequence of Labour's economic mismanagement. Bringing down the deficit hard and fast is the only way to restore the nation's credibility with investors and relieve future generations of an onerous debt burden.

- ويعود الصدام الى النقطة الأولى في كل مناسبة، بما في ذلك في خطاب ديفيد كامبيرون في مؤتمر حزب المحافظين في الاسبوع الماضي. وقد أعقب ان الألم الذي سيأتي هو نتيجة لسوء الإدارة الاقتصادية لحزب العمال. ان خفض العجز بكل قوة و بسرعة هو السبيل الوحيد لاستعادة مصداقية البلاد مع المستثمرين وتخفيف عبء الديون المرهقة عن الأجيال القادمة.

- Labour has a rebuttal: the critical portion of the deficit is a result of collapsing revenue during a global financial crisis, a product of market failure, not state inefficiency. The surest way to recover revenues is by securing growth and keeping people in jobs, which might better be achieved by a more cautious fiscal retrenchment.

- و يأتي رد حزب العمال بأن الجزء الحرج من العجز هو نتيجة لانهيار الإيرادات خلال الأزمة المالية العالمية وهو نتاج فشل السوق و ليس عدم كفاءة الحكومة. أضمن طريقة لاسترداد العائدات هي من خلال تأمين النمو وإبقاء الناس في مناصب عملهم، والتي يمكن أن تتحقق أفضل عن طريق تقشف مالي أكثر حذرا.



- Whatever the merits of the economic case, the government seems to be winning the political argument. Opinion polls show support for the coalition's plans for the deficit. How durable that support might be is another question. Last week's backlash against plans to withdraw child benefit from higher-rate tax payers suggests a low public pain threshold.

- أيا كان موضوع الدعوى الاقتصادية، يبدو أن الحكومة هي الفائزة بالحجة السياسية. وتظهر استطلاعات الرأي دعماً لخطط التحالف للعجز. إنما كيف سيكون هذا الدعم دائم هو سؤال آخر.

- Tolerance will clearly depend on the fairness test Mr. Cameron has set himself. In his speech, he set out the principles he thought should apply: those with the broadest shoulders should bear the greatest load; hard work should be rewarded; no one should be get something for nothing.

- التسامح سيعتمد بوضوح على اختبار النزاهة الذي وضعه كاميرون نفسه في خطابه حدد المبادئ التي يعتقد أنه يجب ان تطبق: أولئك الذين لديهم أوسع الكتفين يجب أن يتحملوا أكبر حمولة. العمل الشاق يجب أن يكافأ و لا أحد يمكنه الحصول على شيء بدون مقابل.

- As is often the case with gestural policies, the measure wilted under scrutiny. Dual-income households in which each partner is below the higher tax threshold would get to keep money

that would be taken from lower-income households with only one wage-earner. Meanwhile, people getting a pay rise into the higher tax range might end up worse off as their child benefit would be stopped.

- وكما هو الحال في كثير من الأحيان مع سياسات إيمائية، ذبل هذا الاجراء تحت المجهر. ان الأسر المزدوجة الدخل التي فيها كل شريك أقل من عتبة ضريبة ال أعلى يمكنه إبقاء الأموال التي ستأخذ من الأسر ذات الدخل المنخفض مع أجير واحد فقط. وفي الوقت نفسه، فان الناس تحصل على زيادة في الرواتب في نطاق ضريبي أعلى قد ينتهي أسوأ حالا حينما يتم إيقاف مصلحة الطفل.

- That gambit overshadowed the other main welfare announcement of the conference – a cap of £500 per week on the overall level of benefit any household can receive. Meanwhile, a range of plans to cut housing benefit has passed with scarce comment, although they will result in more upheaval for more families than the assault on child benefit.

- طغت هذه المناورة على اعلان الرعاية الرئيسي الآخر للمؤتمر - قبة 500 £ في الأسبوع على المستوى العام للفائدة التي يمكن أن يحصل عليها الاجراء.

- Some of the motives behind those moves are fair. The overall cap is set to reflect an average household income, on the reasonable assumption that working should be seen symbolically to be more lucrative than not working.

- بعض من الدوافع وراء تلك التحركات تكون عادلة. فقد تم تعيين الحد الأقصى الكلي ليعكس متوسط دخل الأسرة، على افتراض معقول أن العمل يجب أن ينظر إليه بشكل رمزي إلى أن تكون أكثر ربحاً من أن تكون عاملاً.

- As for housing benefit, there is no doubt that the annual £20bn bill is too high, nor much doubt that the current system channels money from the Exchequer into the pockets of private landlords, stoking rental inflation.

- أما بالنسبة للإعانة الإسكان، ليس هناك شك في أن السنوي £ 20 ألف فأتورة مرتفعة جداً، ولا شك في أن قنوات النظام الحالي للأموال من وزير الخزانة في جيوب أصحاب العقارات الخاصة، واذكاء تضخم الإيجارات.

- But while cutting the welfare budget is a necessary part of deficit reduction, more attention has to be paid to the human consequences. Cutting housing benefit is certain to force some families to move from inner-city areas where they might have deep roots. That dislocation, and the social segregation it brings to cities, is not without cost. Shrinking the welfare state has a human impact that needs to be expressed in terms of political principle, not just economic management.

- ولكن في حين خفض ميزانية الرعاية الاجتماعية هو جزء ضروري للحد من العجز، مزيدا من الاهتمام يجب أن يدفع إلى التداعيات الإنسانية. قطع إعانة الإسكان ومن المؤكد أن إجبار بعض العائلات على الانتقال من المناطق داخل المدينة حيث قد يكون لديهم جذور عميقة. هذا التفكك، والعزل الاجتماعي الذي يجلب إلى المدن، لا يخلو من التكلفة. تقليص دولة الرفاه له تأثير على الإنسان الذي يحتاج إلى التعبير عنه من حيث المبدأ السياسي، وليس فقط الإدارة الاقتصادية.

- Too much of the rhetoric around coalition policy is defined by extreme cases of social dysfunction and not enough by ordinary families struggling to make a living, relying on benefits to help them through. Of course, the taxpayer shouldn't subsidise scroungers having scores of children and living in palatial homes. But an honest consensus around reform cannot be built on wild caricatures of who most benefit claimants actually are.

- ويعرف أيضا الكثير من الكلام حول سياسة التحالف التي كتبها الحالات القصوى من الخلل الاجتماعي وغير كافية من قبل الأسر العادية التي تكافح من أجل كسب لقمة العيش، والاعتماد على فوائد لمساعدتهم. بالطبع، يجب على دافعي الضرائب ان لا يقدموا دعما للمتطفلين مع وجود عدد كبير من الاطفال والذين يعيشون في منازل فخمة. لكن الإجماع الصادق حول الإصلاح لا يمكن أن يبني على الرسوم الكاريكاتورية البرية حول من يستفيد من إعانات في الواقع.

- Mr. Cameron's notion of fairness with regard to the welfare state is too individualistic and too transactional. He believes that no one should take out more than they put in. It is a view that encourages people to monitor each other's benefits and privileges jealously. It leaves no

room for the broader principle of collective solidarity that underpins the welfare state – the idea that society protects itself better and is more happy and cohesive when it pools resources. If Britain wants to reject that notion, it should at least be debated in those terms, not undermined by stealth.

- فكرة كامبيرون من الإنصاف فيما يتعلق دولة الرفاه هي فردية جدا والمعاملات أيضا. وهو يعتقد أن لا أحد يجب أن يأخذ أكثر مما وضع وهي وجهة نظر تشجع الناس على مراقبة فوائد وامتيازات كل فرد. فإنه لا يدع مجالاً للمبدأ الأوسع من التضامن الجماعي التي تقوم عليها دولة الرفاه - فكرة أن المجتمع يحمي نفسه بشكل أفضل و سعيد أكثر و متماسك عندما تتوفر الموارد. إذا أرادت بريطانيا رفض هذه الفكرة، ينبغي على الأقل أن تناقش في تلك الشروط، وليس ان تقوض خلسة.

- To have such a debate would mean re-examining the coalition's plan to tackle the deficit with spending cuts and tax rises in a four-to-one ratio. That decision alone ensures that people on low incomes will suffer, since they are more dependent on public services and more likely to face unemployment in a public sector retrenchment. If Mr Cameron were serious about us being in this together, he would look harder at progressive taxes that target the genuinely wealthy.

- ان يكون لدينا مثل هذا النقاش يعني أن نعيد النظر في خطة التحالف لمواجهة العجز مع خفض الانفاق وزيادة الضرائب في نسبة أربعة إلى واحد. هذا القرار يضمن وحده أن شريحة ذوي الدخل المنخفض ستعاني، لأنها أكثر اعتمادا على الخدمات العامة وأكثر عرضة لمواجهة البطالة في القطاع العام. إذا كان كامبيرون جدي حول وجودنا في هذا معاً، فيجب ان ينظر بشكل أعمق في فرض ضرائب تصاعدية تستهدف الأثرياء حقا.

In the second text ‘**Shadow cabinet: Constructive opposition**’, the subjects provide the following thesis statement and arguments.

### Thesis statement:

- Politicians do not fight elections in order to be the opposition. Yet opposing is critical, not only in some platonic democratic sense – where it matters more than people think – but as the forge for policies, arguments and personalities that can persuade voters and lead back to government.

- لا يخوض السياسيون الانتخابات من أجل المعارضة. ان المعارضة أمر بالغ الأهمية ليس فقط بالمعنى الديمقراطي الأفلاطوني حيث انها مهمة أكثر مما يظن الناس ولكن بتزويرها للسياسات والحجج والشخصيات التي يمكن أن تقنع الناخبين وتؤدي إلى الحكومة.

### The arguments:

- Mr. Johnson has none of the economic expertise of Mr. Balls, but he has none of the baggage either. His merits to Mr. Miliband lie as much in what he is not as what he is: above all, he was not at Gordon Brown's right hand when the wrong decisions were taken, and he has long since shed his old trade union priorities.

- لا يملك السيد جونسون أيًا من خبرات سيد بولز الاقتصادية و لا أي شيء من رصيده السياسي. كما أن استحقاقاته للسيد ميليباند تكمن بقدر كبير في ما هو ليس ما هو عليه فقبل كل شيء فهو لم يكن اليد اليمنى لجوردون براون عندما اتخذت القرارات الخاطئة وقد تخلص عن أولوياته النقابية القديمة منذ فترة طويلة.

- And having parked Mr. Balls on the economic sidelines, it is smart to give him another of the so-called great offices of state to shadow. The Home Office brief will be absorbing, and it matters to voters almost as much as the economy. Civil libertarians may flinch at Mr. Balls' enthusiasm for identity cards; choosing how to tackle the combative Theresa May will also be a challenge.

• وبعد وضع السيد بولز على الهامش الاقتصادي انه لذكاء اعطائه احد المكاتب من ما يسمى بالمكاتب الكبيرة في الدولة إلى الظل. ومهمة وزارة الداخلية أن تكون قادرة على الامتصاص و هي مهمة للناخبين تقريبا بقدر أهميتها للاقتصاد. ان ناشطي الحريات المدنية قد يتراجعون مع حماس بولز للحصول على بطاقات الهوية واختيار كيفية مواجهة القتالية تيريزا ماي سيكون أيضا تحديا.

- Now a picture is emerging not of Red Ed, but of a pluralist, healing leader who is more sensitive to the evidence of the polls and the concerns of the voters than some of his supporters in the leadership campaign may have appreciated. To govern is to choose, but opposition involves choices too, and Mr. Miliband has made some tough ones.

• تبرز الآن صورة ليست لراد إد، ولكن من زعيم الشفاء التعددي الذي هو أكثر حساسية لحقيقة صناديق الاقتراع ومخاوف الناخبين من بعض مؤيديه في حملة القيادة قد تقدير. ليحكم هو اختيار، ولكن ينطوي المعارضة الخيارات أيضا، وجعلت ميليباند بعض منها صعبة.

The third text entitled ‘**How the Citizens United ruling freed political speech**’ has the following thesis statement and arguments:

**Thesis statement:**

- One year ago today, the Supreme Court issued its landmark decision in *Citizens United v. Federal Election Commission*. It upheld the First Amendment rights of individuals acting through corporations and labor unions to participate in our political process, and it struck down an oppressive thicket of statutes restricting - and even criminalizing - their political speech.

- قبل سنة واحدة من اليوم، أصدرت المحكمة العليا قرارها التاريخي في المواطنين المتحدين ضد لجنة الانتخابات الاتحادية أين أيدت التعديل الأول لحقوق الأفراد التي تعمل من خلال الشركات والنقابات العمالية للمشاركة في عملتنا السياسية، وألغت جملة من القوانين القمعية التي تقيد وحتى تجرم خطابهم السياسي.

#### **The arguments:**

- The case arose in 2007, when Citizens United, a grass-roots membership organization, sought to broadcast a film critical of Hillary Clinton, then a candidate for president. The Federal Election Commission deemed the film too critical to be shown in the weeks before an election; if Citizens United had broadcast it, its officers would have been subject to prosecution and potential imprisonment for up to five years. The Supreme Court struck down this prohibition of corporate and labor union election-time speech about candidates as a violation of the First Amendment. To the court's majority, it was "stranger than fiction for our Government to make . . . political speech a crime."

- ان القضية التي برزت عام 2007، عندما سعت منظمة المواطنين المتحدة، وهي منظمة عضوية ذات قاعدة شعبية، إلى بث فيلم ينتقد هيلاري كلينتون، ثم مرشح للرئاسة. اعتبرت لجنة الانتخابات الاتحادية ان الفيلم حرج للغاية لعرضها في



الأسابيع التي سبقت الانتخابات. ولو ان منظمة المواطنين المتحدين قد بثته، لكان ضباطها تعرضوا للملاحقة والسجن المحتمل لمدة تصل إلى خمس سنوات.

- Stranger still were the unwarranted attacks against the Supreme Court that followed. Most visibly, the president used his State of the Union address to accuse the court of having "reversed a century of law" and "open[ed] the floodgates for special interests - including foreign corporations - to spend without limit in our elections." That statement was astonishing because none of it was true: The oldest decision reversed by *Citizens United* was 20 years old, not 100, and foreign corporations are prohibited from participating in elections, just as they were before. As for "special interests," many had been spending at an equally furious rate, apparently unnoticed by the president, well before this ruling.

• و قد توالى الهجمات غير المبررة ضد المحكمة العليا من الخارج بوضوح أكثر فقد استخدم الرئيس خطابه عن حالة الاتحاد الذي ألقاه لاتهام المحكمة بأنها "عكست قرنا من القانون" و "فتحت الباب على مصراعيه لأصحاب المصالح الخاصة - بما في ذلك الشركات الأجنبية - للتدخل بلا حدود في انتخاباتنا". وكان هذا البيان مفاجئا، لأنه لا شيء من ذلك كان صحيحا.

- Still, the attacks continued: Sen. Charles Schumer accused the court of attempting to "predetermine the outcome of next November's elections," handing them to "Corporate America and other special interests." And when the November elections brought grim

tidings to many Democratic officeholders, those candidates blamed not themselves nor their unpopular policies but the court.

• ومع ذلك، استمرت الهجمات حيث اتهم السناتور تشارلز شومر المحكمة بمحاولة "التحديد المسبق لنتائج انتخابات نوفمبر القادمة"، بتسليمهم "الشركة أمريكا والمصالح الخاصة الأخرى". وعندما جلبت انتخابات نوفمبر بشائر قاتمة للعديد من اصحاب المناصب الديمقراطية، لم يتهم أولئك المرشحون لا أنفسهم ولا سياساتهم التي لا تحظى بشعبية ولكن اتهموا المحكمة.

- Without question, *Citizens United* has enabled citizen organizations (curiously and disparagingly labeled "outside groups") to assume a larger role in electoral politics. According to the nonpartisan Center for Responsive Politics, citizen groups spent \$296.4 million in the 2010 election cycle - slightly less than the \$301.7 million spent by such groups in 2008, but more than four times the \$68.9 million spent by comparable organizations in the 2006 midterm elections.

• وبلا شك قد مكنت منظمة المواطنين المتحدين المنظمات المدنية من الاضطلاع بدور أكبر في السياسة الانتخابية. وفقا لمركز العاملين في مجال السياسة المستجيبة، أنفقت جماعات المواطنين 296.4 مليون دولار في الدورة الانتخابية 2010 - أقل قليلا من 301.7 مليون دولار التي أنفقتها تلك الجماعات في عام 2008، ولكن أكثر من أربعة أضعاف 68.9 مليون دولار التي تنفقها المنظمات المماثلة في انتخابات التجديد النصفي 2006 .

- Still, the amount citizen groups spent in 2010 pales next to these enormous sums: \$1.35 billion spent by the two major political parties and an additional \$1.8 billion by

candidates for Congress. While citizens making independent expenditures increased their election spending to nearly \$300 million in 2010, that remains less than one-tenth of the more than \$3 billion spent by political parties and their candidates.

- ومع ذلك، فإن المبالغ التي أنفقتها جماعات المواطنين في عام 2010 ضئيلة مقابل هذه المبالغ الهائلة 135 مليون دولار تنفق من قبل اثنين من الأحزاب السياسية الرئيسية ومبلغ إضافي قدره 1.8 مليار دولار من قبل المرشحين لعضوية الكونغرس. في حين زاد إنفاق الانتخاب بالنسبة للمواطنين الذين يقومون بنفقات مستقلة بما يقارب 300 مليون دولار في عام 2010، التي لا تزال أقل من واحد على عشرة من أكثر من 3 مليارات دولار أنفقت من قبل الأحزاب السياسية ومرشحيها.

- In 2006, liberal interest groups tracked by the Center for Responsive Politics outspent conservative interest groups by a 2-to-1 margin. By 2010, the trend had reversed, and conservative groups were outspending the liberal groups 2 to 1.

- في عام 2006، أنفقت جماعات المصالح الليبرالية التي رصدها مركز السياسة المستجيبة أكثر من جماعات المصالح المحافظة بهامش 2 إلى 1. بحلول عام 2010 قد انعكس الاتجاه حيث أن الجماعات المحافظة أنفقت أكثر من الجماعات الليبرالية بنفس الهامش.

- As the Supreme Court has ruled, Congress should get out of the business of picking winners and losers in the marketplace of ideas and placing its thumb on the scale of federal elections.

- كما قضت المحكمة العليا، ينبغي على الكونغرس الخروج من عملية اختيار الفائزين والخاسرين في سوق الأفكار واتهام مقياس الانتخابات الفدرالية.

- The government argued in Citizens United that it could ban books advocating the election of a candidate if they were published by a corporation or labor union. Today, thanks to Citizens United, we may celebrate that the First Amendment confirms what our forefathers fought for: "the freedom to think for ourselves."

- وجادلت الحكومة في منظمة المواطنين المتحدون أنها يمكن أن تمنع الكتب التي تدعو إلى انتخاب مرشح إذا كانت نشرتها مؤسسة أو اتحاد العمال. بفضل منظمة المواطنين المتحدون اليوم نستطيع ان نحتفل بأن التعديل الأول للدستور يؤكد ما حارب من أجله أجدادنا ألا وهو "حرية التفكير لأنفسنا."

The subjects of the experimental group divided and translated the fourth text as follows:

**Thesis statement:**

- Are our schools really doing worse today than in the past? Actually, American schools are doing a better job today than in the past.
- هل حقا ان أداء مدارسنا أسوأ اليوم مما كانت عليه في الماضي؟ في الواقع، تقوم المدارس الأمريكية بعمل أفضل اليوم مما كانت عليه في الماضي.

**The arguments:**

- First, why don't American students do better on international tests? It's a fact that European and Asian countries, even war-torn and third-world countries, often do better than American high school students on math and science tests. How is this possible? When looking at the scores, we must examine who is taking the tests. In the early grades, a broad cross section of students in all countries is pretty much taking the tests. If you look at the scores, you'll see that the United States gets the top marks at this point. Starting in high school, however, the United States' scores plummet. It's also around high school that European and Asian schools have weeded out less-capable students from their education systems. However, American high schools include all students: those who are academically talented, those who don't speak English, those who are handicapped, and so on. So the comparison is not fair. The international tests compare the most talented European and Asian students with a broad cross section of American students.

- أولاً، لماذا لا يكون أداء الطلاب الأمريكيين أفضل في الاختبارات الدولية؟ انها حقيقة أن الدول الأوروبية والآسيوية و حتى البلدان التي مزقتها الحرب وبلدان العالم الثالث غالباً ما تكون أفضل من طلاب المدارس الثانوية الأمريكية في اختبارات الرياضيات والعلوم. كيف يكون هذا ممكناً؟ عند النظر في النقاط، يجب علينا أن ندرس الشخص الذي قام باجتياز الاختبارات. في المراحل المبكرة، شريحة واسعة من الطلاب في جميع البلدان الى حد كبير تقوم بالاختبارات. إذا نظرتم الى النتائج سترون أن الولايات المتحدة تحصل على أعلى الدرجات في هذه المرحلة لكن ابتداء من المدرسة الثانوية تسجل الولايات المتحدة انخفاضاً. كما ان المدارس الثانوية الأوروبية والآسيوية تقصي الطلاب أقل قدرة من أنظمتها التعليمية على عكس المدارس الثانوية الأمريكية التي تشمل جميع الطلاب: أولئك الذين هم الموهوبين أكاديمياً، وأولئك الذين لا يتحدثون اللغة الإنجليزية، أولئك الذين هم المعاقين، وهلم جرا. وبالتالي فإن المقارنة ليست عادلة حيث أن الاختبارات الدولية تقارن بين الطلاب الأوروبيين والآسيويين الموهوبين مع شريحة واسعة من الطلاب الأمريكيين.

- Even if we discount international comparisons, however, it sometimes seems as though schools are still doing a worse job today than they were in 1950. Is this true? No, it's not. Let's look first at domestic standardized test scores. In 1995, 75% more students scored above 650 on the SAT Math test than in 1941. If you factor out the Asian-American population, 57% of African-American, Hispanic, and white students did better on the SAT Math in 1995 than in 1941. The norms for the SAT Math test were the same between 1941 and 1995, so the higher scores are comparable. Test scores on the ACT college entrance exam have also increased each of the last three years.

حتى لو استثنينا المقارنات الدولية، ومع ذلك، فإنه يبدو أحيانا كما لو ان المدارس لا تزال تقوم بعمل أسوأ اليوم مما كانت عليه في عام 1950. هل هذا صحيح؟ لا ليس كذلك. دعونا ننظر أولا في نتائج الاختبارات الموحدة المحلية. في عام 1995، سجل 75% من الطلاب فوق 650 في اختبار الرياضيات في اختبارات التقييم المدرسي من عام 1941. إذا عدنا السكان الآسيويين والأمريكيين نجد 57% من الأميركيين الأفارقة، اللاتينيين، والطلاب البيض كانوا أفضل في اختبارات التقييم المدرسي في الرياضيات عام 1995 أكثر منه في عام 1941. وكانت معايير اختبارات التقييم المدرسي لاختبار الرياضيات نفسها بين 1941 و 1995، وبالتالي فإن ارتفاع درجات قابل للمقارنة. وقد زادت أيضا درجات الاختبار على امتحان القبول لاختبار الكلية الأمريكية في كل من السنوات الثلاث الماضية.

- Let's look at other indicators of success. First, students are learning more at school now than in the past. If you visit your local high school, you'll find that many students are taking college credit courses in high school. In fact, a high school student can begin college as a junior just based on coursework completed in high school. Today, students are expected to learn at least fifty more years of history than in 1950—and in the same amount of time.

Major events have occurred during the last 50 years—including the Korean War, the Vietnam War, the fall of communism. Calculus used to be college math—now most high schools offer two years of Calculus. DNA had not been discovered in 1950. Today, DNA, genetic engineering, and a host of other topics are standard fare in a first-year biology course—that’s a course that typically includes a textbook with more than 50 chapters and 1000 pages. In 1950, we classified all living things as either plants or animals; today, living things are classified into six different kingdoms, and some scientists are already postulating as many as eleven different kinds of life. On top of standard academics, students are also learning computer literacy and computer programming. Students are learning more academically today than ever before.

- دعونا نلقي نظرة على مؤشرات أخرى للنجاح. أولاً، الطلاب يتعلمون أكثر في المدرسة الآن مما كانت عليه في الماضي. إذا قمت بزيارة المدرسة الثانوية المحلية الخاصة بك، ستجد أن العديد من الطلاب يأخذون دورات الانتماء الكلية في المدرسة الثانوية. في الواقع، يمكن للطلاب في المدرسة الثانوية ان يبدأ الكلية كشاب فقط على أساس الدراسة المنتهية في المدرسة الثانوية. يتوقع من الطلبة اليوم ان يتعلموا على الاقل اكثر من خمسين عاما أخرى من التاريخ من عام 1950، وفي نفس الفترة الزمنية. لقد وقعت أحداث كبرى خلال الخمسين سنة الماضية منها الحرب الكورية، وحرب فيتنام، وسقوط الشيوعية. كان حساب التفاضل والتكامل يستخدم فقط في كلية الرياضيات لكن الآن معظم المدارس الثانوية تقدم عامين من حساب التفاضل والتكامل. لم يتم اكتشاف الحمض النووي في عام 1950 لكن اليوم فان الحمض النووي، والهندسة الوراثية، ومجموعة كبيرة من الموضوعات الأخرى هي مقاييس أساسية في علم الأحياء في السنة الأولى من دورة هذا المسار الذي يشمل عادة كتاب مع أكثر من 50 فصلا و 1000 صفحة. في عام 1950 تم تصنيف جميع الكائنات الحية إما كنباتات أو كحيوانات بينما اليوم يتم تصنيف الكائنات الحية إلى ستة ممالك مختلفة، وبعض

العلماء يفترضها بالفعل ما لا يقل عن أحد عشر نوعا مختلفا من الحياة. على رأس المقاييس الأكاديمية يتعلم الطلاب أيضا الحاسوبية وبرمجة الكمبيوتر. الطلاب يتعلمون أكاديميا اليوم أكثر من أي وقت مضى.

- In addition, graduation rates are rising. In 1870, only about 3% of high school students graduated from high school. In 1995, 83% did, and 60% of those went on to college. So more students are graduating and going to college, too.

- وبالإضافة إلى ذلك، فإن معدلات التخرج اخذة في الارتفاع. في عام 1870، تخرج 3% فقط من الطلاب من المدرسة الثانوية. في عام 1995، تخرج 83%، وتوجه 60% منهم الى الكلية. لذلك فان المزيد من الطلاب يتخرجون ويذهبون إلى الكلية أيضا.

- If public schools are doing so well, why are Americans unhappy with them? Americans feel that schools are doing a bad job because they aren't meeting the needs of their kids. But which needs are we talking about? That all depends on the child—and every child is different. The problem is there is no consensus on the criteria upon which our schools are to be judged. If a child is athletically inclined, a school should provide a strong athletic program and opportunities for that child to gain an athletic scholarship to college. Handicapped students need special programs, too. In fact, every child requires something special, and so the schools are left meeting too many needs.

- إذا كانت المدارس العامة ناجحة فذلك جيد لكن لماذا الأميركيين غير راضين عنهم؟ الأميركيون يشعرون بأن المدارس يقومون بعمل سيء لأنه لم يتم تلبية احتياجات أطفالهم. ولكن ما هي الاحتياجات التي نتحدث عنها؟ هذا كله يتوقف على



الطفل وكل طفل مختلف. المشكلة هي عدم وجود توافق في الآراء بشأن المعايير التي نحكم بها على مدارسنا. إذا كان للطفل ميول رياضية ينبغي أن توفر المدرسة برنامج رياضي قوي لهذا الطفل واعطاء الفرصة له للحصول على منحة رياضية إلى الكلية. الطلاب المعاقين في حاجة الى برامج خاصة أيضا. في الواقع كل طفل يتطلب شيء خاص و هكذا يجب على المدارس ان تحيط بعدد كبير جدا من الاحتياجات.

- As Americans, we do not want to leave any child out, and so federal law mandates that all public schools must accept all students and meet their needs, including non-academic needs. Public schools provide breakfast and lunch for students, accommodations and self-sufficiency training for handicapped students; public schools even bathe students and administer feeding tubes to those who can't eat. At the same time, we want the best for our children. Public schools are expected to provide special education, athletic, gifted and talented, vocational, music, and art programs, too, whereas our international competitors focus only on academics. We are not happy with our schools—even though they do so much more than those in other countries—because they are not perfect.

- كأمركيين نحن لا نريد أن نستثني أي طفل حيث ينص القانون الفدرالي على أن جميع المدارس العامة يجب أن تقبل جميع الطلبة وتلبي احتياجاتهم، بما في ذلك الاحتياجات الغير أكاديمية. توفر المدارس الحكومية الإفطار والغداء للطلاب، والإقامة والتدريب للاكتفاء الذاتي للطلاب المعاقين. حتى ان المدارس العامة توفر الاستحمام للطلاب وتدير أنابيب التغذية لأولئك الذين لا يستطيعون تناول الطعام. في الوقت نفسه، ونحن نريد أفضل لأطفالنا. ومن المتوقع أن توفر هذه المدارس التعليم الخاص وبرامج رياضية، برامج للموهوبين والمتفوقين، وبرامج التعليم المهني، والموسيقى، والبرامج الفنية أيضا، في حين يركز منافسينا الدوليين على الأكاديميين فقط. نحن لسنا راضيين على مدارسنا على الرغم من أنها تفعل أكثر من ذلك بكثير من تلك الموجودة في بلدان أخرى، لأنها ليست مثالية.

The subjects find it easy to determine the text-type of the texts after dealing with the first two texts. They also identify the expressions used in the argumentative discourse like: ‘he

argued...’, ‘rebuttal’, ‘but that would not ...’, ‘to prove that...’, ‘he believes that...’, ‘it leaves no room for...’, ‘to have such a debate would...’ in the first text. The sentence ‘politicians do not fight elections in order to be the opposition’ clearly gives the subjects the text-type of the second text. The use of statistics in the body of the texts reflects the presence of arguments that supports an idea as it is the case in the third text. The fourth text which is different from the first three texts, presents the argumentative text in its academic form not the same used in editorials. It has an introduction that includes the thesis statement at the end and a conclusion that supports the idea of the writer presented in the introduction and supported in the body paragraphs. In presenting the arguments, the writer used expressions such as: ‘it’s a fact that...’, ‘however’, ‘in fact’, ‘in addition’, and presented some statistics to explain and support the arguments.

After examining the four texts and identifying their parts, the subjects are asked to translate the thesis statements and the arguments into Arabic. Their translations improved as they get informed of the context and the cultural aspects of each text. In addition, at the reading phase of the text, the students applied their knowledge about Pragmatics and speech acts in order to understand the source text underlying meaning and render it in the target language. So, these subjects identified ‘arguing’ as the illocutionary force of each text and ‘convincing’ as the perlocutionary act that targets the audience.

In each translation session, the subjects of the experimental group were given instructions about the argumentative discourse with its features, expressions and form; also about pragmatics and speech acts in order to show the importance to reflect such knowledge in the translation of argumentative texts.

After finishing the treatment, both the subjects of the experimental group and the control group were asked to answer the post-test.

### **3.4.3.2. The Post-test**

The post-test, which is directed to both control and experimental groups, is structured as follows: providing the subjects with an argumentative text and asking them to answer nine questions related to the text. First of all, after asking the students to read the text in order to answer the questions, the first question is about determining the type of the text being analyzed. The second question concerns extracting the thesis statement and its translation is the task of the third question. Question four will investigate the dominant illocutionary act used in the text. To prove the choice of the respondents, question 5 asks them to extract the sentences that include this illocutionary force. Question 6 will be devoted to the translation of the selected statements. Question 7 asks the subjects to specify the perlocutionary effect they have after reading the text and extracting the sentences including the illocutionary force. Question 8 tries to explore the awareness of these EFL learners to differentiate between the said and the unsaid, between the intended meaning and the reaction that should follow. Finally, question 9 attempts to know whether the subjects are aware about the link between argumentation as a speech act and its translation into Arabic.

### **3.5. Method of Analysis**

This research is of both quantitative and qualitative nature in that it gives measurements and investigations taking into account the type of questions in both pre-test and post-test. The research framework is composed of two interrelated elements: analysis and interpretation of data findings. According to Williams and Chesterman (2002: 64), qualitative research aims at describing “the quality of something in some enlightening way” which is more subjective.

However, they (ibid. 64) see that quantitative research aims at being “able to say something about the generality of a given phenomenon or feature about a typical or widespread it is, how much of it there is, about regularities tendencies, frequencies and distributions”. It is also more objective as it uses measures and statistics.

In the fifth chapter, the translation of the thesis statements and arguments of the pre-test and post-test is provided along with the students’ translations. Then, a comparison between both translations will take place to evaluate their performance by highlighting the mistakes they have made that sometimes destroy the meaning of the source text. To support the results of the performance of the subjects, we used statistics including frequencies, percentages and illustrating charts.

To analyze the data of this research, we used SPSS analysis which is, according to Antonius (2003), a very significant means that provides descriptive statistics using tables, charts and numerical measures. The SPSS gives statistics on the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, variance, range and frequency. It also calculates group statistics, paired and independent samples statistics and more importantly the t-test. Using all these measures, we testify the validity of research hypotheses. In addition to measure, a visual presentation to data will facilitate the understanding of the results. So, the histograms presented by SPSS analysis facilitate the task of interpreting the pre-test and the post-test scores.

SPSS is used to test if the hypotheses of the present research really hold true by using what is known as confirmatory statistics or simply hypothesis-testing statistics. Miller et al. (2002:116-7) define a hypothesis as “a statement of a relationship between population

parameters or variables- a statement or prediction of what you expect to find. This statement typically takes the form of predicting *differences* between groups or of *relationships* between variables.” In doing so, the t-test then is “designed to test whether the differences between the means of two groups are real, or *statistically significant*” as Miller et al. (ibid. :117) add.

A central idea that a researcher should know about hypothesis-testing statistics is that he/she can make mistakes. Two types of errors are to be distinguished. Miller et al. (ibid. 118) summarize the two types as follows: first, “Type I Error occurs if you accept a hypothesis as being correct when it is really false” and second “Type II Error if you reject a hypothesis as being wrong when it is actually true.” However, using statistical significance will solve this problem. Following the rule of probability  $p$ , as Miller et al. (ibid. :118) explain, “the smaller the size of the level of significance, the less likely it is that a Type I Error has been made and the more likely it is that our hypothesis really is true.” This can be illustrated as follows:

- $p < 0.05$  means a 5 in 100 (1 in 20) chance of a Type I Error
- $p < 0.01$  means a 1 in 100 chance of a Type I Error
- $p < 0.001$  means a 1 in 1000 chance of a Type I Error

These values of Type I Error will be used in analyzing the results of the SPSS tests in Chapter Five and thus in testifying the validity of the research hypotheses.

### **3.6. Limitations and Potential Problems**

Like any other research, we have encountered some problems one of which is the subjects themselves: we cannot know or be sure about the honesty of the respondents in

answering the questions of the questionnaires, the pre-test and the post-test. However, we attempt to decrease the influence of such answers by asking the respondents to provide a justification or an explanation to each close question in which they answer using 'yes' or 'no' or just putting a tick in the right box. It is worth mentioning that unwanted variables are not taken into account as there is no control on them. However, we have done our best to control other aspects like limiting the whole population of interest by selecting a random sample of two groups (80 students) in order to avoid being biased and achieve objectivity. Finally, this research matches the appropriateness of the problematic issue with the research method used in relation to the research tools.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter gives a detailed picture of the practical field of the present research. Identifying the population, the sample, the setting, the research tools and the methodology, puts the research work in its scope. It also includes details of the treatment of the experimental group in which the subjects identify the thesis statements and the arguments of the four English argumentative texts and translate them into Arabic. This helps them to be aware of the text-type and its linguistic features. Moving from one text to another facilitates their task of recognizing the illocutionary force of arguing in the text and understanding the perlocutionary effect of convincing the target audience. Moreover, it provides the functional framework for chapter Four 'The Analysis of the Students Questionnaire' and Chapter Five 'The Analysis of the Experiment' which describe, analyze and interpret the results of the questionnaire, the pre-test and the post-test. After analyzing the answers of the subjects and especially the translation of the thesis statements and arguments of both texts in the pre-test and the post-test compared to a modal

translation, we use the SPSS software to test if the hypotheses of the present research are true or not.

# *Chapter Four*

## *The Analysis of the Students*

### *Questionnaire*



## **Chapter Four**

### **The Analysis of the Students Questionnaire**

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## Chapter Four

### Students Questionnaire Analysis

#### Introduction

This chapter is devoted to analyze the questionnaire administered to Algerian third year students of English at Mentouri Brothers University-Constantine. The questionnaire which is composed of 17 questions provides an idea about these learners' background in translation, pragmatics and discourse analysis. It helps in collecting information about the level of subjects. In this chapter, we analyze each question providing the students answers in the form of frequencies and percentages followed by pie charts to illustrate the results. Meanwhile, a description and analysis to tables and figures are also provided.

#### 4.1. The Analysis of the Students Questionnaire

##### ➤ Question 1

Do you think that translation is:

- A process
- A product
- Both

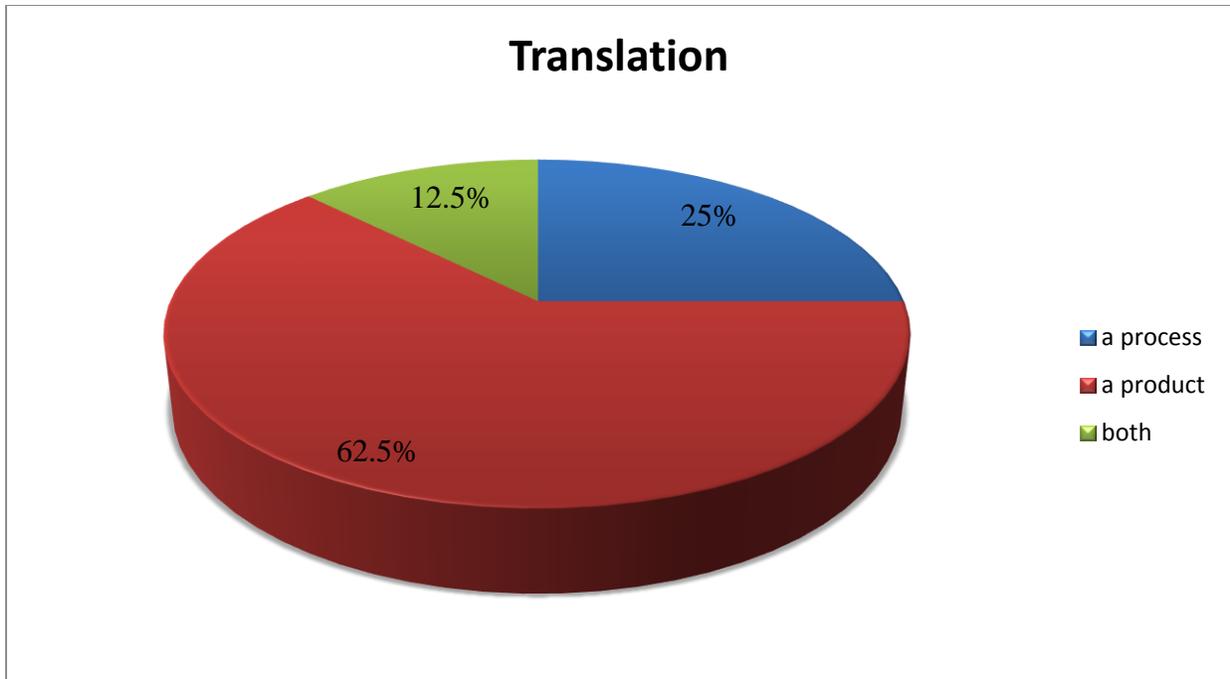
According to the following table, the majority of subjects see translation as a product rather than as a process. They put much focus on what the translator produce rather than the process he/she follows in order to translate. Hence, the subjects give more importance to the target text.

20 of the respondents see that translation is a process, and 50 of them think that translation is a product; and only 10 of the subjects claim that translation is both a process and a product.

|                  | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>A process</b> | 20                 | 25                   |
| <b>A product</b> | 50                 | 62.5                 |
| <b>Both</b>      | 10                 | 12.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>   | 80                 | 100                  |

**Table 1: The Nature of Translation**

The fact that the majority of the subjects consider translation as a product means that they ignore that it is also a process. Before providing the translation of the source text in the target language, the translator should go through a process that assure a global understanding of the source text from different angles and most importantly make decisions that help the translator be faithful to the source text and provide the best translation in the target language. Subjects at this stage do not know how to translate but they just try to translate the source text into a target language. For a visual illustration of the table results, the following pie chart give a clear picture that the majority of the subjects clearly see translation as a product rather than a process while the minority of them see that translation is both a process and a product.



**Figure 9: Nature of Translation**

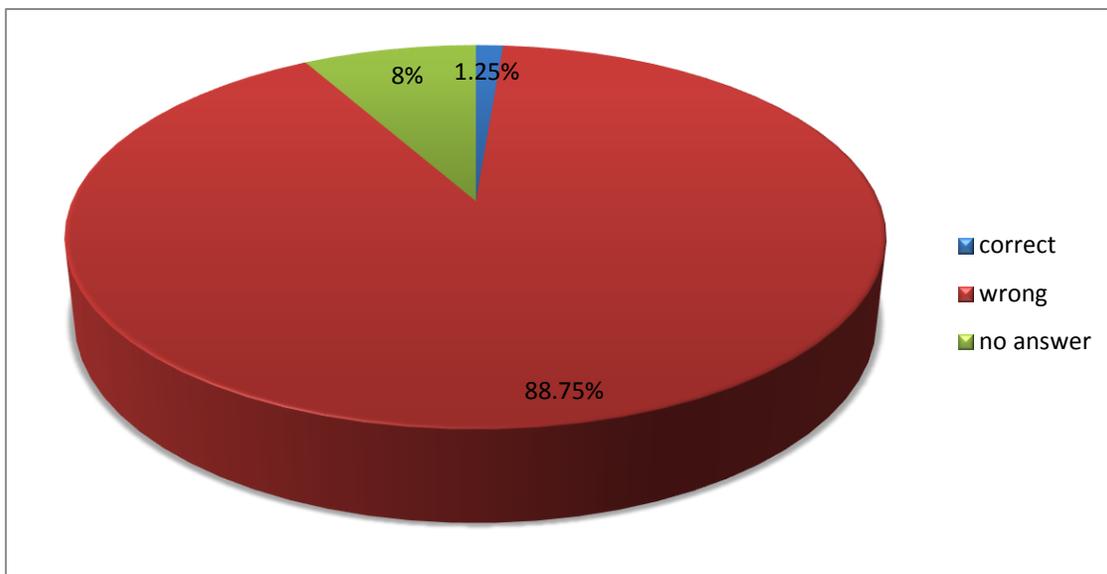
➤ **Question 2**

What is the difference between arguing and persuading?

|                  | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|------------------|-------------|---------------|
| <b>Correct</b>   | 01          | 1.25          |
| <b>Wrong</b>     | 71          | 88.75         |
| <b>No answer</b> | 8           | 10            |
| <b>Total N</b>   | 80          | 100           |

**Table 2: Subjects' Scores on Differentiating between Arguing and Persuading**

Question two shows that 60 respondents do not make the difference between arguing and persuading while only 20 of the subjects know the difference between to argue and to persuade. Among the 60 subjects who did not show any difference between arguing and persuading, 52 of them give wrong explanation while 8 subjects give no answer.



**Figure 10: Difference between Argumentation and Persuasion**

The following figure illustrates the percentages found in table 2 that shows clearly that the subjects do not know the difference between persuasion and argumentation as the majority gives wrong or no answer. This shows that EFL learners do not have enough knowledge about argumentation. When learners do not recognize the type of text being translated, then they will not know its features and purpose to the point that they may convey the message of the source text in the wrong way which may result in wrong translation. However, persuasion and argumentation do differ from each other in different aspects as the figure provided by Smerkens Education Solutions Inc. (see figure 3). On the contrary to native speakers whose task to recognize the type of text and be able to differentiate between persuasion and argumentation is easy, EFL learners find difficulties in doing so. However, this research work tries to prove that if

these EFL learners are aware and more exposed to argumentative discourse, they will be able to recognize it.

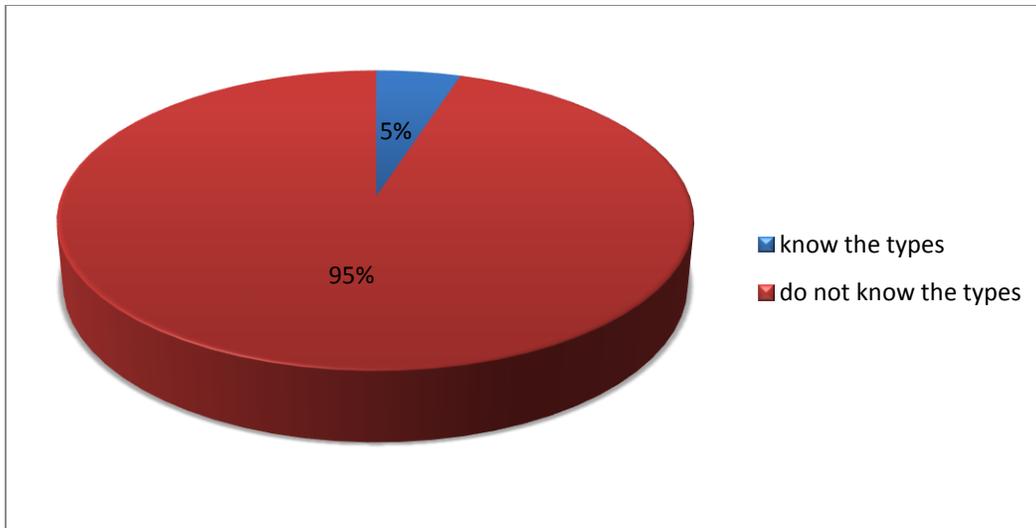
➤ **Question 3**

What are the types of argumentative discourse you know?

|   | <b>Examples</b>                              | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages</b><br>% |
|---|--|--------------------|-------------------------|
| <b>Know types of argumentation</b>        | News report, Editorials,<br>political speech | 4                  | 5                       |
| <b>Do not know types of argumentation</b> |  | 76                 | 95                      |
| <b>Total N</b>                            |  | 80                 | 100                     |

**Table 3: Subjects' Examples of Argumentative Discourse**

Learners, in question 3, show a lack of knowledge concerning argumentative discourse. The above table shows that only 4 subjects or 5% identify some types of argumentation and 76 of them, that is, 95% of them do not recognize any type. The subjects who claim to know some types of argumentative discourse give examples like: editorials and political speech.



**Figure 11: Types of Argumentative Discourse**

The above figure shows clearly that almost all EFL learners do not know the types of argumentative discourse

➤ **Question 4**

Do you think that English editorials have the same features as Arabic editorials?

