The Prevalence of Hedged Performatives in WHO Conferences on COVID 19

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Abstract

Since 2019, WHO has held press conferences concerning COVID19 or Coronavirus. Regularly, the WHO key speakers present briefings on the latest news and developments concerning this serious disease. This study aims to investigate the prevalence of hedged performatives (HPs) in their speech. It is hypothesized that those speakers use somewhat a little proportion of these pragmatic-rhetoric device; nearly all types of these HPs occur but with noticeable differences; and their prevalence is dependent on certain factors such as the type of the conveyed information. To achieve the study aim and in turn verify these hypotheses, a WHO conference on COVID19 is selected and analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results verify these hypotheses and the reasons behind the low prevalence of HPs are that those WHO key speakers   mostly attempt to be objective and precise in conveying somewhat factual information about this dreadful epidemic.

 Key Words: Hedged Performative, Modalization,   COVID19, WHO Conferences.

ملخص البحث :-

انتشار أدوات المراوغة في مؤتمرات منظمة الصحة العالمية الخاصة بمرض كوفيد ١٩

منذ ٢٠١٩، تعقد منظمة الصحة العالمية مؤتمرات صحفية عن كوفيد ١٩ أو مرض كورونا فيرس. بشكل دوري يقدم كبار المتحدثين في هذه المنظمة موجزات عن أخر الإخبار والتطورات عن هذا المرض الخطير. هذه الدراسة تهدف إلى البحث عن انتشار أو استخدام أدوات المراوغة في تصريحاتهم الصحفية. افترضت الدراسة بان المتحدثون يستخدمون نسبة قليلة من هذه الوسيلة التداولية والبلاغية، وتقريباً استخدمت جميع أنواع هذه الأدوات ولكن بنسب متفاوتة، وكذلك يعتمد استخدامها على عوامل معينة منها نوع المعلومات المنقولة. لغرض تحقيق أهداف الدراسة ومن ثم إثبات فرضيتها تم اختيار مؤتمر صحفي للمنظمة عن ذلك المرض وكان التحليل كمي ونوعي. النتائج أظهرت صحة الفرضيات وان الأسباب وراء ذلك هو محاولة المتحدثين إن يكونوا موضعيين ودقيقين في طرح نوعا ما معلومات حقيقية عن ذلك المرض المخيف.

1. Introduction

The use of hedges is considered a common pragmatic procedures in any scientific, academic, political or an ordinary everyday speech. A hedge is a linguistic item (a word or phrase) that is manipulated to reflect the uncertainty of a real or specific knowledge where claims acknowledged as possibilities rather than certainties by the speaker (Yule,1996:130). This uncertainty is expressed in a way which shows that the user is completely observed Grice's maxim of quality (Grice, 1975:45). That is s/he is correct or incomplete. Thus, hedges are intended to conceal the interactional uncertainty which is hurts the whole communicative process.

The present study tries to investigate the use of *hedged performatives* (HPs) used in the briefings of WHO conferences stated regularly by supreme officials in this organization. The study analyses one selected briefing which presents important information concerning all human beings in this world. All the institutions (political, scientific, economical, social, etc.) are anxious to now the latest news in order to construct their policies, decisions and procedures. Nowadays, COVID 19 is the common enemy – as it is described by the WHO Directive General in his speech on 20 April 2020. This disease threats all the fields of human life. Therefore, certainty is crucially required to avoid playing with this devil. The key speakers attempt to convey the clinical attack statistics and the medical and humanitarian conditions around all the world so that their speech . Therefore, the primary concern of the study is to investigate the use of the HPs used by WHO key speakers. The study depends on quantitative data specified in the analysis to set up qualitative findings.

2. Literary Overview

This section is intended mainly to present a brief theoretical background about hedges in general and HPs in particular. It provides the definitions, pragmatic functions and classification of these linguistic items.

2.1 Defining Hedges

Lakoff (1972) is the first linguist who introduce the concept of *Hedges*. She uses this concept to indicate to linguistic items (words or phrases) used by the speaker/writer to make things more or less fuzzy through adopting other linguistic concepts such as approximation, indirectness , lack of full commitment, politeness, tentativeness, uncertainty, vagueness, etc. These expressions are used for carrying out functions required in different situations.

The main function achieved by hedges is to observe the truthiness or the qualitative value of spoken or written discourse. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), a hedge or hedging is a specific lexical item - word or phrase- that used to modify the degree of membership being partial, or true only in particular context, or being more true and complete than probably it might be supposed. The following examples show three of the hedging words in the italicized form :

[2-1] Mary is *pretty* sure she met him before.
[2-2] I am *quite* right.
[2-3] You *rather* believe he will pass the trouble.

Watts (2003) explains that the function of any hedge is to help the speaker or writer to be direct and true to some extent in his/her language. Therefore, hedges have a noticeable importance in the application of politeness strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987) who base their belief on Grice's maxims of cooperative principles (1975) state that hedges can be a highly important resource for the understanding of these strategies. Consequently, Haliday and Hassan (1989) consider hedges as lexical tools for achieving the interpersonal function of language. In [2-4] below, four linguistic items (*l mean; I think; pretty*; and *sort of*) are vague expressions used as hedges for reducing the claim to be very plain, i.e., they lessen linguistic items(words and phrases) to make them not too direct or exact.