Agree

Disagree

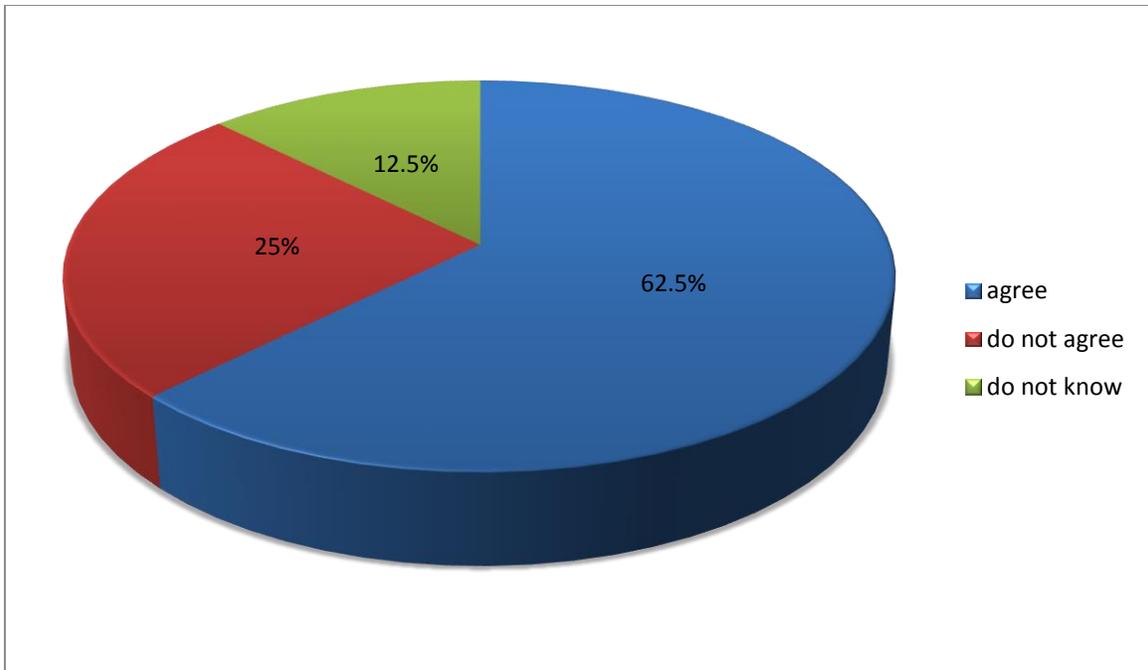
Do not know

|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 50                 | 62.5                 |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 20                 | 25                   |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | 10                 | 12.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>      | 80                 | 100                  |

**Table 4: The Difference between Features of English and Arabic Editorials**

In question four, 62.5% of the respondents agree that English editorials have the same features as Arabic editorials while 25% of the subjects do not agree. 12.5% of the respondents do not have an idea whether there is similarity between English and Arabic editorials or not. The following figure that illustrates the percentages provided in the above table, shows that the majority of EFL learners who think that English and Arabic editorials share the same features, ignore the fact that English and Arabic languages have different structures. This, again, proves that EFL learners have poor knowledge in English when compared to their mother tongue Arabic.





**Figure 12: English and Arabic Editorials' Features**

➤ **Question 5**

If no, explain in which ways they differ.

|                                   | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percentage %</b> |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|---------------------|
| <b>Know the difference</b>        | 3                | 15                  |
| <b>Do not know the difference</b> | 17               | 85                  |
| <b>Total N</b>                    | <b>20</b>        | <b>100</b>          |

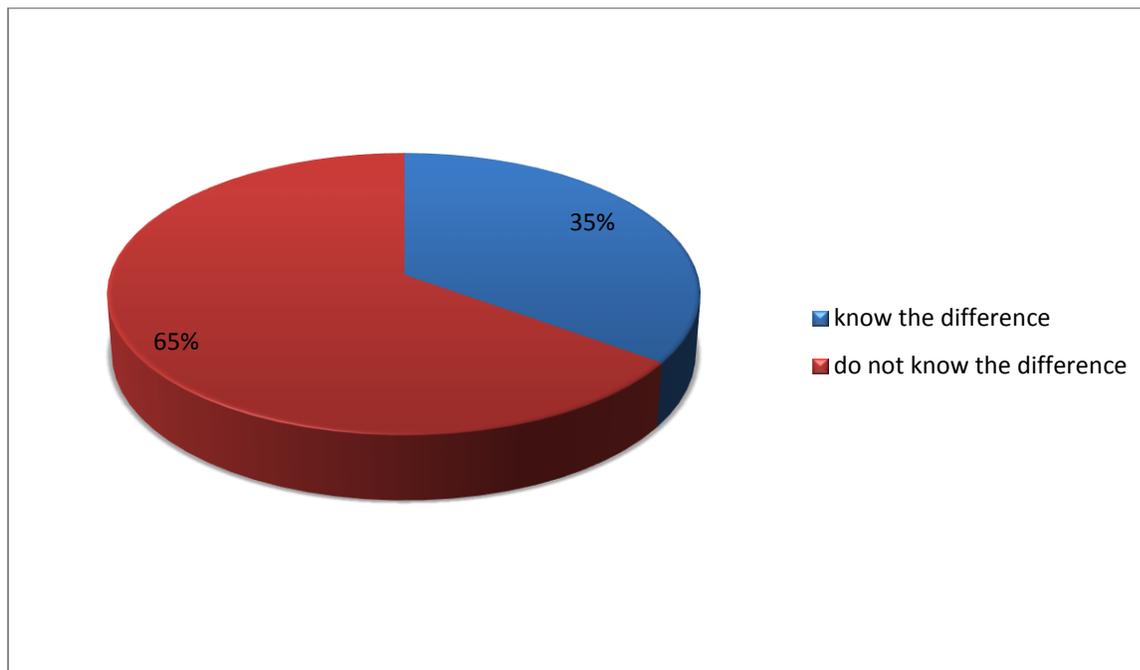
**Table 5 : The Difference between English and Arabic Editorials**

For those 20 subjects (25%) who do not agree that English and Arabic editorials have the same features in question 4, in question 5 in which they are asked to explain their stand, 3 learners of them (15%) know some differences, and 17 of them (85%) do not provide any

explanation. The minority of the respondents, who think that English and Arabic editorials have not the same features, see that they differ in sentence structures,

|                                   | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Know the difference</b>        | 7                  | 35                   |
| <b>Do not know the difference</b> | 13                 | 65                   |
| <b>Total N</b>                    | 20                 | 100                  |

**Table 6: Subjects' Explanation of the Difference between English and Arabic Editorials' Features**



**Figure 13: Justification of the Difference between English and Arabic Editorials' Features**

➤ **Question 6**

Do you agree that Arabic structure of argumentative texts is not the same as the English one?

Agree

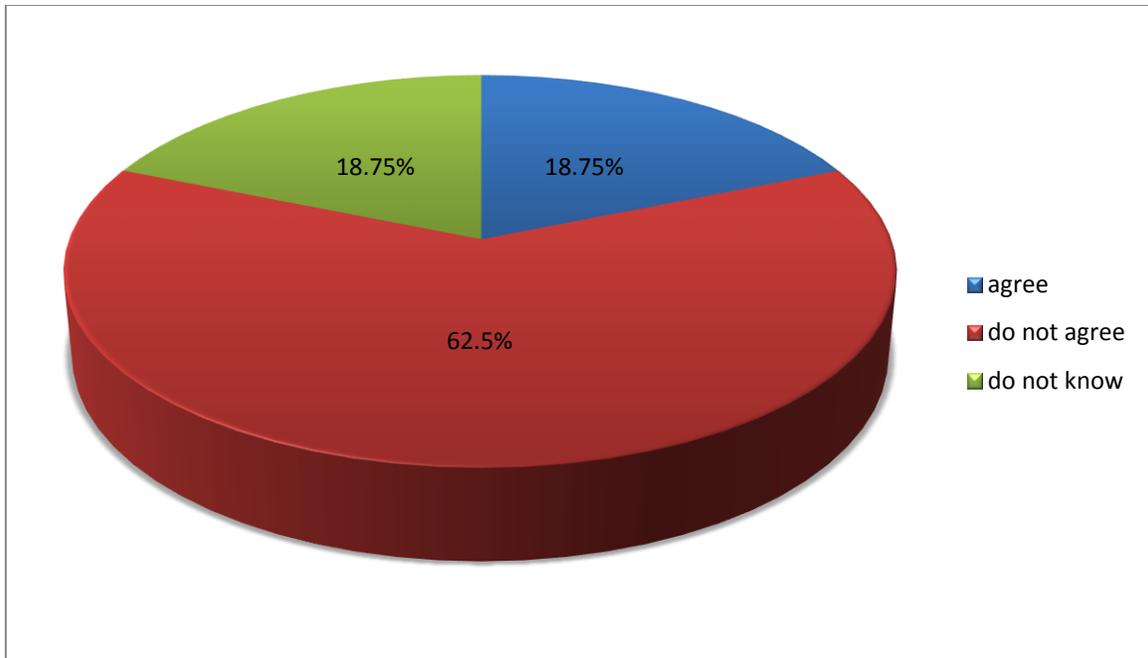
Do not agree

Do not know

|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 15                 | 18.75                |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 50                 | 62.5                 |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | 15                 | 18.75                |
| <b>Total N</b>      | 80                 | 100                  |

**Table 7: Arabic and English Argumentative Structure**

In question 6, 15 of the subjects agree that Arabic and English argumentative texts do not have the same structure whereas 50 of the respondents do not agree as they claim that Arabic and English argumentation have the same structure. 15 of them do not know whether Arabic and English structures of argumentation are the same or not.



**Figure 14: Arabic and English Argumentative Structure**

➤ **Question 7**

Do you think that it is important that the reader identifies the type of the text being translated and specify its dominant speech act?

Agree

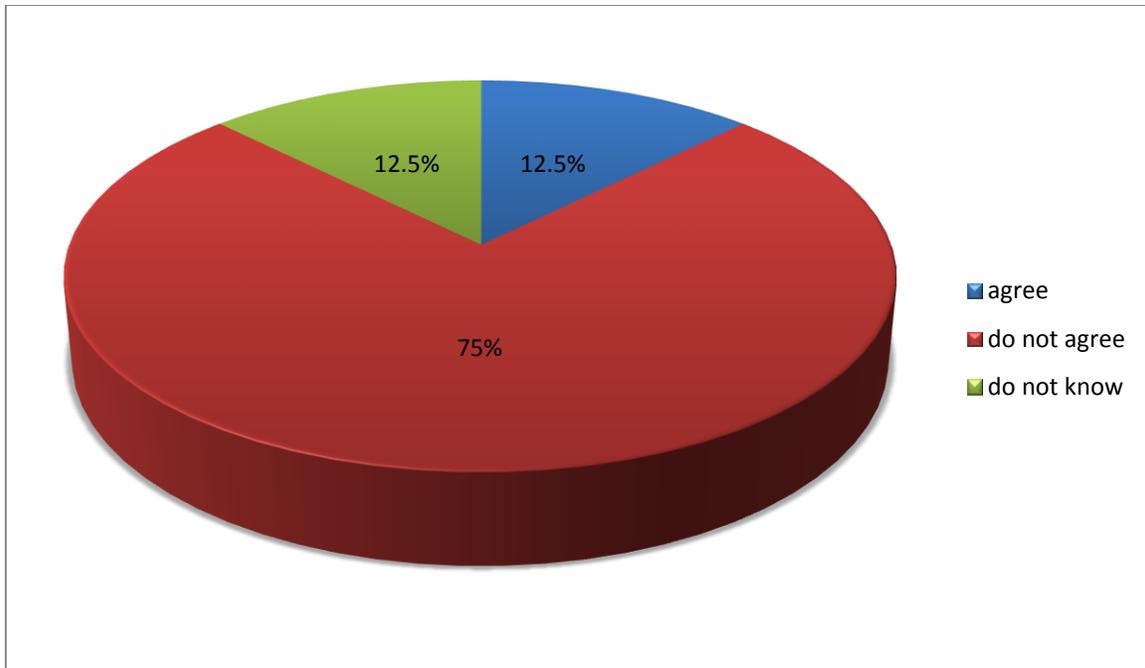
Disagree

Do not know

|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 10                 | 12.5                 |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 60                 | 75                   |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | 10                 | 12.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>      | 80                 | 100                  |

**Table 8: The Importance of Identifying the Text Type and its Dominant Speech Act**

For the seventh question, the table shows that only 10 students agree that it is important that the reader identifies the text type of the text being translated while the majority of the respondents 75% (60 students) do not agree on the importance of identifying the text type of the source text. Though, 10 subjects do not know whether it is important or not.



**Figure 15: The Importance of Identifying the Text type and the Dominant Speech Act**

➤ **Question 8**

Do you agree that argumentation is based on the illocutionary act of arguing rather than other speech acts?

Agree

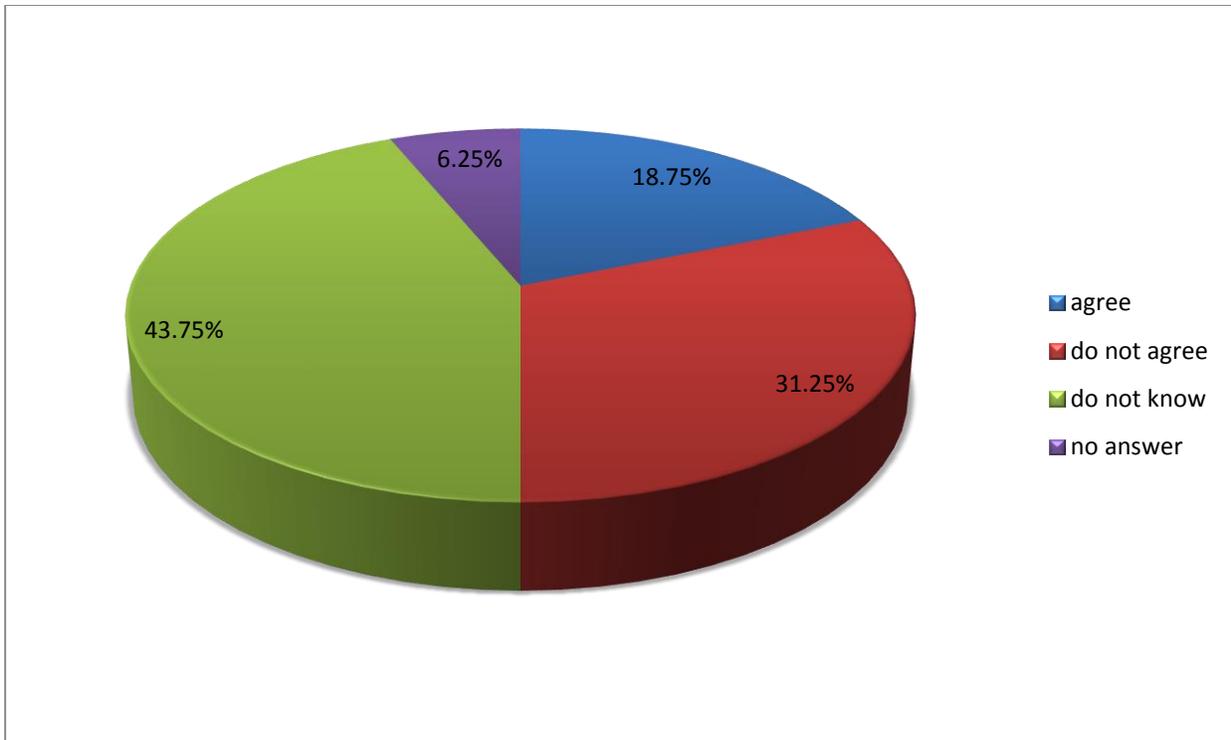
Do not agree

Do not know

|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 15                 | 18.75                |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 25                 | 31.25                |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | 35                 | 43.75                |
| <b>No answer</b>    | 5                  | 6.25                 |
| <b>Total N</b>      | 80                 | 100                  |

**Table 9: The Basic Speech Act of Argumentation**

The above table shows that 15 subjects (18.75%) agree that argumentation is based on illocutionary act of arguing than other speech acts. however, 25 subjects (31.25%) do not agree on that and see that argumentation is not only based on illocutionary act of arguing. The majority of subjects (43.75%) do not know whether the illocutionary act of arguing is the basis of argumentation or not while 5 respondents give no answer to the question.



**Figure 16: Basic Speech Act of Argumentation**

➤ **Question 9**

Do you think that knowing all types of speech acts is a condition in translating argumentative discourse?

Agree

Do not agree

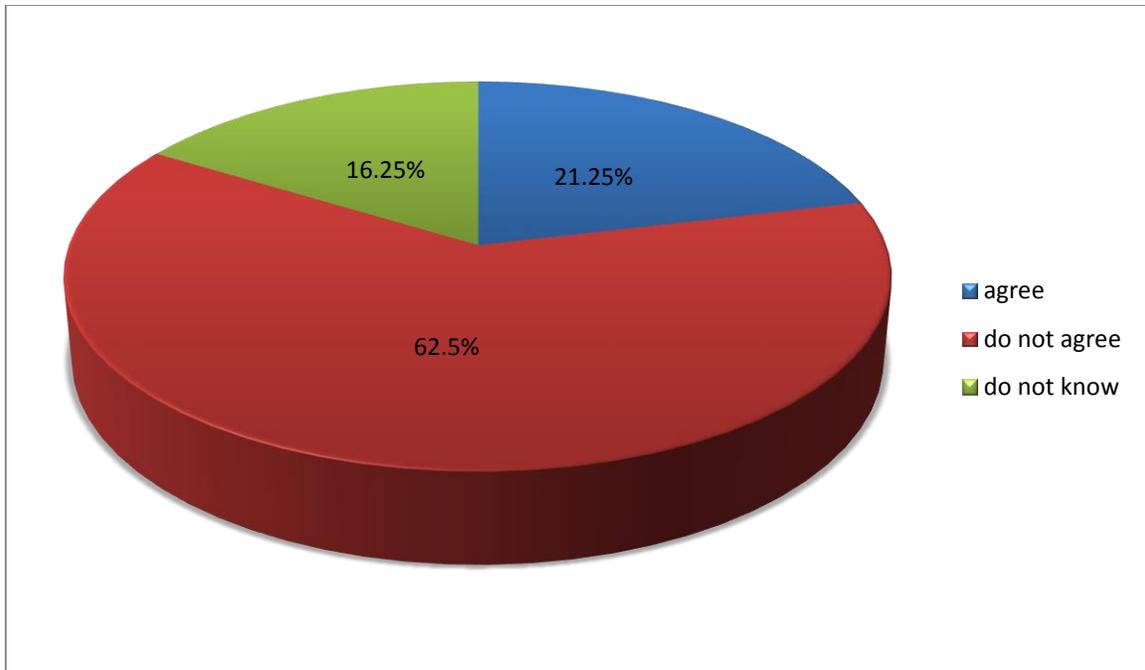
Do not know



|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 17                 | 21.25                |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 50                 | 62.5                 |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | 13                 | 16.25                |
| <b>Total N</b>      | 80                 | 100                  |

**Table 10: Speech Acts as a Condition in Translating Argumentative Texts**

Answers to question 9 reveal that 17 subjects (21.25%) agree that one should know all types of speech acts in order to translate argumentative discourse. However, 50 subjects (62.5%) do not agree and see that to know all the types of speech acts is not a condition in translating argumentative discourse. 13 subjects (16.25%) do not know if it is a condition or not.



**Figure 17: Speech Acts as a Condition in Translating Argumentative Texts**

➤ **Question 10**

Do you agree that it is possible to translate any text without knowing its speech acts?

Agree

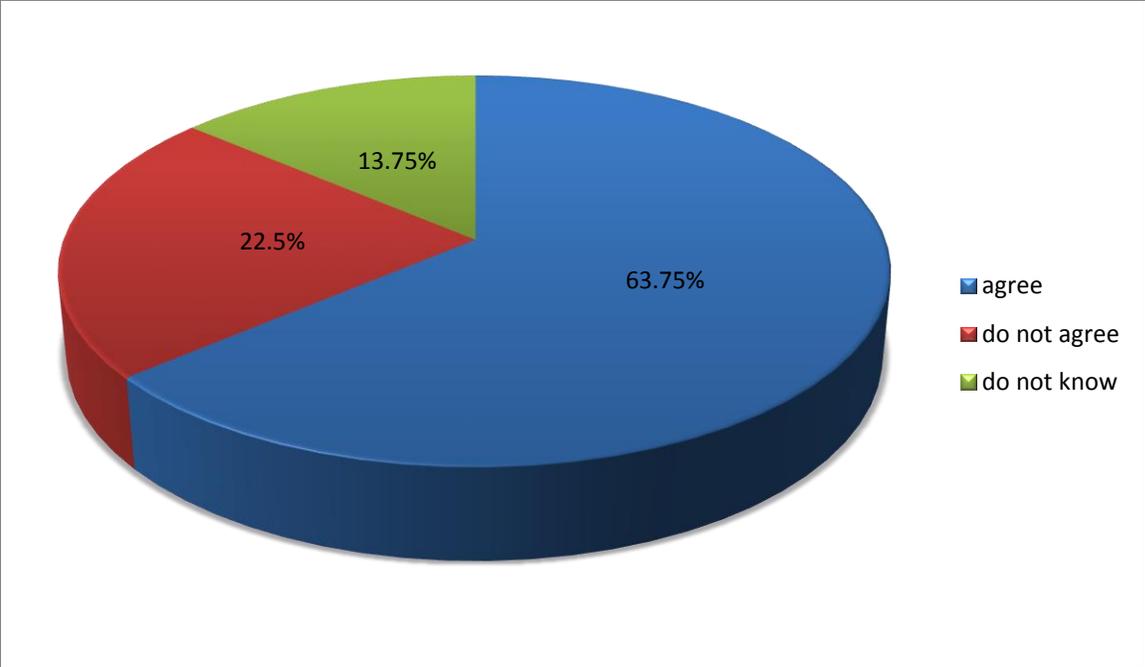
Do not agree

Do not know

|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 51                 | 63.75                |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 18                 | 22.5                 |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | 11                 | 13.75                |
| <b>Total N</b>      | 80                 | 100                  |

**Table 11: The Importance of Knowing the Speech Acts of Text in its Translation**

In question 10, 63.75% of the respondents agree that it is possible to translate any text without knowing its speech acts while 22.5% see that it is impossible to do so. 13.75% of the subjects have no idea whether it is possible or not to translate any text without recognizing its speech acts.



**Figure 18: The Importance of knowing Speech Acts of a Text in its Translation**

➤ **Question 11**

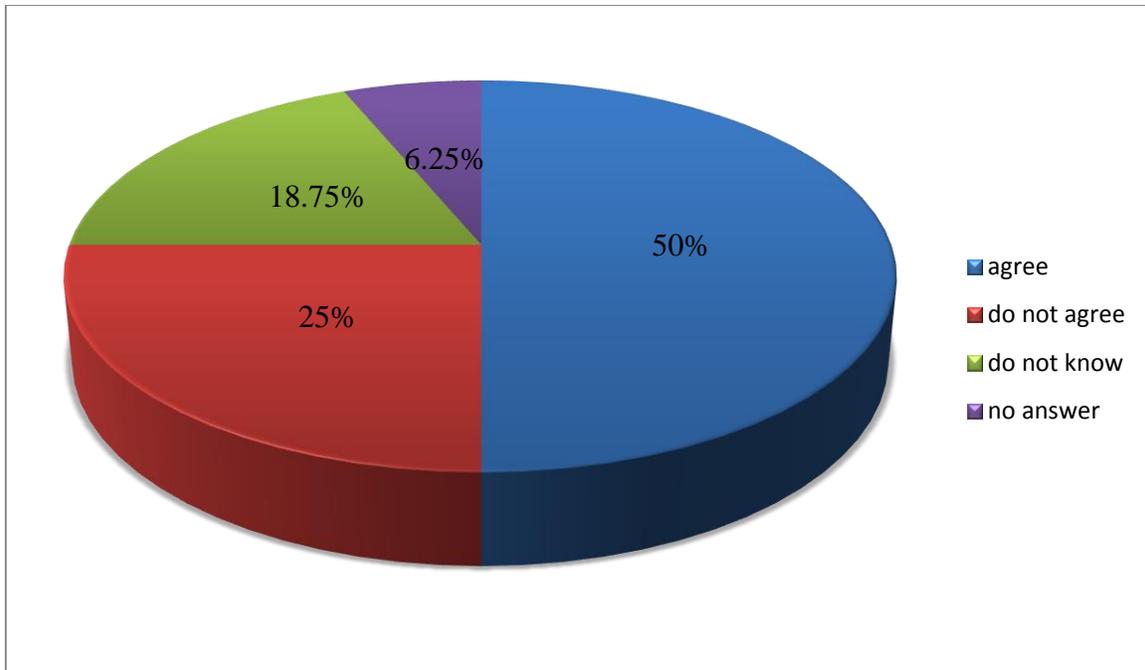
Do you think it is not necessary to know the underlying meaning of the utterance/sentence to translate it in a faithful and equivalent way?

- Agree
- Disagree
- Do not know

|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 40                 | 50                   |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 20                 | 25                   |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | 15                 | 18.75                |
| <b>No answer</b>    | 5                  | 6.25                 |
| <b>Total N</b>      | <b>80</b>          | <b>100</b>           |

**Table 12: The Importance of Knowing the Underlying Meaning in Translation**

For question 11, while 50% of the respondents see that it is not necessary to know the underlying meaning of the utterance/sentence in order to translate it in a successful way, 25% of the subjects do not agree on that and think that it is necessary to know the underlying meaning in translation. 15 subjects do not know whether it is necessary or not whereas 5 subjects give no answer for this question.



**Figure 19: The Importance of Knowing the Underlying Meaning in Translation**

➤ **Question 12**

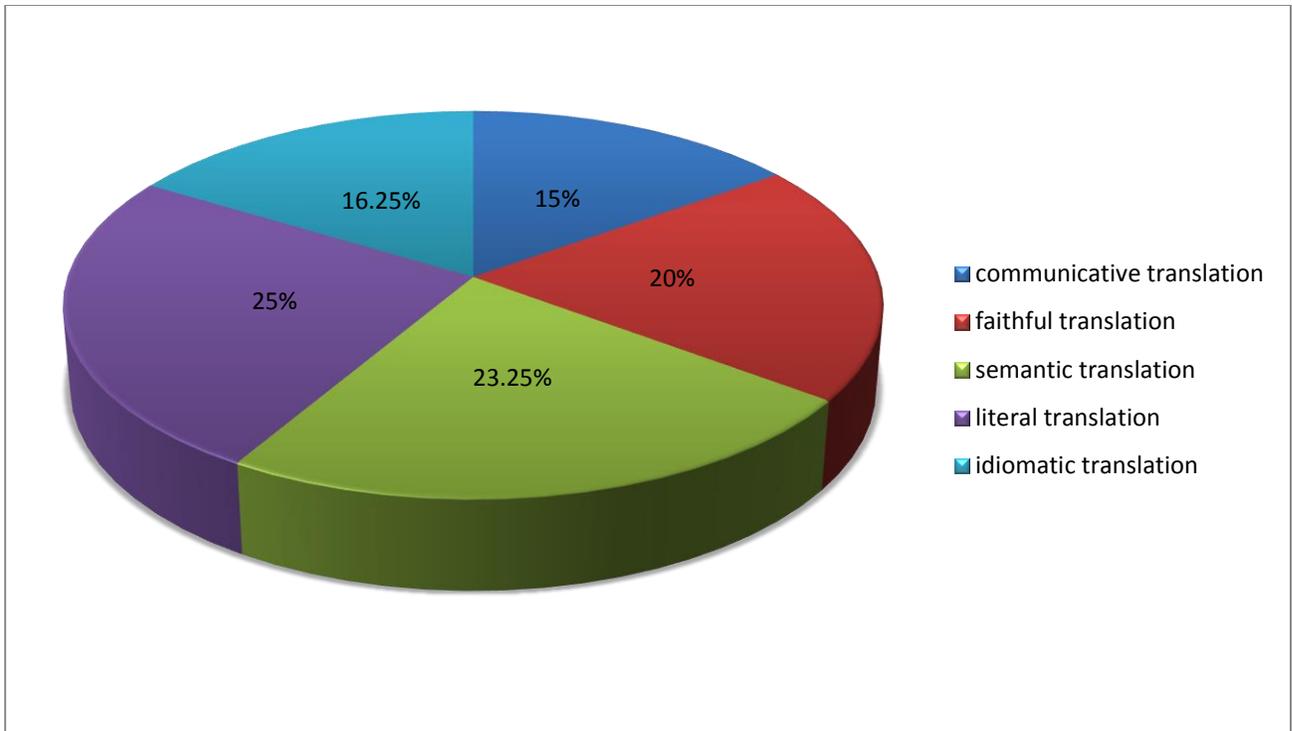
What are the strategies you, as an EFL learner, use in translating argumentative texts?

- Communicative translation
- Faithful translation
- Semantic translation
- Literal translation
- Idiomatic translation

|                                  | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|----------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Communicative translation</b> | 12                 | 15                   |
| <b>Faithful translation</b>      | 16                 | 20                   |
| <b>Semantic translation</b>      | 19                 | 23.75                |
| <b>Literal translation</b>       | 20                 | 25                   |
| <b>Idiomatic translation</b>     | 13                 | 16.25                |
| <b>Total N</b>                   | 80                 | 100                  |

**Table 13: Strategies in the Translation of Argumentative Texts**

The above table shows that communicative translation has the least percentage 15% (12 subjects) and literal translation has the majority 25% (20 subjects). The rest of respondents chose between faithful translation (16 subjects), semantic translation (19 subjects) and idiomatic translation (13 subjects). However, according to previous answers, the choice of the strategies is just haphazardly. The percentages are illustrated in the following pie chart that shows that EFL learners are not interested in using communicative translation as a strategy in translating argumentative texts.



**Figure 20: Strategies in the Translation of Argumentative Texts**

➤ **Question 13**

Do you think that literal translation is enough to translate argumentative discourse?

Agree

Disagree

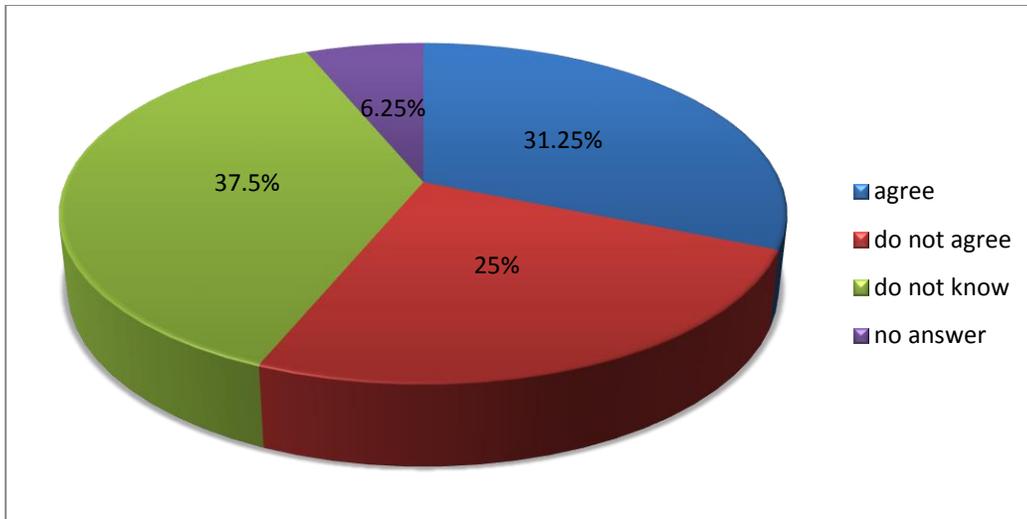
Do not know



|                     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Agree</b>        | 25                 | 31.25                |
| <b>Do not agree</b> | 20                 | 25                   |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | 30                 | 37.5                 |
| <b>No answer</b>    | 5                  | 6.25                 |
| <b>Total N</b>      | <b>80</b>          | <b>100</b>           |

**Table 14: Literal Translation**

The above table shows that 25 subjects think that literal translation is enough as a strategy to translate argumentative discourse. 20 subjects do not agree on just using literal translation. While 30 subjects do not know whether this strategy is enough or not, 5 subjects give no answer to the question. We observe that the majority of the subjects 37.5% has little, if not, no information about translation strategies and the difference between using one or another. This is clearly illustrated in the following figure.



**Figure 21: Literal Translation**

➤ **Question 14**

Which step of translation you give more importance?

Analyzing the text

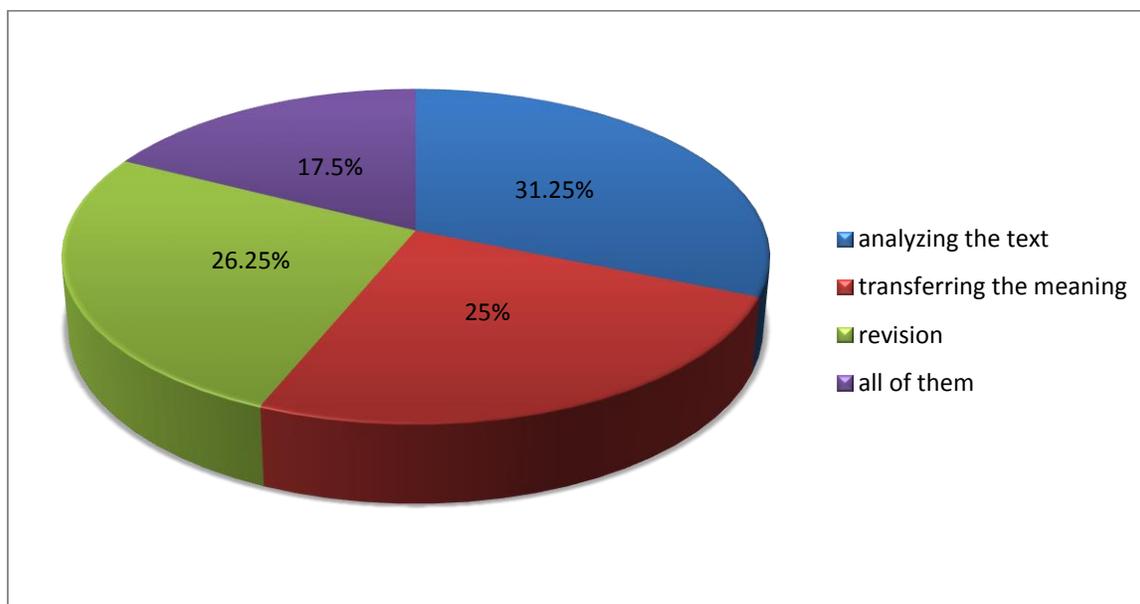
Transferring the meaning

Revision

|                                 | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Analyzing the text</b>       | 25                 | 31.25                |
| <b>Transferring the meaning</b> | 20                 | 25                   |
| <b>Revision</b>                 | 21                 | 26.25                |
| <b>All of them</b>              | 14                 | 17.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>                  | <b>80</b>          | <b>100</b>           |

**Table 15: Steps of Translation**

The following figure illustrates the percentages provided in the above table.



**Figure 22: Steps of Translation**

➤ **Question 15**

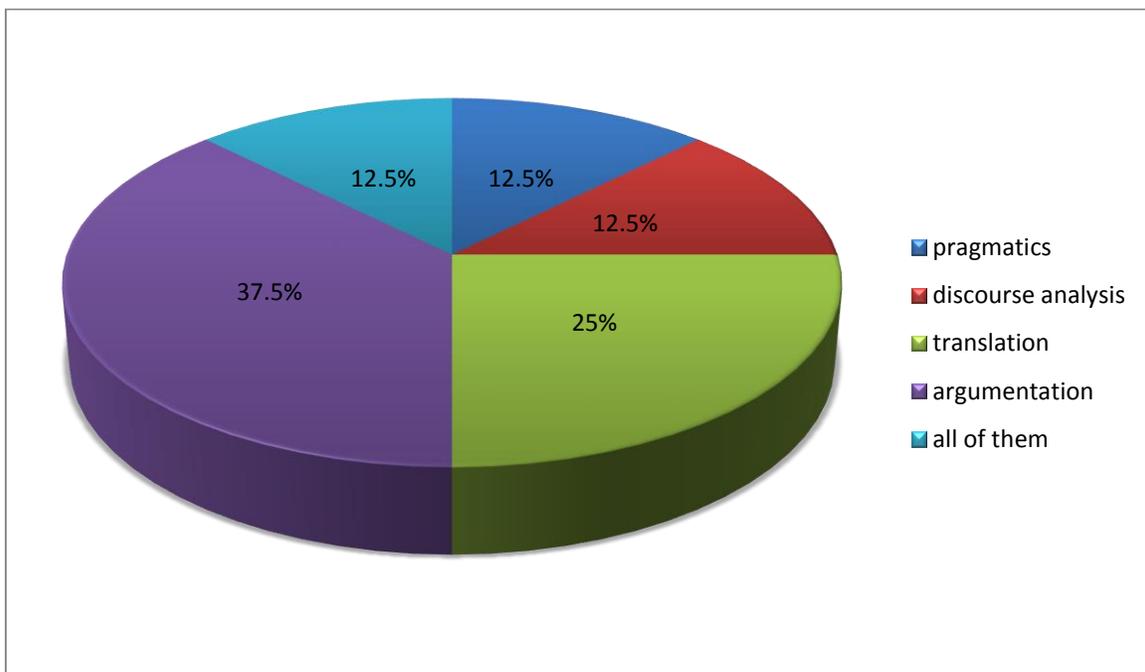
Which aspect do you think EFL learner needs to know all about in order to translate argumentative texts?

- Pragmatics
- Discourse analysis
- Translation
- Argumentation
- All of them

|                           | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Pragmatics</b>         | <b>10</b>          | <b>12.5</b>          |
| <b>Discourse Analysis</b> | <b>10</b>          | <b>12.5</b>          |
| <b>Translation</b>        | <b>20</b>          | <b>25</b>            |
| <b>Argumentation</b>      | <b>30</b>          | <b>37.5</b>          |
| <b>All of them</b>        | <b>10</b>          | <b>12.5</b>          |
| <b>Total N</b>            | <b>80</b>          | <b>100</b>           |

**Table 16: Important Fields in the Translation of Argumentative Texts**

Table 15 shows that the 30 subjects see that argumentation is more important than other fields in translating English argumentative texts and 20 of them think that translation is more important. While 10 subjects claim that pragmatics is more important in the translation of argumentative texts, 10 other subjects give credit to discourse analysis. The remaining 10 subjects think that all fields are important in the process of translating argumentative discourse. The following figure illustrates the subjects' answers into percentages and as it is to be noticed the majority 37.5% referred to the subjects who chose argumentation and then 25% illustrates the percentage of the subjects who chose translation. The choice of pragmatics and discourse analysis has 12.5% for each one. However, those subjects who said that all fields are important make a percentage of 12.5% which can be considered as a minority.



**Figure 23: Important Fields in the Translation of Argumentative Texts**

➤ **Question 16**

Classify these features that characterize the argumentative discourse from the most important to the least important (use numbers from 1 to 8).

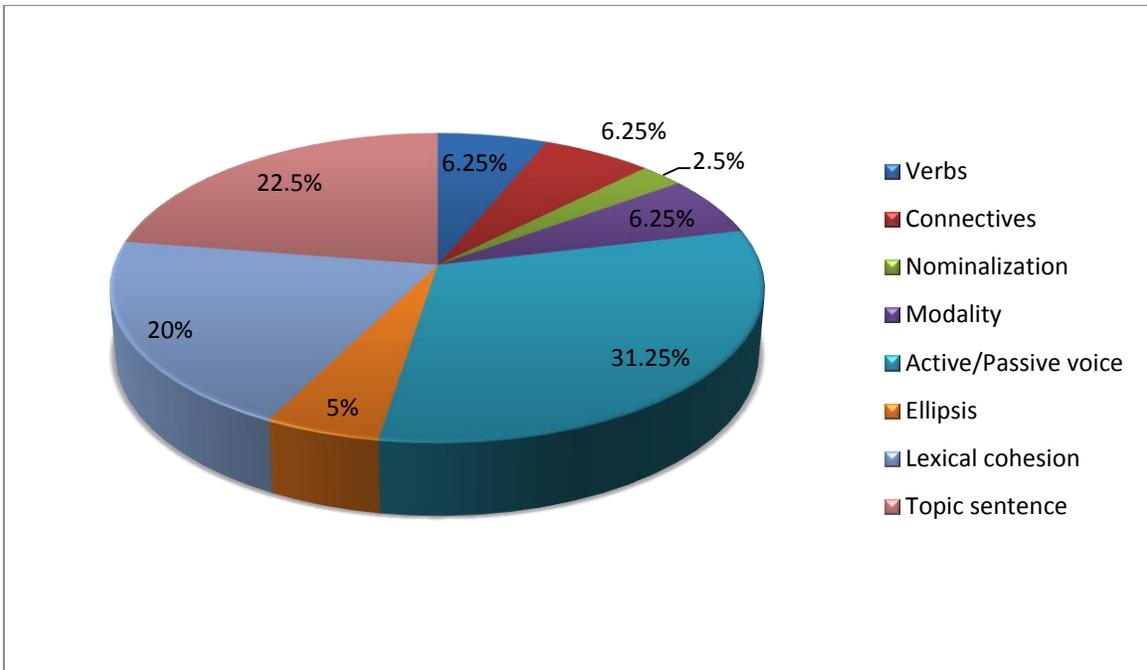
- |                      |                          |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| Verbs                | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Connectives          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Nominalization       | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Modality             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Active/passive voice | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ellipsis             | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lexical cohesion     | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Topic sentences      | <input type="checkbox"/> |

In the following table, the majority of subjects chose passive and active voice (31.25%), topic sentence (22.5%) and lexical cohesion (20%) as the most important features that characterize the argumentative discourse. Other features have less frequency.

|                                 | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Verbs</b>                    | 5                  | 6.25                 |
| <b>Connectives</b>              | 5                  | 6.25                 |
| <b>Nominalization</b>           | 2                  | 2.5                  |
| <b>Modality</b>                 | 5                  | 6.25                 |
| <b>Active and Passive Voice</b> | 25                 | 31.25                |
| <b>Ellipsis</b>                 | 4                  | 5                    |
| <b>Lexical Cohesion</b>         | 16                 | 20                   |
| <b>Topic sentences</b>          | 18                 | 22.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>                  | <b>80</b>          | <b>100</b>           |

**Table 17: Classification of Argumentative Discourse' Features**

The above percentages are illustrated in the following chart that indicates higher percentages for active and passive voice, topic sentence and lexical cohesion, and lower percentages for other features.



**Figure 24: Classification of Argumentative Discourse' Features**

➤ **Question 17**

Give examples for:

Verbs

.....

Connectives

.....

Modality

.....

Lexical cohesion

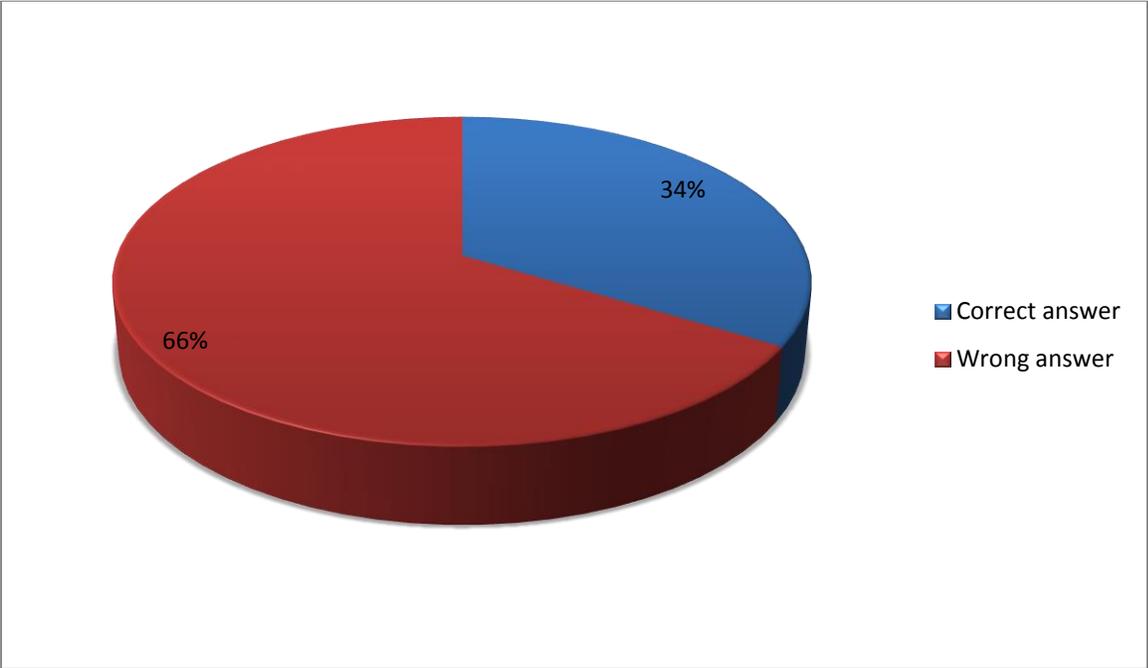
.....



|                | Frequency | Percentage |
|----------------|-----------|------------|
| Correct answer | 27        | 33.75      |
| Wrong answer   | 53        | 66.25      |
| <b>Total N</b> | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> |

**Table 18: Subjects’ Examples for some Features of Argumentative Discourse**

Table 17 shows that 27 subjects give correct examples for the four features listed above while 53 of them give wrong answers which is clearly illustrated in the following figure.



**Figure 25: Wrong and Correct Examples for some Features of Argumentative Discourse**

#### **4.2. Discussion of the Questionnaire Results**

Throughout the answers of the 17 questions of the questionnaire, we observe that our sample which is composed of 80 subjects

Although argumentation and persuasion seem to have the same meaning for EFL learners and the relationship between these two aspects is interrelated, but there are important differences between arguing and persuading that a non-native speaker should know in order to understand a text under study on the one hand and to convey the underlying meaning from a source text into a target text on the other hand. So, being aware of the text-type of any text will facilitate the task of EFL learners to know this underlying meaning

According to the results of the questionnaire, EFL learners show a poor knowledge about aspects included in the translation of argumentative discourse. First of all, the respondents did not know whether translation is a process or a product or both of them. They did not even distinguish between arguing and persuading. When asked about types of argumentative discourse, only few of the subjects give some examples. Trying to see what the subjects think about English and Arabic editorials, whether they are similar or not in terms of features. The majority of the respondents see that they have the same features, the rest of them either did not agree on that or do not know the answer. For the 25% who think that English and Arabic editorials features are different, when asked to justify their answers, 85% of them did not know the difference between both features but they just give the previous answer haphazardly. The majority of the subjects think that argumentative texts have the same structure in both English and Arabic.

The majority of the respondents see that it is not important to identify the text type and its dominant speech act, what is important to them is just to translate the source text into the target text. 43.75% of the subjects do not know whether the basic illocutionary act of argumentative discourse is arguing or not. In investigating the relationship between speech acts and the translation of argumentative texts, the majority of the respondents think that it is not a condition

for the learner/translation to know all the types of speech acts in order to translate an argumentative text. As a continuation to this question, the subjects also see that it is possible to translate any text without knowing its speech acts which is not correct because the translator may translate the words and the sentences but not the writer's intended meaning which is to be conveyed to the audience in the right way. When asked directly about the underlying meaning, 50% of the subjects see that it is not necessary to identify the underlying meaning of an utterance or a sentence in order to translate it faithfully while 25% of them do not agree on that.

Concerning translation strategies, the subjects give approximately equal percentages for the five strategies; however, what is surprising is that 25% of the respondents chose literal translation and when asked if literal translation is enough to translate argumentative discourse, the majority did not know whether it is enough or not while the others think that it is sufficient. The minority did not agree on that. When translating a text the translator follows some steps. The subjects who are provided with three steps of translation and asked to rate them according to their importance, 31.25% claim that they analyze the text, 25% transfer the meaning while 26.25% concentrate on revising. 17.5% say that they focus on all of the stages together. 37.5% of the respondents think that in order to translate argumentative texts, the focus should be on argumentation, 25% choose translation while the minority selected pragmatics and discourse analysis. However, some subjects believe that the focus should be on all the aspects to translate argumentative discourse.

In what concerns the eight features of argumentative discourse as the subjects are asked to classify them in terms of importance, the majority focuses on active and passive voice and topic sentences while more importance should be given to verbs, connectives, modality... and so on, which really characterize the argumentative discourse. when asked to give some examples of

verbs, connectives, modality and lexical cohesion of argumentation, the majority fail to do so; in that the fact that they ignore these features they did not choose them as features characterizing argumentative discourse.

From the above results, we assume that EFL learners do not have enough knowledge of how to translate argumentative texts appropriately as they are not exposed to argumentative discourse with its features, structure and speech acts compared to Arabic argumentative discourse which is different. These learners should know all these information in order to be faithful when conveying the same intended meaning the ST writer wanted to transmit to the audience when they translate it into the TL.

## **Conclusion**

After analyzing the questionnaire, we end up with a result that there is a need to make EFL learners aware of the mistakes they make in understanding, analyzing and translating argumentative discourse and to ameliorate their level of translation by enhancing and enriching their knowledge about argumentation, pragmatics, discourse analysis and translation. This would be discussed in the following chapter ‘The Analysis of the Experiment’.

## *Chapter Five*

### *The Analysis of the Experiment*

## Chapter Five

### The Analysis of the Experiment

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## **Chapter Five**

### **The Analysis of the Experiment**

#### **Introduction**

After analyzing the questionnaire in the previous chapter, this chapter is devoted to the analysis of the experiment which is composed of two tests. First, we analyze the pre-test with its 12 questions and then we analyze the post-test with its 9 questions. The analysis of the experiment sheds some light on the EFL learners' knowledge about speech acts and argumentation and on their performance in translating argumentative texts.

#### **5.1. The Experiment**

##### **5.1.1. The Analysis of the Pre-test**

The scoring of the tests is based on some important criteria. Concerning the pre-test, the focus is on analyzing the subjects' background knowledge about speech acts and argumentation, and on evaluating these subjects' performance in translating argumentative texts. In the first section of the pre-test, we concentrate on the basic knowledge about speech acts and argumentation. To put it differently, we want to see whether the subjects know the type of the text after reading it or not, whether they recognize this type randomly or after extracting its indicators and at the same time whether they know the illocutionary act and the perlocutionary act of the text or not; whether they recognize the thesis statement of the text or not and finally whether the subjects are able to extract the statements that contain the dominant illocutionary act 'arguing'. In the second section of the pre-test, we focus on the performance of the respondents in translating the thesis statement and the statements that contain the illocutionary act 'arguing'

or simply the arguments. Here, the subjects' translation is evaluated in terms of being equivalent and having the same effect on the audience.

In what follows, we provide a description of the control group and experimental group subjects' performance in each question using frequencies and percentages in tables supported by figures to illustrate the percentages that measure the subjects' responses.

➤ **Question 1**

Is the text:

- a. Narrative
- b. Argumentative
- c. Descriptive
- d. Expository

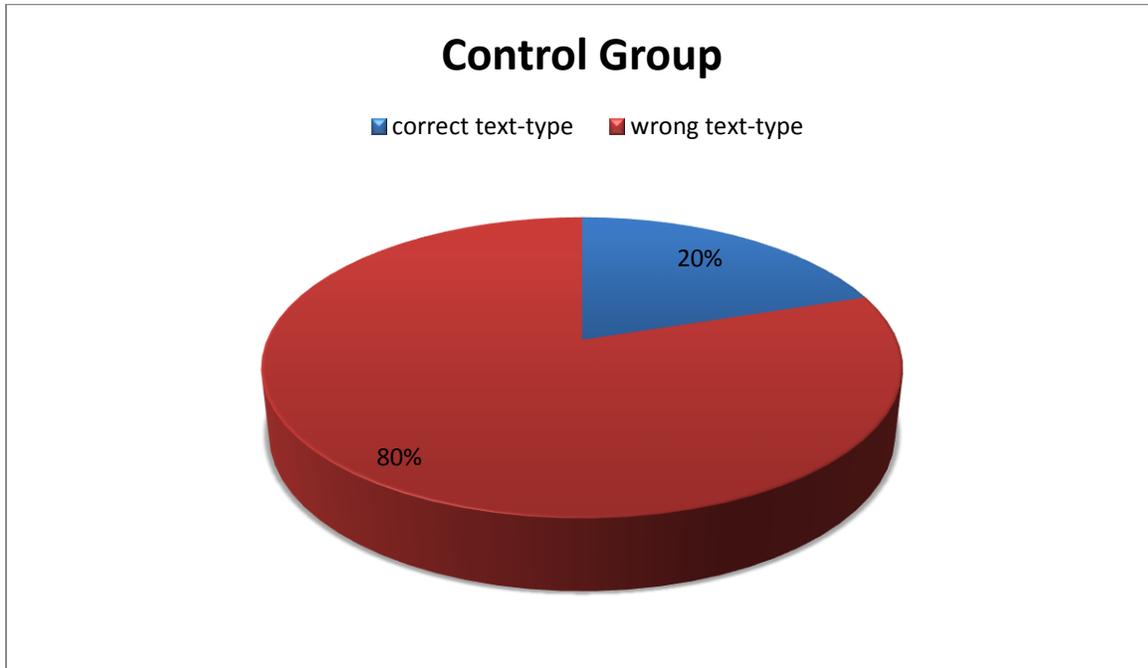
| <b>Text-type</b>     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Narrative</b>     | 0                  | 0                    |
| <b>Argumentative</b> | 8                  | 20                   |
| <b>Descriptive</b>   | 7                  | 17.5                 |
| <b>Expository</b>    | 25                 | 62.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>       | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 19: Control Group Pre-test Text-type**

From the above table, we observe that in question 1, the majority of the testees of the control group 25 subjects choose the expository type for the text while 8 of them select argumentative text-type and only 7 respondents say that the text is descriptive and no one chooses the narrative type. The experimental group gives approximately the same answers: 23 subjects choose the



expository type, 7 respondents say it is an argumentative text and 10 testees select the descriptive type while no one selects the narrative type.

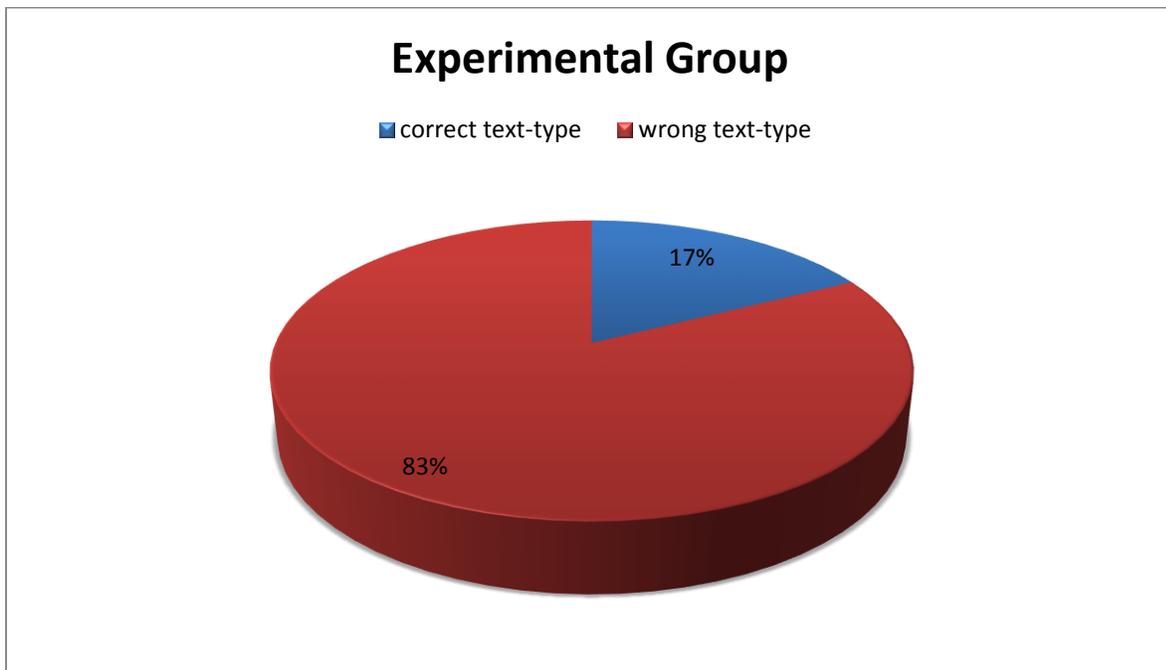


**Figure 26: Control Group’s Text-type in the Pre-test**

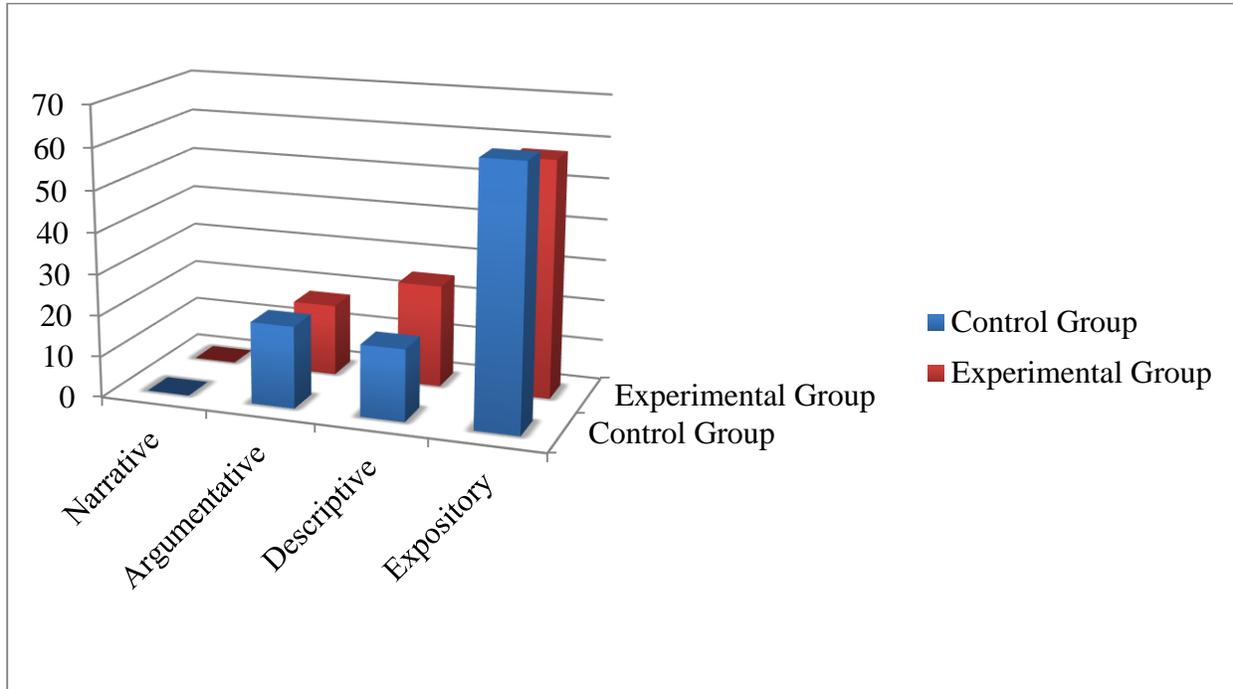
| <b>Text-type</b>     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Narrative</b>     | 0                  | 0                    |
| <b>Argumentative</b> | 7                  | 17.5                 |
| <b>Descriptive</b>   | 10                 | 25                   |
| <b>Expository</b>    | 23                 | 57.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>       | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 20: Experimental Group Pre-test Text-type**

From the previous table we find that only the majority of the subjects 80% and 82.5% in the control group and the experimental group respectively give the wrong text-type of the text provided in the pre-test; while only 20% in the control group and 17.5% in the experimental one give correct text-type as it is illustrated in the following pie charts.



**Figure 27: Experimental Group Text-type in the Pre-test**



**Figure 28: Percentages of the Pre-test Text-type**

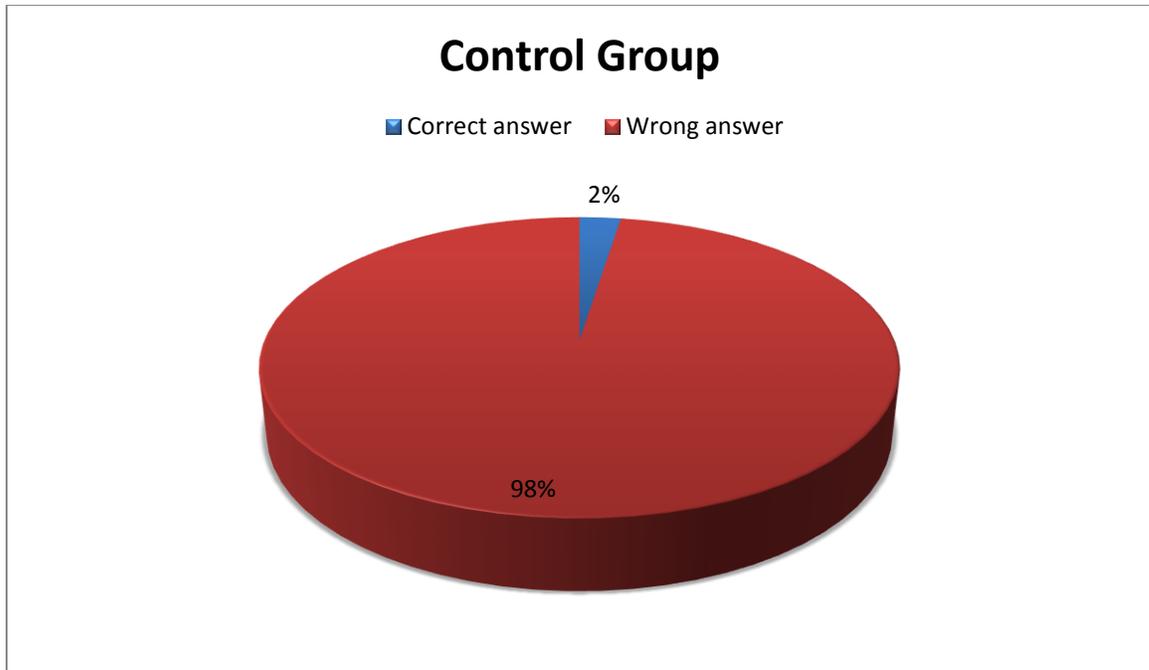
➤ **Question 2**

Justify your choice.

In the justification, it seems that the subjects do not differentiate between the types mentioned in question 1. Question 2 reveals that the subjects are just giving the type haphazardly which is confirmed later when they choose the wrong thesis statement that does not reflect the type they select for the text. Both table 21 and table 22 indicate that the majority of the control and experimental subjects with a percentage 97.5% and 95% respectively, give a wrong justification to the choice of the type of the text in the pre-test as illustrated in the two charts below.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 1                  | 2.5                  |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 39                 | 97.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

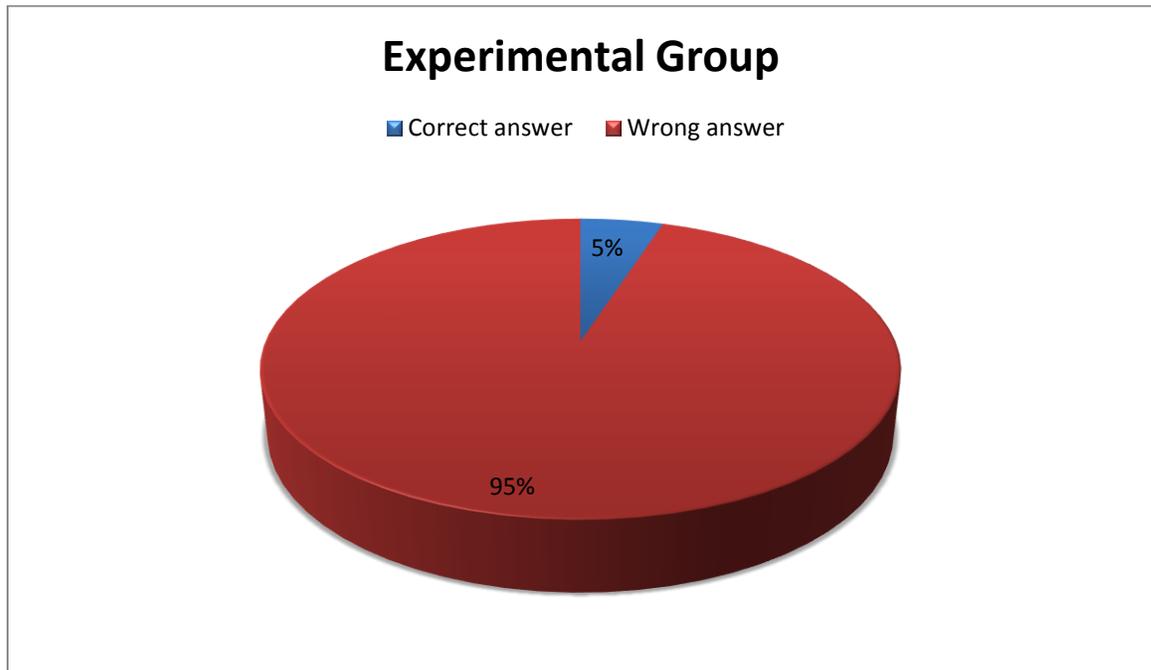
**Table 21: Control Group Justification of the Pre-test Text-type**



**Figure 29: Control Group Justification of the Pre-test Text-type**

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 2                  | 5                    |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 38                 | 95                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 22: Experimental Group Justification of the Pre-test Text-type**



**Figure 30: Experimental Group Justification of the Pre-test Text-type**

➤ **Question 3**

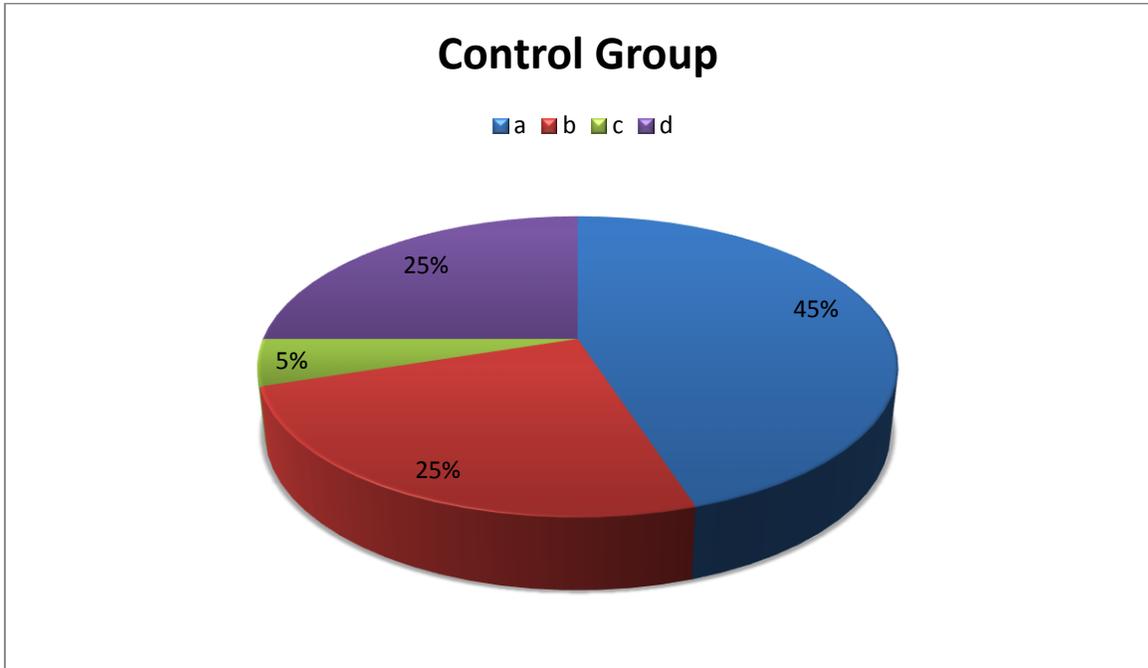
What is the most appropriate thesis statement of the above text?

- a) “Government regulation can be a hassle”
- b) “Often, though, regulation is the best way to produce public goods – clean water is a good example – that private business ordinarily cannot”
- c) “There is bitter dispute about where to strike this balance, partly because of competing economic and ideological interests, and partly because it is inherently difficult. But no one seriously denies that, at some point, a balance must be struck”
- d) “By its very nature, regulation involves balancing social and economic costs and benefits”

|                | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|----------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>a</b>       | 18                 | 45                   |
| <b>b</b>       | 10                 | 25                   |
| <b>c</b>       | 2                  | 5                    |
| <b>d</b>       | 10                 | 25                   |
| <b>Total N</b> | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 23: Control Group Pre-test Thesis Statement**

From the above table, we notice that in the control group, the majority of subjects select the first choice (**a**) representing 45% which is approximately the same in the experimental group with 37.5%. The frequency of statements (**b**) and (**d**) was 10 times representing 25 % in the control group whereas in the experimental group statement (**b**) occurred 13 times with the percentage 32.5% and statement (**d**) occurred 9 times giving the percentage of 22.5% in the experimental group. However, the minority of students select statement (**c**) in both the control and experimental groups: 5% and 7.5% respectively. The differences in frequencies and percentages of the choice of the thesis statement between the control and experimental groups in the pre-test are illustrated in the following figure.



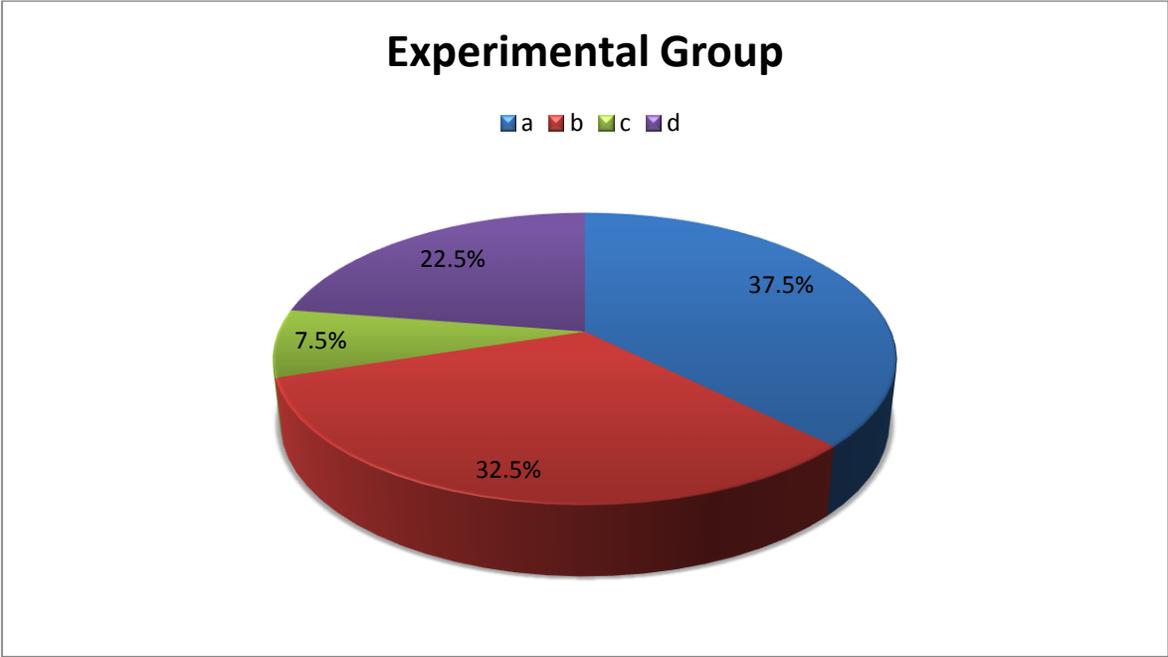
**Figure 31: Control Group Pre-test Thesis Statement**

In the following table, the percentages of the experimental group in the pre-test concerning the choice of the thesis statement show that 37.5% chose the first thesis statement, 32.5% chose the second thesis statement, 22.5% chose the fourth thesis statement while only 7.5% selected the third thesis statement.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| <b>a</b>       | 15          | 37.5          |
| <b>b</b>       | 13          | 32.5          |
| <b>c</b>       | 3           | 7.5           |
| <b>d</b>       | 9           | 22.5          |
| <b>Total N</b> | 40          | 100           |

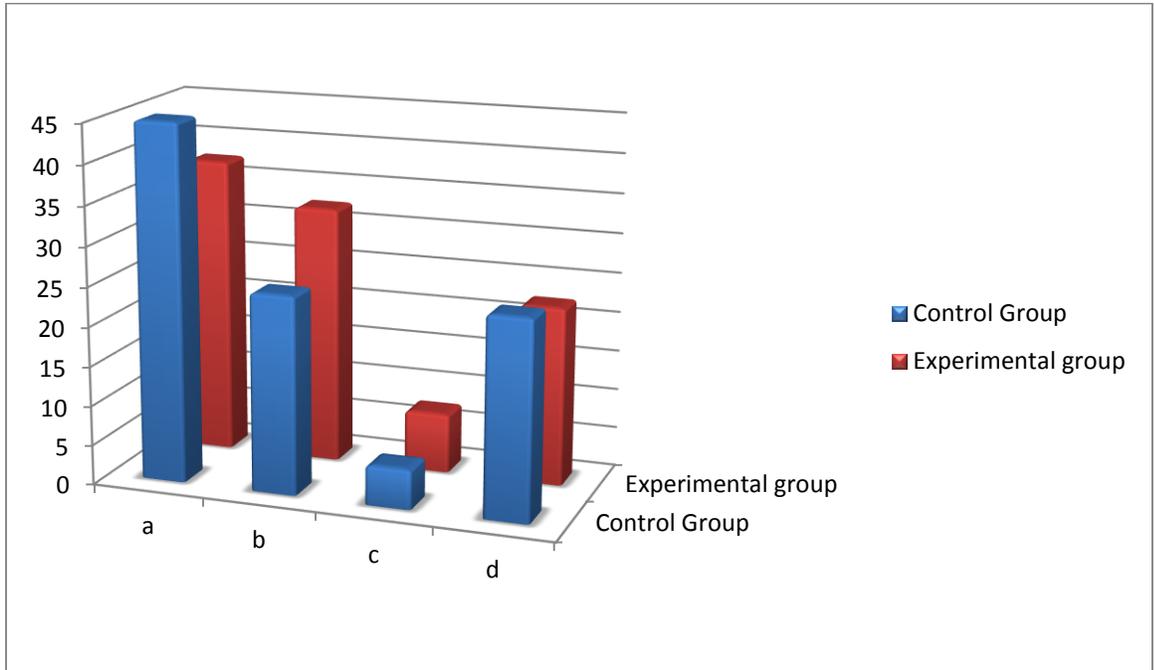
**Table 24: Experimental Group Pre-test Thesis Statement**

The percentages of the above table are illustrated in the following pie chart.



**Figure 32: Experimental Group Pre-test Thesis Statement**





**Figure 33: Pre-test Thesis Statement**

Comparing between the control and experimental groups performance in choosing the appropriate thesis statement of the text in the pre-test, the above figure shows that the subjects of both groups have approximately the same knowledge as the percentages of the choices are approximately the same whether being wrong or correct.

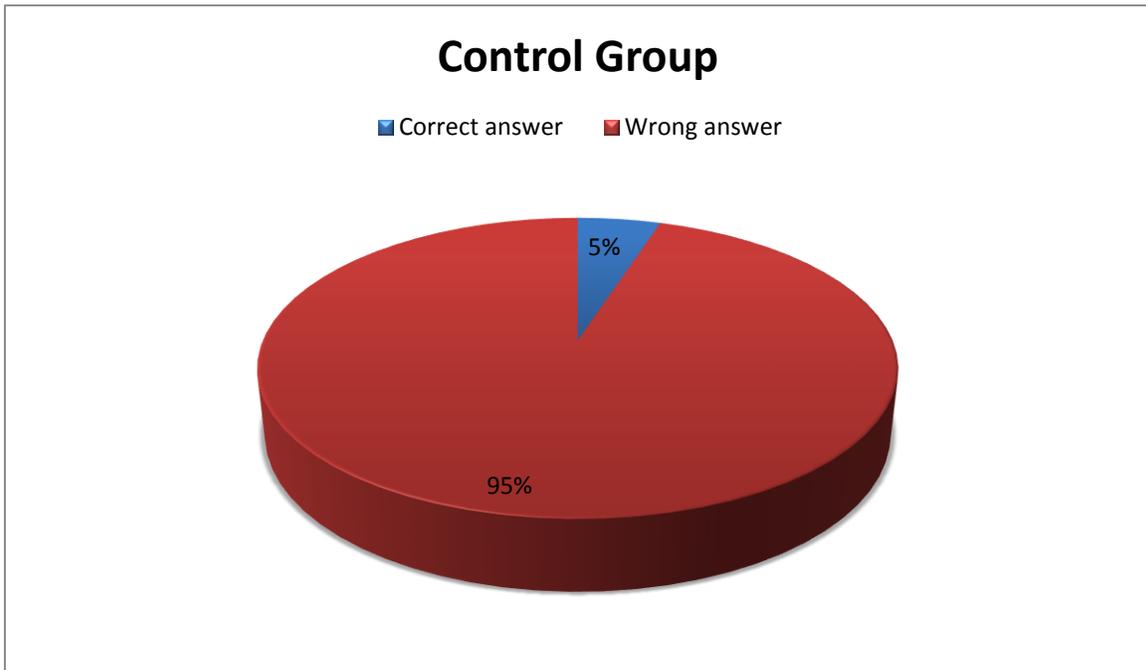
➤ **Question 4**

Justify your choice.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 2                  | 5                    |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 38                 | 95                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 25: Control Group Justification of Thesis Statement Choice**

The percentages of the above table show that the majority, 95%, of the control group did not give the required justification for their choice of the text's thesis statement while only 5 % of the subjects provided a correct justification.



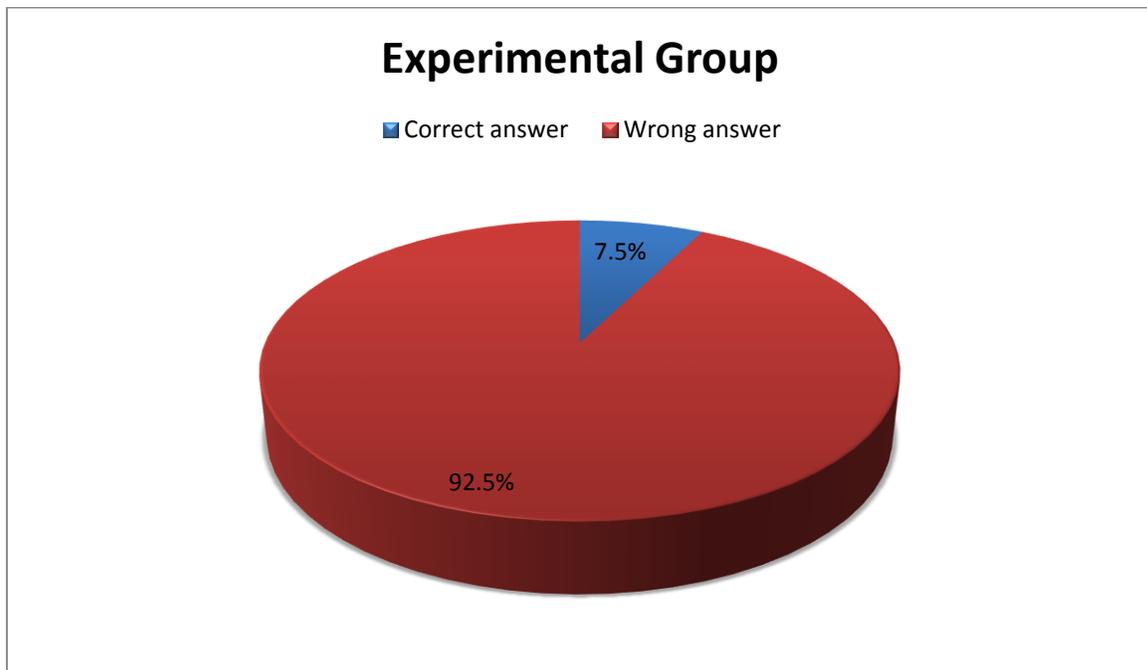
**Figure 34: Control Group Pre-test Justification of Thesis Statement choice**

The above figure demonstrates the majority of subjects who chose the wrong answer and the minority who chose the correct one.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 3                  | 7.5                  |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 37                 | 92.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 26: Experimental Group Justification of the Thesis Statement Choice**

In the above table, we notice that in the pre-test the minority 7.5 % or only 3 subjects of the experimental group justified their choice of the correct thesis statement whereas the majority 92.5% did not give a correct justification to their choice. Those percentages are clearly illustrated in the following figure.



**Figure 35: Experimental Group Pre-test Justification of the Thesis Statement Choice**

### ➤ Question 5

Translate the selected thesis statement into Arabic.

In this question, the subjects translate the thesis statement they have chosen and because the majority of them selected wrong thesis statement so their translation is not the required one and it is considered wrong. For the minority who selected the correct thesis statement, they tried to give equivalent translation.

The correct thesis statement which is “**There is bitter dispute about where to strike this balance, partly because of competing economic and ideological interests, and partly because it is inherently difficult. But no one seriously denies that, at some point, a balance must be struck**” can be translated as follows:

- والنقاش محتدم حول كيفية احداث التوازن, من جهة بسبب تدافع المصالح الاقتصادية و الاديولوجية و من جهة بسبب التعقيد الناتج عن طبيعة النقاش ذاتها. لكن لا أحد ينكر أنه يجب احداث التوازن  
كيفما كان (على مستوى معين)

- /wa al-niqāshu muḥtadimun ḥawla kayfiyati iḥdhāthi al-tawazun min jiha bisababi tadāfu‘ al-masāliḥ al-iqtisadia wa al-idiyulujia wa min jihatīn bisababi al-ta‘qīd al-natij ‘an tabi‘ati al-niqash dhatiha lākin lā aḥada yunkiru anahu yajibu iḥdāth al-tawazun kayfamā kān ‘ala mustawa mu‘ayan/.

However, subjects did not provide an equivalent translation at different levels. For example, they state:

- هناك خلاف صغير حول أين نضع هذا التوازن جزء منه لأنه يوجد استثمارات اقتصادية و ايدولوجية متنافسة و أيضا لأنه صعب بالوراثة و لكن لا أحد يستطيع الانكار بجديّة أنه و الى نقطة ما فان توازن يضرب.

- /hunālika khilāfun saghirun ḥawla ‘ayna nada3u hadhā al-tawāzun juz’un minhu li’anahu yujadu ‘istithmarat ‘iqtisadia wa ‘idiulujia mutanafisa wa aydan li’anahu sa‘bun bilwirathati wa lakin la aḥada yastati‘u al-’inkara bi jidiatin ‘anahu wa ‘ila nuqtin ma fa’ina tawazunun yodrab /.

• يوجد هناك نقاش حاد حول أين يمكن احداث هذا التوازن تارة بسبب تنافس الاهتمامات الاقتصادية و الاديولوجية و تارة أخرى بسبب أنه صعب وراثيا. لكن لا أحد ينكر أنه يجب احداث التوازن في مستوى معين.

- /yujadu hunaka ni9ashun ḥād hawla ayna yumkin ihdathu hada al-tawāzun tāratan bi sababi tanafus al-ihtimāmāt al-’iqtis ādia wa al-’idiulujia wa tāratan ukhra bi sababi ’anahu sa‘bun wirathian. Lakin la aḥada yunkir ’anahu yajibu iḥdāthu al-tawāzun fi mustawa mu‘ayan/.

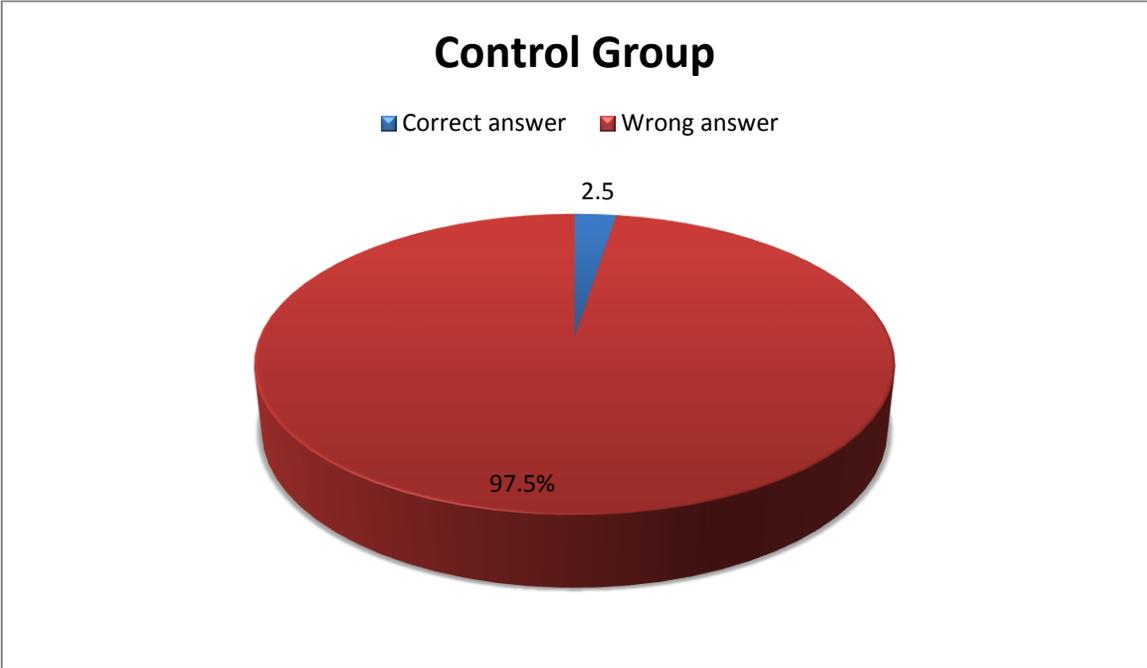
The translation of the students of the thesis statement was either wrong or literal. It is wrong as they change the meaning of the sentence itself. For example they translate ‘**bitter dispute**’ as ‘خلاف صغير’ /khilāfun saghir/ rather than ‘النقاش محتدم’ /al-niqāshu muḥtadimun/. So, the total meaning is wrong. The subjects confuse the audience with their literal translation that changes the meaning of the source sentence in saying ‘صعب وراثيا’ /sa‘bun wirathian/ or ‘صعب بالوراثة’ /sa‘bun bilwirātha/ in order to translate ‘**inherently difficult**’ instead of saying ‘التعقيد الناتج عن طبيعة النقاش’ / al-ta‘qid al-nātij ‘an tabi‘ati al-niqāsh dhātiha / ذاتها

So, the translation performance of the control group subjects in the pre-test is summed up in the following table.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 1           | 2.5           |
| Wrong answer   | 39          | 97.5          |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 27: Control Group Pre-test Translation of the Thesis Statement**

We notice that 97.5 % of the subjects did not succeed in the translation of the text’s thesis statement some of them because their wrong choice of the thesis statement and other because they fail to give a correct, equivalent translation to the correct thesis statement. On the other hand only 2.5 % succeed in translating the thesis statement in the pre-test which is illustrated in the following figure.



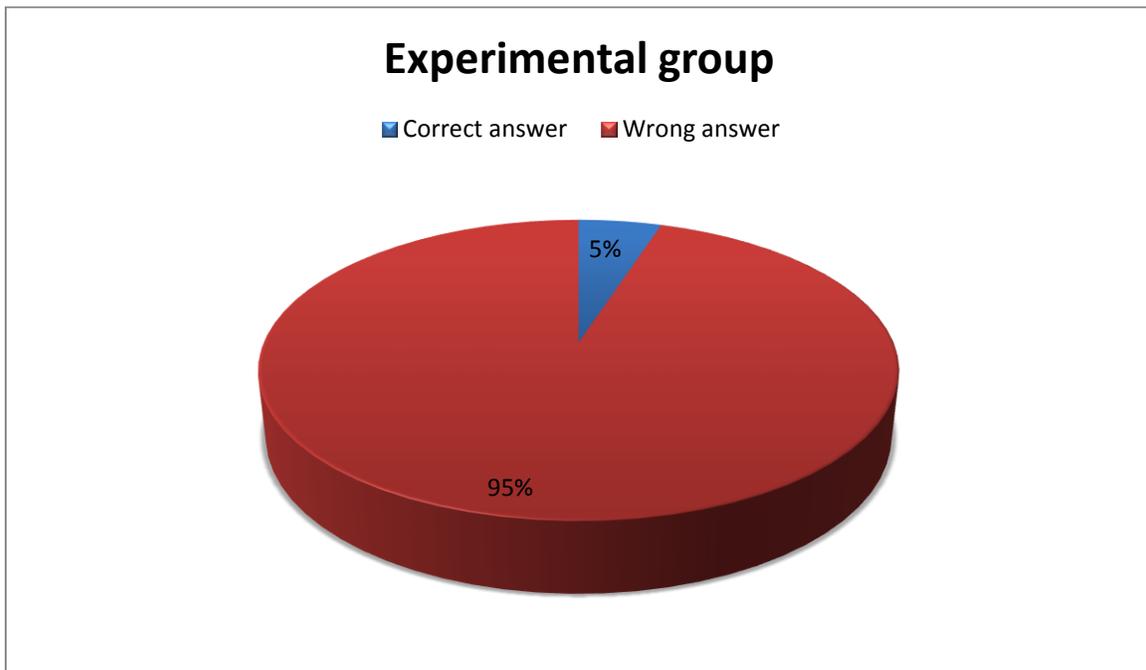
**Figure 36: Control Group Pre-test Translation of the Thesis Statement**

Concerning the experimental group, on the one hand, the subjects showed approximately the same performance; in that, 95% of the subjects give wrong answers as they fail to translate the appropriate thesis statement. On the other hand, only 5 % of the subjects give the correct answer.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 2                  | 5                    |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 38                 | 95                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 28: Experimental Group Pre-test Translation Thesis Statement**

The percentages of the above table that represent the performance of experimental group in the pre-test on the translation of the thesis statement are clearly illustrated in the following figure.



**Figure 37: Experimental Group Pre-test Translation of the Thesis Statement**

➤ **Question 6**

Define the term speech act and identify its types.

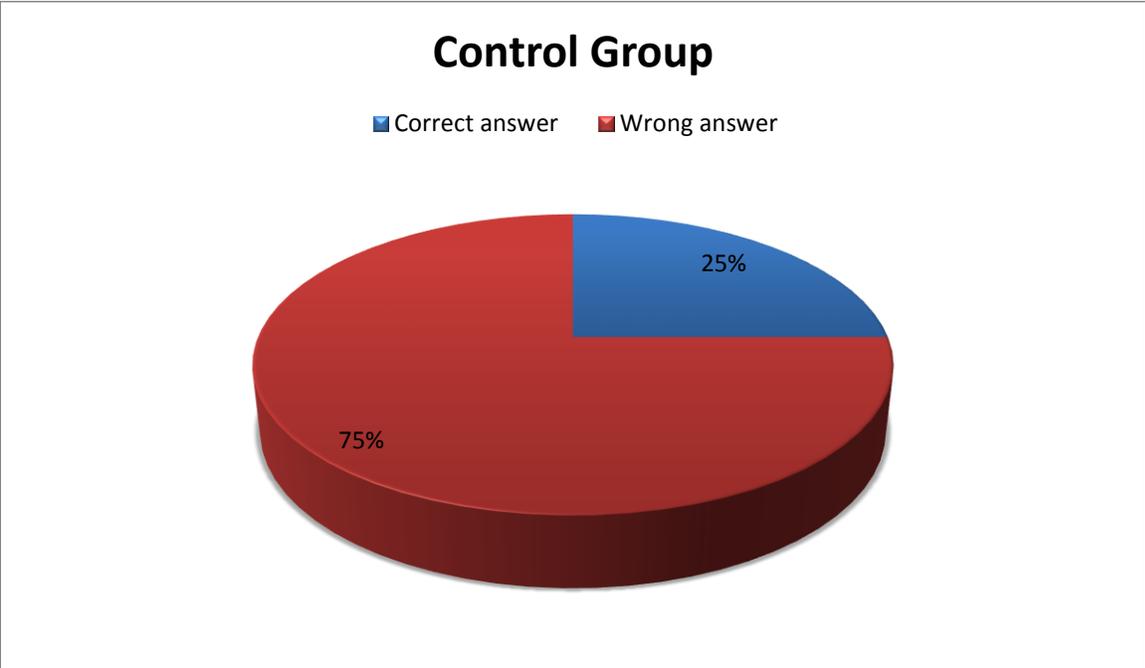
For the sixth question, the majority of subjects did not provide a correct definition nor correct types for the term speech act. Both control and experimental group show approximately the same scores.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 10                 | 25                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 30                 | 75                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 29: Control Group Definition of Speech Acts and its Types in the Pre-test**

In the above table the subjects of the control group only 25% succeed in defining speech act and its types while 75% fail to give any definition or types for the term speech act. So the majority of the control group lack knowledge about speech acts as it is illustrated in the following figure.



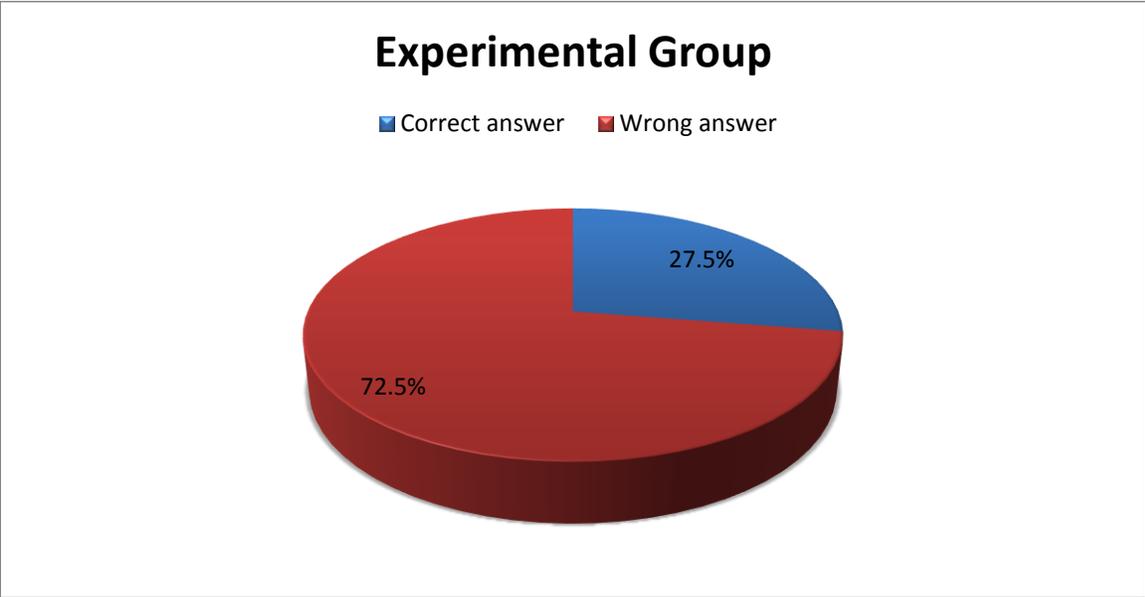


**Figure 38: Control Group Definition and Types of Speech act in the Pre-test**

It is approximately the same answer in the experimental group as the majority of the subjects 72.5% did not provide the appropriate definition of the term speech act nor identify its types. The minority 27.5% though tried to give the appropriate definition for the term speech act and identify its types and the subjects succeed to some extent. These percentages are illustrated in the following figure.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 11                 | 27.5                 |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 29                 | 72.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 30: Experimental Group Definition of Speech Act and its Types in the Pre-test**



**Figure 39: Experimental Group Definition and Types of Speech act in the Pre-test**

➤ **Question 7**

What is the dominant illocutionary act (force) used in this text?