[2-4] *I mean I think* I am a *pretty* straight *sort of* a guy.

Markanen and Schroder (1997:4) adopt the definition stated in Dictionary of Stylistics which relates the hedge and hedging to pragmatics and discourse analysis. This dictionary defines these two concepts as "qualification and toning-down of utterances and statements(…) in order to reduce the riskiness of what ones says". They adds that a hedge "gets the speaker off the hook, relives his her some of responsibility" through mitigating "the harshness or hostility of the force of one's actions". Also they refer to House and Kasper (1981) and Blum- Kulka and Ohlstein (1984) who consider hedges as a device used to modify certain types of speech acts , mainly requests and apologies. Accordingly, hedges are "modifiers of the speaker's commitment to the truth-value of a whole proposition, not just the category membership of a part of it.". Also, they can hide the speaker's /writer's attitude (ibid).

Many definitions are stated for hedges. Below is a chronological presentation of some definitions which can cover somewhat the theoretical scope of these important lexical items:

1. Verschueren's definition (1999:193): Hedges are linguistic – rhetoric devices employed in the content of direct intended meaning (proposition) without deviating the comment from its status in "attitudinal, epistemic or evidential terms that are equally indicative of meta pragmatic awareness" of speaker's intentions. For example, in [2-5] below, the prepositional phrase *in a sense* is a hedge used for this purpose :

[2-5] *In a sense*, universities are just factories.

2. Crystal(2003:216) states that this term is applied to pragmatics and discourse analysis of the common "sense of word ('to be non-committal or evasive') to a range of items which express a notion of imprecision or qualification." He presents hedges of complex combinations such as *something of the order of 10 per cent*.

3. A hedge is defined in the American Hertage College Dictionary (2004) as "an intentionally non-committal or ambiguous statement ...[that] weakens the certainty of a statement". Cruse (2006) agrees with this definition and adds that this weakening is applied to some aspect of an assertion. The approximated phrase *more or less* and *as far as I can see* presented below are good examples to clarify this definition.

[2-6] I have *more or less* finished the job.
[2-7] *As far as I can see*, his attempt will never fail.

4. Yule (2006: 130-1) considers hedges as certain types of expressions expressing that the speaker or writer is not really sure of what s/he is saying, i.e., what is said insufficiently true or complete. He states that the hedge *kind of* is indicate the accuracy of the statement below:
[2-8] His hair was *kind of* long.

5. Bloor and Bloor (2007:103) refer to all the above definitions in brief statement. They state that this linguistic phenomenon presents in everyday language and it can be seen as "a linguistic avoidance of full commitment or precision".

Finally, no limit of the definitions of this linguistic term hedge(s) and because of the limit of space the study satisfies with the above definitions that expose different perspectives.

2. 2 Hedged Performatives

A hedge performative (HP) is defined as "indirect illocution whose illocutionary force is expressed directly by a performative verb but is given an additional illocutionary force by some device, such as modalization or subordination (SIL Glossary of Linguistic Terms, 2020). It is a way of widening the concept of hedges. This definition is based on the Fraser's pioneering paper on HPs (1976) states that employing these HPs requires the use of (semi-) modal auxiliaries to adjust the illocutionary forces of performative verbs at the same time the inevitability or desirability of the locution is stressed (Fraser,1976:188). Performative verbs are verbs carried out simply by means of uttering them aloud or writing them. Accordingly, these verbs possess a certain significance in speech act theory proposed by J.P. Austin (1962) because they show the illocutionary force of an utterance in an obvious way (Crystal,2003:343).

Fraser (1976:187-8)deals with the syntactic structure of these expressions. Jacker & Taavitsainen (2008:72) explains that these types of verbs sometimes occur in subordinate clauses to function as HPs, as in:

[2-9] I *must/have to* ask you to clean the kitchen right now.

Fraser considers a performative sentence as not simply a syntactic sentence but it should be a "set of syntactic and semantic properties" (1976: 188). This consideration is agreed upon by Jacker & Taavitsainen (2008:72) and believe that it is explicitly clear. They add that hedged performatives cases are counted where the choice of a particular performative verb modifies semantically the requestive force. Fraser explains that the conventional expressions of verb like *beg*, *crave*, *beseech*, *plead*, etc. differs from the power dynamics expressed by verbs like *ask, command, demand, order*, etc. This is because they "share the inherent property that the speaker is 'requesting' from a position of powerlessness, relative to the hearer" (1976: 197).

In his Paper 'Hedged Performatives' (1976), Fraser classifies HPs into two types: (a) *strongly performatives* whose performative use denoted by the

verb is easily noticed, as in [2-10], and (b) *weakly performatives* in which the performative use cannot be seen, as in [2-11] below (Fraser, 1976:188):

[2-10] I *must* advice you to remain quiet.
[2-11] I *wish to* forbid you to leave.

Also, Leech (2004:147-8) contributes to the topic of HPs in his book untitled 'The Pragmatics of Politeness'. He states that since these HPs involve different devices of achieving indirectness, they can be considered   as a set of pragmatic modifiers used to lessen the directives. Consequently, they are manipulated to soften the force of what is described as the *pure performative.* This pure performative which is formal and quite rare in everyday discourse causes the illocutionary force of the utterance to be quite explicit. Its degrees of impoliteness rely mainly on the semantic content expressed by the performative verb. Leech explains that the forces of the pure performative of verbs like *demand, ask*, and *beg* are completely different. In other words, this force in (I demand) is highly impositive, in (I asked) is less so, while in (I beg) is less so again.

2.3 Pragmatic Functions of Hedged Performatives

As mentioned above, speakers/writers tend to use hedging for expressing, on one hand, (un)certainty towards a particular discourse and showing the degree of confidence implied in their claim. Accordingly, listeners /readers use hedges as means of evaluating the truth value of an assertion. These two uses expose the significance of the (un)intentional employment of these linguistic items in speech or writing. The HPs have crucial roles in making language more euphemistic and convincing. Communicative circumstances have clear impact on specifying the functions of these HPs. These functions are as follows:

1. Mitigation function

The function of HPs aims at mitigating the undesirable impact of the explicit directness implied in speakers'/writers' utterances or as Fraser (1980: 344) states these HPs "ease the anticipated unwelcome effect" made by the speaker. In this context, Danet (1980: 525) describes these HPs as rhetorical devices used to soften the harshness of certain speech acts by modifying words and phrases to make them not too specific nor too direct. Fraser identifies two basic types of mitigation function:

(a) Self-serving (driven of fear to cause discomfort to self).
(b) Altruistic (driven of fear to cause discomfort to others).

Brown and Levinson (1978)state the importance of expressing politeness by using HPs as mitigation devices. Accordingly, HPs are employed for avoiding disagreement. Down-toners adverbials such as *just, perhaps, not…quite* , etc. are combined with the HPs (Leech,2014:165), as in:

[2-12] Councilor … *could I just perhaps request* that you *perhaps* don't make it *quite* so easy for any future break-ins.

2. Politeness maintenance function

An appropriate use of HPs helps maintain politeness especially when communicating with high-ranked persons or those who have an authority. This asserts the formality of using these expressions particularly in public debates, court proceedings, interviews and any other highly formalized occasions. Leech (1983) notices this function when he describes HPs as politeness devices used to soften the directness and exactness of speakers'/writers' language. This leads to view speakers as polite interlocutors. Any failure in manipulating HPs will certainly lead to a pragmatic failure. Leech (2014:205) presents this example to show this function:

[2-12] You may stay if you wish, Miss Mason. But, *I'd advise* you to get some rest yourself.

In addition to the use of HPs for maintaining politeness, speakers/writers sometimes may make their language vague to achieve this function – being polite. Their speech/writing will be less powerful, direct or assertive if it is produced with little precision especially in occasions when the speaker/writer has no sufficient answer of a question or s/he tries to avoid committing to a particular decision or action.

2.4 Categories of Hedged Performatives

2.4.1 Performative Verbs

As explained in section(2.1.2), performative verbs like *advise, apologize, ask, announce, beg, beseech, command, congratulate, deny, deplore, declare, request, sentence, warn*, etc. are uttered or written to perform indirectly particular speech acts(Crystal,2003:343). For example, acts of advising, apologizing, questioning, etc. can be achieved only through the proper use of these verbs in utterances. This performative use often requires accompany with *hereby* that reinforces the performance (Greenbaum,1992 and Cruse, 2006:126), as in:

[2-13] I *apologize* for my behaviour.

[2-14] I *hereby promise* to do my best.

Archer and Wichmann (2012:36) make a distinction between the explicit and implicit performative. They state that the use of the performative verb in an utterance is the only way to perform explicitly. For example, in [2-14] the performative speech act is explicit because of : the use of the 1ˢᵗ person subject (*I*) and the presence of the performative verb (*apologize*) in the simple present tense, indicative mood, and active voice. Also the performative use is reinforced by (*thereby*). When all these reasons are absent as in [2-15] , the performance of the action is implicit in the use of the model *will*:

[2-15] I'll do my best.

2.4.2 Modalization
1. *Epistemic auxiliary verbs*

Fraser (1975: 187) and Jucker & Taavitsainen (2008:253) state that these refer to the modal or semi-modal auxiliaries (like *will, would, should, must, may, might, can, dare etc*.) are used to modify the illocutionary force of HPs. According to Crompton's (1997) taxonomy of hedges adopted by Chen and Zhang (2017), these auxiliaries are called as *epistemic modals*. They can soften the performance the illocutionary act denoted by the performative verb. For example, the use of *must* leads to different interpretations of the performative verb *advise* in(I *must* advise you ....) and (I advise you.....). In the former a speaker has the obligation to make devise, while in the latter, this obligation is absent with the absence of *must*, i.e., the speaker is only advising. Examples of the use of modal auxiliaries are presented below (Quirk et al, 1985:805):

[2-16] I *would like to thank* you for your hospitality.
[2-17] I *can swear that* I locked the door.

Considering example [2-13], if the modal *must* is used before the performative verb (*apologize*) as in [2-13a] below , the meaning of the sentence will be changed pragmatically. Quirk et al (ibid) and Leech (2014: 128) state that there is a reference of obligation in performing the apology and it is implied that the acceptance or acknowledgement of the obligation equals the performance.