- a) requesting
- b) arguing
- c) advising
- d) announcing

| <b>Illocutionary act</b> | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Requesting</b>        | 13                 | 32.5                 |
| <b>Arguing</b>           | 7                  | 17.5                 |
| <b>Advising</b>          | 17                 | 42.5                 |
| <b>Announcing</b>        | 3                  | 7.5                  |
| <b>Total N</b>           | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 31: Control Group Dominant Illocutionary Act in the Pre-test**

The above table indicates that the subjects of the control Group give different illocutionary act to the pre-test' text as 32.5% of the subjects said that the dominant illocutionary act is the first choice 'requesting', 17.5% chose 'arguing', 42.5% selected 'advising' and 7.5% said it is 'announcing'. We notice that the majority of them selected the speech act 'advising' which is not the correct dominant illocutionary act of the text while only 17.5% is the percentage recorded for the correct answer 'arguing' as it is shown in the following figure.



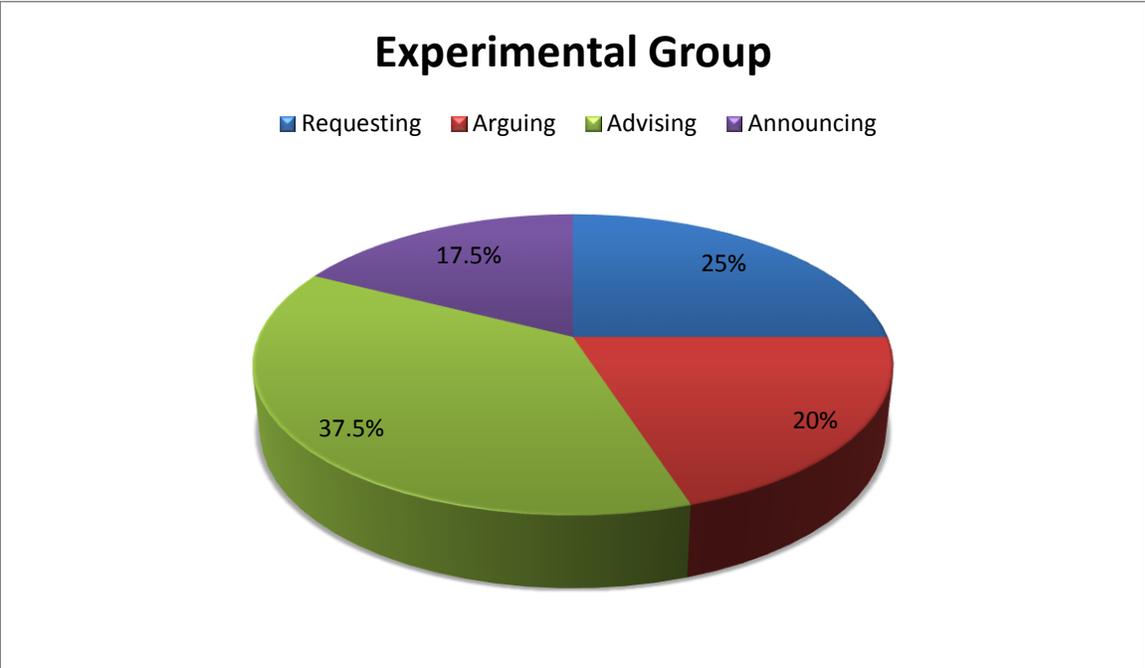
**Figure 40: Control Group Dominant Illocutionary act in the Pre-test**

For the experimental group 37.5% selected ‘advising’ as the dominant illocutionary act, 25% for the act of ‘requesting’, 20% for the act of ‘arguing’ and 17.5% for the act of ‘announcing’.

| <b>Illocutionary act</b> | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Requesting</b>        | 10                 | 25                   |
| <b>Arguing</b>           | 8                  | 20                   |
| <b>Advising</b>          | 15                 | 37.5                 |
| <b>Announcing</b>        | 7                  | 17.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>           | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 32: Experimental Group Dominant Illocutionary Act in the Pre-test**

The percentages of the dominant illocutionary act provided by the subjects of the experimental group in the pre-test are illustrated in the following pie chart.



**Figure 41: Experimental Group Dominant Illocutionary Act in the Pre-test**

➤ **Question 8**

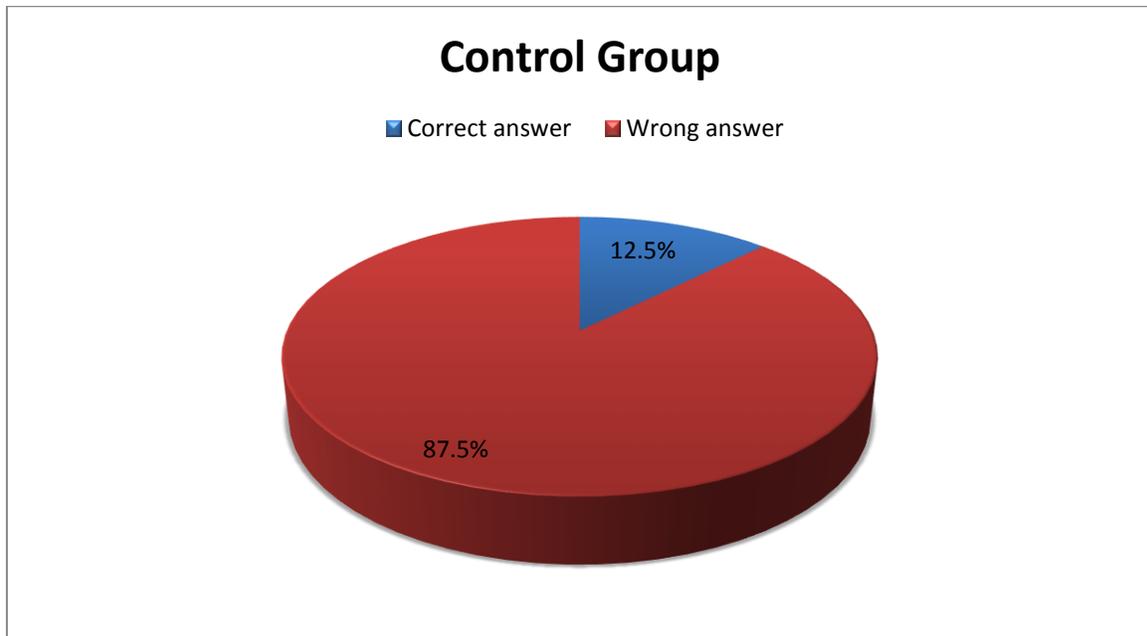
Extract the sentences that include the selected dominant illocutionary act from this text.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 5                  | 12.5                 |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 35                 | 87.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 33: Control Group Selection of Pre-test Arguments**

The table above indicates the percentages of the scores of the control group subjects in the pre-test in selecting the sentences that include the dominant illocutionary act in the text. 12.5 % give

the correct answer while 87.5% give wrong answers as they fail to identify the arguments of the text. These scores are represented in the following pie chart.



**Figure 42: Control Group Selection of Arguments in the Pre-test**

In the table above, we provide percentages of the Experimental group's subjects concerning the question of selecting the arguments of the text. The table shows that 15% give the correct arguments while 85% did not succeed in selecting the required arguments from the text. This is clearly illustrates in the following pie chart.

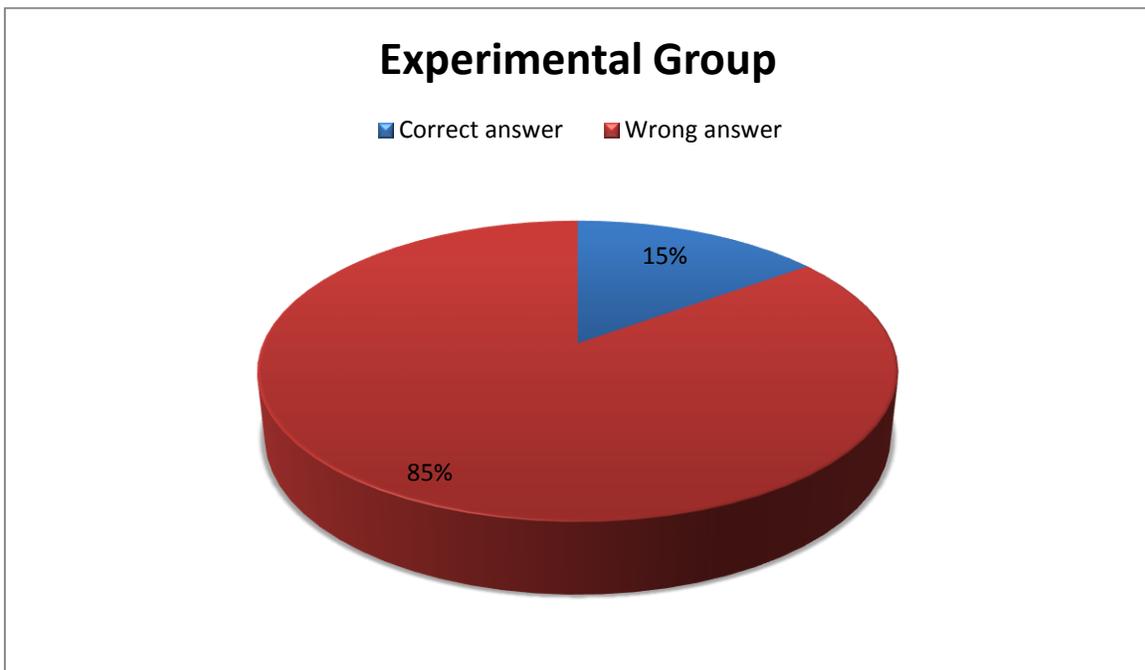
|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 6           | 15            |
| Wrong answer   | 34          | 85            |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 34: Experimental Group Selection of Pre-test Arguments**

The arguments selected from the text are:

- some of his administration’s actions had led the business community to conclude that the president recognized no cost-related limitations on federal regulation. There have been 132 regulations with benefits or costs of more than \$100 million created since Mr. Obama took the oath of office, with the rules implementing health care and financial legislation – and, possibly, carbon limits – still to be written.**
- On Wednesday came the first concrete result of the president’s new emphasis: withdrawal of a proposed Occupational Safety and Health Administration rule that would have required businesses to protect workers from shop-floor noise by changing schedules or installing new equipment rather than by passing out earplugs, as current rules require.**
- In fact, much of the regulatory state consists of independent agencies, such as the Federal Communications Commission and the Federal Reserve, that fall outside the scope of Mr. Obama’s executive order. So there is that inherent limit to any potential regulatory rollback. Also, it will take months for the rest of the bureaucracy to produce recommendations for regulatory pruning.**

- **We see nothing in his executive order that would skew the analysis against regulation; indeed, it clearly says that the cost-benefit analysis must take account of intangible factors as “equity, human dignity, fairness, and distributive impacts.”**



**Figure 43: Experimental Group Pre-test selection of the Arguments**

➤ **Question 9**

Translate the selected sentences into Arabic.

- **some of his administration’s actions had led the business community to conclude that the president recognized no cost-related limitations on federal regulation. There have been 132 regulations with benefits or costs of more than \$100 million created**



**since Mr. Obama took the oath of office, with the rules implementing health care and financial legislation – and, possibly, carbon limits – still to be written.**

- ان بعض الممارسات الادارية جعلت مجتمع أصحاب الأعمال يعتقد بأن الرئيس يقر بعدم وجود قيود تتعلق بالفوائد على القوانين الفدرالية. و كان هناك 132 قانونا يتعلق بالفائدة التي قيمتها أكثر من 100 مليون دولار منذ أدى السيد أوباما اليمين الدستورية. ولتعذر ذكر ذلك ههنا, سنكتب لاحقا قوانين الحماية الصحية و التشريع المالي.

/ina ba‘da al-mumārasāt al-idāriya ja‘alat mujtama‘ ashāba al-a‘māli ya‘taqīdu bi’āna al-ra’isa yuqīru bi‘adami wujudin tata‘alaqu bil fawā’id ‘ala al-qawānin al-fidirālia wa kāna ḥunālīka 132 qānunan yata‘alaqu bilfa’idati alatī qimatuhā akthar min 100 milyun dolār mundhu ‘akhadā al-ra’is l-yamin al-dusturiya wa lita‘adhuri dhikri dhalīka ḥaḥuna satuktabu lāḥiqan qawanīnu al- ḥimayati al-siḥiyati wa al-tashri‘ al-mālī /.

- **On Wednesday came the first concrete result of the president’s new emphasis: withdrawal of a proposed Occupational Safety and Health Administration rule that would have required businesses to protect workers from shop-floor noise by changing schedules or installing new equipment rather than by passing out earplugs, as current rules require.**

- و قد ظهرت يوم الأربعاء أول نتيجة ملموسة للتأكيد الجديد للرئيس و هي:الغاء القانون الاداري المقترح المتعلق بالأمن و السلامة في أماكن العمل و الذي يطلب من أصحاب العمل حماية العمال من ضجيج في مكان العمل بتغيير مواعيد العمل أو وضع تجهيزات جديدة عوض توفير سدادات الأذن كما يتطلب تطبيق القوانين الحالية.

/wa qad ẓaḥarat yawma al-‘arbi‘a’ ‘awal natija malmusa lita’kid al-jadid li al-ra’is wa ḥia ilgha’ al-qānūn al-idari al-muqtaraḥ al-muta’aliq bil’amni wa asalamati fi amākini al‘amali wa aladhi yatlubu min ashābi al-‘amal ḥimāyata al-‘umāli mina al-zajji fi makani al-‘amal bitaghyir mawa‘id al-‘amal ‘aw waẓ‘ tajhizāt jadida ‘iwaẓa tawfīr sadādat al-‘amān kamā yatatalabu tatbīq al-qawanīn al-ḥaliya/.

- **In fact, much of the regulatory state consists of independent agencies, such as the Federal Communications Commission and the Federal Reserve, that fall outside the scope of Mr. Obama’s executive order. So there is that inherent limit to any potential regulatory rollback. Also, it will take months for the rest of the bureaucracy to produce recommendations for regulatory pruning.**

- الحق أن معظم تشريعات الدولة مستمدة من اللجان المستقلة كلجنة الاتصالات الفدرالية و لجنة الاحتياط الفدرالي و التي تقع خارج نطاق الأمر التنفيذي للسيد أوباما. اذا فهناك قيود داخلية لأي الغاء قانوني محتمل. كما سيستغرق لبقية الأجهزة أشهراً لوضع توصيات للتهذيب القانوني.

/al-ḥaḡu ‘ana mu‘ẓama tashri‘at adawla mustamada mina al-lijān al-mustaquila kalajnati al-’itisaḡāt al-fidiraḡiya wa lajnati al-iḡḡiyat al-fidiraḡi wa al-lati taqa‘u kharij nitaqi al-‘amri atanfidhi li ‘asayed ubama idhan faḡunalika quyudun dākḡiliya li’ayi ‘ilgha’in qanunī muḡtamal kamā sayastaghriqu libaḡiyati al-ajḡizati ‘ashhuran liwaz‘i tawsiyātin li’atahḡhib al-qānuni/.

- **We see nothing in his executive order that would skew the analysis against regulation; indeed, it clearly says that the cost-benefit analysis must take account of intangible factors as “equity, human dignity, fairness, and distributive impacts.”**

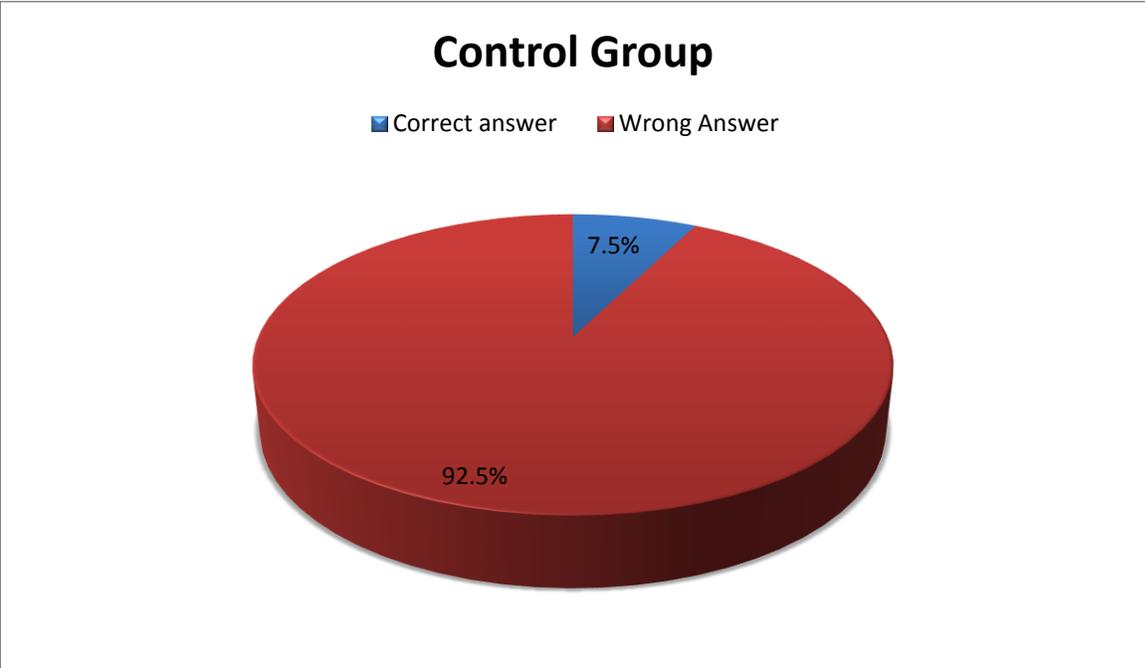
• لم يحتو مرسومه التنفيذي على ما يمكنه جعل منحي التحليل مضادا للقانون بل ان المرسوم يوضح أن تحليل الفائدة يجب أن يأخذ بعين الاعتبار العوامل الغير مادية كالانصاف, و الكرامة الانسانية, العدل, تأثيرات التوزيع.

/lam yaḡtawi marsumuḡu ‘atanfidhi ‘alá ma yumkinuhu ja‘lu manḡá atahḡlil muḡādan lilqanun bal ‘ina al-marsum yuwaḡiḡu ‘ana taḡlila al-fa’idati yajibu ‘an ya’khudha bi‘ayni al-’i‘tibār al-‘awamil al-ghayr mādia kal’insāf wa al-karāma al-’insānia al’adl wa ta’thīrat atawzi’/.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 3                  | 7.5                  |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 37                 | 92.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 35: Control Group Translation of the Pre-test Arguments**

The above table gives frequencies and percentages of the control group subjects' answers on Question 9 that asks them to translate the selected statements that include the dominant illocutionary force. We observe that only 7.5% provide the correct answer whereas the remaining 92.5% fail to give the required translation either because they choose the wrong statement or because they did not provide a good translation for their arguments. These percentages are illustrated in the following figure.



**Figure 44: Control Group Translation of the Pre-test Arguments**

On the other hand, the experimental group subjects' answers were approximately the same as we notice that the following table indicates approximately the same percentages. 10% for the subjects who provided a correct, good translation for the argument while 90% of the subjects failed to do so. The table is followed by a pie chart that illustrates these percentages that evaluate the respondents' performance in translating the selected statements that include the dominant illocutionary act.

The following sentences are examples of what subjects provide as translation for the arguments extracted from the text of the pre-test. These sentences contain some mistakes that make the translation of the argument to be considered wrong.

• ان بعض أفعاله الادارية أدت بالمجتمع التجاري ليستنتج أن الرئيس يعترف بأنه لا توجد حدود على فوائد القوانين الفدرالية. يوجد 132 قانونا (قوانين) بفوائد قيمتها أكثر من 100 مليون دولار منذ أخذ السيد أوباما زمام الادارة. وكذلك قوانين تتعلق بالرعاية الصحية و التشريع المالي و من المحتمل حدود كربونية سوف تكتب لاحقا.

- /ina ba‘da ‘af‘alihi al-idariya ‘adat bilmujtama‘ al-tijari li yastantija ‘āna al-ra’isa ya‘tarifu bi‘anahu la tujadu ḥududun ‘ala fawa’id ‘ala al-qawanin al-fidiralia. yujadu 132 qanunan bifawa’ida qimatuhā akthar min 100 milyun dolār mundhu akhadā al-sayid ubama zimama al-idarati wa kadhalika qawanin tata‘alaqu bi al-ri‘ayati al-sihia wa al-tashri‘ al-mālī wa mina al-muhtamali hududun karbunia sawfa tuktabu lāḥiqan /.

• وقد أتى يوم الاربعاء أول نتيجة مادية من التأثير الجديد للرئيس: الغاء مقترح أماكن العمل المتعلقة بالأمن و الصحة الادارية التي تطلب من الشركات (الأعمال) حماية من الضجيج بتغيير جدول الأعمال أو انشاء تجهيزات جديدة بدلا من تمرير تجهيزات (صمامات) الأذن بما تتطلبه القوانين الحديثة (الآن).

- /wa qad ‘ata yawmu al-‘arbi‘a’ ‘awal natija madia mina al-ta’thiri al-jadid lira’is wa hia ilgha’ muqtaraḥ amakini al‘amali al-muta’aliq bil’amn wa al-siḥati al-idaria wa ‘alati tutlabu min al-sharikat (al-‘amal) ḥimyata mina al-ḍajiji bi bitaghyir jadwali al-‘amal ‘aw ‘insha’i tajhizāt jadida badalan min tamrir tajhizāt (samāmat) al-‘udhun bimā tatatalabuhu al-qawanīn al-ḥaditha (al-‘an)/.

• في الحقيقة، ان الكثير من الدول التشريعية تتكون من وكالات مستقلة، مثل وكالة الاتصالات الفدرالية و الاحتياط الفدرالي، التي تقع خارج المجال التنفيذي للسيد أوباما. اذن فهناك ذلك الحد الوراثي لأي قانون محتمل. و كذلك فهي ستأخذ أشهراً لبقية البيروقراطية لانتاج توصيات لاصلاح القانون.

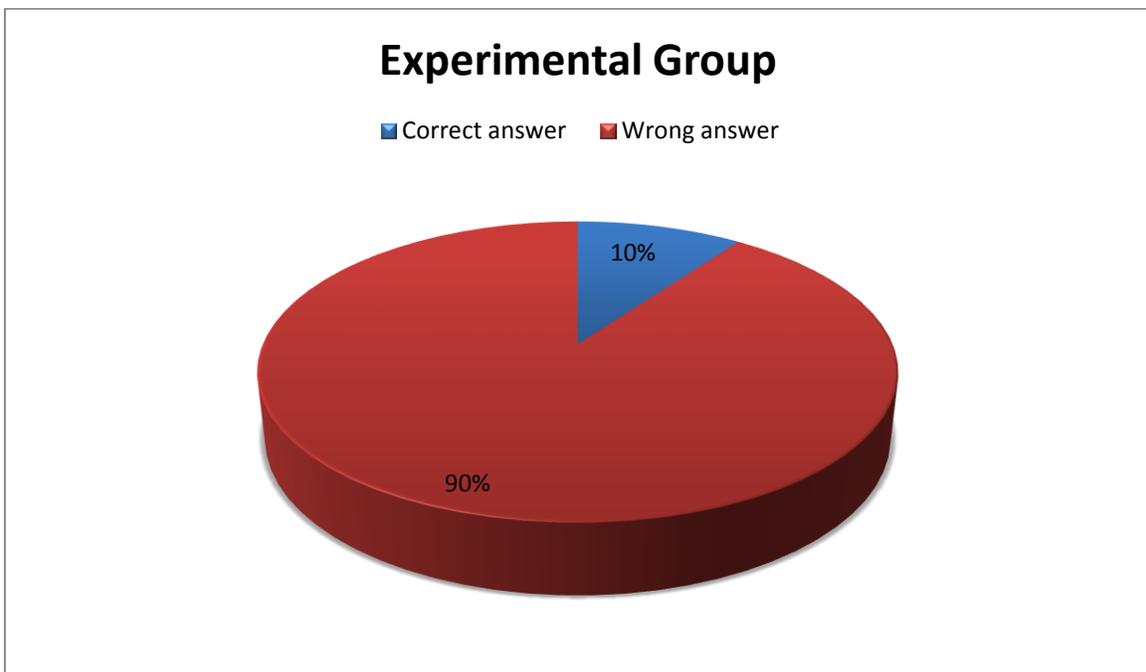
- /fi al-ḥaḥīqa ‘ana al-kathira mina aduwal al-tashri‘a tatakawn mina wakalat mustaqila mithla wakalat al-itisalāt al-fidiraliya wa al-iḥtiyat al-fidirali alati taqa‘u kharija al-majal atanfidhi li ‘asayed ubama. idhan faḥunalika dhalika al-had l-wirathi li’ayi qanunī muḥtamal. wa kadhalika fahia sata’kHUDHU ‘ashhuran libaqiyati li’intaji tawsiyatin li’islahi al-qanun/.

• لم نرى شيئاً في أمره التنفيذي الذي من الممكن أن يجعل التحليل ضد القانون، في الواقع، انها تقول بوضوح أن تحليل فائدة التكليف يجب أن تأخذ بعين الاعتبار عوامل هامة مثل المعادلة و كرامة الانسان، العدل و تأثيرات توزيعية.

- /lam nara shay’an min amrihi ‘atanfidhi al-dhi mina al-mumkini an yaj‘la atahlil ḍida al-qanun, fi al-waqi‘ ‘inaha taqul biwuḍuḥ ‘ana taḥlila al-fa’idati yajibu ‘an ta’kHUDHA bi‘ayni al-’i’tibār ‘awamil hama mithl al- mu‘adala wa karama al-’insān, al’adl wa ta’tḥīrat tawzi‘ia/.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 4           | 10            |
| Wrong answer   | 36          | 90            |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 36: Experimental Group Translation of Pre-test Arguments**



**Figure 45: Experimental Group Translation of the Pre-test Arguments**

➤ **Question 10**

What is the perlocutionary effect can you, as a reader, receive?

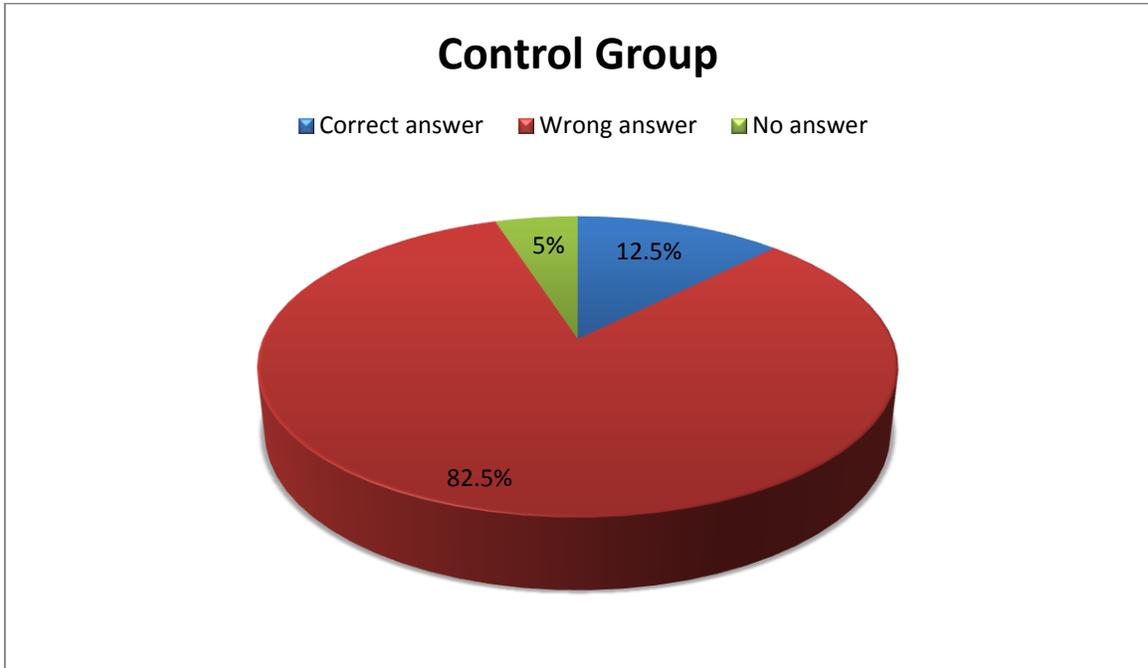
- a) inspiring
- b) convincing
- c) enlightening



|                       |                     | Frequencies |    | Percentages % |      |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-------------|----|---------------|------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> |                     | 5           |    | 12.5          |      |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | <b>Inspiring</b>    | 15          | 33 | 37.5          | 82.5 |
|                       | <b>Enlightening</b> | 18          |    | 45            |      |
| <b>No answer</b>      |                     | 2           |    | 5             |      |
| <b>Total N</b>        |                     | 40          |    | 100           |      |

**Table 37: Control Group Pre-test Perlocutionary Act**

We notice from the table that shows the answers for question 10 that 12.5% of the respondents of the control group in the pre-test selected the correct perlocutionary act for the text while the percentages 37.5% and 45% are given to ‘inspiring’ and ‘enlightening’ respectively which together form a percentage of 82.5% that indicates the wrong answer. The remaining 5% are given to those subjects who did not give any answer. The following pie chart illustrates each percentage for the subjects’ choice of the perlocutionary act of the text.

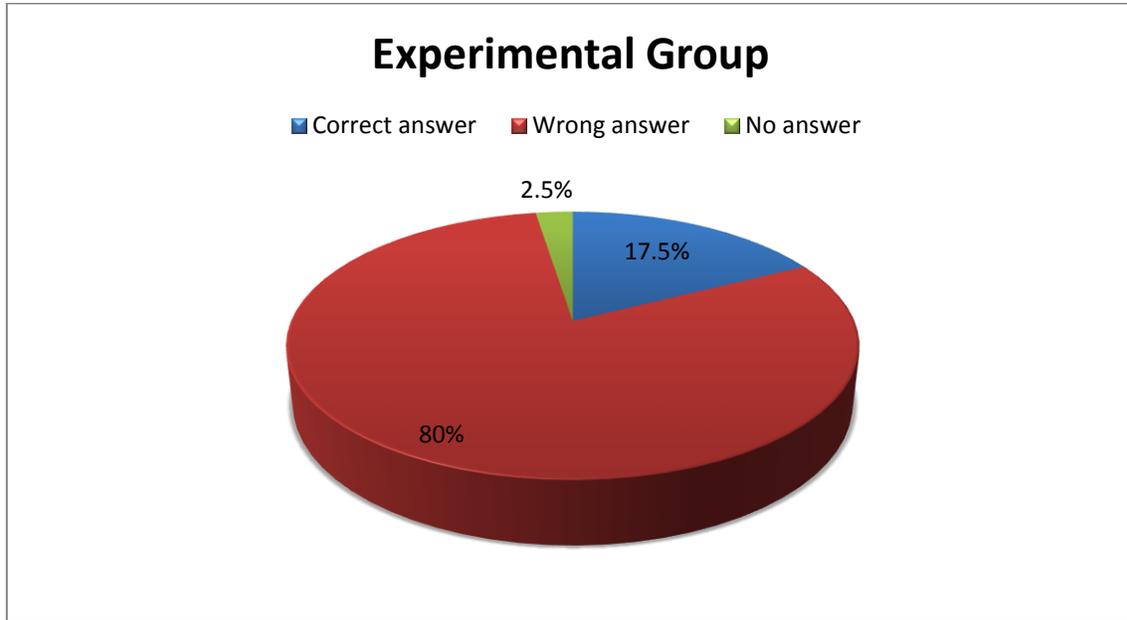


**Figure 46: Control Group Pre-test Perlocutionary Act**

For the experimental group, 17.5% indicates the correct answer while ‘inspiring’ and ‘enlightening’ as wrong answers have 40% for each. The remaining 2.5% is for those respondents who provided no answer for that question. The percentages are put in the following table and clearly illustrated in the figure.

|                       |                     | Frequencies |    | Percentages % |    |
|-----------------------|---------------------|-------------|----|---------------|----|
| <b>Correct answer</b> |                     | 7           |    | 17.5          |    |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | <b>Inspiring</b>    | 16          | 32 | 40            | 80 |
|                       | <b>Enlightening</b> | 16          |    | 40            |    |
| <b>No answer</b>      |                     | 1           |    | 2.5           |    |
| <b>Total N</b>        |                     | 40          |    | 100           |    |

**Table 38: Experimental Group Pre-test Perlocutionary Act**



**Figure 47: Experimental Group Pre-test Perlocutionary Act**

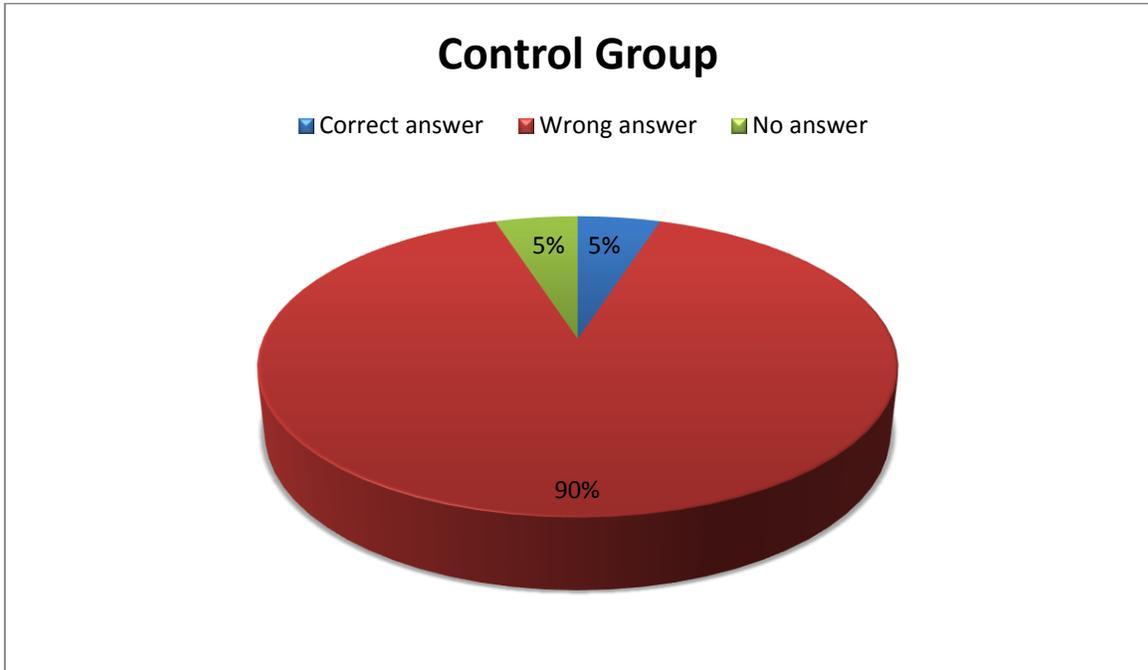
➤ **Question 11**

Justify your answer.

|                       | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|-----------------------|-------------|---------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 2           | 5             |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 36          | 90            |
| <b>No answer</b>      | 2           | 5             |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 39: Control Group Pre-test Justification of the Choice of the Perlocutionary Act**

From the above table, we notice that in trying to justify their choice, 90% which is the majority of the control group's subjects give wrong justification while 5% give acceptable justification and other 5% give no answer. The following figure illustrates the previous percentages.

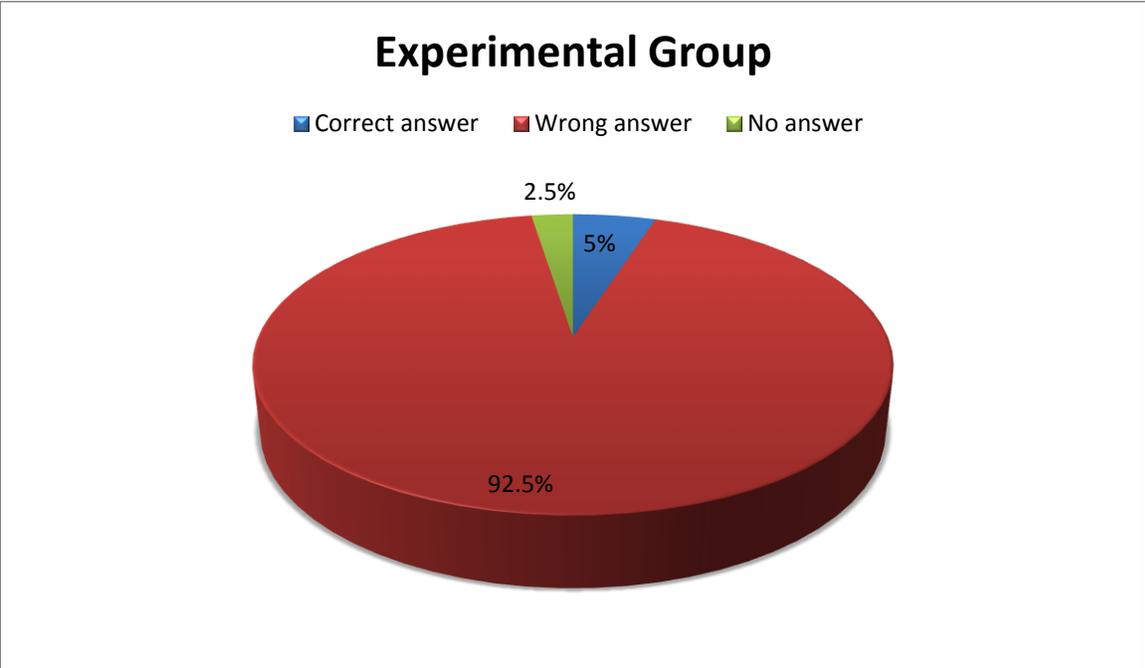


**Figure 48: Control Group Pre-test Justification of the Choice of the Perlocutionary Act**

The experimental group shows approximately the same performance in the eleventh question as it is indicated in the following table. 5% give the correct justification whereas 92.5% provide a wrong explanation and 2.5% have no answer. The table is followed by a figure that illustrates these percentages.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 2                  | 5                    |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 37                 | 92.5                 |
| <b>No answer</b>      | 1                  | 2.5                  |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 40: Experimental Group Pre-test Justification of the Choice of the Perlocutionary Act**



**Figure 49: Experimental Group Pre-test Justification of the Choice of the Perlocutionary Act**

➤ **Question 12**

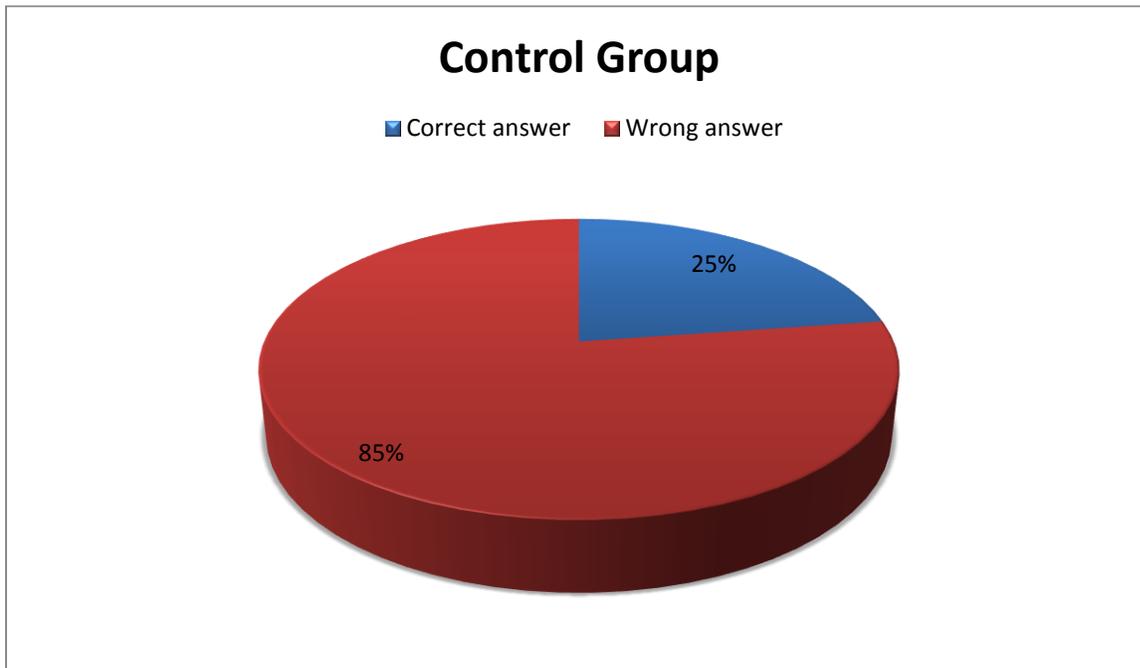
Is it the same effect on both source and target audience?

- a) Yes
- b) No

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 10          | 25            |
| Wrong answer   | 30          | 85            |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 41: Control Group Effect on the Source and Target Audience in the Pre-test**

The above table that includes frequencies and percentages of the control group's scores on the last question of the pre-test, shows that 25% give a correct answer while 85% give a wrong answer when asked about the effect on the source and target audience being the same or not. This is clearly illustrated in the following figure.

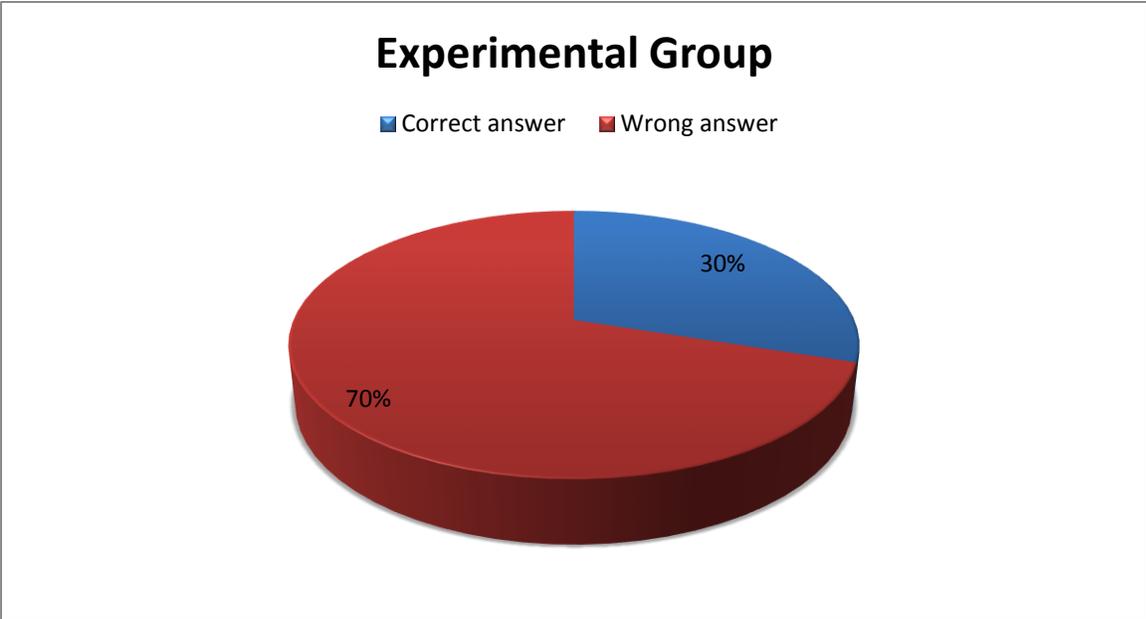


**Figure 50: Control Group Effect on the Source and Target Audience in the Pre-test**

The following table contains the experimental group's scores on the difference between the effect on the source and target audience. We observe that 30% of the subjects see that there is a difference between the effect that the source and target audience receive while 70% think that there is no difference as it is illustrates in the following pie chart.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 12          | 30            |
| Wrong answer   | 28          | 70            |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 42: Experimental Group on the Effect on the Source and Target Audience in the Pre-test**



**Figure 51: Experimental Group Effect on the Source and Target Audience in the Pre-test**

**5.1.2. Discussion of the Pre-test Results**

Subjects in the pre-test do not recognize the text-type of the text to be translated and as a result it would be difficult for them to identify its thesis statement. While the majority of these respondents give wrong answers, the subjects who give correct answers when asked to justify they do not provide a convincing explanation that shows that their answers are given according

to logical and correct information but sometimes their answers are given haphazardly. In providing the translation of the thesis statement, the minority who selected the correct thesis statement fail to provide an equivalent translation into Arabic while the majority provided a translation of other statements without even being correct.

The subjects of the experimental group show approximately the same performance as those of the control group in the pre-test. This performance can be summarized in these points:

- Choosing the same wrong type of text: expository rather than argumentative.
- Choosing the same wrong thesis statement:
- Providing a poor or weak translation for the thesis statement
- Totally ignore the term speech act and its types.
- Being unable to identify the exact dominant illocutionary force ‘arguing’ because they ignore to the type of this text and do not recognize the meaning of illocutionary act in itself.
- Being unable to select the exact arguments from the text.
- Providing a poor or weak translation for the selected sentences.
- Concerning perlocutionary effect, although they select ‘persuading’ their justification proves that they provide an answer that goes against the choice of text selected before and this is a contradiction.
- Most of the respondents see that it is the same effect on both source and target audience. However, their explanation, again, reflects their ignorance to the difference between English and Arabic languages in terms of their styles, text



types, genres and so on and as a result, EFL learners, in this case Algerian students, receive a different effect compared to native speakers.

### **5.1.3. The Analysis of the Post-test**

In evaluating the scores of the post-test and in its first section, we focus on:

- The subjects' knowledge concerning speech acts (definition and types), argumentation (illocutionary act 'arguing' and perlocutionary act 'convincing').
- Extracting the appropriate statements that contain the thesis statement and the arguments.
- The subjects' awareness to make the link between what they study in their different modules: written expression: argumentation, pragmatics: speech acts and how they apply this knowledge in translating argumentative texts.
- The students' awareness whether it is the same effect on source and target audience or not.

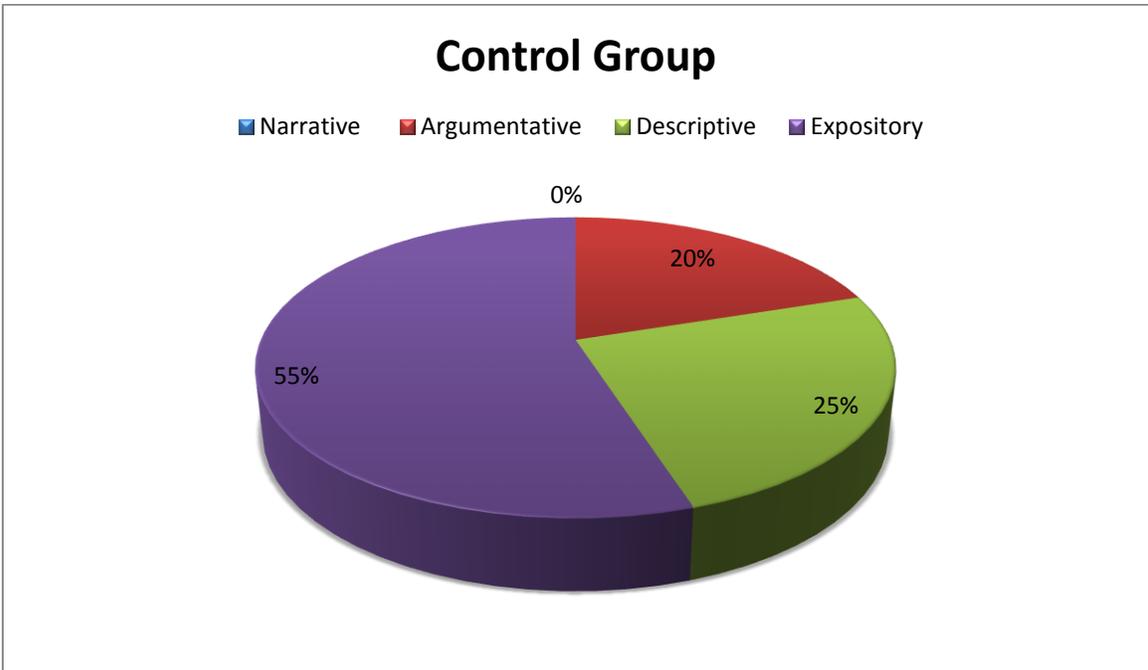
However, in the second section of the post-test, we focus on the performance of the subjects in translating the thesis statement and the arguments.

#### **➤ Question 1**

- 1) What is the type of this text?

| Text-type     | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|---------------|-------------|---------------|
| Narrative     | 0           | 0             |
| Argumentative | 8           | 20            |
| Descriptive   | 10          | 25            |
| Expository    | 22          | 55            |
| Total N       | 40          | 100           |

**Table 43: Control Group Post-test Text- type**



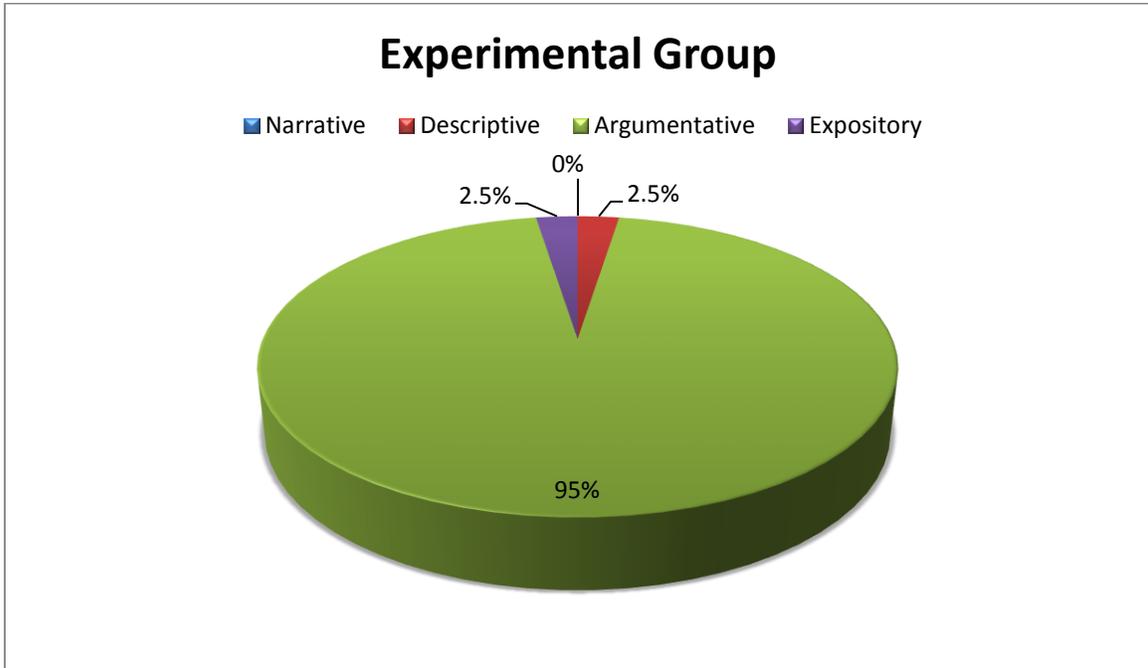
**Figure 52: Control Group Post-test Text-type**

The above table shows that the majority (55%) of the control group’s subjects in the post-test see that the text is ‘expository’. While no one select the narrative type, 20% say it is argumentative and 25% think that it is descriptive. The above pie chart illustrates these percentages of the performance of the control group on the post-test text-type.

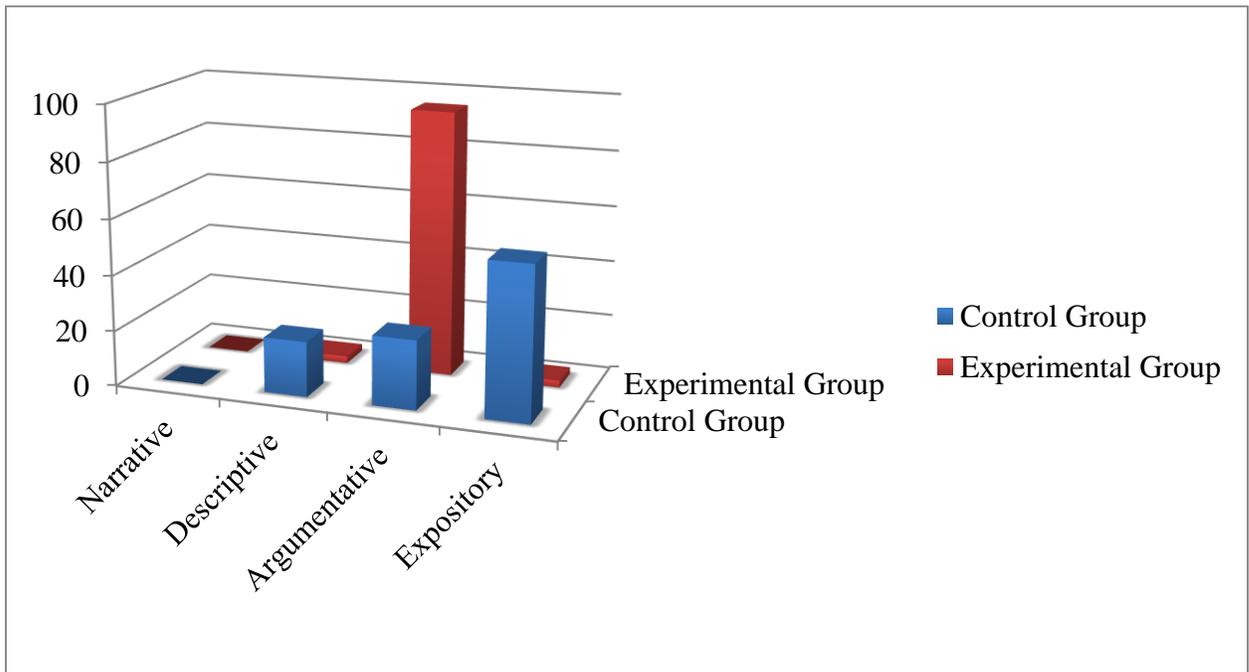
However, the following table that includes the scores of experimental group subjects on the post-test's text-type, shows that the majority of the subjects 95% see that the text is argumentative while 2.5% think that it is descriptive and 2.5% say it is expository and no one select the narrative type. These percentages are clearly illustrated in the following figure.

| <b>Text-type</b>     | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Narrative</b>     | 0                  | 0                    |
| <b>Descriptive</b>   | 1                  | 2.5                  |
| <b>Argumentative</b> | 38                 | 95                   |
| <b>Expository</b>    | 1                  | 2.5                  |
| <b>Total N</b>       | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 44: Experimental Group Post-test Text-type**



**Figure 53: Experimental Group Post-test Text-type**



**Figure 54: Subjects' Performance on the Text-type in the Post-test**

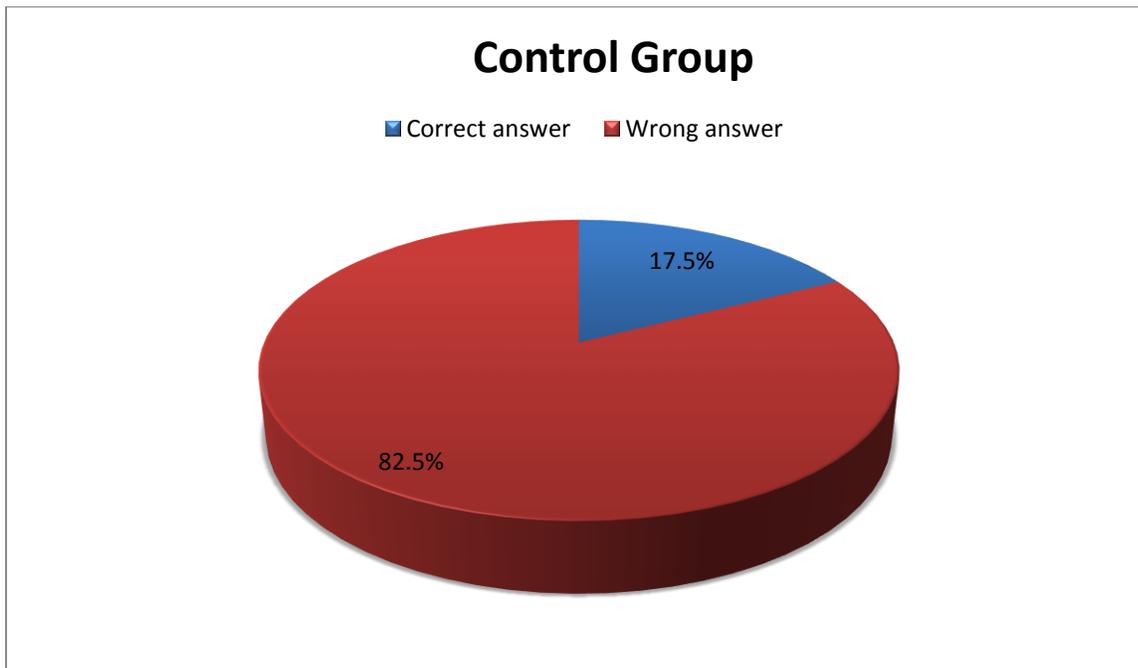
➤ **Question 2**

2) Extract the thesis statement of this text.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 7                  | 17.5                 |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 33                 | 82.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 45: Control Group Post-test Thesis Statement**

In the post-test, 17.5% of the subjects of the control group select the correct thesis statement while 82.5% fail to provide the required thesis statement from the text as it is shown in the above table and clearly illustrated in the following figure.



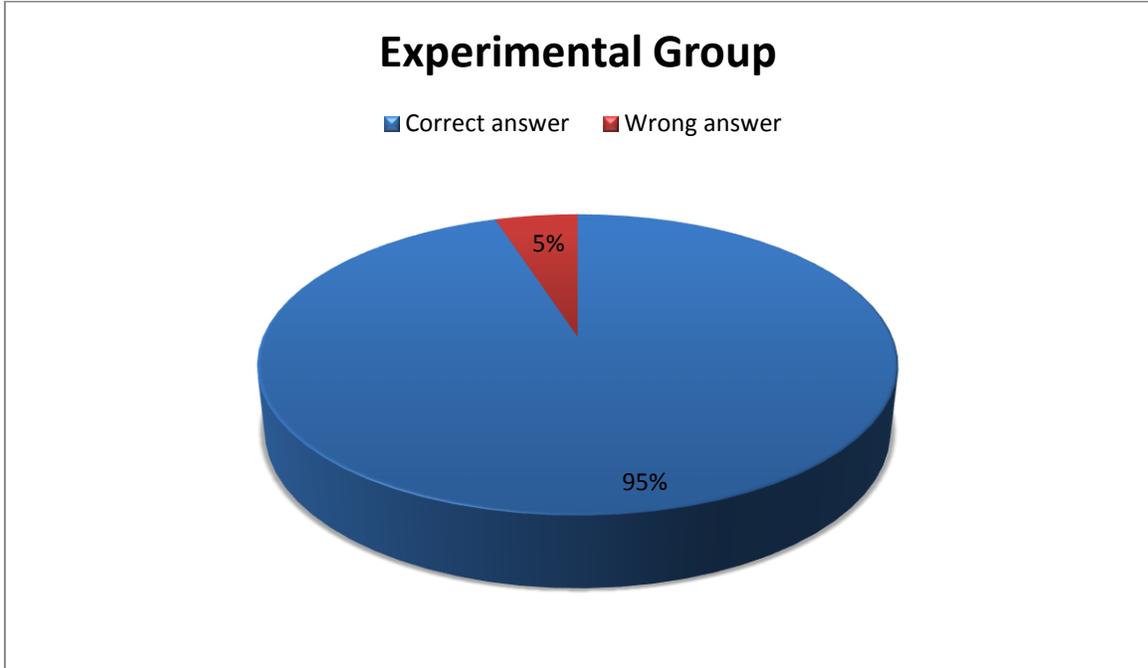
**Figure 55: Control Group Post-test Thesis Statement**

On the contrary, the following table shows that 95% of the subjects of the experimental group identified the correct thesis statement while only 5% of them did not. The majority of the respondents in the post-test succeeded to recognize the thesis statement as it is shown in the next pie chart.

- **But I believe that we have no right to use force, directly or indirectly, to prevent a fellow man from committing suicide, let alone from drinking alcohol or taking drugs.**

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 38                 | 95                   |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 2                  | 5                    |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 46: Experimental Group Post-test Thesis Statement**



**Figure 56: Experimental Group Post-test Thesis Statement**

➤ **Question 3**

3) Translate the extracted thesis statement into Arabic.

- **But I believe that we have no right to use force, directly or indirectly, to prevent a fellow man from committing suicide, let alone from drinking alcohol or taking drugs.**

• لكنني أعتقد أننا لا نملك الحق في استعمال القوة بطريقة مباشرة أو غير مباشرة لمنع فرد من الانتحار ناهيك عن منعه من شرب الخمر أو تعاطي المخدرات.

- /lakinī ‘a’taqīdu ‘ananā la namliku al- ḥaq fi isti’ māl al-quwa bitariqa mubāshira aw ghayr mubāshira li man‘ fard mina al-intihār nahīka ’an man’ihi min shurb al-khamri aw ta’āti al-mukhadirāt/.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 4           | 10            |
| Wrong answer   | 36          | 90            |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 47: Control Group Translation of the Post-test Thesis Statement**

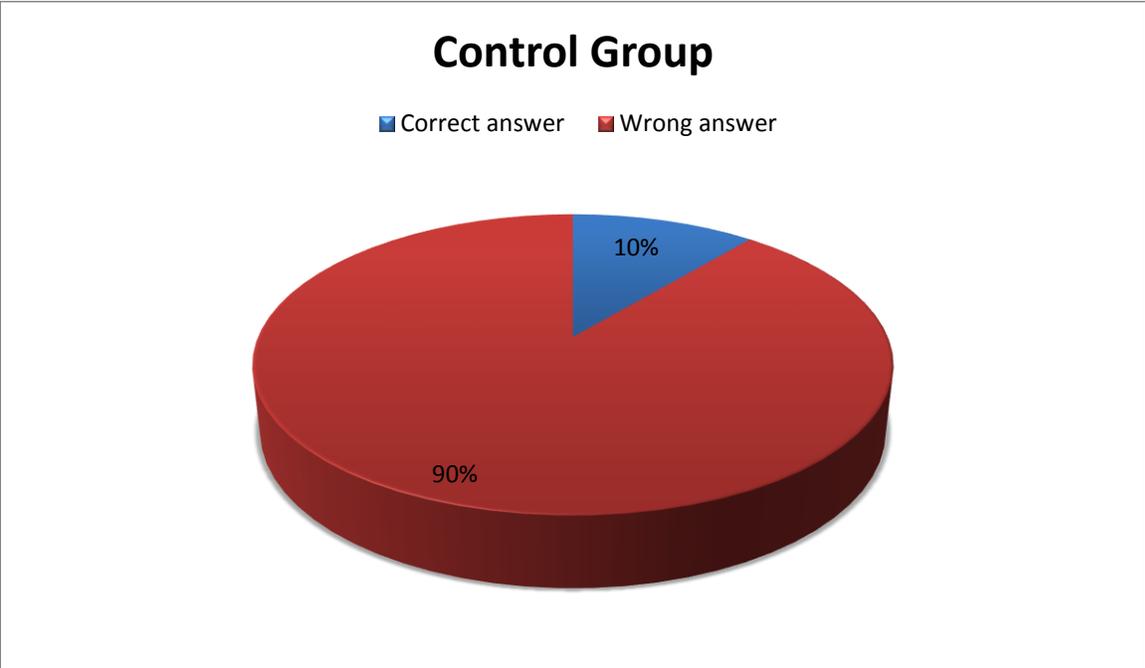
When asked to translate the selected thesis statement, 10% of the subjects of the control group provided good and acceptable translation into Arabic while the remaining subjects who compose 90% gave a wrong translation either because they fail to provide an equivalent translation or because they selected the wrong thesis statement. The following figure illustrates the percentages listed in the above table.

• لكني أعتقد أننا لا نملك أي حق في استخدام قوة مباشرة أو غير مباشرة, لمنع انسان من ارتكاب الانتحار و تركه وحيدا في شرب الكحول أو أخذ المخدرات.

- /lākini 'a'taqidu 'ananā la namliku ay ḥaq fī istikhdām quwa mubāshira aw ghayr mubāshira li man' insān min irtikāb al-intihār wa tarkihi wahidan fi shurbi al-ku ḥ ul aw akhd al-mukhadirāt/.

What is to be noticed here is that the subjects used the word 'ارتكاب الانتحار' to translate 'committing suicide' which is wrong and also they translate 'let alone' as 'تركه وحيدا' which is a wrong word-for-word translation that gives a totally different meaning to the sentence.



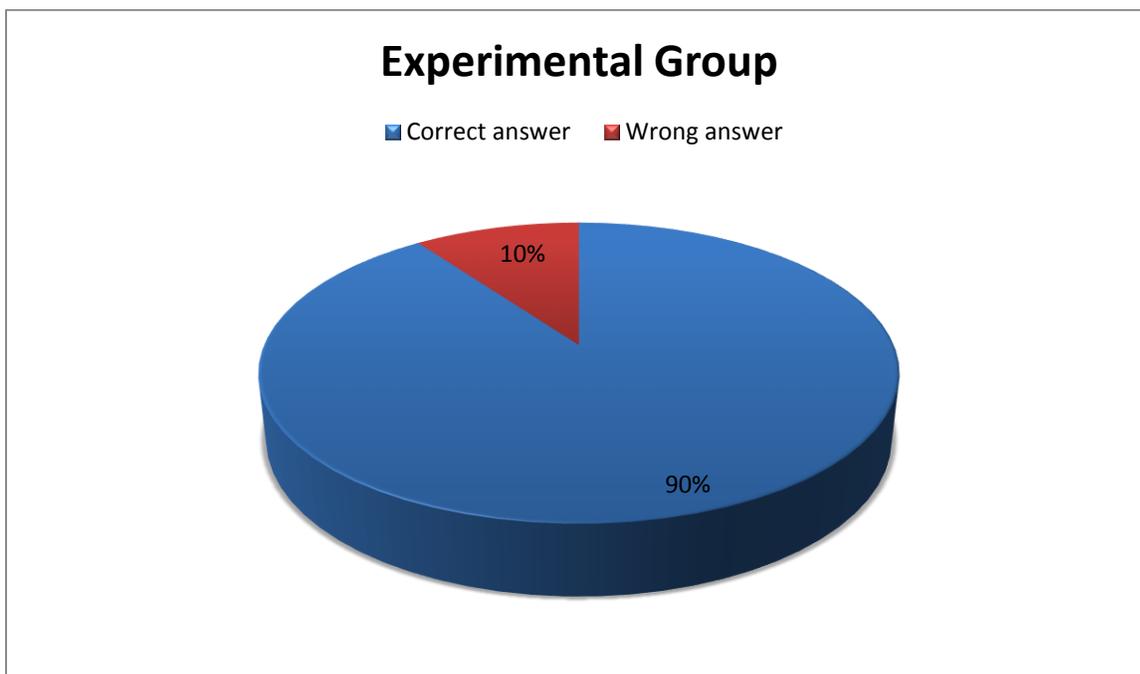


**Figure 57: Control Group Translation of the Post-test Thesis Statement**

The reaction of the subjects of the experimental group was different to this question in that they, first, chose the correct thesis statement and second they succeeded to some extent to translate it into Arabic. The table below shows that 90% of the subjects give correct answer while only 10% of them fail to do so. These percentages are clearly illustrated in the following pie chart.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 36          | 90            |
| Wrong answer   | 4           | 10            |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 48: Experimental Group Translation of the Post-test Thesis Statement**



**Figure 58: Experimental Group Translation of the Post-test Thesis Statement**

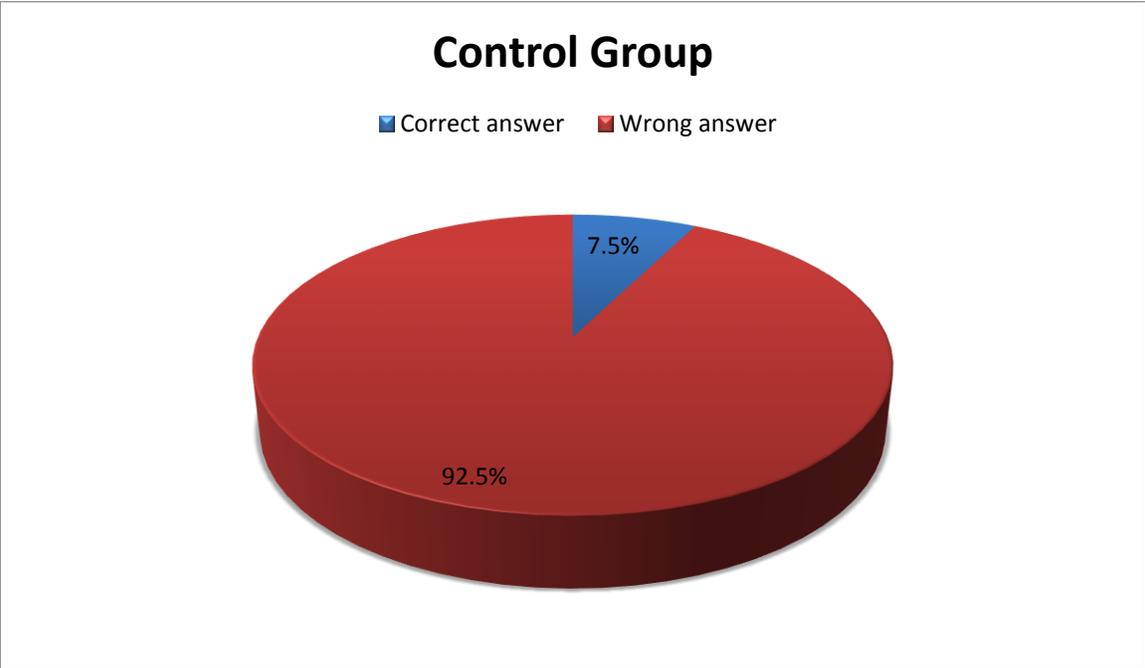
➤ **Question 4**

4) What is the dominant illocutionary act?

For the fourth question in the post-test, 92.5% of the respondents of the control group fail to recognize the dominant illocutionary act of the text while only 7.5% give the correct answer.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 3           | 7.5           |
| Wrong answer   | 37          | 92.5          |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 49: Control Group Post-test Dominant Illocutionary Act**

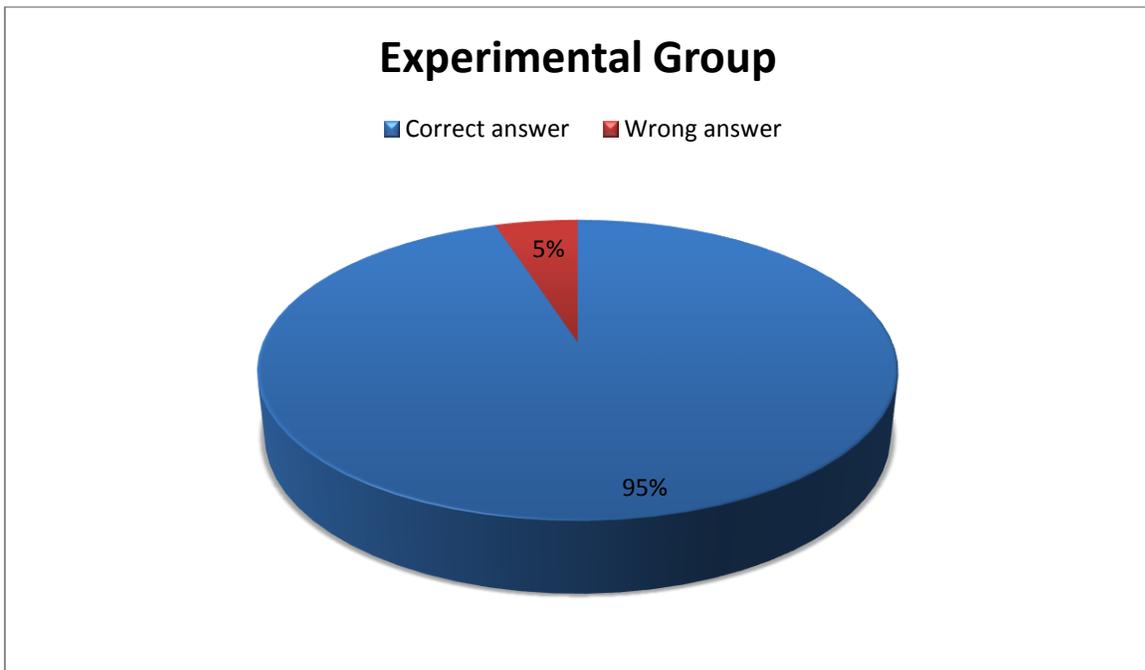


**Figure 59: Control Group Post-test Dominant Illocutionary Act**

On the contrary, 95% of the respondents of the experimental group recognize the dominant illocutionary force of the text while only 5% did not give the correct answer.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 38          | 95            |
| Wrong answer   | 2           | 5             |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 50: Experimental Group Post-test Dominant Illocutionary Act**



**Figure 60: Experimental Group Post-test Dominant Illocutionary Act**

➤ **Question 5**

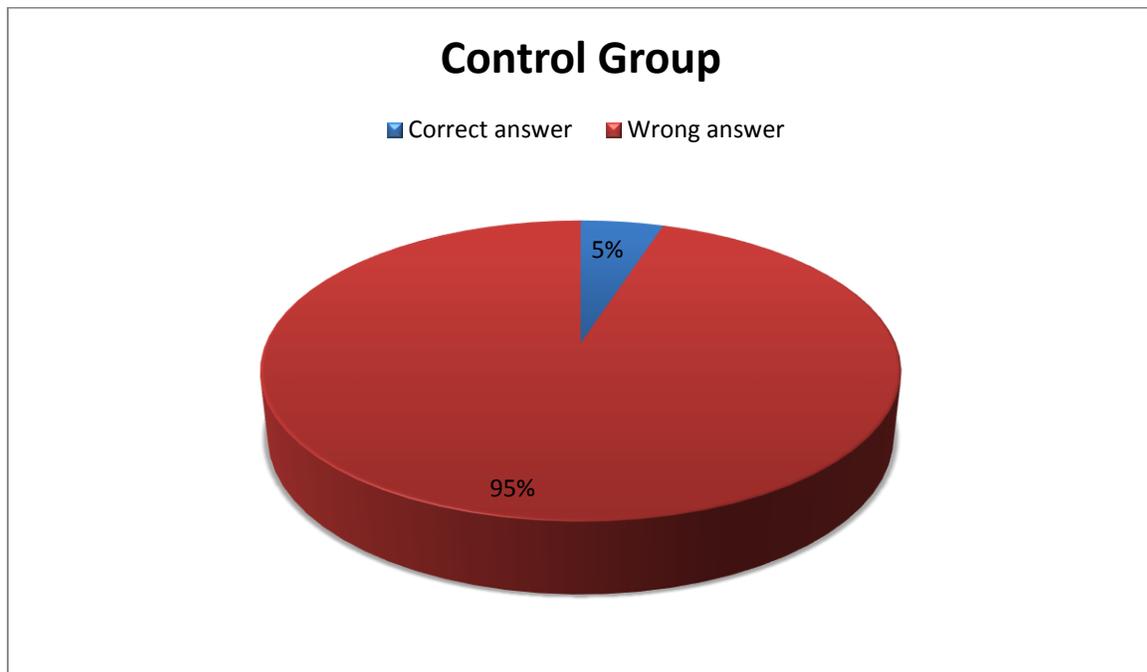
5) Write out the sentences that include this dominant illocutionary force in this text.

After being asked to recognize the dominant illocutionary act of the text in the post-test, control group respondents in question 5 are asked to pick up the statements that include that

dominant illocutionary force. 95% of them give wrong answers whereas 5% provide correct answers.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 2                  | 5                    |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 38                 | 95                   |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 51: Control Group Post-test Arguments**



**Figure 61: Control Group Post-test Arguments**

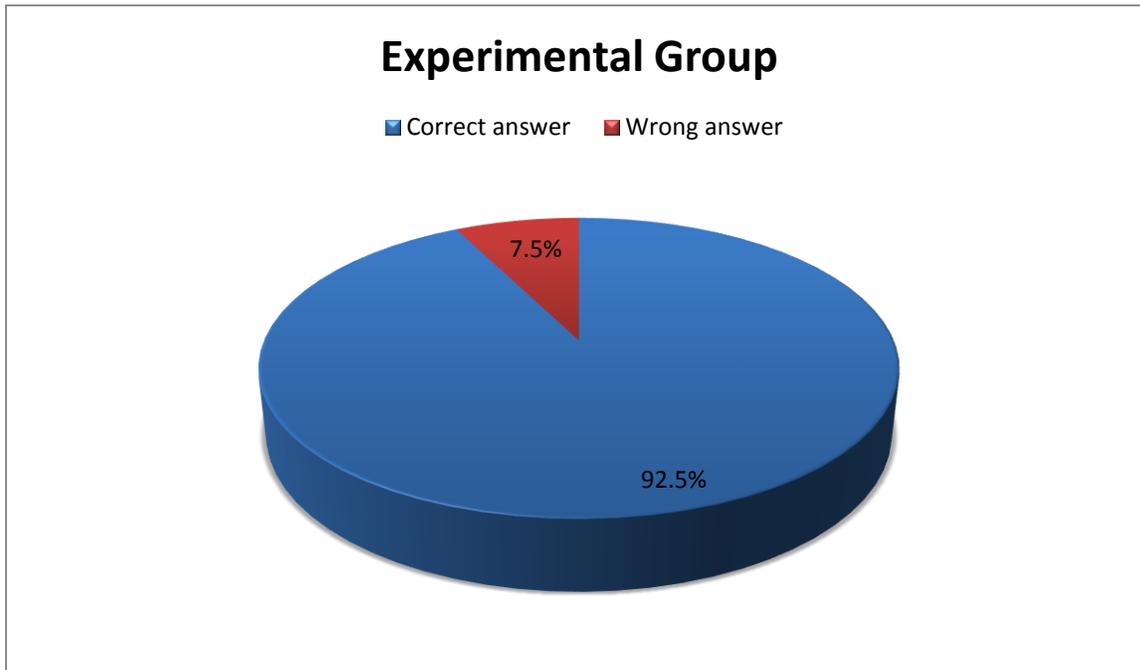
The arguments to be extracted from the text are:

- **Prohibition is an attempted cure that makes matters worse for both the addict and the rest of us. Hence, even if you regard present policy towards drugs as ethically justified, considerations of expediency make that policy most unwise.**
- **Legalising drugs might increase the number of addicts, but it is not clear that it would.**
- **If drugs were legally available, any possible profit from such inhumane activity would disappear, since the addict could buy from the cheapest source.**
- **Whatever happens to the number of addicts, the individual would clearly be far better off if drugs were legal.**
- **The harm to us from the addiction of others arises almost wholly from the fact that drugs are illegal.**
- **Moreover, addicts and pushers are not the only ones corrupted. Immense sums are at stake. It is inevitable that some relatively low-paid police and other government officials – and some high-paid ones as well-- will succumb to the temptation to pick up easy money.**

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 37                 | 92.5                 |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 3                  | 7.5                  |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 52: Experimental Group Post-test Arguments**

This table shows that experimental group's response to question 5 was positive as 92.5% selected the required statements while 7.5% fail to do so. The following pie chart gives a clear picture of these percentages.



**Figure 62: Experimental Group Post-test Arguments**

➤ **Question 6**

6) Translate the extracted sentences into Arabic.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 1                  | 2.5                  |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 39                 | 97.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 53: Control Group Translation of Post-test Arguments**

In question 6, the respondents were asked to translate the selected statements that include the dominant illocutionary force. The above table shows that the control group's performance was weak as only 2.5% give a good translation while the remaining 97.5% give a wrong translation either for the correct statements or because they chose wrong statement start from the beginning as it is represented in the following figure. An example of their translation for the arguments is as follows:

- **Prohibition is an attempted cure that makes matters worse for both the addict and the rest of us. Hence, even if you regard present policy towards drugs as ethically justified, considerations of expediency make that policy most unwise.**

• المنع هو علاج يحاول ان يجعل من الأمور أكثر للمدمن و الباقون منا, و اذن حتى ولو نظرنا الى السياسة الحالية اتجاه المخدرات أنها مبررة أخلاقياً, فاعتبارات الواقع تجعل من هذه السياسة غير حكيمة.

- /al-man'u huwa 'ilāj yuḥāwil an yaj'alā mina al-umur akthar lilmudmin wa al-baqun mina wa idhanan walaw nadarna ila al-siāsa al-hālia itijāh al-mukhadirāt anahā mubarara akhlāqian fa'i'tibārātu al-wāqi'i taj'alu min hadhihi al-siāsa ghayr ḥ akima/

The subjects here either omitted some words or mistranslated other word that gives a poor translation to the sentence.



- **Legalising drugs might increase the number of addicts, but it is not clear that it would.**

• إذا كانت العقاقير المتاحة قانوناً، فإن أي ربح محتمل من هذا النشاط غير إنساني تختفي، لأن المدمن يمكن أن تشتري من أرخص مصدر.

- /idhā kānat al-‘aqāqir al-mutāḥa qānunan fa’ina ay ribḥin muhtmal min hadhā al-nashāt ghayr al-insāni takhtafi li’ana al-mudmin yumkin an yashtari min arkhas masdar/.

In the translation of this argument, the subjects translated ‘**drugs**’ as ‘العقاقير’ /al-‘aqāqir/ while it should be translated as ‘المخدرات’ /al-mukhadirāt/ which makes the target reader confused. However, in the translation of the following argument, the structure was wrong and resulted in poor translation.

- **If drugs were legally available, any possible profit from such inhumane activity would disappear, since the addict could buy from the cheapest source.**

• مهما حدث لعدد من المدمنين، فإن الفرد يكون بوضوح أفضل حالاً بكثير إذا كانت العقاقير القانونية.

- /mahmā ḥadatha li ‘adadin mina al-mudminin fa’ina al-fard yakun biwuduḥ afdhal ḥālan bikathir idhā kānat al’aqāqir al-qānunia/.

- **The harm to us from the addiction of others arises almost wholly from the fact that drugs are illegal.**

- الضرر لنا من إدمان البعض الآخر الذي يطرح نفسه كليا تقريبا من حقيقة أن المخدرات غير المشروعة.

- /al-dararu lana min idman al-ba'dh al-ākhar al-ladhi yatraḥu nafsahu koliatan taqriban min ḥaқиqati ana al-mukhadirāt ghayr mashru'a/.

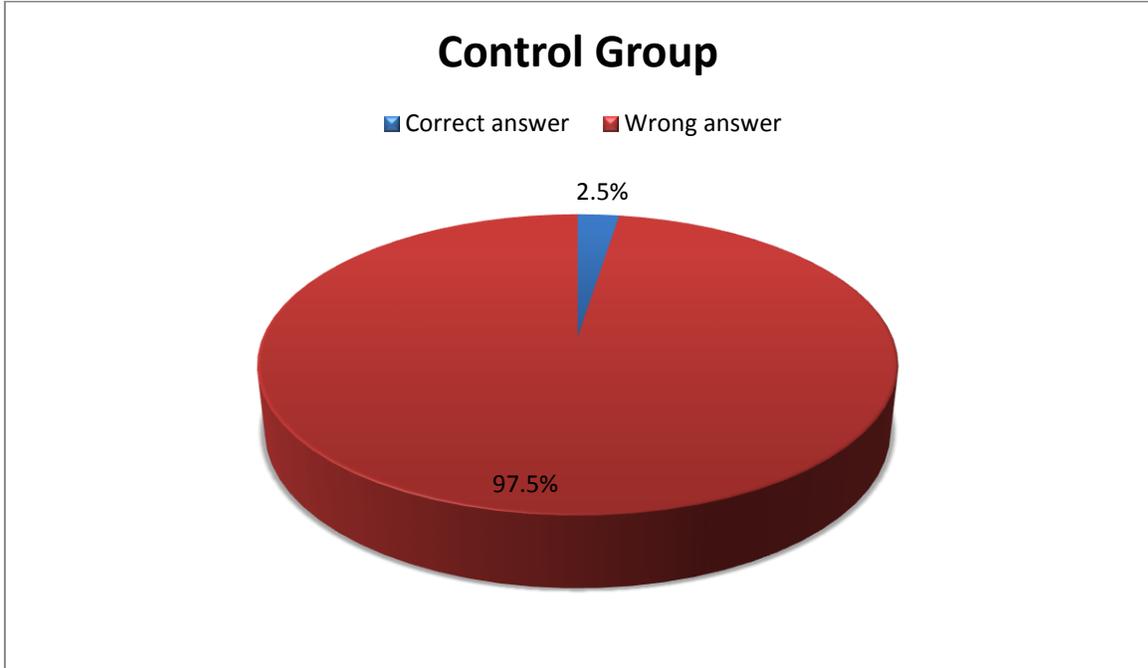
In the above argument, the students' translation was also weak and the reader would not get the meaning of the sentence as the structure was in disorder and the literal translation here was totally wrong. In addition, the word 'arises from' was translated differently as /yatraḥu nafsahu min/ يطرح نفسه من and this changes the whole meaning of the argument.

- **Moreover, addicts and pushers are not the only ones corrupted. Immense sums are at stake. It is inevitable that some relatively low-paid police and other government officials – and some high-paid ones as well-- will succumb to the temptation to pick up easy money.**

- ومع ذلك، المدمنين والدافعيين ليسوا وحدهم في التلف فهناك مجموعة هائلة في خطر. لا يمكن تفادي أن البعض نسبيا يدفع قليلا لأفراد الشرطة ومسؤولين حكوميين آخرين وحتى مبالغ عالية كما سوف تستسلم لإغراء التقاط المال السهل.

- /wa ma'a dhalika al-mudminin wa al-dafi'in laysu wahdahum fi al-talaf fahunak majmu'a ha'ila fi khatar la yumkin tafadi 'ana al-ba'dha nisbianan yadfa'un qalilan li 'afraad al-shurta wa mas'ulin ḥukumiyn 'akharin wa ḥata mabāligh al-'alia kama sawfa tastaslimu li'ighrā' iltiqāt al-māl al-sahl /

In the last argument, the subjects destroy the meaning of the sentence and did not understand the illocutionary force of the argument. They made serious mistakes as they translate the word 'pushers' as 'الدافعيين' instead of 'المروجين', 'corrupted' as 'التلف' instead of 'المفسدين', 'immense sums at stake' as 'مجموعة هائلة في خطر' instead of 'مبالغ هائلة على المحك'. They also mistranslated 'low-paid' as 'يدفع قليلا' instead of 'منخفضي الأجر' as they translated 'some well-paid ones as well' as 'وحتى مبالغ عالية' instead of 'وحتى بعض ذوي الدخل العالي'. Moreover, another mistake was made in the literal translation of the word 'pick up' as 'التقاط' instead of 'الحصول'. Even the structure of the sentence was changed so the reader would understand something else rather than the meaning of the sentence in the source text; for instance, in saying 'أن البعض نسبيا يدفع قليلا لأفراد الشرطة' to translate '**some relatively low-paid police**' which is normally translated as 'أن بعض أفراد الشرطة منخفضي الأجر نسبيا', we see that the subjects did not understand the meaning so they provide a different meaning with a different structure which results in providing a new wrong meaning.



**Figure 53: Control Group Translation of Post-test Arguments**

On the other hand, the experimental group whose majority selected the required statements succeeds to some extent in their translation into Arabic.

- **Prohibition is an attempted cure that makes matters worse for both the addict and the rest of us. Hence, even if you regard present policy towards drugs as ethically justified, considerations of expediency make that policy most unwise.**

- ان المنع هو محاولة علاج تجعل الأمور أكثر سوءا بالنسبة للمتعاطي و حتى بقية المجتمع, فحتى لو اعتبرنا السياسة الحالية الخاصة بمحاربة المخدرات مبررة أخلاقيا, فمعابنة الواقع تجعل منها سياسة غير حكيمة.

- / 'ina al-man' huwa muḥawalat 'ilāj taj'alu al-umur 'akthar su'an binisbati lilmuta'ati wa ḥata baqiyat al-mujtama' faḥatā law 'i'tabarna al-siāsa al-ḥālia al-khāsa bimuhārabat al-mukhadirtā mubarara akhlāqian famu'ayanatu al-wāqi' taj'alu minha siāsa ghayr ḥakima/
- **Legalising drugs might increase the number of addicts, but it is not clear that it would.**

• ان جعل تعاطي المخدرات أمرا قانونيا قد تزيد من عدد المتعاطين و لكن ليس واضحا اذا كان من الممكن أن يحصل ذلك.

- /'ina ja'l ta'ati al-mukhadirāt 'amran qānunan qad yazidu min 'adadi al-muta'ātin walākin laysa wādihan idhā kāna mina al-mumkini an yaḥsula dhālika /
- **Whatever happens to the number of addicts, the individual would clearly be far better off if drugs were legal.**

• و مهما يكن عدد المتعاطين فسيكون الفرد أحسن حالا لو أن تعاطي المخدرات كان بصفة قانونية.

- /wa mahmā yakun 'adad al-muta'atin fasayakun al-fard a ḥ sana hālan law ana ta'ati al-mukhadirāt kāna bisifatin qānunia/

- **If drugs were legally available, any possible profit from such inhumane activity would disappear, since the addict could buy from the cheapest source.**

• إذا كانت المخدرات متاحة قانونياً، فإن إمكانية أي ربح محتمل من هذا النشاط الغير إنساني تختفي  
بمأن المدمن من الممكن أن يشتري من أرخص مصدر.

- /idhā kānat al-mukhadirāt mutāḥa qānūnian fa 'ina 'imk āniata ay ribḥin muḥtamal min hadhā al-nashāt al-ghayr insāni takhtafi bima 'ana al-mudmin mina al-mumkin 'an yashtari min 'arkhas l-masadir/

- **The harm to us from the addiction of others arises almost wholly from the fact that drugs are illegal.**

• ان الضرر الناتج على البعض من إدمان البعض الآخر يبرز كلياً من كون المخدرات غير مشروعة.

- /'ina al-darara al-nātij 'alā al-ba'dh min idman al-ba'dh al-'akhar yabruzu kolian min kawn al-mukhadirāt ghayr mashru'a /
- **Moreover, addicts and pushers are not the only ones corrupted. Immense sums are at stake. It is inevitable that some relatively low-paid police and other government officials – and some high-paid ones as well-- will succumb to the temptation to pick up easy money.**

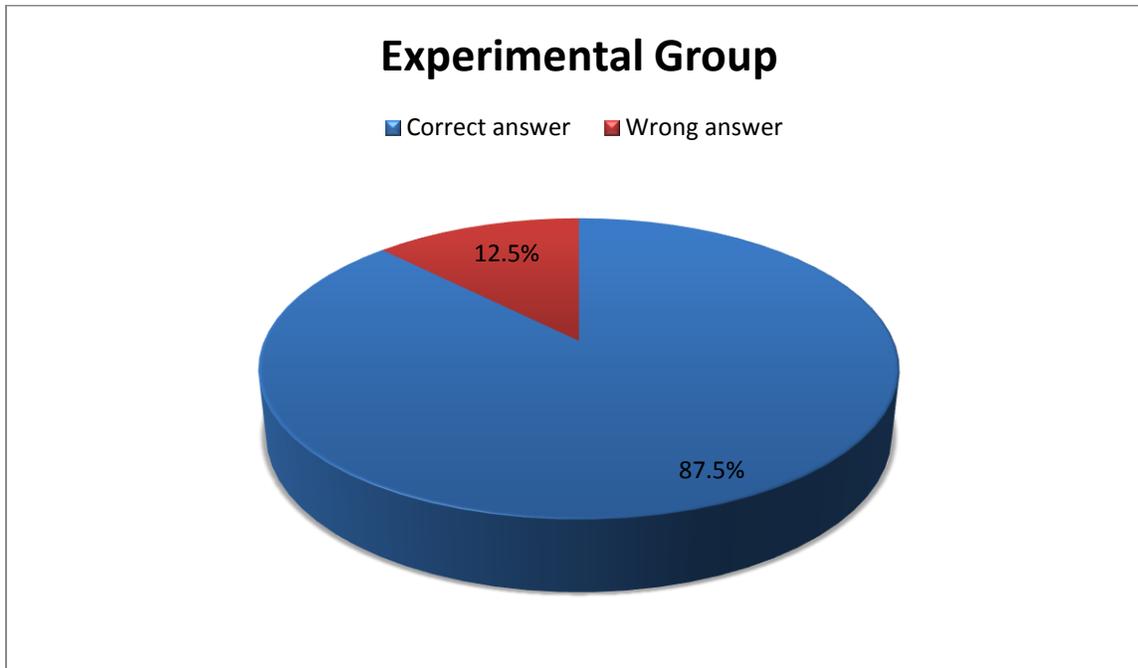
• وعلاوة على ذلك، فإن المدمنين والمروجين ليسوا وحدهم المفسدين. فهناك مبالغ هائلة على المحك. انه أمر محتم أن بعض أفراد الشرطة منخفضة الأجر نسبيا ومسؤولين حكوميين آخرين وحتى بعض ذوي الدخل العالي سوف يستسلمون لإغراء الحصول السهل على المال.

- /wa 'ilawatan 'ala dhālika fa'ina al-mudminin wa al-murawijin laysu waḥdahum al-mufsidin fahunāk mabāligh hā'ila 'ala al-miḥak.'inahu 'amrun muhatamun 'ana ba'dha 'afraad al-shurta munkhafidi al-'ajr nisbian wa mas'ulin ḥukumiyyin 'akharin wa ḥ ata ba'dh dhawi al-dakhl al-'āli sawfa yastaslimun li'ighrā' al- ḥusul al-sahl 'ala al-māl/

This performance is represented in the percentage of 87.5% of correct answers. 12.5% fail to provide a good translation as it is showed in the following table and figure.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 35          | 87.5          |
| Wrong answer   | 5           | 12.5          |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 54: Experimental Group Translation of Post-test Arguments**



**Figure 64: Experimental Group Translation of Post-test Arguments**

➤ **Question 7**

7) What is the perlocutionary effect can you, as a reader, receive?