[2-13a] I *must apologize* for my behaviour.

Greenbaum (1992) adds that the conversion of [2-13a] to a question, as in [2-13b] below. This interrogation changes completely its illocutionary force which will be a request for advice and no place for any sense of obligation, as in: [2-13b] *Must I apologize* for my behavior?

Leech (2014:105) refers to placing the modals at the initial position as HP openings and assures that initiating a clause with a modal leads to mitigate the illocutionary performative force in various degrees. Also, he points out that the use of the modals *can* or *may* instead of must in [2-13b] as in [2-13c] implies the speaker's will and readiness to apologize even this the actual apologizing act is not performed(2014:128), as in:

[2-13c] Can/ May I apologize for my behavior?

Although HPs in this case are more bombastic and artificial than the standard or pure HPs, Leech points out to some similarity between these different HPs because both tend to occur in formal and public setting (2014:105), as in :

[2-18] *May I ask,* all these are in favour, please, to show their hands [pause] these against…. (spoken by the chair at the business meeting)

[2-19] *Could I ask*, Rotarian Jeff. Please to propose a vote of thanks. (at a Rotary Club).

2. Epistemic lexical verbs

Salager-Mayer (1995) state that model (or epistemic) verbs (like: *appear, argue, assume, believe, indicate, propose, seem, speculate*, *suggest, tend, think*, etc.) are manipulated to perform acts of different degree of illocutionary force . They represent a set of speech act verbs . According to Crompton's (1997) taxonomy of hedges adopted by Chen and Zhang (2017), these verbs are called as *epistemic copulas*. Chen and Zhang (2017) state that these non-factive verbs can occur in the following two types of phrase structures:

a) 1st person subject (I/we) plus non-factive verb, as in:
[2-20] I suggest that the moon is made of cheese.
b) Impersonal subject plus non-factive verb
[2-21] It is therefore suggested that the moon is made of cheese.

Also, it is common that these verbs are preceded by impersonal subject and followed by a noun phrase, as in:
[2-22] These findings suggest a cheese moon.

3. Epistemic adjectives

This type includes all adjectives that express probability (like: *possible, probable, un/likely,* etc.) (Koutsantoni ,2007: 106) .

4. Epistemic adverbs

These are adverbs that express probability (like: *perhaps, probably, possibly, practically, apparently, presumably, likely, virtually, etc.*) and approximators (like: *approximately, roughly , somewhat ,etc.*)

5. *Epistemic nouns*

This category includes all nouns that are derived from epistemic lexical verbs (like: *assumption, attempt, claim, effort, estimate, indication, observation, probability, possibility, suggestion, etc.)* Koutsantoni (2007: 111).

6. **_Indefinite articles, numerals and general determiners_** (like: *a/an, one, other, another, etc.*). Koutsantoni (2007: 112) states that these lexical items are used with epistemic nouns or simply with nouns like *thing, way, method*, study etc., as in *a/ one/another/ other possibility*

2.4.3 Subordination: If-conditional clauses

Quirk et al, (1985: 44), Leech et al (2001) and Crystal(2003: 443) state that subordination is the process of linking two or more linguistic items to form different and more complex syntactic structure. Thus, a subordinate clause is a dependent structure that obligatory needs to a superordinate clause to express semantic content. Types of subordinate clauses are nominal clauses, relative, comparative, conditionals, etc. Regarding to HPs, the *if-conditionals* are the *adverbial* subordinate clauses that can lessen the direct illocutionary force of speaker's utterances. These clauses *mostly* express uncertainty or doubt concerning a proposition specifically when they are related to tentativeness (Quirk et al,1985: 1070, 1089) , as in :

[2-23] They'll send it to you *if you ask* them politely

[2-24] She 's far too considerate, *if I may say so.*

[2-25] She and I are just good friends, *if you understand me*.

3. Methodology and Procedures

As mentioned earlier, this study is intended to investigate the use of hedging and hedged performatives HPs in a selected WHO briefing conference on COVID-19. Key speakers who are supreme officials in WHO regularly have held   press conferences to give updated briefings concerning COVID 19 and answer journalists' questions about the worldly disaster. These key speakers represent various   specializations and functions. Mainly they are Dr. Tedros A. Ghebreyesus (Drector-General), Dr. Michael Ryan (Executive Director of WHO

health emergencies program), Dr. Maria Van Kerkhove (Technical Lead) , and Tarik Jasarevic (the host). The questioners   are journalists from many different press medias around the world. As usual, in the selected conference, these key speakers and some questioners were inside the conference room in WHO headquarter in Geneva and other questioners joined on phone or online –zoom meeting.

To achieve the aims of this study, one of these regular press conferences is selected to be the sample understudy. This COVID-19 virtual press conference was held on 20th April, 2020 and it was considered the first conference that was held in the peak time of spreading the disease and its participants were from many countries around the world. Therefore, for the first time the WHO press conference was being   translated   in all official United Nations languages; Arabic, Chinese, French, Russian and Spanish. These reasons are the crucial norms for selecting this particular conference.