As it is presented in the table below, 20% of the Ctr. Gr. subjects provided a correct answer to question 7 which is related to the perlocutionary effect of the text while the majority, 80%, give wrong answers.



|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 8           | 20            |
| Wrong answer   | 32          | 80            |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 55: Control Group Post-test Perlocutionary Effect**

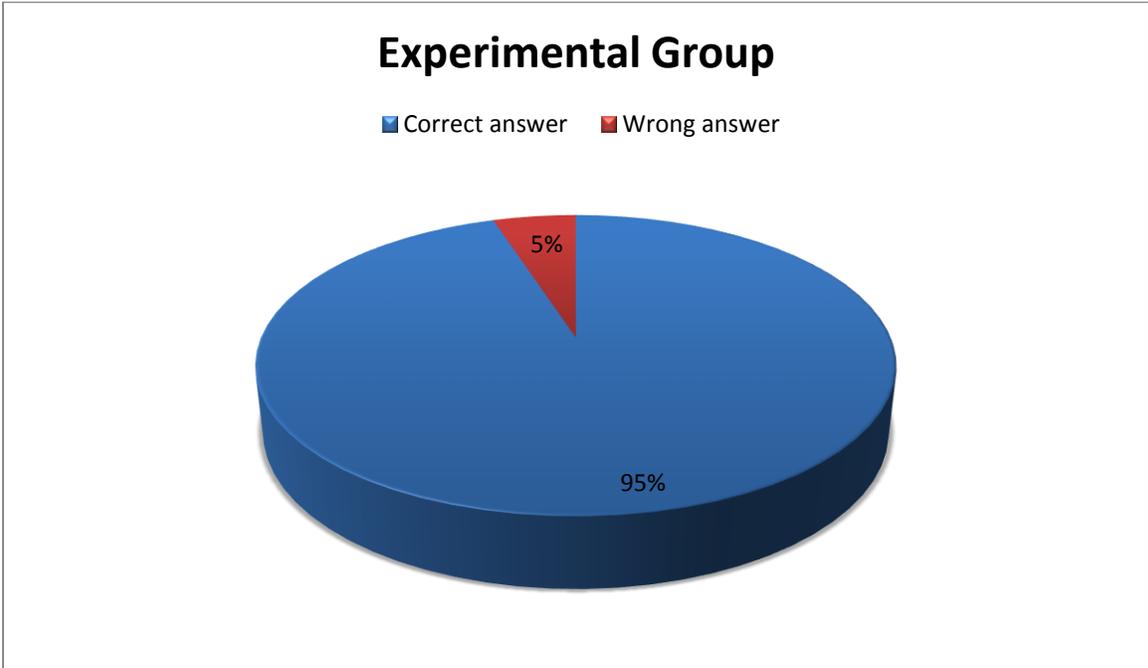


**Figure 65: Control Group Post-test Perlocutionary Effect**

The performance of the Xp. group was different from that of the Ctrl. Group concerning question 7 as it is observed from the following table that 95% of the subjects recognize the perlocutionary act of the post-test text whereas only 5% of them fail to do so.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 38          | 95            |
| Wrong answer   | 2           | 5             |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 56: Experimental Group Post-test Perlocutionary Effect**



**Figure 66: Experimental Group Post-test Perlocutionary Effect**

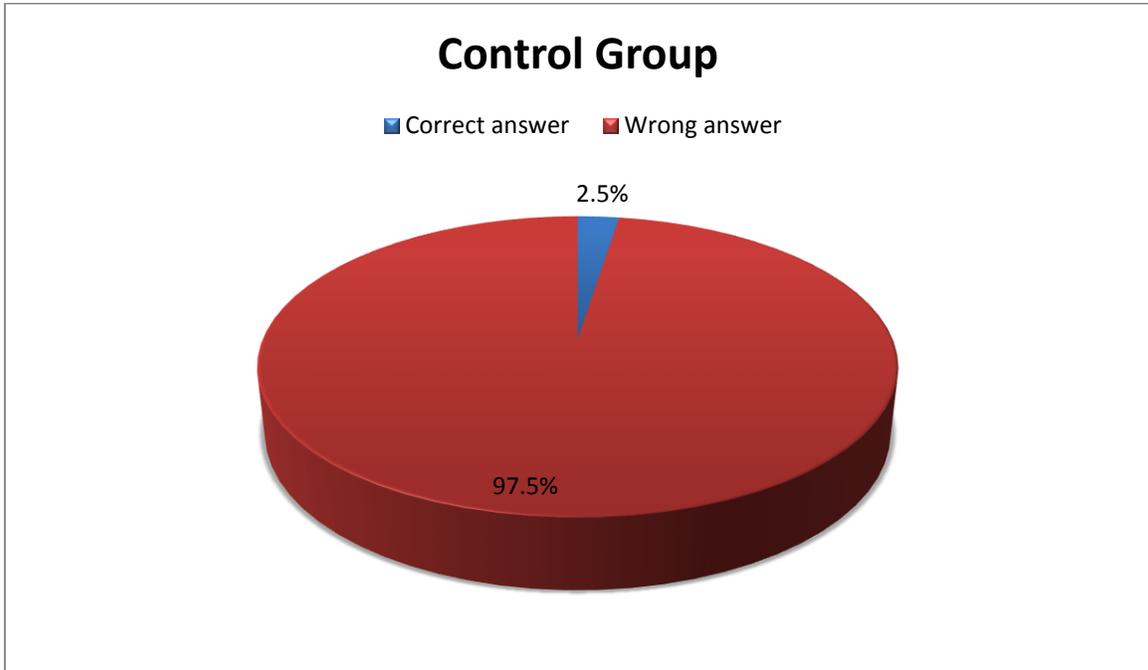
➤ **Question 8**

8) It is not an easy task to understand the implied meaning stated in the illocutionary act. In your opinion, what can help you as learners improve your ability to differentiate between what is said, what is implied (intended to be communicated) and what reaction should follow?

Question 8 tries to see how much the subjects know about pragmatics and speech acts. This table shows that only 2.5% from the control group subjects in the post-test provided a correct answer while 97.5% provided a wrong answer.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 1                  | 2.5                  |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 39                 | 97.5                 |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 57: Control Group Post-test Factors that improve Learners Ability to understand a Speech Act**

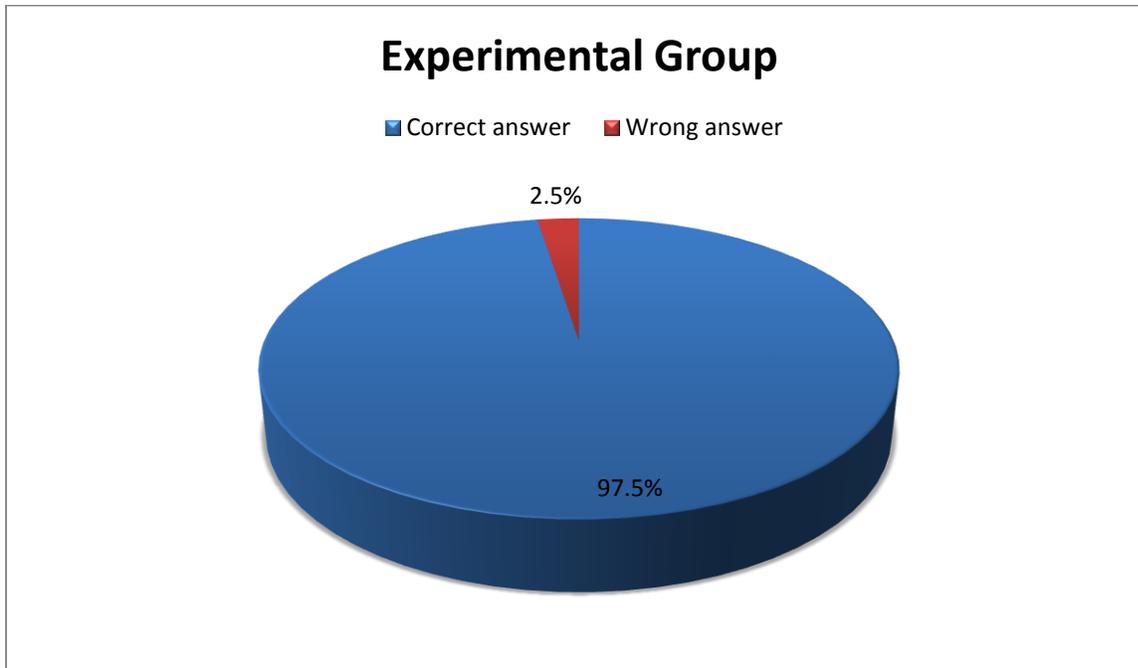


**Figure 67: Control Group Post-test Factors that improve Learners' Ability to understand a Speech Act**

While the subjects of the control group fail to answer question 8, it is not the case for the experimental group subjects as the percentages in the following table reveal that 97.5% of them give a correct answer by providing some factors that improve learners' ability to understand a speech act. Only 2.5% give a wrong answer.

|                       | <b>Frequencies</b> | <b>Percentages %</b> |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 39                 | 97.5                 |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 1                  | 2.5                  |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40                 | 100                  |

**Table 58: Experimental Group Post-test actors that improve Learners Ability to understand a Speech Act**



**Figure 68: Experimental Group Post-test Factors that improve Learners Ability to understand a Speech Act**

➤ **Question 9**

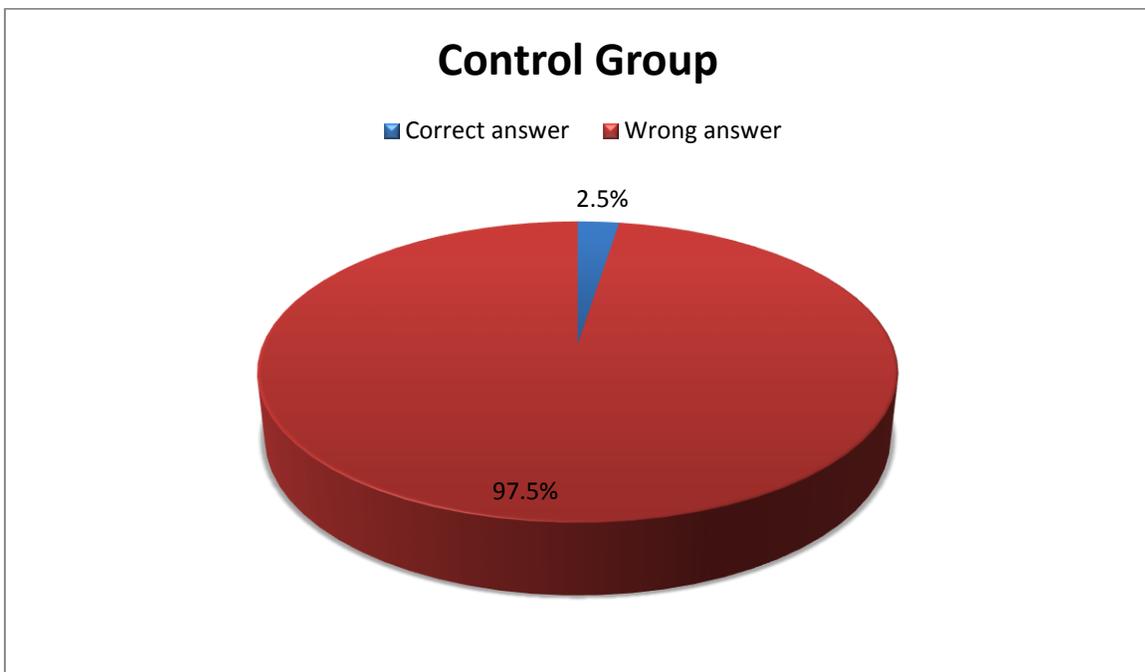
- 9) Explain the relationship between English argumentation as a speech act in English and its translation into Arabic.

In this question the subjects are asked to explain the relationship between argumentation and its translation from English into Arabic. The answers to this question reveal that there is a big difference between the concepts experimental and control subjects have on argumentation and its translation. The understanding of this situation is different as reflected in the percentages given in both tables of Exp. And Ctr. groups in the post-test. The first table and pie chart reveal

that only 2.5% of the Ctr. group gives correct answer to question 9 while 97.5% of them answered wrongly.

|                       | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|-----------------------|-------------|---------------|
| <b>Correct answer</b> | 1           | 2.5           |
| <b>Wrong answer</b>   | 39          | 97.5          |
| <b>Total N</b>        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 59: Control Group Post-test Relationship between English Argumentation and its Translation into Arabic**



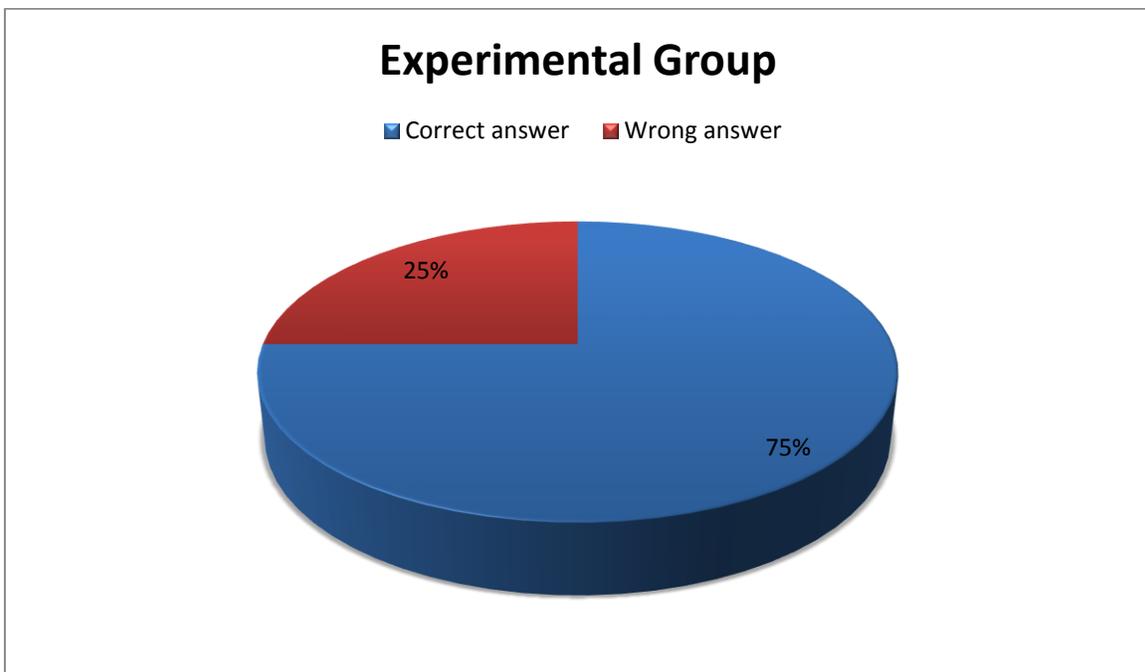
**Figure 69: Control Group Post-test Relationship between English Argumentation and its Translation into Arabic**

However, it is not the case for the subjects of the Exp. Group as the percentages given in the below table and illustrated in the following chart, express the capability of these subjects to understand the relationship between English argumentative discourse and its translation into

Arabic. The following table shows that 75% of the experimental group gives a correct answer while 25% fail to do so.

|                | Frequencies | Percentages % |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|
| Correct answer | 30          | 75            |
| Wrong answer   | 10          | 25            |
| Total N        | 40          | 100           |

**Table 60: Experimental Group Post-test Relationship between English Argumentation and its Translation into Arabic**



**Figure 70: Experimental Group Post-test Relationship between English Argumentation and its Translation into Arabic**

#### **5.1.4. Discussion of the Post-test Results**

In the post-test, we observe a significant change to some extent in that the subjects of the experimental group show a sort of progress in their performance in addition to enriching their knowledge about discourse, pragmatics, speech acts, and argumentation in addition to translation. At the same time, we notice that the testees of the control group show approximately the same performance as in the pretest. This reveals how important to make learners aware of the significance of something specific in their studies so that their performance in understanding, writing or translating a text from one language to another would be better. After dealing with four argumentative texts in the instruction period, the experimental subjects seem to be more aware of how to deal with a text before its translated version. In the experiment, these subjects besides being exposed to argumentative discourse, they were given information about pragmatics, speech acts, and translation trying to let them recognize the links between all these items in translating argumentative texts.

What can be extracted from the post-test is that as opposed to the testees of the control group, the respondents of the experimental group show their capacity to answer the questions of the post-test and provide an acceptable translation in general in that:

- They respond correctly when they were asked to provide the text-type, the thesis statement and the arguments.
- They translate the thesis statement and the arguments in a better way than in the pre-test.



## 5.2. The Comparison between the Pre-test and the Post-test Results

While analyzing the subjects' translation of both argumentative texts in the pre-test and the post-test, we examine several aspects of argumentative discourse in English and Arabic. The focus was on the following features: connectives, topic sentences, active/passive voice, verbs, adjectives and phrases, sentences, nominalization, lexical cohesion, modality, abstraction, repetition, ellipsis and rhetorical questions and thought provoking questions. By examining these features in the students' translated version compared to the source texts in the pre-test and the post-test, we investigate the ability of the subjects to translate argumentative texts adequately referring to the target version translated by specialists.

The scores of the post-test are different from those of the pre-test especially for the experimental group. On the contrary, we notice that there is no change in the results of the control group in the pre-test and the post-test but just a slight difference in the scores: it is to be noticed that only 3 subjects of the experimental group have the average in the pre-test and only 3 subjects of control group score the average. However, in the post-test, 39 subjects of the experimental group score the average and more than the average while only 1 subject scores below the average. On the other hand, only 2 subjects of the control group scores the average while 38 subjects score below the average.

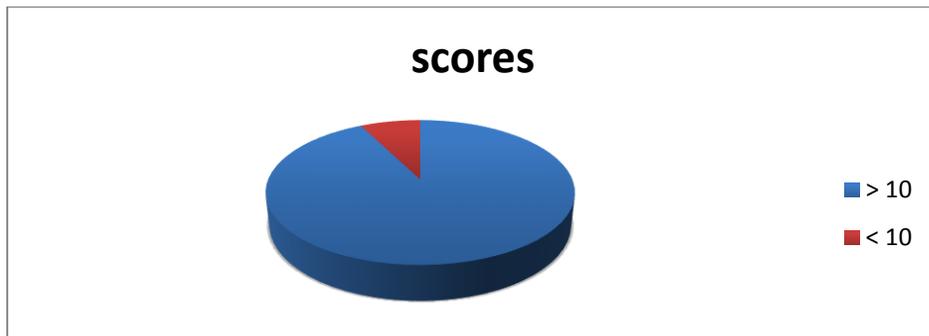
For the total scores, we obtain the following:

### **Pretest:**

#### **Experimental Group**

37 scores  $>$  10 (average)

3 scores  $<$  10 (average)



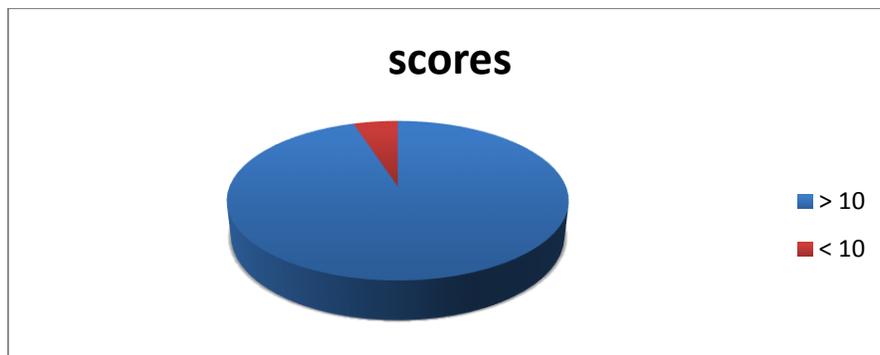
**Figure 71: Scores of Experimental Group in the Pre-test**

The above figure illustrates that in the pre-test, the 37 testees of the experimental group got under the average while just 3 of them score above the average.

### **Control Group**

37 scores > 10 (average)

3 scores < 10 (average)



**Figure 72: Scores of the Control Group in the Pre-test**

This figure shows that respondents of the control group in the pre-test have approximately the same scores as those of the experimental group as 37 testees are below the average and only 3 of them score above the average.

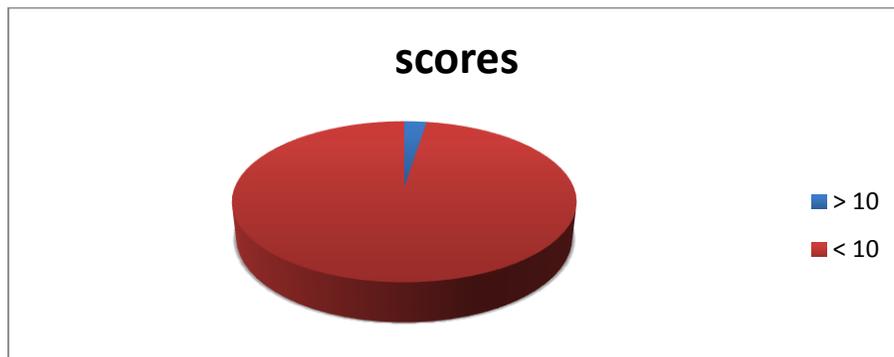
**Post-test:**

**Experimental Group**

1 scores  $> 10$  (average)

39 score  $< 10$  (average)

However, the figure below demonstrates a significant change and progress in the scores of the testees of the experimental group in the post-test. We observe that 39 respondents score above the average and only 1 testee scores under average.

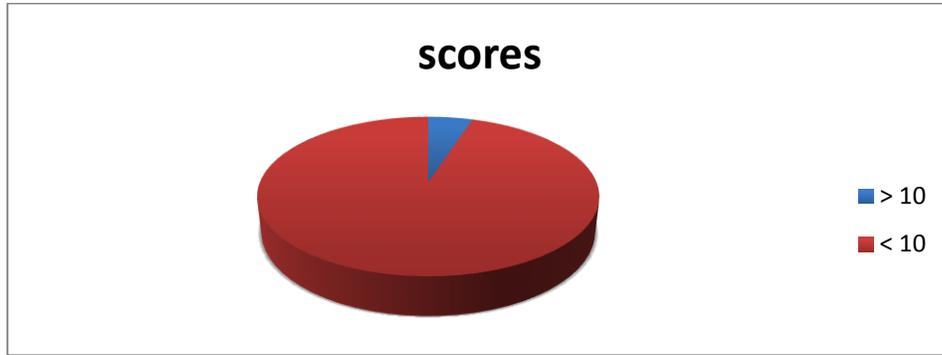


**Figure 73: Scores of the Experimental Group in the Post-test**

**Control Group**

2 score  $> 10$  (average)

38 scores  $< 10$  (average)



**Figure 74: Scores of the Control Group in the Post-test**

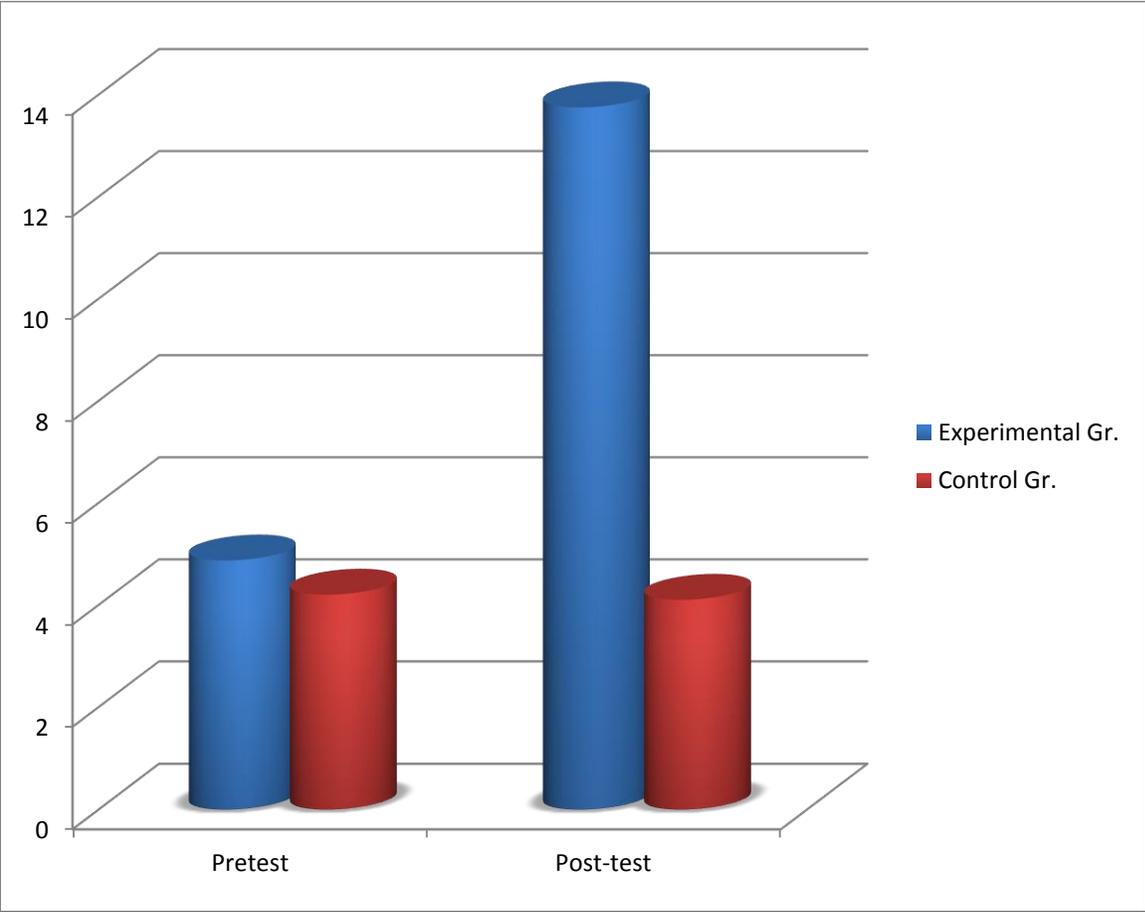
A clear comparison between the mean and the median is made by Antonius (2003:45) when he states: “both the mean and the median are measures of central tendency of a distribution; that is, they give us a central value around which the other values are found.” One important characteristic of the mean Antonius (2003:46) mentions is that it “takes into account every single value that occurs in the data” and here we conclude that the mean is sensitive to the other values as opposed to the median that does not change according to the change of values.

Calculation of the Mean:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n}$$

| <b>Mean X</b>    | <b>Experimental group</b> | <b>Control group</b> |
|------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|
| <b>Pre-test</b>  | 4.88                      | 4.1                  |
| <b>Post-test</b> | 13.80                     | 4.2                  |

**Table 61: Experimental and Control Groups’ Means in the Pre-test and the Post-test**



**Figure 75: Experimental and Control Groups' Means in the Pre-test and the Post-test**

### 5.3. Measuring the T-test using the SPSS

Antonius (2003) indicates the significance of using SPSS in analyzing data as it provides descriptive statistics (tables, charts, and numerical measures).

| Independent Samples Test |                             |   |      |                              |        |                 |                 |                       |   |        |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|--------|
|                          |                             | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances |      | t-test for Equality of Means |        |                 |                 |                       |   |        |
|                          |                             | F                                       | Sig. | t                            | df     | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference |        |
|                          |                             |   |      |                              |        |                 |                 |                       | Lower                                     | Upper  |
| Pre-Test                 | Equal variances assumed     | 1.161                                   | .285 | -1.146                       | 78     | .255            | -.675           | .589                  | -1.847                                    | .497   |
|                          | Equal variances not assumed |   |      | -1.146                       | 76.163 | .255            | -.675           | .589                  | -1.848                                    | .498   |
| Post-Test                | Equal variances assumed     | 2.016                                   | .160 | -22.194                      | 78     | .000            | -9.700          | .437                  | -10.570                                   | -8.830 |
|                          | Equal variances not assumed |   |      | -22.194                      | 70.500 | .000            | -9.700          | .437                  | -10.572                                   | -8.828 |

**Table 62: Independent Samples Test**

The Independent Samples Test is used to test whether the means of the dependent variable for each group defined by the independent variable are significantly different.

| <b>Group Statistics</b> |      |          |             |                       |                        |
|-------------------------|------|----------|-------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| <b>GrpID</b>            |      | <b>N</b> | <b>Mean</b> | <b>Std. Deviation</b> | <b>Std. Error Mean</b> |
| Pre-Test                | Ctrl | 40       | 4.20        | 2.420                 | .383                   |
|                         | XP   | 40       | 4.88        | 2.830                 | .447                   |
| Post-Test               | Ctrl | 40       | 4.10        | 2.251                 | .356                   |
|                         | XP   | 40       | 13.80       | 1.604                 | .254                   |

**Table 63: Group Statistics**

| Paired Samples Test |                    |                    |                |                 |   |        |         |    |                 |
|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|--------|---------|----|-----------------|
|                     |                    | Paired Differences |                |                 |   |        | t       | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|                     |                    | Mean               | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference |        |         |    |                 |
|                     |                    |                    |                |                 | Lower                                     | Upper  |         |    |                 |
| Pair 1              | PreCtrl - PostCtrl | .100               | 2.678          | .423            | -.756                                     | .956   | .236    | 39 | .815            |
| Pair 2              | PreXP - PostXP     | -8.925             | 2.805          | .443            | -9.822                                    | -8.028 | -20.126 | 39 | .000            |

**Table 64: Paired Samples Test**

| Paired Samples Correlations |                    |    |             |      |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|----|-------------|------|
|                             |                    | N  | Correlation | Sig. |
| Pair 1                      | PreCtrl & PostCtrl | 40 | .345        | .029 |
| Pair 2                      | PreXP & PostXP     | 40 | .299        | .061 |

**Table 65: Paired Samples Correlations**



Paired Samples Test is used to test whether the means of each of the paired or before/ after variables are significantly different or not. This table includes all the individual scores of the 40 testees of experimental and control groups in both the pre-test and the post-test. We observe that it is organized in a way to compare the scores in two ways. First, we compare the scores of experimental and control groups' respondents in the pre-test on the one hand and in the post-test on the other hand. Second, we compare the scores of each respondent of each group in the pre-test and the post-test.

It is to be noticed that in the control group, the subjects show the same performance which is interpreted in the scores that are almost the same with slight difference. However, in the experimental group, the respondents show a significant, positive change in their scores in the post-test which is different from what they score in the pretest. This comparison is clearly illustrated in the following table of frequency.

| <b>PreCtrl</b> | <b>PreXP</b> | <b>PostCtrl</b> | <b>PostXP</b> |
|----------------|--------------|-----------------|---------------|
| 7              | 9            | 5               | 16            |
| 5              | 2            | 5               | 12            |
| 6              | 2            | 4               | 13            |
| 1              | 4            | 3               | 14            |
| 5              | 2            | 3               | 10            |
| 1              | 4            | 2               | 9             |
| 2              | 4            | 4               | 13            |
| 2              | 2            | 4               | 14            |

|    |    |   |    |
|----|----|---|----|
| 3  | 4  | 5 | 12 |
| 5  | 5  | 1 | 16 |
| 4  | 4  | 4 | 14 |
| 2  | 9  | 4 | 12 |
| 6  | 2  | 2 | 14 |
| 1  | 2  | 3 | 12 |
| 2  | 10 | 1 | 14 |
| 6  | 7  | 3 | 14 |
| 2  | 2  | 5 | 12 |
| 2  | 1  | 8 | 14 |
| 2  | 1  | 4 | 13 |
| 3  | 8  | 3 | 16 |
| 2  | 5  | 2 | 16 |
| 2  | 10 | 2 | 13 |
| 2  | 11 | 2 | 16 |
| 5  | 8  | 4 | 13 |
| 5  | 2  | 2 | 14 |
| 5  | 2  | 3 | 15 |
| 8  | 8  | 4 | 14 |
| 3  | 7  | 3 | 16 |
| 5  | 5  | 3 | 13 |
| 7  | 5  | 8 | 14 |
| 10 | 3  | 6 | 14 |

|    |   |    |    |
|----|---|----|----|
| 4  | 5 | 3  | 14 |
| 4  | 2 | 4  | 13 |
| 10 | 5 | 4  | 14 |
| 5  | 8 | 11 | 14 |
| 4  | 5 | 5  | 16 |
| 3  | 8 | 8  | 14 |
| 6  | 6 | 5  | 15 |
| 2  | 2 | 2  | 16 |
| 9  | 4 | 10 | 14 |

**Table 66: Experimental and Control Groups' Scores in the Pre-test and the Post-test**

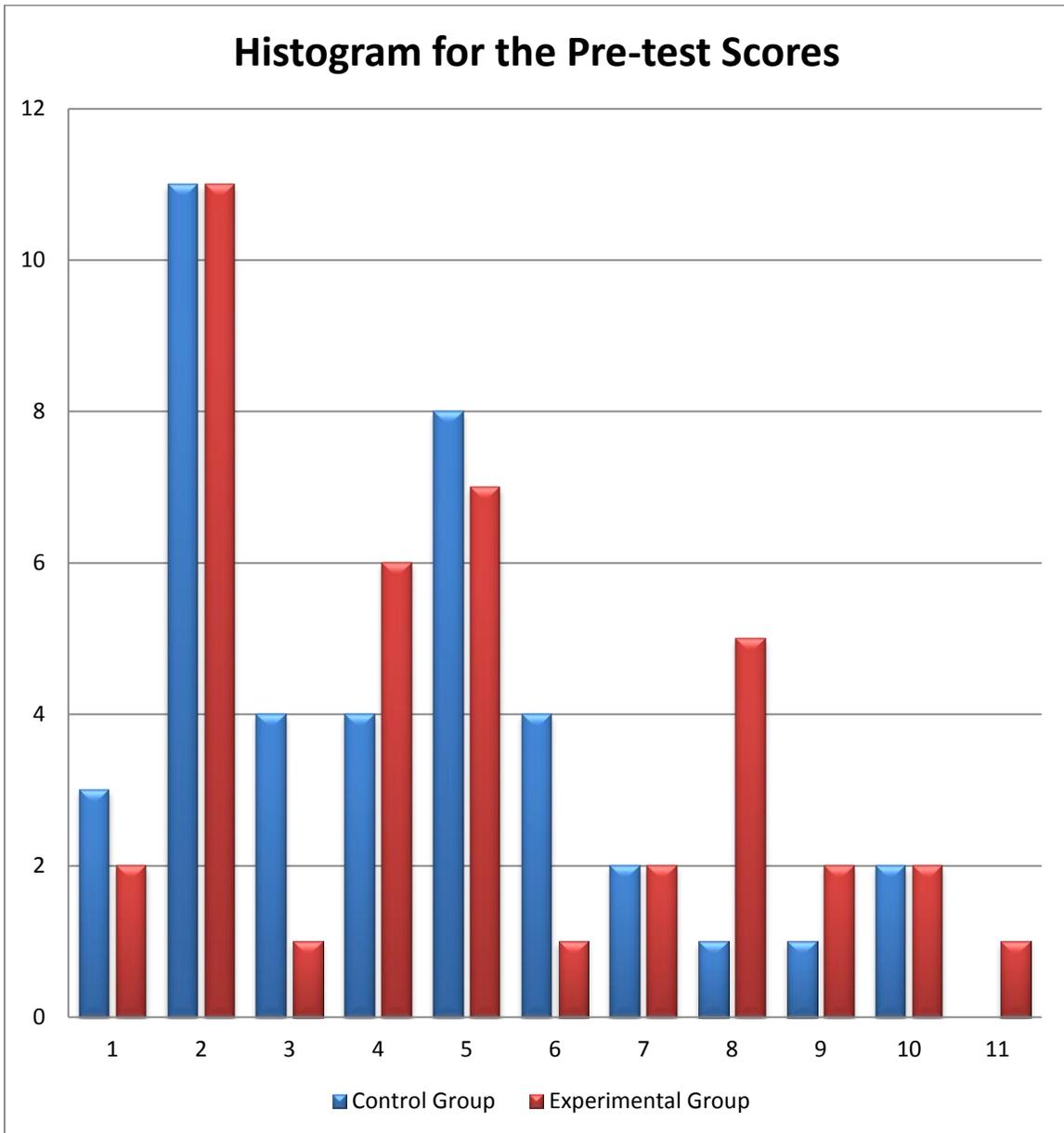
|    | PreCtrl | PreXP | PostCtrl | PostXP |
|----|---------|-------|----------|--------|
| 1  | 3       | 2     | 2        | 0      |
| 2  | 11      | 11    | 7        | 0      |
| 3  | 4       | 1     | 9        | 0      |
| 4  | 4       | 6     | 10       | 0      |
| 5  | 8       | 7     | 6        | 0      |
| 6  | 4       | 1     | 1        | 0      |
| 7  | 2       | 2     | 0        | 0      |
| 8  | 1       | 5     | 3        | 0      |
| 9  | 1       | 2     | 0        | 1      |
| 10 | 2       | 2     | 1        | 1      |
| 11 | 0       | 1     | 1        | 0      |
| 12 | 0       | 0     | 0        | 5      |
| 13 | 0       | 0     | 0        | 7      |
| 14 | 0       | 0     | 0        | 16     |
| 15 | 0       | 0     | 0        | 2      |
| 16 | 0       | 0     | 0        | 8      |
|    | 0       | 0     | 0        | 0      |

**Table 67: Frequencies of the Subjects' Scores in the Pre-test and the Post-test**

This table illustrates the frequencies of subjects' scores in both the pre-test and the post-test. We notice that in the pre-test the scores of the control group are between 1 and 11; and the most frequent score is 2 with 11 subjects. The same situation is observed in the experimental group where 11 testees score 2. In the post-test the scores of the control group and experimental respondents were different in a significant way in that in the control group the most frequent score is 4 while in the post-test the most frequent score is 14.

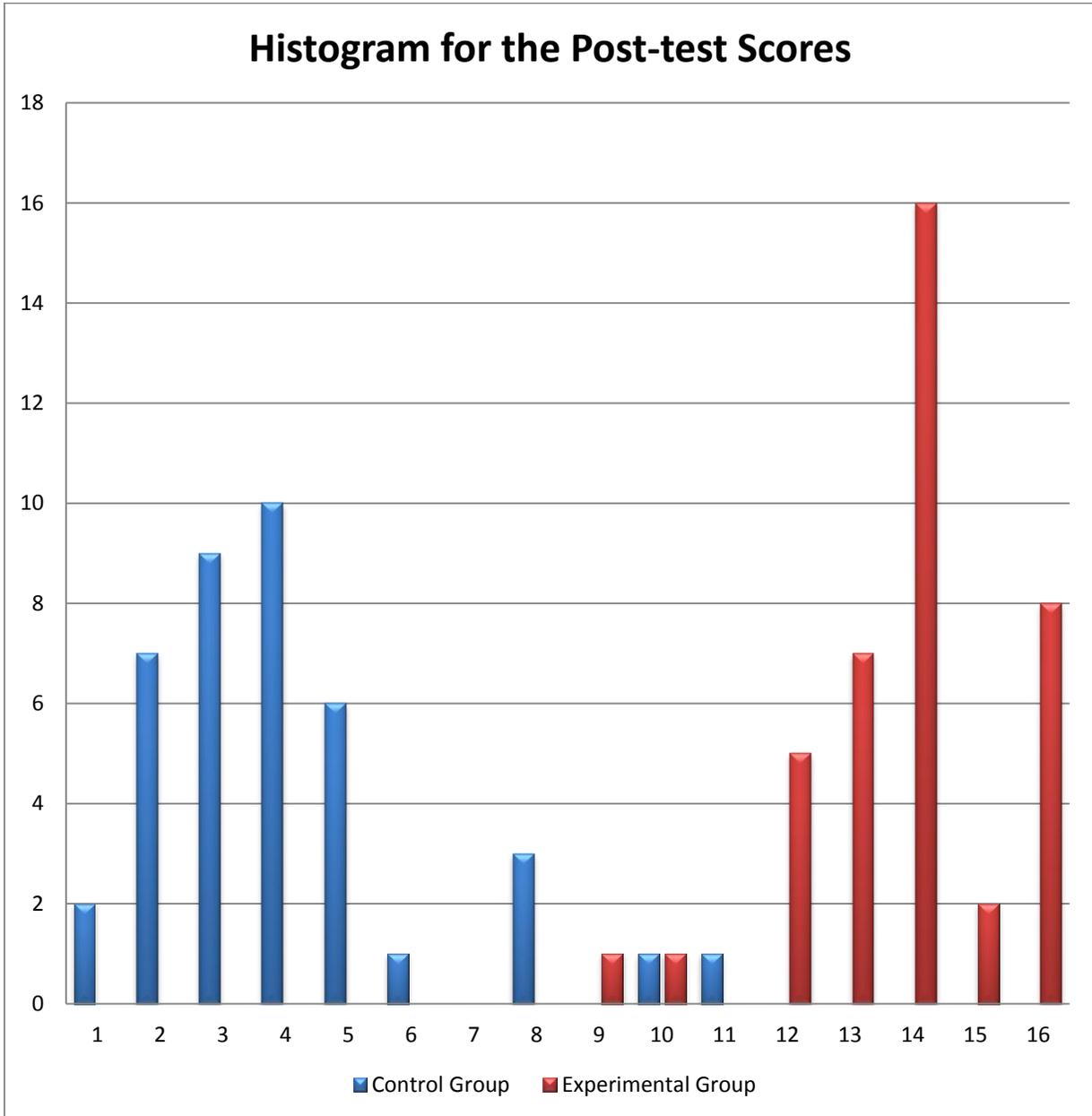
Some other visual presentations will make the comparison between the scores of the experimental and the control group in the pretest and post-test easier. The following histograms

give a crystal clear picture of the performance of the testees of both experimental and control groups in the pre-test and the post-test. Four histograms are used: the first one is for the pre-test scores, the second is for the post-test scores, the third is for the control group scores and the last is for the experimental group scores.



**Figure 76: Control and Experimental Groups' Scores in the Pre-test**

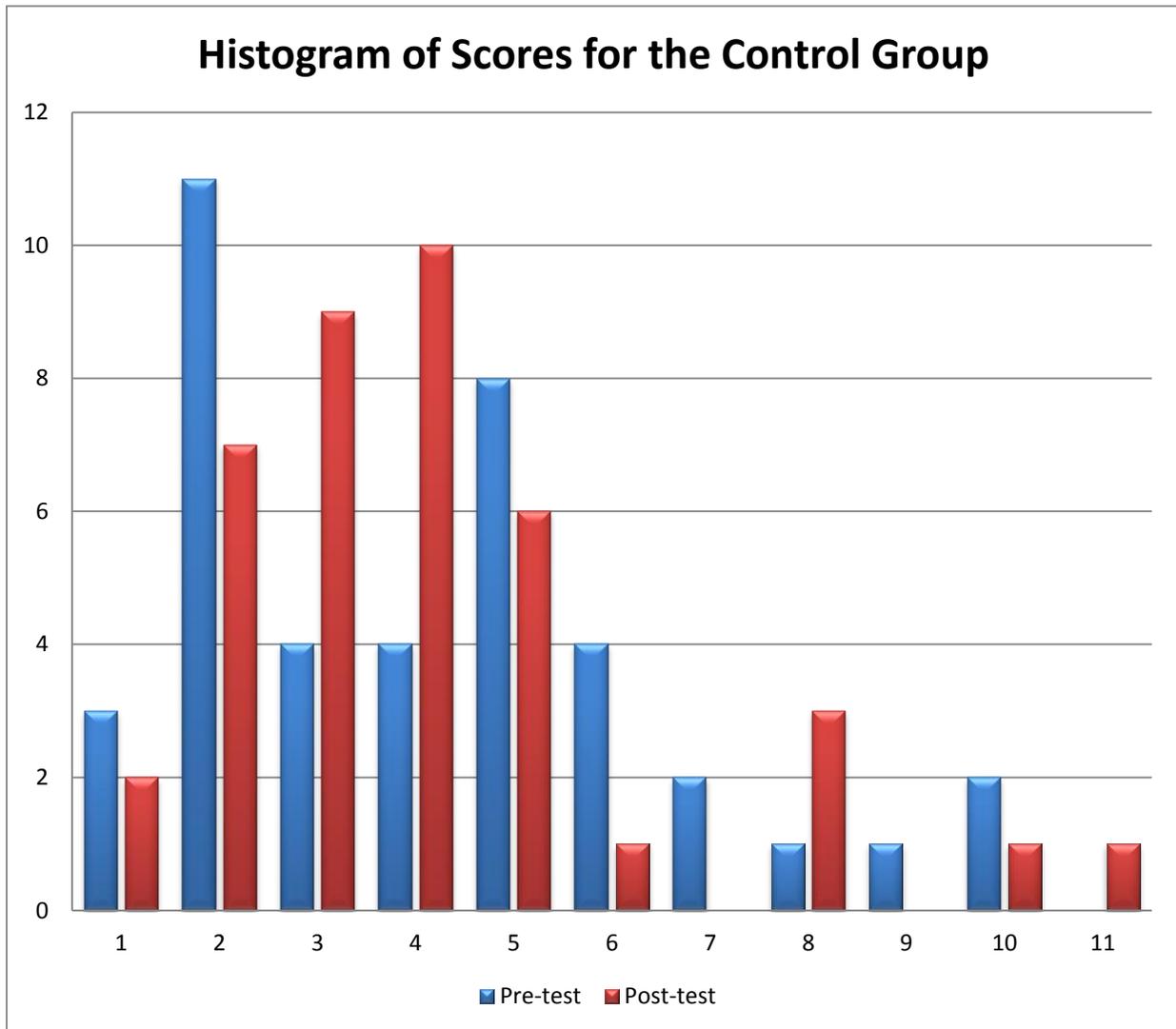
This histogram points out the similarity in the scores of both control and experimental groups in the pre-test. It gives a simple visual comparison that facilitates the interpretation of the findings which are between 1 and 11. We can see that both experimental and control groups share the same frequency 11 of the score 2 which is the most frequent score. Then, what is to be noticed is that the score 5 is the second most frequent score as it has a frequency 8 in the control group and 7 in the experimental group. There are some other similarities in the frequencies of scores between the two groups. The respondents of both groups score twice the scores 7 and 10. For what remains, the scores are approximately the same frequencies.



**Figure 77: Control and Experimental Groups' Scores in the Post-test**

To compare the results of the post-test, this histogram clearly illustrates the significant difference in the scores of both control and experimental groups. This histogram leaves no room for doubt that the experimental group performs better than the control group in the post-test, in that the scores are distributed in two extremes. The bars of this chart being distant from each

other than the scores of the control group are different from those of the experimental group. This difference is reflected in the scores as the scores of the control group are between 1 and 11 while the scores of the experimental group are between 9 and 16.