The key speakers' utterance are investigated to identify the use and frequency of HPs. Each long complex or compound sentence is divided into its dependent clauses to simplify the task of marking the HPs. That is the analysis is conducted on the clause level. To standardized these clauses, the first letter in the first word is capitalized and a proper terminal punctuation is put. All the HPs are identified, analyzed and classified according to the HPs categories mentioned above. The frequencies of occurrences of each (sub) category of HPs are specified. The statistical results are analysed and discussed with the aid of providing examples extracted from the selected sample for each (sub)category. Finally, a number of conclusions are set up based on the findings.

The present study adopts a cletic categorization of HPs stated in table (1) below based on Koutsantoni's (2007) and Crompton's (1997, cited in Chen and Zhang , 2017) taxonomies of these lexical items:

No	Category	Function	Examples of HPs
1	Performative verbs	Expressing speech acts with direct illocutionary force	Ask, thank, warm, etc.
2	Epistemic lexical verbs	Expressing the speakers' interpersonal attitude to mitigate certainty implied in their language.	Assume, think, believe, tend, etc.
3	Epistemic auxiliary verbs	Expressing future planning/ possibility	Will/ would
		Expressing power and confidence	Must/ have to

		Expressing advice or obligation	Should
		Expressing ability	Can
		Expressing general ability and/or possible action now	Could
		Expressing the possibility of future happening with probability	May
4	Epistemic adjectives	Expressing probability and the degree of being true	Possible, pretty, Terrible, etc.
5	Epistemic adverbs	Expressing probability, adding more information and strengthening speech	Absolutely, actually, just, terribly, rather, etc.
		Expressing uncertainty	Probably, perhaps
6	Epistemic nouns	Expressing uncertainty by	Assumption, attempt, claim, etc. A sort of, a kind of
7	Indefinite articles, numerals and general determiners	Expressing less precision	a/an, one, other, another, etc.
8	Subordination	Expressing uncertainty or doubt by the use of tentativeness	If-conditional clauses

Table (1): The Categorization of the HPs

4. *Analysis and Discussion of the results*

The various and important functions of HPs in any language entails the necessity to study these linguistic items. They are rhetorical devices used for softening the directness and exactness of the illocutionary force of certain speech acts. Therefore, what is said and what is communicated will be more polite and acceptable by the hearers. In formal conversations and debates, these HPs are required necessarily, on one hand, to avoid politely hearers' disagreement and on the other hand, convince these hearers to accept the speakers' viewpoints. In a large number of linguistic studies on political debates, it has been found that hedging is very common and important device adopted by political   officials or presidential candidates to persuade their audience.

In this study the sample is completely different and as far as the researcher knows is a new one. The HPs are investigated in the language of regular briefing conferences of WHO on COVID 19 that is the greatest medical, scientific, economical, and political challenge has faced the world. The study aims at identifying to what extent hedging is adopted by the WHO key speakers

in these important press conferences that are waited eagerly by all people around the word to know the latest news of this common enemy.

The results show that the percentage of clauses exposing hedging by different various categories of HPs in the whole selected sample is only (14%) of the total clauses used by the WHO key speakers. This a relatively small proportion indicates that *mostly* the WHO key speakers use direct and specific language in presenting the latest news, statistics and developments concerning COVID 19. This is attributed to the crucial roles these data play in drawing the various (non)governmental policies and strategies concerning different fields of this life in all countries. The disease has affected and changed all the political, economical, educational, social maps of world in this difficult time. Also, this low percentage shows how those WHO officials are free from any bias or pressure and attempt to provide objective, logical and scientific information.

To give a comprehensive view of this study, the quantitative results of the conducted analysis are shown in a descending order in table (2) below:

No.	HPs categories	Freq.	Percentage %
1	Epistemic auxiliary verbs	114	58%
2	Epistemic lexical verbs	31	16%
3	If-conditional clauses	16	8%
4	Epistemic adverbs	12	6%
5	Performative Verbs	10	5%
6	Indefinite articles, numerals and general determiners	8	4%
7	Epistemic nouns	6	3%
8	Epistemic adjectives	0	0%
	Total	197	100%

Table (2) the frequencies and percentages of HPs in the sample

Accordingly, the analysis and discussions of results will start from the category of HPs that gains the highest frequency and then progress successively.

4.1 Epistemic auxiliary verbs

The category of epistemic auxiliary verbs is used most frequently. It scores (114, 58%) of the total uses of these HPs in the selected sample. This highest percentage is attributed to the familiarity and simplicity of these lexical items. very common HPs in English. They are used by all WHO key speakers for various purposes: planning or wishing something in the future time, expressing ability, possibility, certainty, obligation, politeness, etc. The statistic

results of this study are shown in table (3) below and then analysed and discussed in a descending order.

Modal Auxiliary	can	Will	May	would like	would	Should	could	must	total
Freq.	30	29	18	11	8	8	6	4	114
Percentage	26%	25.5%	16%	10%	7%	7%	5%	3.5%	100%

1. *Can* : This is the most frequent modal that occurs for (30, 26%) in the selected sample. It is used to express ability, as in:
   [4-1] So-called lock-downs *can* help to take the heat out of a country's epidemic.
   [4-2] We *can* prevent that disaster, we *can* prevent that kind of crisis, we *can* prevent it.