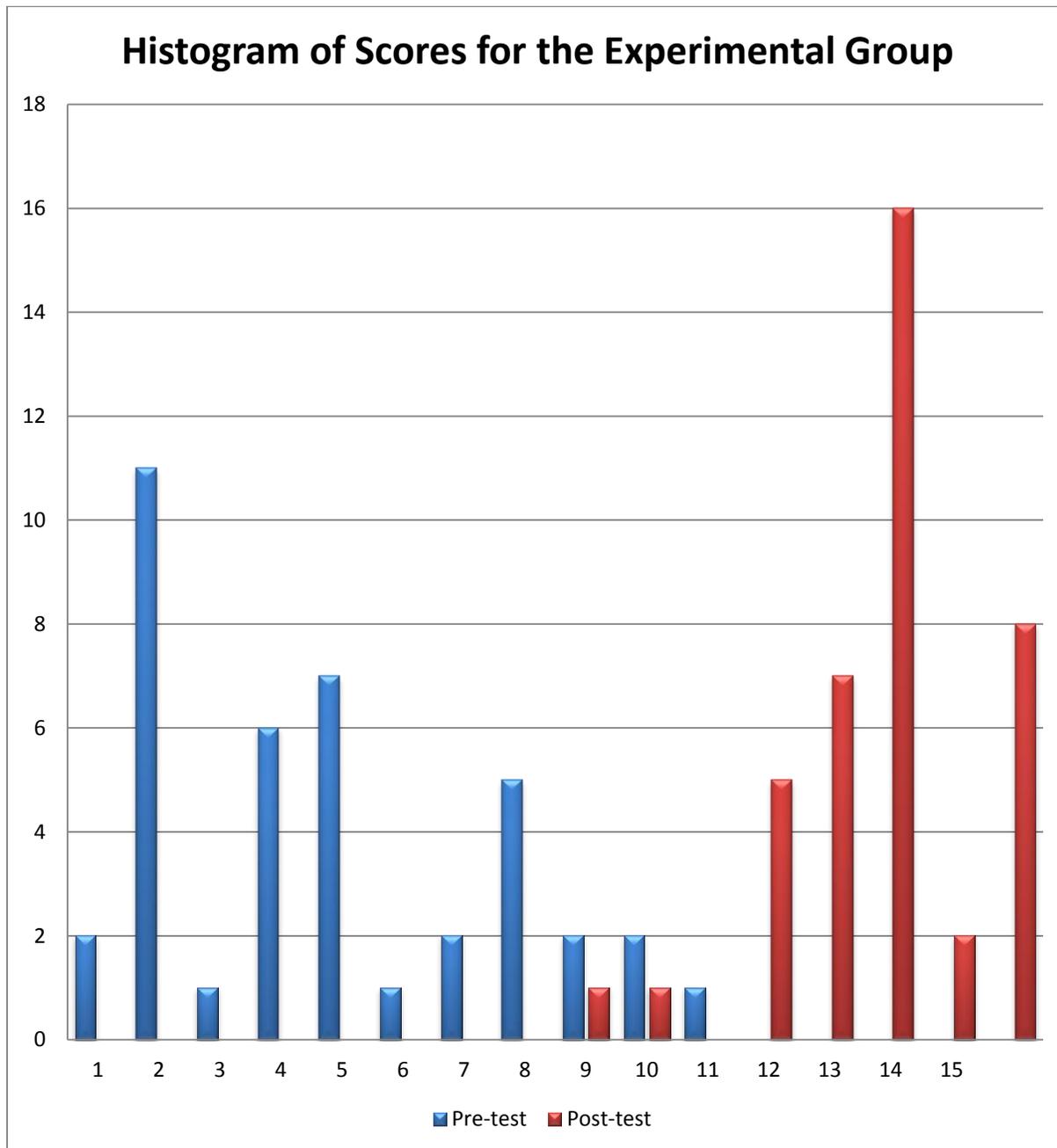


**Figure 78: Control Group' Scores in the Pre-test and the Post-test**

The above histogram shows the similarity between the scores of the control group in both the pre-test and the post-test. This explains that the performance of the testees of this group is



approximately the same in both tests. Respondents of the control group score between 1 and 11 in both tests with the score 2 and 4 as the most frequent scores in the pre-test and the post-test respectively. The similarity is clearly seen in the scores between 1 and 6 as the frequency is higher than those between 7 and 11 as the distribution of the scores shows in the histogram; this means that the testees' performance was very low whether in the pre-test or the post-test with a slight difference.



**Figure 79: Experimental Group’ Scores in the Pre-test and the Post-test**

The histogram of scores for the experimental group compares the testees’ scores in both the pre-test and the post-test. This histogram is the best visual illustration to reflect the performance of the testees who undergo the experiment. The scores of the experimental group

are situated in two different areas: we distinguish that in the pre-test the scores are between 1 and 11 while in the post-test the scores are between 9 and 16 which clearly explains the change or the progress of the testees in their performance from being weak in the pre-test to being better in the post-test.

| Statistics     |         |         |       |          |        |
|----------------|---------|---------|-------|----------|--------|
|                |         | PreCtrl | PreXP | PostCtrl | PostXP |
| N              | Valid   | 40      | 40    | 40       | 40     |
|                | Missing | 0       | 0     | 0        | 0      |
| Mean           |         | 4.20    | 4.88  | 4.10     | 13.80  |
| Median         |         | 4.00    | 4.50  | 4.00     | 14.00  |
| Mode           |         | 2       | 2     | 4        | 14     |
| Std. Deviation |         | 2.420   | 2.830 | 2.251    | 1.604  |
| Variance       |         | 5.856   | 8.010 | 5.067    | 2.574  |
| Range          |         | 9       | 10    | 10       | 7      |

**Table 68: General Statistics of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test and the Post-test**

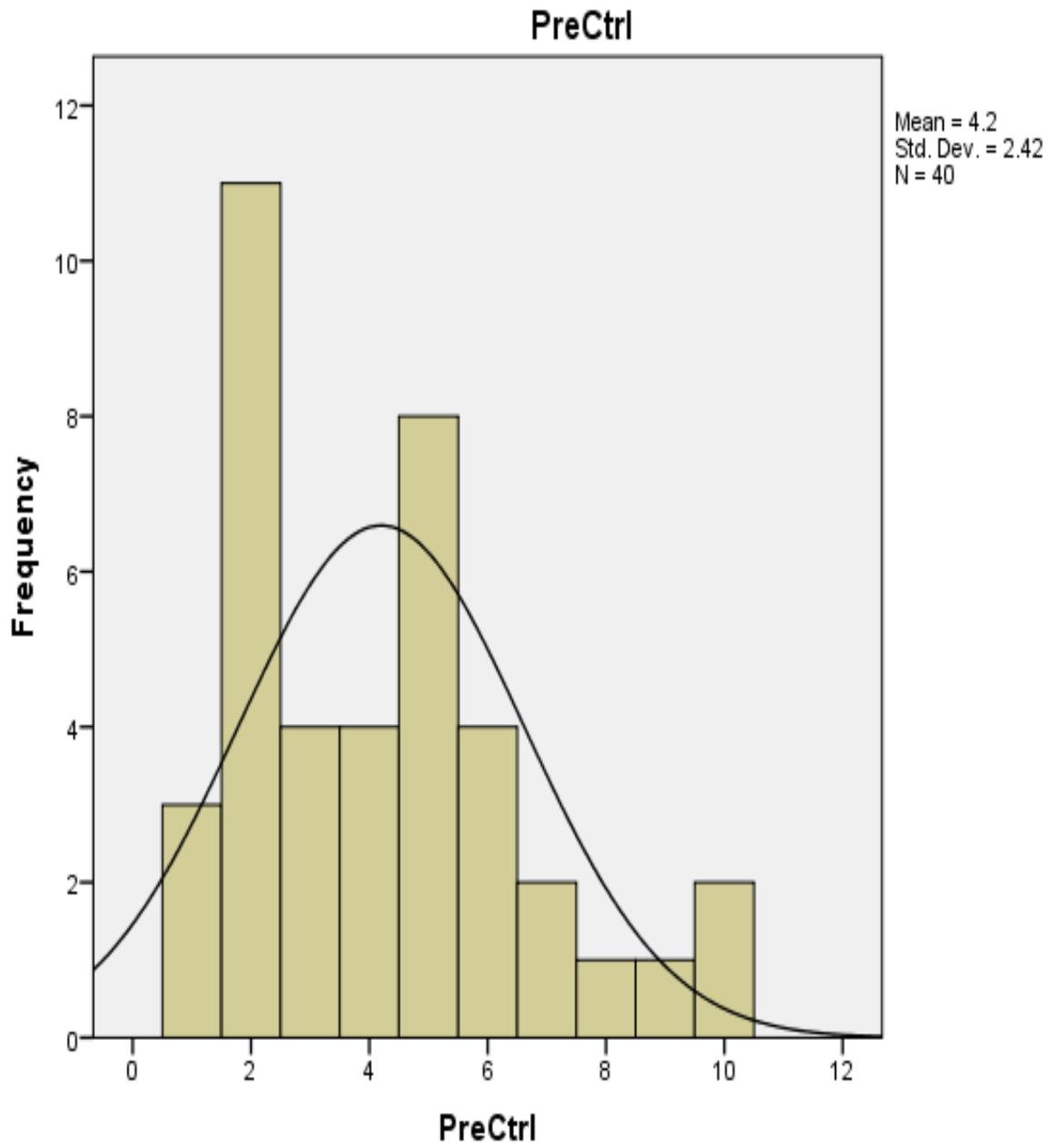
This table indicates the mean, the median, the mode, the standard deviation, the variance and the range of the experimental and the control groups in the pre-test and the post-test.

| PreCtrl |    |           |         |               |                    |
|---------|----|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
|         |    | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid   | 1  | 3         | 7.5     | 7.5           | 7.5                |
|         | 2  | 11        | 27.5    | 27.5          | 35.0               |
|         | 3  | 4         | 10.0    | 10.0          | 45.0               |
|         | 4  | 4         | 10.0    | 10.0          | 55.0               |
|         | 5  | 8         | 20.0    | 20.0          | 75.0               |
|         | 6  | 4         | 10.0    | 10.0          | 85.0               |
|         | 7  | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           | 90.0               |
|         | 8  | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           | 92.5               |
|         | 9  | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           | 95.0               |
|         | 10 | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           | 100.0              |
| Total   |    | 40        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

**Table 69: Frequencies of the Control Group in the Pre-test**

This table indicates the frequencies of the Control Group in the pre-test. From the two tables 69 and 70, we observe that 27.5% is the highest percentage which represents the percentage of the score 2 (scored by subjects) of the control group in the pre-test and at the same time the highest percentage in the experimental group in the pre-test is 27.5% that represents the same score 2.

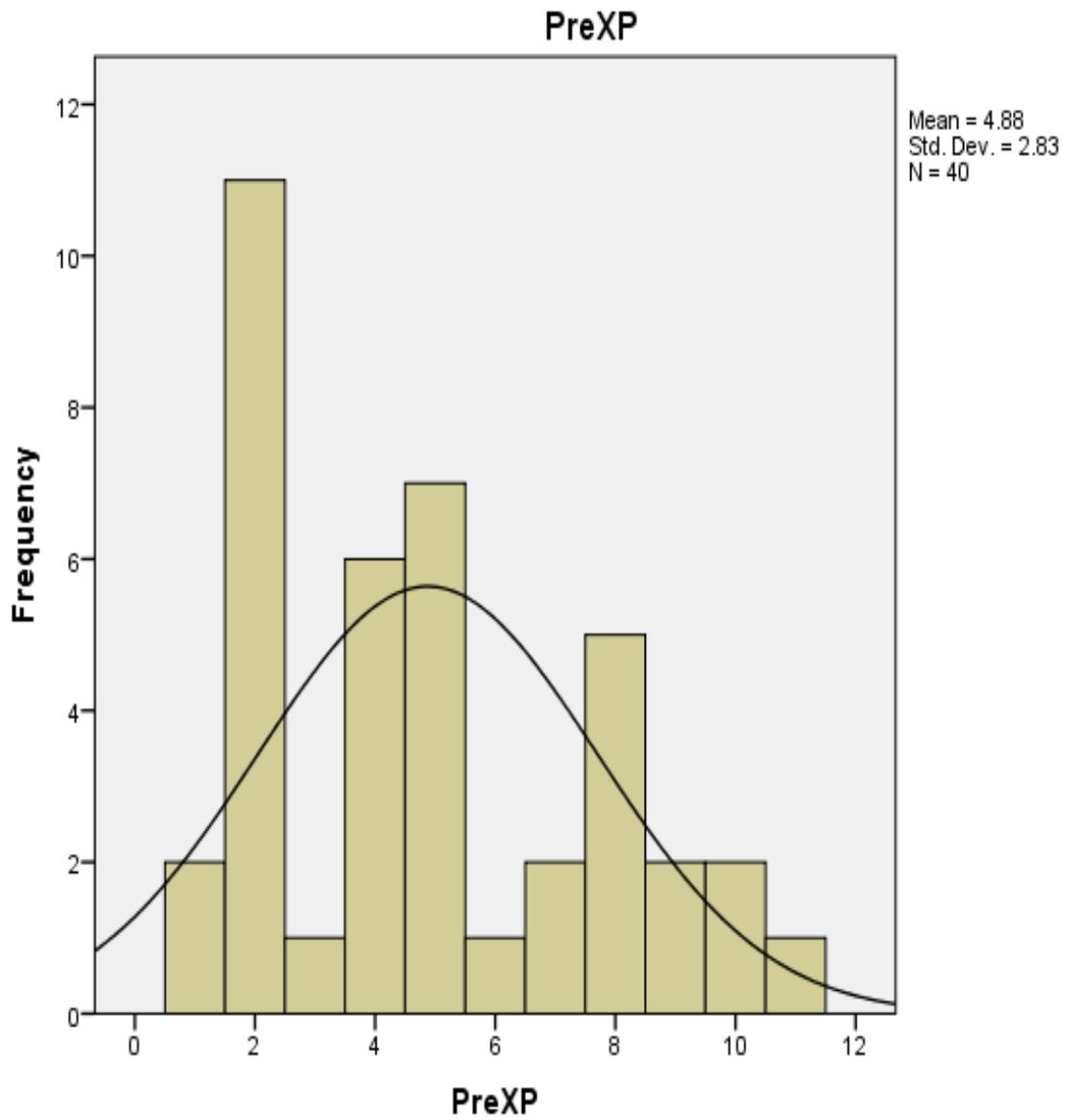
So, the most frequent score is 2 for both experimental and control groups in the pre-test. On the other hand, we notice that the score 11 and 10 are the least frequent score represented by the lowest percentage in the experimental group 2.5% and in the control group 2.5% respectively. The scores of the pre-test of both the experimental and control groups are almost the same.



**Figure 80: Frequencies of the Control Group in the Pre-test**

| PreXP |       |           |         |               |                    |
|-------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
|       |       | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | 1     | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           | 5.0                |
|       | 2     | 11        | 27.5    | 27.5          | 32.5               |
|       | 3     | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           | 35.0               |
|       | 4     | 6         | 15.0    | 15.0          | 50.0               |
|       | 5     | 7         | 17.5    | 17.5          | 67.5               |
|       | 6     | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           | 70.0               |
|       | 7     | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           | 75.0               |
|       | 8     | 5         | 12.5    | 12.5          | 87.5               |
|       | 9     | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           | 92.5               |
|       | 10    | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           | 97.5               |
|       | 11    | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           | 100.0              |
|       | Total |           | 40      | 100.0         | 100.0              |

**Table 70: Frequencies of the Experimental Group in the Pre-test**



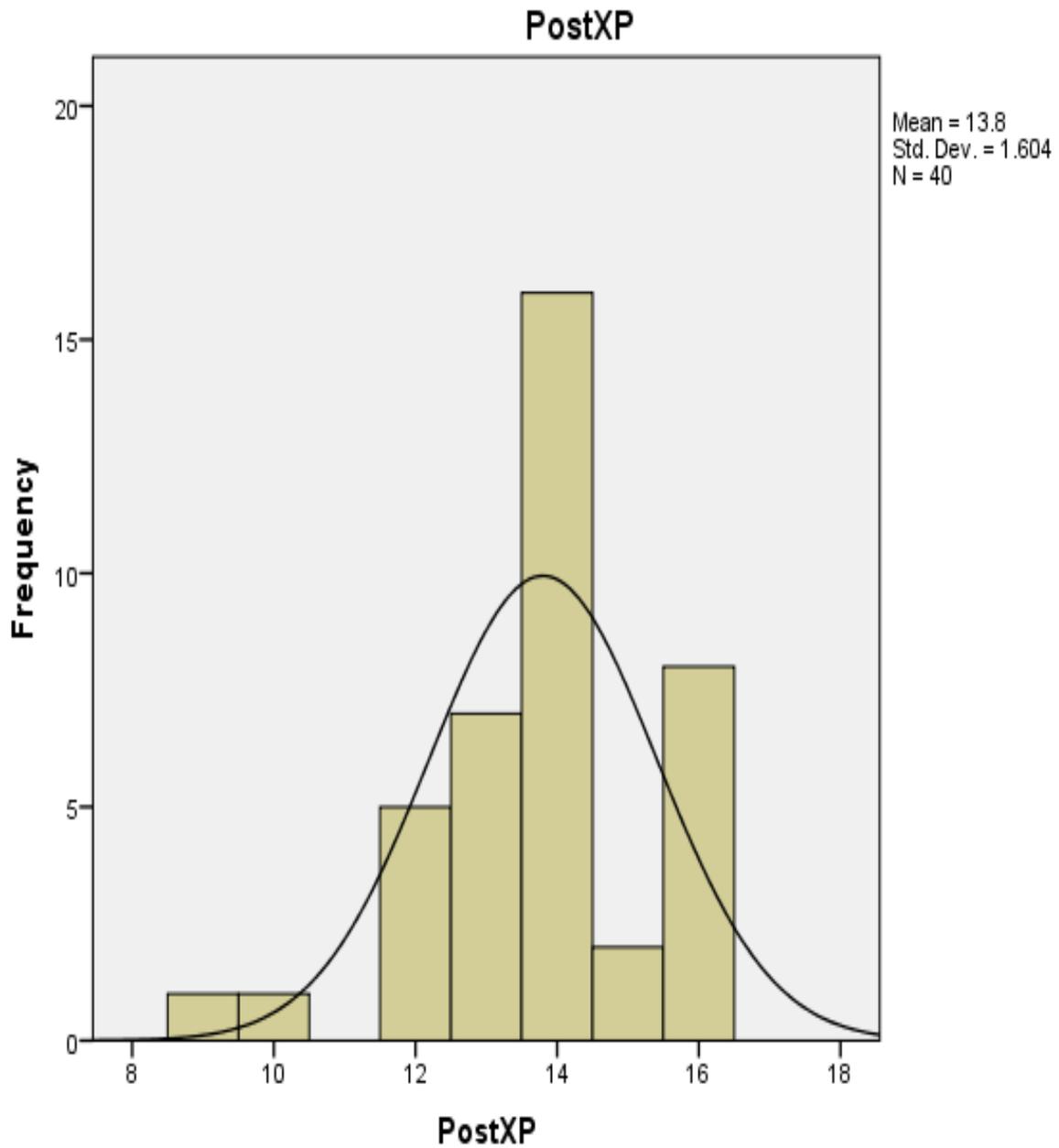
**Figure 81: Frequencies of the Experimental Group in the Pre-test**



| PostCtrl |       |           |         |               |                    |
|----------|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
|          |       | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid    | 1     | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           | 5.0                |
|          | 2     | 7         | 17.5    | 17.5          | 22.5               |
|          | 3     | 9         | 22.5    | 22.5          | 45.0               |
|          | 4     | 10        | 25.0    | 25.0          | 70.0               |
|          | 5     | 6         | 15.0    | 15.0          | 85.0               |
|          | 6     | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           | 87.5               |
|          | 8     | 3         | 7.5     | 7.5           | 95.0               |
|          | 10    | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           | 97.5               |
|          | 11    | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           | 100.0              |
|          | Total | 40        | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

**Table 71: Frequencies of the Control Group in the Post-test**

In the post-test, in the control group, we observe that the highest percentage is 25% for the score 4 and the lowest percentage 2.5% represents 10 the average and 11 above the average. 95% is the percentage of the subjects who score below the average.



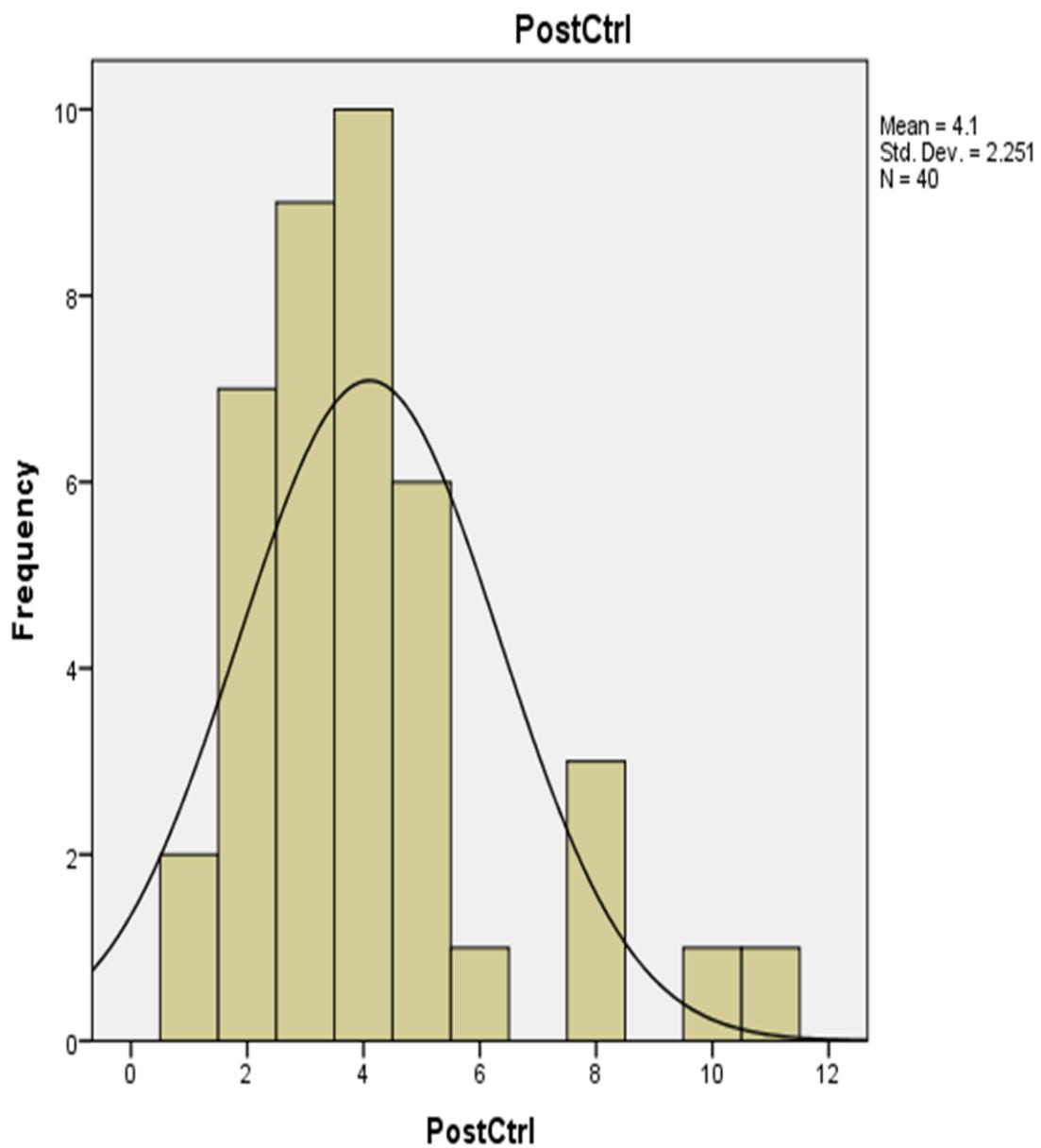
**Figure 82: Frequencies of the Experimental Group in the Post-test**

On the contrary, it is to be observed that in the experimental group the highest percentage is 40%

which represents the score 14 while the lowest percentage is 2.5% which represents the scores 9 and 10.

|       |       | <b>PostXP</b> |         |               |                    |
|-------|-------|---------------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
|       |       | Frequency     | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | 9     | 1             | 2.5     | 2.5           | 2.5                |
|       | 10    | 1             | 2.5     | 2.5           | 5.0                |
|       | 12    | 5             | 12.5    | 12.5          | 17.5               |
|       | 13    | 7             | 17.5    | 17.5          | 35.0               |
|       | 14    | 16            | 40.0    | 40.0          | 75.0               |
|       | 15    | 2             | 5.0     | 5.0           | 80.0               |
|       | 16    | 8             | 20.0    | 20.0          | 100.0              |
|       | Total | 40            | 100.0   | 100.0         |                    |

**Table 72: Frequencies of the Experimental Group in the Post-test**



**Figure 83: Frequencies of the Control Group in the Post-test**

|          | PreCtrl | PreXP | PostCtrl | PostXP   |
|----------|---------|-------|----------|----------|
| PreCtrl  |         | 0.255 | 0.815    |          |
| PreXP    |         |       |          | 3.34E-22 |
| PostCtrl |         |       |          | 1.91E-35 |
| PostXP   |         |       |          |          |

**Table 69: The t-test values of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test and the Post-test**

This table gives the t-test value of the experimental and control groups in both the pre-test and the post-test. It shows that the treatment for the experimental group in the post-test has its effects on the students' performance as the difference between the means of the experimental group in both the pre-test and the post-test, which is reflected in the value 3.34E-22, indicates that it is highly significant and there should be no chance for Type I Error to occur.

The same thing when we differentiate between the performance of the experimental group and the performance of the control group in the post-test, the value 1.91E-35 indicates that the

difference is also highly significant.

For the pre-test, in comparing between the control group and experimental group, the value 0.255 is slightly significant and the chance for the Type I Error to occur is small. The same thing for the control group in both the pre-test and post-test which has the value 0.815 which is somehow bigger than 0.05 in that the means are approximately similar as the performance of this group in the pre-test did not change a lot in post-test. These values, then, indicate that the hypotheses of the present research are true.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter gives a complete analysis to the pre-test and the post-test which are given to a sample of 80 third year students of English. A detailed analysis of the experiment shows frequencies and percentages of the subjects' answers in the pre-test and the post-test illustrated by figures of pie charts and histograms. Furthermore, the quantitative data is supported with qualitative data as well. When explaining the scores provided in tables, the respondents' answers and translations are also given to back up the results. The translation of the testees gives an idea about their knowledge and understanding of argumentation and speech act theory. It is to be observed that the subjects were to some extent influenced by Arabic as they provide a translation that reflects their way of thinking in Arabic whereas sometimes their translation is literal to the point that it loses its meaning. In order to confirm the results provided in the frequencies and percentages' tables of the subjects' answers for each question, a t-test is used. Using SPSS facilitates the measurements and the comparison between the results of the control and

experimental groups in the pre-test and the post-test. The t-test figure validates the hypotheses of the present research.

## General Conclusion

The findings of the present research in the questionnaire, pre-test and post-test show that pragmatics is very important in argumentative discourse. The treatment given to the experimental group indicates that EFL learners needed to be aware of this importance in the translation of argumentative texts. However, in order to ameliorate the learners' translation, we should focus on certain factors one of which is speech act theory. When students deal with argumentation as a speech act, their understanding of the argumentative text will change in terms of identifying the text-type, its illocutionary acts and the perlocutionary effect it intends to convey to the target audience. Hence, the teaching of speech act theory, argumentative discourse will influence EFL learners performance in translating argumentative texts. These learners, if aware of the relationship between pragmatics, speech act theory and argumentation, will provide an appropriate translation of argumentative texts as they will be able to identify its illocutionary force of 'arguing' and convey the same intended perlocutionary effect. They also should overcome the problem of negative transfer from their first language whether the dialect or standard Arabic. Moreover, EFL learners should avoid literal translation as it changes the meaning of the source text and gives a wrong translation of it.

The results of this research work are of great importance for teachers and EFL learners at Mentouri Brothers University, Constantine. More particularly, these results strengthen pedagogical claims about the significance of translating argumentative discourse from the basic knowledge learners have or learn from different modules such as 'written expression', 'pragmatics' and 'translation'. In doing so, these learners are aware of the relationship found between different fields and at the same time these learners should improve their performance in



translating argumentative texts by enriching their knowledge in both Arabic and English in the light of their different cultures.

As it is observed in the results of the questionnaire, EFL learners are not aware of how important it is to combine their knowledge in different fields like pragmatics, argumentation and translation in translating argumentative discourse. Being not aware will lead these learners to make mistakes that may change the meaning of the source text and this is what has been seen throughout the experiment. They neither recognize the illocutionary force of arguing nor the perlocutionary effect of convincing in translating argumentative texts. The reason behind this is that these learners either ignore how to translate or do not know how to apply the knowledge needed to clarify the misunderstanding and produce better translation of the ST in the TL. However, the experiment helped the subjects to be more aware of argumentation discourse and how to translate it applying their knowledge in different fields especially pragmatics, argumentation and translation. That is, the results of the experiment prove that the more EFL learners are exposed to speech acts and argumentative texts along with their translation, the more their task of producing better translation will be facilitated. Furthermore, if these learners are aware of the importance of using their knowledge about other fields in translating argumentative discourse, then their task of translating authentic English argumentative texts into Arabic will be facilitated and they will produce a better translation of the ST.

The present research shows the difference between English source texts and their translations by learners of English as a Foreign Language into Arabic in terms of determining the text-type of English argumentative text, identifying its speech acts, conveying the same intended meaning to achieve the same effect on the audience. The majority of learners of English as a foreign language do not distinguish between the different genres of discourse or simply the

different types of texts they are exposed to. They do not differentiate between expository and argumentative discourse as such. Due to the fact that English and Arabic are different languages, the form of written discourse with its types differs in that different genres are not approached in the same way in English and Arabic. For this reason, EFL learners do not usually have a clear cut idea of any text written in English as opposed to their perceptions to texts written in Arabic. That is, as speakers of two varieties of Arabic (dialectal Arabic as a mother tongue and standard Arabic as the medium of education, these learners find less difficulty in recognizing the type of text, analyzing and identifying its parts and most importantly understanding its implied meanings. For instance, if it is an argumentative discourse, they will recognize that it is an argumentative text, identify its thesis statement and different arguments in relation to the introduction, development and conclusion; and basically they will understand that the illocutionary force is arguing and the perlocutionary effect is convincing. However, if the text is written in English, it is not always the case. Being non-native speakers of English, EFL learners encounter a number of difficulties in recognizing argumentative discourse as the text's genre or even identify its constituents specially the thesis statement and the arguments. We conclude that pragmatics is very important in argumentative discourse as it facilitates EFL learners' task to understand the structure of the text with its features, interpret the appropriate meaning and translate the text into the target language provided that these learners are aware of this importance.

Starting from the findings of the present research, further research may develop new angles of the translation of English argumentative discourse. A next step to do using the results of this work may be shaped in a course design that includes what third year students of English may need in order to translate argumentative discourse. We recommend that translation sessions

should include more than just to translate a text from one language to another, but also to put the text in its linguistic, pragmatic and cultural context. The learner should know more about the text-type of the source text and its features and how it would be translated into the target language. Raising the awareness of the learner to apply his/her knowledge from different fields like pragmatics, speech acts theory, argumentative discourse and translation in translating argumentative texts will help in providing an appropriate translation.

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# *Appendices*

# Appendix 1

## The Students Questionnaire

Please, put a tick ✓ in the boxes whenever necessary.

1. Do you think that translation is

a. A process

b. A product

c. Both

2. What is the difference between arguing and persuading?

.....

.....

.....

3. What are the types of argumentative discourse you know?

.....

.....

.....

4. Do you think that English editorials have the same features as Arabic editorials?

a. Agree

b. Disagree

c. Do not know

5. If no, explain in which ways they differ.

.....

.....

.....

6. Do you agree that Arabic structure of argumentative texts is not the same as the English one?

a. Agree

b. Do not agree

c. Do not know

7. Do you think that it is important that the reader identifies the type of the text being translated and specify its dominant speech act?

a. Agree

b. Disagree

c. Do not know

8. Do you agree that argumentation is based on the illocutionary act of arguing rather than other speech acts?

a. Agree

b. Do not agree

c. Do not know

9. Do you think that knowing all types of speech acts is a condition in translating argumentative discourse?

a. Agree

b. Disagree

c. Do not know

10. Do you agree that it is possible to translate any text without knowing its speech acts?

- a. Agree
- b. Do not agree
- c. Do not know

11. Do you think it is not necessary to know the underlying meaning of the utterance/sentence to translate it in a faithful and equivalent way?

- a. Agree
- b. Disagree
- c. Do not know

12. What are the strategies you, as an EFL learner, use in translating argumentative texts?

- a. Communicative translation
- b. Faithful translation
- c. Semantic translation
- d. Literal translation
- e. Idiomatic translation

13. Do you think that literal translation is enough?

- a. Agree
- b. Disagree
- c. Do not know

14. Which step of translation you give more importance?

- a. Analyzing the text
- b. Transferring the meaning
- c. revision

15. Which aspect do you think EFL learner needs to know all about in order to translate argumentative texts?

- a. Pragmatics
- b. Discourse analysis
- c. Translation
- d. Argumentation
- e. All of them

16. Classify these features that characterize the argumentative discourse from the most important to the least important (use numbers from 1 to 8).

Verbs

Connectives

Nominalization

Modality

Active/passive voice

Ellipsis

Lexical cohesion

Topic sentences

17. Give examples for:

Verbs

.....

Connectives

.....  
Modality

.....  
Lexical cohesion  
.....

Thank you for your answers!

## **Appendix 2**

### **The Pre-Test**

Government regulation can be a hassle. Businesses spend a lot of time and money to comply with federal regs, and that's time and money they could have devoted to hiring more workers or investing in new equipment. Often, though, regulation is the best way to produce public goods – clean water is a good example – that private business ordinarily cannot. Many of the risks against which government regulation tries to protect – mine explosions, say, or gigantic oil spills – are also costly, and even deadly. If you doubt it, just recall recent events at the Upper Big Branch coal mine or in the Gulf of Mexico. By its very nature, regulation involves balancing social and economic costs and benefits. There is bitter dispute about where to strike this balance, partly because of competing economic and ideological interests, and partly because it is inherently difficult. But no one seriously denies that, at some point, a balance must be struck.

Reduced to its essence, that's about all President Obama was saying in his executive order on regulation this week. To be sure, some of his administration's actions had led the business community to conclude that the president recognized no cost-related limitations on federal regulation. There have been 132 regulations with benefits or costs of more than \$100 million created since Mr. Obama took the oath of office, with the rules implementing health care and financial legislation – and, possibly, carbon limits – still to be written. Feeling besieged, corporate America tilted Republican in the November 2010 election. By announcing that “regulations do have costs” and promising a government-wide “look back” at potentially unjustified rules – and doing so in an op-ed in the Wall Street Journal, no less – Mr. Obama signaled that he has read the election results and heard business's complaints.

On Wednesday came the first concrete result of the president's new emphasis: withdrawal of a proposed Occupational Safety and Health Administration rule that would have required businesses to protect workers from shop-floor noise by changing schedules or



installing new equipment rather than by passing out earplugs, as current rules require. Strongly backed by organized labor, the proposed rule had triggered loud business protests, especially from manufacturers, who said it would cost billions and destroy jobs. Now it will be progressives' turn to howl.

In fact, much of the regulatory state consists of independent agencies, such as the Federal Communications Commission and the Federal Reserve, that fall outside the scope of Mr. Obama's executive order. So there is that inherent limit to any potential regulatory rollback. Also, it will take months for the rest of the bureaucracy to produce recommendations for regulatory pruning. We see nothing in his executive order that would skew the analysis against regulation; indeed, it clearly says that the cost-benefit analysis must take account of intangible factors as "equity, human dignity, fairness, and distributive impacts." All the president has done is to promise business another look at the balance government has struck between public risk and private enterprise under current rules. Given the circumstances – which include a stubbornly high unemployment rate – it was an appropriate promise to make.

**Read the above text and answer the following questions (use a tick for the right box):**

1. Is this text:

- a) narrative
- b) argumentative
- c) descriptive
- d) expository

2. Justify your choice.

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.....

3. What is the most appropriate thesis statement of the above text:

- a) "Government regulation can be a hassle"
- b) "Often, though, regulation is the best way to produce public goods – clean water is a good example – that private business ordinarily cannot"
- c) "There is bitter dispute about where to strike this balance, partly because of competing economic and ideological interests, and partly because it is inherently difficult. But no one seriously denies that, at some point, a balance must be struck"
- d) "By its very nature, regulation involves balancing social and economic costs and benefits"

4. Justify your choice.

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

5. Translate the selected thesis statement into Arabic.

.....  
.....  
.....

6. Define the term speech act and identify its types.

.....  
.....



10. What is the perlocutionary effect can you, as a reader, receive:

a) inspiring

b) persuading

c) enlightening

11. Justify your answer:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

12. Is it the same effect on both source and target audience?

a) Yes

b) No

c) Please, explain:

.....

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## **Appendix 3**

### **The Post-Test**

#### **Prohibition and Drugs**

“The reign of tears is over. The slums will soon be only a memory. We will turn our prisons into factories and our jails into storehouses and corncribs. Men will walk upright now, women will smile, and the children will laugh. Hell will be forever for rent.”

This is how Billy Sunday, the noted evangelist and leading crusader against Demon Rum, greeted the onset of prohibition in early 1920. We know how tragically his hopes were doomed. New prisons and jails had to be built to house the criminals spawned by converting the drinking of spirits into a crime against the state. Prohibition undermined respect of the law, corrupted the minions of the law, created a decadent moral climate – but did not stop the consumption of alcohol.

Despite this tragic lesson, we seem bent on repeating the same mistake in the handling of drugs.

On ethical grounds, do we have the right to use the machinery of government to prevent an individual from becoming an alcoholic or a drug addict? For children, almost everyone would answer at least a qualified yes. But for responsible adults, I would answer no. Reason with the potential addict, yes. Tell him the consequences, yes. Pray for him and with him, yes. But I believe that we have no right to use force, directly or indirectly, to prevent a fellow man from committing suicide, let alone from drinking alcohol or taking drugs.

I readily grant that the ethical issue is difficult and that men of good will may well disagree. Fortunately, we need not resolve the ethical issue to agree on policy. Prohibition is an attempted cure that makes matters worse for both the addict and the rest of us. Hence, even if you regard present policy towards drugs as ethically justified, considerations of expediency make that policy most unwise.

Consider first the addict. Legalising drugs might increase the number of addicts, but it is not clear that it would. Forbidden fruit is attractive, particularly to the young. More important, many drug

addicts are deliberately made by pushers, who give likely prospects their first few doses free. It pays the pusher to do so because, once hooked, the addict is a captive customer. If drugs were legally available, any possible profit from such inhumane activity would disappear, since the addict could buy from the cheapest source.

Whatever happens to the number of addicts, the individual would clearly be far better off if drugs were legal. Today, drugs are both incredibly expensive and highly uncertain in quality. Addicts are driven to associate with criminals to get the drugs, become criminals themselves to finance the habit, and risk constant danger of death and disease.

Consider next the rest of us. Here the situation is crystal-clear. The harm to us from the addiction of others arises almost wholly from the fact that drugs are illegal. A recent committee of the American Bar Association estimated that addicts commit one-third to one-half of all street crimes in U.S. Legalise drugs, and street crimes will drop automatically.

Moreover, addicts and pushers are not the only ones corrupted. Immense sums are at stake. It is inevitable that some relatively low-paid police and other government officials – and some high-paid ones as well-- will succumb to the temptation to pick up easy money.

In drugs, as in other areas, persuasion and examples are likely to be far more effective than the use of force to shape others in our image.

**Read the above text and answer the following questions.**

- 1) What is the type of this text?

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2) Extract the thesis statement of this text.

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3) Translate the extracted thesis statement into Arabic.

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4) What is the dominant illocutionary act?

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5) Write out the sentences that include this dominant illocutionary force in this text.

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## **Appendix 4**

### **Text 1**

#### **Coalition cuts must pass the fairness test**

As it embarks on the most severe round of public spending cuts in living memory, the government has two vital messages it wants to transmit to the British public. First, the cuts are unavoidable. Second, they will be fair.

The first point is rammed home at every opportunity, including in David Cameron's speech to the Conservative conference last week. The pain to come, he argued, is a consequence of Labour's economic mismanagement. Bringing down the deficit hard and fast is the only way to restore the nation's credibility with investors and relieve future generations of an onerous debt burden.

Labour has a rebuttal: the critical portion of the deficit is a result of collapsing revenue during a global financial crisis, a product of market failure, not state inefficiency. The surest way to recover revenues is by securing growth and keeping people in jobs, which might better be achieved by a more cautious fiscal retrenchment.

Whatever the merits of the economic case, the government seems to be winning the political argument. Opinion polls show support for the coalition's plans for the deficit. How durable that support might be is another question. Last week's backlash against plans to withdraw child benefit from higher-rate tax payers suggests a low public pain threshold.

Tolerance will clearly depend on the fairness test Mr Cameron has set himself. In his speech, he set out the principles he thought should apply: those with the broadest shoulders should bear the greatest load; hard work should be rewarded; no one should be get something for nothing.

How thoroughly those ideals are to be put into practice will only be known when the spending review is published later this month. But the detail already emerging in planned changes to the welfare system gives some indication.

The picture is mixed. The reforms are a combination of long-term strategy and short-term posturing. Work and pensions secretary Iain Duncan Smith has developed a plan to consolidate benefits into a "universal credit" to be disbursed and withdrawn in such a way as to minimise disincentives to work. That considered approach forms a marked contrast with the child benefit cut designed to grab headlines at a party conference.

As is often the case with gestural policies, the measure wilted under scrutiny. Dual-income households in which each partner is below the higher tax threshold would get to keep money that would be taken from lower-income households with only one wage-earner. Meanwhile, people getting a pay rise into the higher tax range might end up worse off as their child benefit would be stopped.

It is almost impossible to reform welfare without creating some perverse outcomes at the thresholds of eligibility. The aim, as Mr Duncan Smith has grasped, is to minimise "cliff edges" – steep drops in income that kick in when benefits are withdrawn. In the case of child benefit, one mechanism might have been to maintain it as a universal payment but tax it as part of the income of higher-rate earners. But that would not have fulfilled the political aim of axing a middle-class entitlement to prove that "we're all in this together".

That gambit overshadowed the other main welfare announcement of the conference – a cap of £500 per week on the overall level of benefit any household can receive. Meanwhile, a range of plans to cut housing benefit has passed with scarce comment, although they will result in more upheaval for more families than the assault on child benefit.

Some of the motives behind those moves are fair. The overall cap is set to reflect an average household income, on the reasonable assumption that working should be seen symbolically to be more lucrative than not working.

As for housing benefit, there is no doubt that the annual £20bn bill is too high, nor much doubt that the current system channels money from the Exchequer into the pockets of private landlords, stoking rental inflation.

But while cutting the welfare budget is a necessary part of deficit reduction, more attention has to be paid to the human consequences. Cutting housing benefit is certain to force some families to move from inner-city areas where they might have deep roots. That dislocation, and the social segregation it brings to cities, is not without cost. Shrinking the welfare state has a human impact that needs to be expressed in terms of political principle, not just economic management.

Too much of the rhetoric around coalition policy is defined by extreme cases of social dysfunction and not enough by ordinary families struggling to make a living, relying on benefits to help them through. Of course, the taxpayer shouldn't subsidise scroungers having scores of children and living in palatial homes. But an honest consensus around reform cannot be built on wild caricatures of who most benefit claimants actually are.

Mr Cameron's notion of fairness with regard to the welfare state is too individualistic and too transactional. He believes that no one should take out more than they put in. It is a view that encourages people to monitor each other's benefits and privileges jealously. It leaves no room for the broader principle of collective solidarity that underpins the welfare state – the idea that society protects itself better and is more happy and cohesive when it pools resources. If Britain wants to reject that notion, it should at least be debated in those terms, not undermined by stealth.

To have such a debate would mean re-examining the coalition's plan to tackle the deficit with spending cuts and tax rises in a four-to-one ratio. That decision alone ensures that people on low incomes will suffer, since they are more dependent on public services and more likely to face unemployment in a public sector retrenchment. If Mr Cameron were serious about us being in this together, he would look harder at progressive taxes that target the genuinely wealthy.

The prime minister insists he has no choice but to reduce the deficit. But his government is still making choices about how that is done and who bears the burden.

The government's message is that there is no alternative to its plans and the outcome will be a fairer society. The case is far from proven.

## Text 2

### **Shadow cabinet: Constructive opposition**

Ed Miliband's appointments are further evidence he is a healing leader rather than the 'Red Ed' depicted by his detractors

Politicians do not fight elections in order to be the opposition. Yet opposing is critical, not only in some platonic democratic sense – where it matters more than people think – but as the forge for policies, arguments and personalities that can persuade voters and lead back to government. In opposition between 1974 and 1979, Margaret Thatcher's economics team shaped an agenda that dominated the next quarter century. The triumvirate Ed Miliband named yesterday – Alan Johnson as shadow chancellor, Douglas Alexander for the work and pensions brief and John Denham for business and skills – have the same opportunity under the new leader's guidance.

Mr Miliband, a politician still little known outside Westminster, has made a series of brave and in some cases unexpected decisions that are beginning to define his political character. Over the summer, culminating in a speech at Bloomberg, Ed Balls had put a compelling case to shadow the job Gordon Brown wanted him to have in government. He knows the Treasury, he knows his economics and he knows his own mind. He was clearly the leading contender. He was rejected, and not in favour of his wife Yvette Cooper, as many had hoped, but in favour of the veteran Mr Johnson. Plenty of people will say Mr Miliband has made the wrong choice, but the reality is that giving the job to Mr Balls would have meant Mr Miliband kissing goodbye to any direct control over economic policy. There is unquestionably an impressive steeliness of purpose in rejecting Mr Balls' claim. Following this up with the choice of one of his brother's most ardent supporters – who was less than enthusiastic about his new boss in an interview with the Guardian on the day the results were declared – suggests

a welcome readiness to make good the scars of the leadership contest and to lay to rest the exhausting and exhausted warfare between Brownites and Blairites.

Mr Johnson has none of the economic expertise of Mr Balls, but he has none of the baggage either. His merits to Mr Miliband lie as much in what he is not as what he is: above all, he was not at Gordon Brown's right hand when the wrong decisions were taken, and he has long since shed his old trade union priorities. He is a sharp politician with the extra factor, in the iconography of democratic politics, of being the embodiment of the aspiring working class, a former postman challenging the representatives of privilege. The two other leading influences on the economics agenda will be the shadow cabinet's only southern England Labour MP (outside London), John Denham, who shadows Vince Cable, and, from Scotland, Douglas Alexander, the alienated Brown acolyte turned David Miliband supporter. All of them will have to hit the ground running. The coming week will be dominated by higher-education funding, a brief that Mr Denham already knows (there is scope for an interesting alliance over a graduate tax that might give the coalition pause). The following week comes the spending review.

And having parked Mr Balls on the economic sidelines, it is smart to give him another of the so-called great offices of state to shadow. The Home Office brief will be absorbing, and it matters to voters almost as much as the economy. Civil libertarians may flinch at Mr Balls' enthusiasm for identity cards; choosing how to tackle the combative Theresa May will also be a challenge.

This has been a defining few days for Ed Miliband. On Thursday morning he welcomed the Hutton interim report on pensions and warned against strikes. Now a picture is emerging not of Red Ed, but of a pluralist, healing leader who is more sensitive to the evidence of the polls and the concerns of the voters than some of his supporters in the leadership campaign may



have appreciated. To govern is to choose, but opposition involves choices too, and Mr Miliband has made some tough ones.

### Text 3

## How the Citizens United ruling freed political speech

One year ago today, the Supreme Court issued its landmark decision in *Citizens United v. Federal Election Commission*. It upheld the First Amendment rights of individuals acting through corporations and labor unions to participate in our political process, and it struck down an oppressive thicket of statutes restricting - and even criminalizing - their political speech.

The case arose in 2007, when Citizens United, a grass-roots membership organization, sought to broadcast a film critical of Hillary Clinton, then a candidate for president. The Federal Election Commission deemed the film too critical to be shown in the weeks before an election; if Citizens United had broadcast it, its officers would have been subject to prosecution and potential imprisonment for up to five years. The Supreme Court struck down this prohibition of corporate and labor union election-time speech about candidates as a violation of the First Amendment. To the court's majority, it was "stranger than fiction for our Government to make . . . political speech a crime."

Stranger still were the unwarranted attacks against the Supreme Court that followed. Most visibly, the president used his State of the Union address to accuse the court of having "reversed a century of law" and "open[ed] the floodgates for special interests - including foreign corporations - to spend without limit in our elections." That statement was astonishing because none of it was true: The oldest decision reversed by *Citizens United* was 20 years old, not 100, and foreign corporations are prohibited from participating in elections, just as they were before. As for "special interests," many had been spending at an equally furious rate, apparently unnoticed by the president, well before this ruling.

Still, the attacks continued: Sen. Charles Schumer accused the court of attempting to "predetermine the outcome of next November's elections," handing them to "Corporate America and other special interests." And when the November elections brought grim tidings

to many Democratic officeholders, those candidates blamed not themselves nor their unpopular policies but the court. "Clearly the *Citizens United* decision decided this race," said a freshly defeated Rep. Dan Maffei. Sen. Arlen Specter went so far as to blame Citizens United not only for his rejection at the ballot box but also for "effectively undermining the basic democratic principle of the power of one person, one vote."

Serious charges, but as the justices wrote in *Citizens United*, "[r]hetoric ought not obscure reality." So what is the reality?

Without question, *Citizens United* has enabled citizen organizations (curiously and disparagingly labeled "outside groups") to assume a larger role in electoral politics. According to the nonpartisan Center for Responsive Politics, citizen groups spent \$296.4 million in the 2010 election cycle - slightly less than the \$301.7 million spent by such groups in 2008, but more than four times the \$68.9 million spent by comparable organizations in the 2006 midterm elections.

Still, the amount citizen groups spent in 2010 pales next to these enormous sums: \$1.35 billion spent by the two major political parties and an additional \$1.8 billion by candidates for Congress. While citizens making independent expenditures increased their election spending to nearly \$300 million in 2010, that remains less than one-tenth of the more than \$3 billion spent by political parties and their candidates.

So, why all the hysteria from incumbents? Perhaps because independent spending by citizens has shifted away from Democratic candidates. In 2006, liberal interest groups tracked by the Center for Responsive Politics outspent conservative interest groups by a 2-to-1 margin. By 2010, the trend had reversed, and conservative groups were outspending the liberal groups 2 to 1.

We suspect that what most upsets incumbent politicians about *Citizens United* is not the fact that conservative groups temporarily have gained the upper hand in independent spending. (Does anyone really think labor unions will not try to even the score in 2012?) Instead, what most bothers the political class is that the speech that surged in 2010 was independent.

Politicians could not control the message, so they vilified such speech as "unaccountable." Indeed, the Democratic majority was so unnerved that it cobbled together legislation to make such independent speech as burdensome as possible, complete with a misleading mom-and-apple-pie title: the Disclose Act. But this effort to stifle debate unraveled when it was disclosed that the bill included exceptions favoring powerful interest groups.

As the Supreme Court has ruled, Congress should get out of the business of picking winners and losers in the marketplace of ideas and placing its thumb on the scale of federal elections. In *Citizens United*, the court reminded us that when our government seeks "to command where a person may get his or her information or what distrusted source he or she may not hear, it uses censorship to control thought." The government argued in *Citizens United* that it could ban books advocating the election of a candidate if they were published by a corporation or labor union. Today, thanks to *Citizens United*, we may celebrate that the First Amendment confirms what our forefathers fought for: "the freedom to think for ourselves."

*David N. Bossie is president of Citizens United. Theodore B. Olson was lead counsel for Citizens United in its lawsuit against the FEC.*

## Text 4

We hear in the news all the time that American public schools are failing our students—American students are not competing favorably on international tests and schools seem to be faring worse all the time. Are our schools really doing worse today than in the past? Actually, American schools are doing a better job today than in the past.

First, why don't American students do better on international tests? It's a fact that European and Asian countries, even war-torn and third-world countries, often do better than American high school students on math and science tests. How is this possible? When looking at the scores, we must examine who is taking the tests. In the early grades, a broad cross section of students in all countries are pretty much taking the tests. If you look at the scores, you'll see that the United States gets the top marks at this point. Starting in high school, however, the United States's scores plummet. It's also around high school that European and Asian schools have weeded out less-capable students from their education systems. However, American high schools include all students: those who are academically talented, those who don't speak English, those who are handicapped, and so on. So the comparison is not fair. The international tests compare the most talented European and Asian students with a broad cross section of American students.

Even if we discount international comparisons, however, it sometimes seems as though schools are still doing a worse job today than they were in 1950. Is this true? No, it's not. Let's look first at domestic standardized test scores. In 1995, 75% more students scored above 650 on the SAT Math test than in 1941. If you factor out the Asian-American population, 57% of African-American, Hispanic, and white students did better on the SAT Math in 1995 than in 1941. The norms for the SAT Math test were the same between 1941 and 1995, so the higher scores are comparable. Test scores on the ACT college entrance exam have also increased each of the last three years.

Do test scores really mean that schools are doing a better job? Let's look at other indicators of success. First, students are learning more at school now than in the past. If you

visit your local high school, you'll find that many students are taking college credit courses in high school. In fact, a high school student can begin college as a junior just based on coursework completed in high school. Today, students are expected to learn at least fifty more years of history than in 1950—and in the same amount of time. Major events have occurred during the last 50 years—including the Korean War, the Vietnam War, the fall of communism. Calculus used to be college math—now most high schools offer two years of Calculus. DNA had not been discovered in 1950. Today, DNA, genetic engineering, and a host of other topics are standard fare in a first-year biology course—that's a course that typically includes a textbook with more than 50 chapters and 1000 pages. In 1950, we classified all living things as either plants or animals; today, living things are classified into six different kingdoms, and some scientists are already postulating as many as eleven different kinds of life. On top of standard academics, students are also learning computer literacy and computer programming. Students are learning more academically today than ever before.

In addition, graduation rates are rising. In 1870, only about 3% of high school students graduated from high school. In 1995, 83% did, and 60% of those went on to college. So more students are graduating and going to college, too.

If public schools are doing so well, why are Americans unhappy with them? Americans feel that schools are doing a bad job because they aren't meeting the needs of their kids. But which needs are we talking about? That all depends on the child—and every child is different. The problem is there is no consensus on the criteria upon which our schools are to be judged. If a child is athletically inclined, a school should provide a strong athletic program and opportunities for that child to gain an athletic scholarship to college. Handicapped students need special programs, too. In fact, every child requires something special, and so the schools are left meeting too many needs.

This is not a new issue. Even in the 1950s and 1960s, newspapers were filled with articles complaining about the poor quality of American schools. In fact, our discontent stems

from a conflict inherent in the American mentality. We are torn between our democratic principles of providing a free and appropriate education for everyone and achieving excellence. As Americans, we do not want to leave any child out, and so federal law mandates that all public schools must accept all students and meet their needs, including non-academic needs. Public schools provide breakfast and lunch for students, accommodations and self-sufficiency training for handicapped students; public schools even bathe students and administer feeding tubes to those who can't eat. At the same time, we want the best for our children. Public schools are expected to provide special education, athletic, gifted and talented, vocational, music, and art programs, too, whereas our international competitors focus only on academics. We are not happy with our schools—even though they do so much more than those in other countries—because they are not perfect.

Schools are working harder and meeting more needs today than ever before. Our schools are doing a better job than they did in the past—even though it may sometimes seem otherwise. Will Rogers summed it up well: “The schools are not as good as they used to be—and they never were.”

## Translation of Thesis Statements and Arguments in the Pre-test

### 1. The Thesis Statement

والنقاش محتدم حول كيفية احداث التوازن, من جهة بسبب تدافع المصالح الاقتصادية و الادبيولوجية و من جهة بسبب التعقيد الناتج عن طبيعة النقاش ذاتها. لكن لا أحد ينكر أنه يجب احداث التوازن كيفما كان (على مستوى معين)

/wa al-niqashu muhtadimun ḥawla kayfiyti iḥdhāthi al-tawazun min jiha bisababi tadafu‘ al-masaliḥ al-iqtisadia wa al-idiyulujia wa min jihatin bisababi al-ta‘qid al-natij ‘an tabi‘ati al-niqash dhatiha lakin lā ahada yunkiru anahu yajibu iḥdath al-tawazun kayfamā kān/.

### 2. The Arguments

- ان بعض الممارسات الادارية جعلت مجتمع أصحاب الأعمال يعتقد بأن الرئيس يقر بعدم وجود قيود تتعلق بالفوائد على القوانين الفدرالية. و كان هناك 132 قانونا يتعلق بالفائدة التي قيمتها أكثر من 100 مليون دولار منذ أدى السيد أوباما اليمين الدستورية. ولتعذر ذكر ذلك ههنا, ستكتب لاحقا قوانين الحماية الصحية و التشريع المالي.

/ina ba‘da al-mumarasat al-idariya ja‘alat mujtama‘ aṣḥaba al-a‘mli ya‘taqidu biāna al-raisa yuqiru bi‘adami wujudi quyudin tata‘alaqu bil fawa‘id ‘ala al-qawanin al-fidiralia wa kāna ḥunalika 132 qanunan yata‘alaqu bilfa‘idati alatī qimatuhā akthar min 100 milyun dolār mundhu adā al-ra’is l-yamin al-dusturiya wa lita‘adhuri dhikri dhalika ḥaḥuna satuktabu lāḥiqan qawaninu al- ḥimayati al-siḥiyati wa al-tashri‘ al-mālī /.

- و قد ظهرت يوم الأربعاء أول نتيجة ملموسة للتأكيد الجديد للرئيس و هي: الغاء القانون الاداري المقترح المتعلق بالأمن و السلامة في أماكن العمل و الذي يطلب من أصحاب العمل حماية العمال من ضجيج في مكان العمل بتغيير مواعيد العمل أو وضع تجهيزات جديدة عوض توفير سدادات الأذن كما يتطلب تطبيق القوانين الحالية.



/wa qad zaḥarat yawma al-‘arbi‘a’ ‘awal natija malmusa lita’kid al-jadid lira’is wa hia ilgha’ al-qanun al-idari al-muqtarah al-muta’aliq bil’amn wa asalamati fi amakini al‘amali wa aladhi yatlubu min ashabi al-‘amal himyata al-‘umali mina al-ḍajiji fi makani al-‘amal bitaghyir mawa‘id al-‘amal ‘aw waz‘ tajhizāt jadida ‘iwaḥa tawfir sadādat al-‘amān kamā yatatalabu tatbīq al-qawanīn al-ḥaliya/.

- الحق أن معظم تشريعات الدولة مستمدة من اللجان المستقلة كلجنة الاتصالات الفدرالية و لجنة الاحتياط الفدرالي و التي تقع خارج نطاق الأمر التنفيذي للسيد أوباما. اذا فهناك قيود داخلية لأي الغاء قانوني محتمل. كما سيستغرق لبقية الأجهزة أشهراً لوضع توصيات للتهذيب القانوني.

/al-ḥaḥu ‘ana mu‘zama tashri‘at adawla mustamada mina al-lijan al-mustaḥila kalajnati al-itisalāt al-fidiraliya wa lajnati al-iḥtiyat al-fidirali wa alati taqa‘u kharij nitaqi al-‘amri atanfidhi li ‘asayed ubama idhan faḥunalika quyudun dakhiliya li’ayi ‘ilgha’in qanunī muḥtamal kama sayastaghriqu libaqiyati al-ajhizati ‘ashhuran liwaz‘I tawsiyatīn li’atahḍib al-qanuni/.

- لم يحتو مرسومه التنفيذي على ما يمكنه جعل منحى التحليل مضادا للقانون بل ان المرسوم يوضح أن تحليل الفائدة يجب أن يأخذ بعين الاعتبار العوامل الغير مادية كالانصاف و الكرامة الانسانية, العدل, تأثيرات التوزيع.

/lam yaḥtawi marsumuḥu ‘atanfidhi ‘alā ma yumkinuhu ja‘lu manḥā atahlīl muḍadan lilqanun bal ‘ina al-marsum yuwaḍiḥu ‘ana taḥlila al-fa’idati yajibu ‘an ya’khudha bi’ayni al-’i’tibār al-‘awamil al-ghayr mādia kal’insāf wa al-karama al-’insānia al’adl wa ta’tḥirat atawzi’/.

Some of the students translation of the thesis statement and the arguments:

- يوجد هناك نقاش حاد حول أين يمكن احداث هذا التوازن تارة بسبب تنافس الاهتمامات الاقتصادية و الادبيولوجية و تارة أخرى بسبب أنه صعب وراثيا. لكن لا أحد ينكر أنه يجب احداث التوازن في مستوى معين.

//

- ان بعض أفعاله الادارية أدت بالمجتمع التجاري ليستنتج أن الرئيس يعترف بأنه لا توجد حدود على فوائد القوانين الفدرالية. يوجد 132 قانونا (قوانين) بفوائد قيمتها أكثر من 100 مليون دولار منذ أخذ السيد أوباما زمام الادارة. وكذلك قوانين تتعلق بالرعاية الصحية و التشريع المالي و من المحتمل حدود كربونية سوف تكتب لاحقا.
- وقد أتى يوم الاربعاء أول نتيجة مادية من التأثير الجديد للرئيس: الغاء مقترح أماكن العمل المتعلقة بالأمن و الصحة الادارية التي تطلب من الشركات (الأعمال) حماية من الضجيج بتغيير جدول الأعمال أو انشاء تجهيزات جديدة بدلا من تمرير تجهيزات (صمامات) الأذن بما تتطلبه القوانين الحديثة (الآن).
- في الحقيقة, ان الكثير من الدول التشريعية تتكون من وكالات مستقلة, مثل وكالة الاتصالات الفدرالية و الاحتياط الفدرالي, التي تقع خارج المجال التنفيذي للسيد أوباما. اذن فهناك ذلك الحد الوراثي لأي قانون محتمل. و كذلك فهي ستأخذ أشهرا لبقية البيروقراطية لانتاج توصيات لاصلاح القانون.
- لم نرى شيئا في أمره التنفيذي الذي من الممكن أن يجعل التحليل ضد القانون, في الواقع, انها تقول بوضوح أن تحليل فائدة التكلفة يجب أن تأخذ بعين الاعتبار عوامل هامة مثل المعادلة و كرامة الانسان, العدل و تأثيرات توزيعية.

## Translation of Thesis Statements and Arguments in the Post-test

### 1. The Thesis Statement

- لكنني أعتقد أننا لا نملك الحق في استعمال القوة بطريقة مباشرة أو غير مباشرة لمنع فرد من الانتحار ناهيك عن منعه من شرب الخمر أو تعاطي المخدرات.
- /lakinī 'a'taqīdu 'ananā la namliku al- ḥaḥq fī isti'māl alquwa bitariqa mubashira aw ghayr mubashira li man' fard mina al-intiḥar nahika 'an man'ihī min shurb al-khamr aw ta'ati al-mukhadirat/

### 2. The Arguments

- ان المنع هو محاولة علاج تجعل الأمور أكثر سوءا بالنسبة للمتعاطي و حتى بقية المجتمع, فحتى لو اعتبرنا السياسة الحالية الخاصة بمحاربة المخدرات مبررة أخلاقيا, فمعابنة الواقع تجعل منها سياسة غير حكيمة.
- /ina al-man' huwa muḥawalat 'ilaj taj'alu al-umur 'akthar su'an binisbati lilmuta'ati wa ḥata baqiyat al-mujtama' faḥata law 'i'tabarna al-siasa al-ḥalia al-khasa bimuḥarabat al-mukhadirat mubarara akhlaqian famu'ayanatu al-waqi' taj'alu minha siasa ghayr ḥakima/
- ان جعل تعاطي المخدرات أمرا قانونيا قد تزيد من عدد المتعاطين و لكن ليس واضحا اذا كان من الممكن أن يحصل ذلك.
- /ina ja'l ta'ati almukhadirat 'amran qanunian qad yazidu min 'adadi al-muta'atin walakin laysa wadihan idha kana mina al-mumkini an yahsula dhalika /

• و مهما يكن عدد المتعاطين فسيكون الفرد أحسن حالا لو أن تعاطي المخدرات كان بصفة قانونية.

- /wa mahma yakun ‘adad al-muta‘atin fasayakun alfard ahsanu halan law ana ta‘ati al-mukhadirat kana bisifatin qanunia/

• إذا كانت المخدرات متاحة قانونيا، فإن امكانية أي ربح محتمل من هذا النشاط الغير إنساني تختفي

بمأن المدمن من الممكن أن يشتري من أرخص مصدر.

- /idha kanat al-mukhadirat mutaha qanunian fa ‘ina ‘imkaniata ay ribh muhtamal min hadha al-nashat al-ghayr insani takhtafi bima ‘ana al-mudmin mina al-mumkin ‘an yashtari min ‘arkhas l-masadir/

• مهما حدث لعدد من المدمنين، فإن الفرد يكون بوضوح أفضل حالا بكثير إذا كانت المخدرات قانونية.

- /mahma hadatha li ‘adadi al-mudminin fa’ina al-fard yakun biwuduh afdala halan bikathir idha kanat al-mukhadirat qanunia/

• ان الضرر الناتج على البعض من إدمان البعض الآخر يبرز كليا من كون المخدرات غير مشروعة.

- /‘ina al-darara al-natij ‘ala al-ba‘dh min idman al-ba‘dh al-‘akhar yabruzu kolian min kawn al-mukhadirat ghayr mashru‘a /

• وعلاوة على ذلك، فإن المدمنين والمروجين ليسوا وحدهم المفسدين. فهناك مبالغ هائلة على المحك. إنه أمر محتم أن بعض أفراد الشرطة منخفضة الأجر نسبياً ومسؤولين حكوميين آخرين وحتى بعض ذوي الدخل العالي سوف يستسلمون لإغراء الحصول السهل على المال.

- /wa 'ilawatan 'ala dhalika fa'ina al-mudminin wa al-murwijin laysu wahdahum al-mufsidin fahunak mabligh ha'ila 'ala al-mihak 'inhu 'amrun muhatamun 'ana ba'dha 'afraad al-shurta munkhafidi al-ajr nisbian wa mas'ulin hukumiyin 'akharin wa hata ba'dh dhawi al-dakhl al-'ali sawfa yastaslimun li'ighra' al-husul al-sahl 'ala al-mal/
- /lakini 'a'taqidu 'anana lanamliku ay haq fi istikhdam kuwa mubashira aw ghayr mubashira li man' insan min irtikab al-intihar wa tarkihi wahidan fi shurbi al-kuhul aw akhdh almukhadrat/
- /al-man'u huwa 'ilaj yuhwil an yaj'ala mina al-umur akthar lilmudmin wa al-baqun mina wa idhanan walaw nadarna ila l-siasa al-halia itijah al-mukhadirat anaha mubarara akhlaqian fa'i'tibaratu al-waqi'i taj'alu min hdhihi al-siasa ghayr hakima/
- /idha kanat al-'aqaqir al-mutaha qanunan fa'ina ay ribh muhtmal min hadha al-nashat ghayr al-insani takhtafi li'ana al-mudmin yumkin an yashtari min arkhas masdar/
- /mahma hadatha li 'adadin mina al-mudminin fa'ina al-fard yakun biwuduh afdhal halan bikathir idha kanat al'aqaqir alqanuunia/
- /al-dararu lana min idman al-ba'dh al-akhar al-adhi yatrahu nafsahu koliatan taqriban min haqiqati ana al-mukhadirat ghayr mashru'a/

Some of the students' translations of the thesis statement and the arguments:

- لكنني أعتقد أننا لا نملك أي حق في استخدام قوة مباشرة أو غير مباشرة, لمنع انسان من ارتكاب الانتحار و تركه وحيدا في شرب الكحول أو أخذ المخدرات.
- المنع هو علاج يحاول ان يجعل من الأمور أكثر للمدمن و الباقون منا, و اذن حتى ولو نظرنا الى السياسة الحالية اتجاه المخدرات أنها مبررة أخلاقيا, فاعتبارات الواقع تجعل من هذه السياسة غير حكيمة.
- إذا كانت العقاقير المتاحة قانونا، فإن أي ربح محتمل من هذا النشاط غير إنساني تختفي، لأن المدمن يمكن أن تشتري من أرخص مصدر.
- مهما حدث لعدد من المدمنين، فإن الفرد يكون بوضوح أفضل حالا بكثير إذا كانت العقاقير القانونية.
- الضرر لنا من إدمان البعض الآخر الذي يطرح نفسه كليا تقريبا من حقيقة أن المخدرات غير المشروعة.
- وعلاوة على ذلك، المدمنين ومروجي ليست هي الوحيدة تلف. مبالغ هائلة على المحك. فلا مناص من أن بعض أفراد الشرطة المنخفضة الأجر نسبيا ومسؤولين حكوميين آخرين - وبعض تلك المدفوعة عالية كما سوف تستسلم لإغراء لالتقاط المال السهل.

- ان حديث السيد كاميرون عن الأسهم يحسب لقلة قليلة جدا إذا تم معاينة الأسر الفقيرة. بينما يتم الشروع في أشد جولة من تخفيضات الإنفاق العام في الذاكرة الحية، فان الحكومة لديها رسالتين حيويتين تريد أن تحيلها إلى الجمهور البريطاني. أولاً، التخفيضات التي لا يمكن تجنبها و ثانياً أنها ستكون نزيهة.
- ويعود الصدام الى النقطة الأولى في كل مناسبة، بما في ذلك في خطاب ديفيد كاميرون في مؤتمر حزب المحافظين في الاسبوع الماضي. وقد أعقب ان الألم الذي سيأتي هو نتيجة لسوء الإدارة الاقتصادية لحزب العمال. ان خفض العجز بكل قوة و بسرعة هو السبيل الوحيد لاستعادة مصداقية البلاد مع المستثمرين وتخفيف عبء الديون المرهقة عن الأجيال القادمة.
- و يأتي رد حزب العمال بأن الجزء الحرج من العجز هو نتيجة لانهايار الإيرادات خلال الأزمة المالية العالمية وهو نتاج فشل السوق و ليس عدم كفاءة الحكومة. أضمن طريقة لاسترداد العائدات هي من خلال تأمين النمو وإبقاء الناس في مناصب عملهم، والتي يمكن أن تتحقق أفضل عن طريق تقشف مالي أكثر حذراً.
- أياً كان موضوع الدعوى الاقتصادية، يبدو أن الحكومة هي الفائزة بالحجة السياسية. وتظهر استطلاعات الرأي دعماً لخطط التحالف للعجز. انما كيف سيكون هذا الدعم دائم هو سؤال آخر.
- التسامح سيعتمد بوضوح على اختبار النزاهة الذي وضعه كاميرون نفسه ففي خطابه حدد المبادئ التي يعتقد أنه يجب ان تطبق: أولئك الذين لديهم أوسع الكتفين يجب أن يتحملوا أكبر حمولة. العمل الشاق يجب أن يكافأ و لا أحد يمكنه الحصول على شيء بدون مقابل.
- وكما هو الحال في كثير من الأحيان مع سياسات إيمائية، ذبل هذا الاجراء تحت المجهر. ان الأسر المزدوجة الدخل التي فيها كل شريك أقل من عتبة ضريبة الأعلى يمكنه إبقاء الأموال التي ستأخذ من الأسر ذات الدخل المنخفض مع أجبر واحد فقط. وفي الوقت نفسه، فان الناس تحصل على زيادة في الرواتب في نطاق ضريبي أعلى قد ينتهي أسوأ حالاً حينما يتم إيقاف مصلحة الطفل.

- طغت هذه المناورة على اعلان الرعاية الرئيسي الآخر للمؤتمر - قبعة 500 £ في الأسبوع على المستوى العام للفائدة التي يمكن أن يحصل عليها الاجراء.
- بعض من الدوافع وراء تلك التحركات تكون عادلة. فقد تم تعيين الحد الأقصى الكلي ليعكس متوسط دخل الأسرة، على افتراض معقول أن العمل يجب أن ينظر إليه بشكل رمزي إلى أن تكون أكثر ربحا من ان تكون عاملا.
- أما بالنسبة للإعانة الإسكان، ليس هناك شك في أن السنوي £ 20 ألف فاتورة مرتفعة جدا، ولا شك في أن قنوات النظام الحالي للأموال من وزير الخزانة في جيوب أصحاب العقارات الخاصة، واذكاء تضخم الإيجارات.
- ولكن في حين خفض ميزانية الرعاية الاجتماعية هو جزء ضروري للحد من العجز، مزيدا من الاهتمام يجب أن يدفع إلى التدايعات الإنسانية. قطع إعانة الإسكان ومن المؤكد أن إجبار بعض العائلات على الانتقال من المناطق داخل المدينة حيث قد يكون لديهم جذور عميقة. هذا التفكك، والعزل الاجتماعي الذي يجلب إلى المدن، لا يخلو من التكلفة. تقليص دولة الرفاه له تأثير على الإنسان الذي يحتاج إلى التعبير عنه من حيث المبدأ السياسي، وليس فقط الإدارة الاقتصادية.
- ويعرف أيضا الكثير من الكلام حول سياسة التحالف التي كتبها الحالات القصوى من الخلل الاجتماعي وغير كافية من قبل الأسر العادية التي تكافح من أجل كسب لقمة العيش، والاعتماد على فوائد لمساعدتهم. بالطبع، يجب على دافعي الضرائب ان لا يقدموا دعما للمتطفلين مع وجود عدد كبير من الاطفال والذين يعيشون في منازل فخمة. لكن الإجماع الصادق حول الإصلاح لا يمكن أن يبنى على الرسوم الكاركتورية البرية حول من يستفيد من إعانات في الواقع.
- فكرة كاميرون من الإنصاف فيما يتعلق دولة الرفاه هي فردية جدا والمعاملات أيضا. وهو يعتقد أن لا أحد يجب أن يأخذ أكثر مما وضع وهي وجهة نظر تشجع الناس على مراقبة فوائد وامتيازات كل فرد. فإنه لا يدع مجالاً للمبدأ الأوسع من التضامن الجماعي التي تقوم عليها دولة الرفاه - فكرة أن المجتمع يحمي نفسه بشكل أفضل و سعيد أكثر و متماسك عندما تتوفر الموارد.



إذا أرادت بريطانيا رفض هذه الفكرة، ينبغي على الأقل أن تناقش في تلك الشروط، وليس ان تقوض جلسة.

- ان يكون لدينا مثل هذا النقاش يعني أن نعيد النظر في خطة التحالف لمواجهة العجز مع خفض الانفاق وزيادة الضرائب في نسبة أربعة إلى واحد. هذا القرار يضمن وحده أن شريحة ذوي الدخل المنخفض ستعاني، لأنها أكثر اعتمادا على الخدمات العامة وأكثر عرضة لمواجهة البطالة في التشف في القطاع العام. إذا كان كامبيرون جدي حول وجودنا في هذا معاً، فيجب ان ينظر بشكل أعمق في فرض ضرائب تصاعدية تستهدف الأثرياء حقاً.

- ان السياسيون لا يخوضون الانتخابات من أجل أن تكون المعارضة. بعد التقابل أمر بالغ الأهمية، ليس فقط في بعض الشعور الديمقراطي أفلاطوني - حيث يهتم أكثر مما يظن الناس - ولكن كما تزويرها لسياسات والحجج والشخصيات التي يمكن أن تقنع الناخبين وتؤدي إلى الحكومة.
- لا يملك السيد جونسون أيا من الخبرات الاقتصادية للسيد بولز، و لا أي شيء من الأمتعة. كما أن استحقاقاته للسيد ميليباند تكمن بقدر كبير في ما هو ليس ما هو عليه: قبل كل شيء، وقال انه لم يكن في اليد اليمنى جوردون براون عندما اتخذت قرارات خاطئة، وأنه تسليط منذ فترة طويلة أولوياته النقابية القديمة.
- وبعد أن كانت متوقفة بولز على هامش الاقتصادية، انها ذكية لاعطائه آخر من ما يسمى مكاتب كبيرة من دولة إلى الظل. وموجز وزارة الداخلية أن يكون امتصاص، وأنه يهتم الناخبين تقريبا بقدر الاقتصاد. الحريات المدنية قد تتراجع في الحماس بولز "للحصول على بطاقات هوية. واختيار كيفية معالجة القتالية تيريزا ماي أن يكون أيضا تحديا.
- الآن صورة تبرز ليس من الأحمر إد، ولكن من تعددي، زعيم الشفاء الذي هو أكثر حساسية لدليل على صناديق الاقتراع ومخاوف الناخبين من بعض مؤيديه في حملة القيادة قد تقدير. ليحكم هو اختيار، ولكن ينطوي المعارضة الخيارات أيضا، وجعلت ميليباند بعض منها صعبة.

- قبل سنة واحدة من اليوم، أصدرت المحكمة العليا قرارها التاريخي في المواطنين المتحدين ضد لجنة الانتخابات الاتحادية أين أيدت التعديل الأول لحقوق الأفراد التي تعمل من خلال الشركات والنقابات العمالية للمشاركة في عمليتنا السياسية ، وألغت جملة من القوانين القمعية التي تقيد وحتى تجرم خطابهم السياسي.
- ان القضية التي برزت عام 2007، عندما سعت منظمة المواطنين المتحدة، وهي منظمة عضوية ذات قاعدة شعبية، إلى بث فيلم ينتقد هيلاري كلينتون، ثم مرشح للرئاسة. اعتبرت لجنة الانتخابات الاتحادية ان الفيلم حرج للغاية لعرضها في الأسابيع التي سبقت الانتخابات. ولو ان منظمة المواطنين المتحدين قد بثته، لكان ضباطها تعرضوا للملاحقة والسجن المحتمل لمدة تصل إلى خمس سنوات.
- و قد تلت الهجمات غير المبررة ضد المحكمة العليا من الخارج بوضوح أكثر فقد استخدم الرئيس خطابه عن حالة الاتحاد الذي ألقاه لاتهام المحكمة بأنها "عكست قرنا من القانون" و "فتحت الباب على مصراعيه لأصحاب المصالح الخاصة - بما في ذلك الشركات الأجنبية - للتدخل بلا حدود في انتخاباتنا". وكان هذا البيان مفاجئا، لأنه لا شيء من ذلك كان صحيحا.
- ومع ذلك، استمرت الهجمات حيث اتهم السناتور تشارلز شومر المحكمة بمحاولة "التحديد المسبق لنتائج انتخابات نوفمبر القادمة،" بتسليمهم "الشركة أمريكا والمصالح الخاصة الأخرى." وعندما جلبت انتخابات نوفمبر بشائر قاتمة للعديد من اصحاب المناصب الديمقراطية، لم يتهم أولئك المرشحون لا أنفسهم ولا سياساتهم التي لا تحظى بشعبية ولكن اتهموا المحكمة.
- وبلا شك قد مكنت منظمة المواطنين المتحدين المنظمات المدنية من الاضطلاع بدور أكبر في السياسة الانتخابية. وفقا لمركز العاملين في مجال السياسة المستجيبة، أنفقت جماعات المواطنين 296.4 مليون دولار في الدورة الانتخابية 2010 - أقل قليلا من 301.7 مليون دولار التي أنفقتها تلك الجماعات في عام 2008، ولكن أكثر من أربعة أضعاف 68.9 مليون دولار التي تنفقتها المنظمات المماثلة في انتخابات التجديد النصفى 2006 .

- ومع ذلك، فإن المبالغ التي أنفقتها جماعات المواطنين في عام 2010 ضئيلة مقابل هذه المبالغ الهائلة 135 مليون دولار تنفق من قبل اثنين من الأحزاب السياسية الرئيسية ومبلغ إضافي قدره 1.8 مليار دولار من قبل المرشحين لعضوية الكونغرس. في حين زاد إنفاق الانتخاب بالنسبة للمواطنين الذين يقومون بنفقات مستقلة بما يقارب 300 مليون دولار في عام 2010، التي لا تزال أقل من واحد على عشرة من أكثر من 3 مليارات دولار أنفقت من قبل الأحزاب السياسية ومرسحياها.
- في عام 2006، أنفقت جماعات المصالح الليبرالية التي رصدها مركز السياسة المستجيبة أكثر من جماعات المصالح المحافظة بهامش 2 إلى 1. بحلول عام 2010 قد انعكس الاتجاه حيث أن الجماعات المحافظة أنفقت أكثر من الجماعات الليبرالية بنفس الهامش.
- كما قضت المحكمة العليا، ينبغي على الكونغرس الخروج من عملية اختيار الفائزين والخاسرين في سوق الأفكار واتهام مقياس الانتخابات الفدرالية.
- وجادلت الحكومة في منظمة المواطنين المتحدون أنها يمكن أن تمنع الكتب التي تدعو إلى انتخاب مرشح إذا كانت نشرتها مؤسسة أو اتحاد العمال. بفضل منظمة المواطنين المتحدون اليوم نستطيع ان نحتفل بأن التعديل الأول للدستور يؤكد ما حارب من أجله أجدادنا ألا وهو "حرية التفكير لأنفسنا."

- هل حقا ان أداء مدارسنا أسوأ اليوم مما كانت عليه في الماضي؟ في الواقع، تقوم المدارس الأمريكية بعمل أفضل اليوم مما كانت عليه في الماضي.
- أولا، لماذا لا يكون أداء الطلاب الأمريكيين أفضل في الاختبارات الدولية؟ انها حقيقة أن الدول الأوروبية والآسيوية و حتى البلدان التي مزقتها الحرب وبلدان العالم الثالث غالبا ما تكون أفضل من طلاب المدارس الثانوية الأمريكية في اختبارات الرياضيات والعلوم. كيف يكون هذا ممكنا؟ عند النظر في النقاط، يجب علينا أن ندرس الشخص الذي قام باجتياز الاختبارات. في المراحل المبكرة، شريحة واسعة من الطلاب في جميع البلدان الى حد كبير تقوم بالاختبارات. إذا نظرت الى النتائج سترون أن الولايات المتحدة تحصل على أعلى الدرجات في هذه المرحلة لكن ابتداء من المدرسة الثانوية تسجل الولايات المتحدة انخفاضا. كما ان المدارس الثانوية الأوروبية والآسيوية تقصي الطلاب أقل قدرة من أنظمتها التعليمية على عكس المدارس الثانوية الأمريكية التي تشمل جميع الطلاب: أولئك الذين هم الموهوبين أكاديميا، وأولئك الذين لا يتحدثون اللغة الإنجليزية، أولئك الذين هم المعاقين، وهلم جرا. وبالتالي فإن المقارنة ليست عادلة حيث أن الاختبارات الدولية تقارن بين الطلاب الأوروبيين والآسيويين الموهوبين مع شريحة واسعة من الطلاب الأمريكيين.
- حتى لو استثنينا المقارنات الدولية، ومع ذلك، فإنه يبدو أحيانا كما لو ان المدارس لا تزال تقوم بعمل أسوأ اليوم مما كانت عليه في عام 1950. هل هذا صحيح؟ لا ليس كذلك. دعونا ننظر أولا في نتائج الاختبارات الموحدة المحلية. في عام 1995، سجل 75٪ من الطلاب فوق 650 في اختبار الرياضيات في اختبارات التقييم المدرسي من عام 1941. إذا عدنا السكان الآسيويين والأمريكيين نجد 57٪ من الأميركيين الأفارقة، اللاتينيون، والطلاب البيض كانوا أفضل في اختبارات التقييم المدرسي في الرياضيات عام 1995 اكثر منه في عام 1941. وكانت معايير اختبارات التقييم المدرسي لاختبار الرياضيات نفسها بين 1941 و 1995، وبالتالي فإن ارتفاع

درجات قابل للمقارنة. وقد زادت أيضا درجات الاختبار على امتحان القبول لاختبار الكلية الأمريكية في كل من السنوات الثلاث الماضية.

● دعونا نلقي نظرة على مؤشرات أخرى للنجاح. أولاً، الطلاب يتعلمون أكثر في المدرسة الآن مما كانت عليه في الماضي. إذا قمت بزيارة المدرسة الثانوية المحلية الخاصة بك، ستجد أن العديد من الطلاب يأخذون دورات الائتمان الكلية في المدرسة الثانوية. في الواقع، يمكن للطلاب في المدرسة الثانوية ان يبدأ الكلية كشاب فقط على أساس الدراسة المنتهية في المدرسة الثانوية. يتوقع من الطلبة اليوم ان يتعلموا على الاقل اكثر من خمسين عاما أخرى من التاريخ من عام 1950، وفي نفس الفترة الزمنية. لقد وقعت أحداث كبرى خلال الخمسين سنة الماضية منها الحرب الكورية، وحرب فيتنام، وسقوط الشيوعية. كان حساب التفاضل والتكامل يستخدم فقط في كلية الرياضيات لكن الآن معظم المدارس الثانوية تقدم عامين من حساب التفاضل والتكامل. لم يتم اكتشاف الحمض النووي في عام 1950 لكن اليوم فان الحمض النووي، والهندسة الوراثية، ومجموعة كبيرة من الموضوعات الأخرى هي مقاييس أساسية في علم الأحياء في السنة الأولى من دورة هذا المسار الذي يشمل عادة كتاب مع أكثر من 50 فصلا و 1000 صفحة. في عام 1950 تم تصنيف جميع الكائنات الحية إما كنباتات أو كحيوانات بينما اليوم يتم تصنيف الكائنات الحية إلى ستة ممالك مختلفة، وبعض العلماء يفترضها بالفعل ما لا يقل عن أحد عشر نوعا مختلفا من الحياة. على رأس المقاييس الأكاديمية يتعلم الطلاب أيضا الحاسوبية وبرمجة الكمبيوتر. الطلاب يتعلمون أكاديميا اليوم أكثر من أي وقت مضى.

● وبالإضافة إلى ذلك، فإن معدلات التخرج اخذة في الارتفاع. في عام 1870، تخرج 3% فقط من الطلاب من المدرسة الثانوية. في عام 1995، تخرج 83%، وتوجه 60% منهم الى الكلية. لذلك فان المزيد من الطلاب يتخرجون ويذهبون إلى الكلية أيضا.

● إذا كانت المدارس العامة ناجحة فذلك جيد لكن لماذا الأميركيين غير راضين عنهم؟ الأميركيون يشعرون بأن المدارس يقومون بعمل سيء لأنه لم يتم تلبية احتياجات أطفالهم. ولكن ما هي الاحتياجات التي نتحدث عنها؟ هذا كله يتوقف على الطفل وكل طفل مختلف. المشكلة هي عدم

وجود توافق في الآراء بشأن المعايير التي نحكم بها على مدارسنا. إذا كان للطفل ميول رياضية ينبغي أن توفر المدرسة برنامج رياضي قوي لهذا الطفل واعطاء الفرصة له للحصول على منحة رياضية إلى الكلية. الطلاب المعاقين في حاجة الى برامج خاصة أيضا. في الواقع كل طفل يتطلب شيء خاص و هكذا يجب على المدارس ان تحيط بعدد كبير جدا من الاحتياجات.

- كأمركيين نحن لا نريد أن نستثني أي طفل حيث ينص القانون الفدرالي على أن جميع المدارس العامة يجب أن تقبل جميع الطلبة وتلبي احتياجاتهم، بما في ذلك الاحتياجات الغير أكاديمية. توفر المدارس الحكومية الإفطار والغداء للطلاب، والإقامة والتدريب للاكتفاء الذاتي للطلاب المعاقين. حتى ان المدارس العامة توفر الاستحمام للطلاب وتدير أنابيب التغذية لأولئك الذين لا يستطيعون تناول الطعام. في الوقت نفسه، ونحن نريد أفضل لأطفالنا. ومن المتوقع أن توفر هذه المدارس التعليم الخاص وبرامج رياضية، برامج للموهوبين والمتفوقين، وبرامج التعليم المهني، والموسيقى، والبرامج الفنية أيضا، في حين يركز منافسينا الدوليين على الأكاديميين فقط. نحن لسنا راضيين على مدارسنا على الرغم من أنها تفعل أكثر من ذلك بكثير من تلك الموجودة في بلدان أخرى، لأنها ليست مثالية.

A figure from SPSS providing data to table of Group Statistics

| Notes                  |                                |  |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
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| Comments               |                                |  |
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|                        | Weight                         | <none>   |
|                        | Split File                     | <none>   |
|                        | N of Rows in Working Data File | 40   |
| Missing Value Handling | Definition of Missing          | User-defined missing values are treated as missing.  |
|                        | Cases Used                     | Statistics are based on all cases with valid data.   |
| Syntax                 |                                | FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=PreCtrl<br>PreXP PostCtrl PostXP<br>/STATISTICS=STDDEV VARIANCE<br>RANGE MEAN MEDIAN MODE<br>/HISTOGRAM NORMAL<br>/ORDER=ANALYSIS. |
| Resources              | Processor Time                 | 00:00:02.47  |
|                        | Elapsed Time                   | 00:00:01.94  |



T-TEST PAIRS=PreCtrl PreXP WITH PostCtrl PostXP (PAIRED)  
 /CRITERIA=CI(.9500)  
 /MISSING=ANALYSIS.

## T-Test

| Notes                  |                                |  |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
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|                        | Weight                         | <none>   |
|                        | Split File                     | <none>   |
|                        | N of Rows in Working Data File | 40   |
| Missing Value Handling | Definition of Missing          | User defined missing values are treated as missing.  |
|                        | Cases Used                     | Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis. |
| Syntax                 |                                | T-TEST PAIRS=PreCtrl PreXP WITH PostCtrl PostXP (PAIRED)<br>/CRITERIA=CI(.9500)<br>/MISSING=ANALYSIS.                      |
| Resources              | Processor Time                 | 00:00:00.02  |
|                        | Elapsed Time                   | 00:00:00.03  |

Figure related to table

[DataSet0]

T-TEST GROUPS=GrpID('Ctrl' 'XP')  
 /MISSING=ANALYSIS  
 /VARIABLES=PreTest PostTest  
 /CRITERIA=CI(.95).

## T-Test

| Notes                  |                                |  |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
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| Comments               |                                |  |
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|                        | Filter                         | <none>   |
|                        | Weight                         | <none>   |
|                        | Split File                     | <none>   |
|                        | N of Rows in Working Data File | 80   |
| Missing Value Handling | Definition of Missing          | User defined missing values are treated as missing.  |
|                        | Cases Used                     | Statistics for each analysis are based on the cases with no missing or out-of-range data for any variable in the analysis. |
| Syntax                 |                                | T-TEST GROUPS=GrpID('Ctrl' 'XP')<br>/MISSING=ANALYSIS<br>/VARIABLES=PreTest PostTest<br>/CRITERIA=CI(.95).                 |
| Resources              | Processor Time                 | 00:00:00.00  |
|                        | Elapsed Time                   | 00:00:00.00  |

Figure related to table of the t-test.

## ملخص

يواجه طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في حصص الترجمة عموماً صعوبات في ترجمة النصوص جدلية وإظهار قيمتها عملياً حيث أنهم لم ينجحوا في توظيف العلاقة في ما بين ما يدرسونه في النظرية البراغمتية، نظرية أفعال الكلام وما تعلموه من الخطاب الجدلي في ترجمة النصوص الجدلية الإنجليزية. ونتيجة لذلك، يهدف هذا البحث إلى توضيح أهمية إدراك هذه العلاقة وتأثيرها على الحاجة لترجمة مناسبة للنصوص الجدلية من اللغة الإنجليزية إلى اللغة العربية. بل وإنه يبحث قدرة طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية على فهم وإدراك قوة 'الحجة' في النصوص الجدلية من جهة وترجمتها و الحصول على نفس التأثير 'الإقناع' من جهة أخرى. لهذا الغرض تم تطبيق تجربة تشمل عينة من طلبة السنة الثالثة لغة إنجليزية في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة الاخوة منتوري قسنطينة تتكون من ثمانين طالباً تم تقسيمها إلى الفوج التجريبي الذي يجتاز التجربة و فوج المراقبة الذي يستخدم لإعطاء بيانات أساسية يمكن الاعتماد عليها لمقارنة نتائج الفوجين؛ بالإضافة إلى استبيان قدم لكلا المجموعتين. نتائج الاستبيان تؤكد الحاجة إلى مساعدة هؤلاء الطلبة لمعرفة المزيد عن النظرية البراغمتية والخطاب الجدلي وكيفية ترجمة النصوص الجدلية من اللغة الإنجليزية إلى اللغة العربية. وتظهر نتائج الاختبار أن التجربة قد حسنت أداء المجموعة التجريبية مقارنة بمجموعة المراقبة. بعد أن اعتاد طلبة الفوج التجريبي على التعامل مع جدلية الخطاب وترجمة أربعة نصوص جدلية، زاد إدراك الطلاب للعلاقة بين النظرية البراغمتية ونظرية أفعال الكلام والخطاب الجدلي في ترجمة النصوص الإنجليزية الجدلية وقد تحسن أدائهم في ترجمة النصوص الجدلية فيما يتعلق بالتعرف على أجزاء النص، وتحديد أفعال الكلام و بعد أن اعتاد الطلاب على التعامل مع جدلية الخطاب وترجمة النصوص الجدلية الأربعة، و أدركوا العلاقة بين البراغمتية ونظرية فعل الكلام والخطاب جدلية في ترجمة النصوص الإنجليزية جدلية وكما أنها حسنت في ترجمة النصوص الجدلية فيما يتعلق بالتعرف على أجزاء النص، وتحديد أفعال الكلام والحصول على الترجمة المناسبة. وهكذا، وبالنظر لهذه النتائج، يتم تأكيد فرضيات هذا البحث.

## Résumé

Les étudiants de l'anglais comme langue étrangère dans leurs séances de traduction rencontrent généralement des difficultés à traduire des textes argumentatifs et à rendre leur valeur pragmatique. Ils ne parviennent pas à exploiter la relation entre ce qu'ils étudient en pragmatique, la théorie des actes de parole et ce qu'ils apprennent de l'argumentation dans la traduction des textes argumentatifs anglais. Par conséquent, cette recherche vise à clarifier l'importance d'être conscient de cette relation et son impact sur l'obtention d'une traduction appropriée des textes argumentatifs de l'anglais vers l'arabe. Plus précisément, ce travail de recherche étudie la capacité des étudiants de l'anglais comme langue étrangère à comprendre et à reconnaître la force illocutoire «argumenter» des textes argumentatifs d'une part et à les traduire obtenant le même effet perlocutoire «convaincant» d'autre part. Dans ce but, une expérience a été menée auprès d'un échantillon de quatre-vingt étudiants de troisième année d'anglais au département de langue anglaise, Université des frères Mentouri -Constantine. Cette population a été divisée en deux groupes, témoin et expérimental avec le dernier groupe subissant l'expérience et le premier, c'est-à-dire le groupe témoin utilisé pour fournir des données de référence fiables contre lesquelles les résultats du groupe expérimental seront comparés. En plus, un questionnaire a été administré aux deux groupes. Les résultats du questionnaire soulignent la nécessité d'aider les apprenants de l'anglais comme langue étrangère à en savoir plus sur la pragmatique et l'argumentation et la façon de traduire des textes argumentatifs anglais. Les résultats de l'expérience montrent que le traitement a amélioré la performance du groupe expérimental par rapport au groupe témoin. Après s'être habitués au discours argumentatif et avoir traduit quatre textes argumentatifs, les étudiants prennent conscience de la relation entre la pragmatique, la théorie des actes de parole et le discours argumentatif pour traduire les textes argumentatifs anglais et ils se sont également améliorés dans la traduction des textes argumentatifs en termes de reconnaissance des parties du texte, d'identification des actes de la parole afin d'avoir une traduction appropriée. Ainsi, sur la base de ces résultats, nos hypothèses ont été confirmées.