2. *Will* : This modal comes secondly after *can*. It occurs for (28, 25.5%) times throughout the sample. All these uses are intended to express future planning concerning future activities to control and contain the disease.

   [4-3] Ending the epidemic *will* require a sustained effort...
   [4-4] The first shipments of these tests *will* begin next week through
   [4-5] We *will* need a vaccine in the future.

4. *May* is used for (18, 16%) times in the selected sample. *May* indicates that the situation is possible or could be possible in the future, as in:
   [4-6] Influenza tests *may* also have been found at that time.
   [4-7] There is always the chance that the disease *may* rebound.
   [4-8] The immune system that *may* help kill the virus but they *may* also do tissue damage.

5. *Would like* . This expression is used to wish something for the future. W*ould like* is used for (11, 10%) in this sample so that it takes the fifth rank in the frequency order of occurrence , as in:
   [4-9] I *would like* to start by thanking the many musicians, comedians and
   [4-10] Therefore no-one *would like* to see the public health and social measures....

6. *Would* : This model is used only for (8, 7%) times in the selected sample to express doubt, uncertainty, possible actions, expectations, consent, choice, etc. ,as in:

[4-11] Any SARS test done at that time *would* have been negative, as *would* have been influenza samples.

 [4-12] On the same day we *would* have put out our first disease outbreak news.

7. *Should* comes also for (8, 7%) times in this sample to express obligation, expediency, or propriety , as in:

[4-13] We *should* not be afraid. We *should* have the confidence that we're in a different situation and fight it back.

[4-14] At the end of the day we *should* know the root cause of the problem

8. *Could* occurs for (6, 5%) times to indicate general ability and/or possible action now, as in:

[4-15] I know how people who *could* have been saved are dying because of disease.

[4-16] That basic essential health services under the rubric of universal health *could* be and *can* still be provided.

9 . *Must* is used only for (4,3.5%) times to express power and confidence. Must in these times indicates to something that is commanded or requested necessarily by regular rules or law, as in:

 [4 -17]Countries *must* now ensure they can detect, test, isolate and care for every case and trace every contact.

 [4-18] That *must* be done with proper leadership and stewardship.

4. 2 Epistemic lexical verbs

As mentioned above in (2.4.2), these verbs are used to express the interpersonal function of the language to lessen the certainty of the utterance and it can be linguistic avoidance of full commitment or precision. WHO key speakers intentionally manipulate epistemic verbs into to indicate that they are not completely certain of what they said in their utterances. In the selected WHO briefing, The total uses of epistemic lexical verbs expressing HPs are (31 ; 16%) in the sample. All WHO key speakers used this category of HPs but as being obvious in this low frequency of occurrence. They intentionally reflect their personal viewpoints in ambiguous sentences to appear unsure of their speech in specific and limited utterances. The epistemic verbs and their statistics are explained below:

1. The epistemic verb *think* occurs for (11 , 36.5%) times in the sample.

[4-19] I *think* we all need to make sure that we are very careful in terms of our measuring of success.

In the majority of these uses, the performative hedging meaning is strengthened by the accompany of this verb with different epistemic models such *may* , as in:

[4-20] I'm just warning people who *may think* that these are numbers.

2. The epistemic verb *believe* occurs for (8 , 26%) times. In some of these uses- like the verb *think* above, epistemic modals such as *may* come before the verb believe to enforce the hedging, as in:

[4-21] At this point I *believe* clinicians around the world and pathophysiologists are really looking at...

[4-22] An event or a signal that we *believe may* be significant

3. The epistemic verb *suggest* occurs for only (3 , 9.5%) times. It is used into two non-factive phrase structures. In [4-23] it is preceded by a relative personal pronoun indicating personal subject and followed by a noun phrase, while in [4-24] it follows a noun phrase as impersonal subject and precedes that-clause , as presented below:

[4-23] All the credit goes to my colleague, ...who *suggested* this idea

[4-24] Early data from some of these studies *suggests* that a relatively small percentage of the population *may* have been infected.

4. The epistemic verb *(un)expect* occurs for only (3 ,9.5 %) times. In example [4-25] below, two HPs from two epistemic types - *expect* and *will* - are manipulated by the speaker to show the more extent of uncertainty , as in:

[4-25] This week we *expect* that more than 600 hospitals' countries *will* be ready to start enrolling patients.

5. The epistemic verb *intend* occurs for (2, 6.5%) times, as in:

[4-26] We *intend* to do exactly the same here.

6. Each of the epistemic verbs *indicate*, *appear, suppose*, and *seem* occurs for only (1) time in the whole sample. The percentage of all the four verbs is (13%). Sometimes the performative hedging is enforced by using other HPs like the indefinite article *a*, and the epistemic adverb *actually* in the same utterenc , as in :

[2-27] It *indicates* that *a lower number* of people were *actually* infected.

[4-28] *A* lower proportion of people *actually*, it *appears*, are infected.

[4-29] That's all we *seem* to talk about, ventilators.

[4-30] I suppose the good news.

4. 3 Subordination: If-conditional clauses

Concerning subordination and more specifically *if-conditional clauses*, The WHO key speakers use this category of HPs for (16; 8%) in the selected sample. This type of subordinate clauses expresses hypothetical situations or conditions on which actions or consequences are dependent. Accordingly, an if-conditional clause entails the uncertainty of the action expressed by the verb in the matrix clause so that it is an effective means to mitigate a speaker's commitment to the proposition of her/his utterance. The following examples extracted from the sample are presented below to show the emphatic use of this type of subordinate clauses by WHO key speakers accompanied with the inevitable use of epistemic modals, as in:

[4-31] *If there is national unity* and *if there is global solidarity*, *if we take this as a common enemy for humanity and give our best*, we *can* win the fight, we *can*.

[4-32] *If we don't do that* this virus *will* stay longer with us to kill more people and we *will* lose more precious lives.

4.4 Epistemic adverbs

This modalization category of HPs appears in the selected sample but in a somewhat small proportion compared to the previous categories. The WHO key speakers use only (12; 6%) adverbs expressing probability or approximately. These adverbs are *about, actually, almost, probably, nearly, relatively, and approximately*. It is noticed that the HPs of epistemic lexical verbs (like *believe* and *intend*) and/or epistemic auxiliary verbs come with these adverbs in the same utterances to intensify the hedging impact of mitigating and avoiding disagreement with hearer's viewpoints. That is, HPs belong to these different types work together increase the indirectness and uncertainty by decreasing the direct, harsh and unpleasant illocutionary force, as in:

[4-33] What we see among these 10,000 viruses is that it is *relatively* stable.

[4-34] Through April and May we *intend* to ship *almost* 180 million surgical masks.

[4-35] We've got to have the systems to deliver that vaccine, which *will probably* be well ...

4.5 Performative Verbs

The results show a little use of this category of HPs. The WHO key speakers use performative verbs (like *thank, appreciate, apologize, ask, and warn*) for only (10; 5%) times. All the speech acts involve in these verbs are

positive consequences for the hearers. In other words illocutionary acts are intended for the hearers' interests. The following are extracted examples to clarify the use of the HPs of performative verbs:

[4-36] I *appreciate* the expression of support from many countries.

[4-37] We *warned* even developed countries saying, this virus *will* even surprise developed countries...; it *will* surprise even wealthy nations.

[4-37] We *will thank* everyone who is watching us today.

[4-37] I *think* we're all happy that we had journalists *asking* questions in different languages.

[4-39] My comments may have caused some confusion in Chile and for that I *apologise*.

6. *Indefinite articles, numerals and general determiners*

The HPs belong to this category occur for (8; 4 %) times. The WHO speakers use indefinite articles *a/an* and/or the numeral *one* before general nouns to make use of ambiguous senses. This ambiguity will mitigate the certainty of their proposition and in turn help them preserve the qualitative value of what they said. In addition to examples [4-27] and [4-28] mentioned above, extracted examples of this category are presented below:

[4-40] Take as *an* example ideology or in *one* country ...

[4-41] Even *one* life is precious.

7. *Epistemic nouns*

This category of HPs appears with a very low proportion in the selected sample. Nouns that are derived from epistemic lexical verbs occur only for (6; 3%) times only, as in:

[4-40] We're also continuing to lead research and development *efforts*.

[4-41] How do we answer to *claims* ...?

[4-42] There is this *observation* of rapid desaturation or rapid loss of oxygen in the blood.

8. *Adjectives expressing probability*

The results of analysis show that the selected sample is completely empty of the use of this category of HPs. This proves that, in presenting the briefings or answering the journalists' questions, the WHO key speakers tend to declare - to the largest extent- certain information and avoid – to a largest extent- uncertain information. This tendency is attribute to the danger of the disease and situation and the WHO speakers have no intention to deceive the audience by stating uncertain or false information.

5. Conclusions

Depending on the analysis and discussion of the quantitative results arrived at in this study , the following conclusions are set up:

1. Hedging and HPs are used by the WHO key speakers in a somewhat very low proportion. Clauses that have HPs from different types constituent only (14%) of the total number of clauses estimated in the whole sample. This indicates that speakers' utterances are tended to the largest extent to be direct and specific because precision in presenting information concerning this dangerous disease- COVID 19- is very important to all countries and governments in this world. All the political, financial, scientific, social, etc policies and strategies are determined mainly by the latest developments of this dander.

2. The total occurrence of these HPs is (197) in the whole sample. This frequency is distributed among seven categories of HPs adopted in the present study and this distributions occurs in various percentages. That is, all these categories are manipulated by the speakers except one category (epistemic adjectives).

3. The most frequent category of HPs used in this sample is the category of epistemic auxiliary verbs that gets (114; 58%) because their HPs are the most familiar and simple hedging devices, besides they express different modalized meanings such as ability, possibility, obligation, etc. This total frequency is also various among the modals used. The epistemic modal *can* expressing ability takes the first rank, *will* comes nest, and so do the other modal auxiliaries marked in the sample.

4. The category of the epistemic lexical verbs come secondly and it occurs for (31; 16%) times in the sample. These verbs express the uncertainty of the speakers' propositions in their utterances. WHO key speakers utilize this category of HPs to some extent to mitigate the strong illocutionary forces of certain speech acts by reducing the risk of their utterances.

5. Other HPs categories are used in different percentages of occurrence. HPs performed by if-conditional clauses are (16; 8%) and this subordination hedging device comes thirdly. The category of epistemic adverbs expressing probability and approximity has the fourth rank exposing only (12; 6%) of the total occurrence of all the HPs. Categories of performative verbs (10; 5%), indefinite articles, numerals and general determiners (8; 4%) and epistemic

nouns (6;3%) come in the fifth, sixth, and seven ranks respectively. Epistemic adjectives are completely ignored by these key speakers.

6. Consequently, the WHO officials are more objectives in their declarations concerning COVID 19 in comparison to politicians who use hedging and HPs to deceive the press media by fabricating uncertain, less direct and precise information. The WHO key speakers mostly convey truth and actual facts on the regard to the dangerous disease to warn the governments generally and people particularly and to urge the world to work together to contain, control, and stop the common enemy.

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Investigating Translators' Awareness of Syntactic Simplification in English-Arabic Translation

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Abstract

Syntactic simplification, roughly speaking, is the process of reducing the grammatical complexity of a text while retaining its information and meaning. It also entails changing certain syntactic elements in sentences to make the content simpler for a particular target audience, such as those with poor reading levels who have trouble comprehending lengthy phrases and complicated language.

This paper addresses the syntactic features of simplification in the process of translation from English into Arabic and the possible problems that may encounter translators as they try to put forth semantically and especially syntactically successful renderings for syntactic simplification. The paper aims at harnessing the topic by highlighting the notion of syntactic simplification, which is one of the recurrent features called universals of translation, and also at discovering whether the language used in translation is syntactically simplified or otherwise; this is fulfilled in the meanwhile by attempting to preserve the meaning and information so as to try and make the translated texts more reader-friendly.

It is hypothesized that translating English sentences containing syntactic simplification opts for a lower level of information load in translations by reducing syntactic density, clipping the sentence length, and that syntactic simplification in literary texts poses serious problems for Arab translators. Finally, such sentences can be effectively translated into Arabic. To test the validity of the hypotheses, a comprehensive account of syntactic simplification is presented, the major types and functions of the term are enlisted, a body of authentic English-Arabic translation examples from a literary work by Jane

Austen is selected, a model is adopted so as to fully understand and accurately translate them, data analysis is conducted, and new renderings are proposed wherever necessary.

Keywords: syntactic simplification, literary texts, syntactic content, English-Arabic translation.

1.Introduction

The prescriptive and normative approaches to translation that were prevalent in research in the 1970s have been abandoned in current translation studies (Kruger, 2002: 77).

The functionalist approach and the descriptive approach are two distinct methods of translation developed in the 1980s. The functionalist approach contends that translation is a form of communication performed for the benefit of the reader or the translator and that it must serve a purpose distinct from that of the source language(Kruger, 2002: 77). As for the second is a descriptive method that aims to describe the phenomena of translation and concentrates on looking at how it works as "a process, a product, and a function". (Munday, 2001).

To reveal the linkages found between the function, product, and process of translation, Toury (1995) uses Holmes' map. He eliminates the idea of equivalence and instead focuses on the norms and customs of a certain target culture. This indicates that there are no absolute standards for equivalent and that the researcher should instead concentrate on the idea of norms rather than equivalence(Toury,1995:22). These are the causes of replacing "prescriptive models of translation with descriptive, historical and socio-cultural models", which characterize the distinctive qualities of translated texts in terms of restrictions and norms of the target culture (Kruger, 2000:77).

The critical importance of description in translation studies is being strengthened by corpus-based research on the universals of translation (Toury, 1995: 265). Because it must be feasible to "gradually" and controllably get towards a theory that is supported by empirical data by concluding discoveries on real translational behavior.

Several scholars have made an effort to pinpoint putative translation universals and provide data to back up their findings. A key component of descriptive approaches to translation studies is the search for universals, which refers to describing the distinctive features of a translated text or multiple translations of the same source

text in accordance with the norms and restrictions of the target language and culture (Strĕdovā, 2009:6).

According to Hopkinson (2008) in Strĕdovā (2009: 8), translation universals are regularities and recurrent patterns that apply to all translations irrespective of the language or kind of texts, they occur regardless of the specifics of any single translation.

Similarly,Baker(1993:243) defines translations universals as "the linguistic traits assumed to be independent of the impact of the individual language pairings engaged in the process of translation"and "usually exist in translated texts rather than original texts".

Numerous linguistic tendencies and characteristics of language have been proposed as potential translation universals; Laviosa - Braithwait (1998: 288) cites some of these characteristics as being universal to all types of translation: "simplification, avoidance of repetition present in the source text, explicitation, normalization, discourse transfer and descriptive distribution of lexical items".Nonetheless, Baker was the first to classify these characteristics as translation-specific rather than linguistic or cultural characteristics. Her classification is as follows: "explicitation","disambiguation and simplification","textual conventionality in translated novels","tendency to avoid repetition present in the source text","tendency to exaggerate features of target language", "specific distribution of lexical items in translated texts vis-à-vis source texts and original texts in the target language" (Baker 1993: 243-247).

Furthermore, these qualities were all observed in early corpus-based translation studies and categorized into three different kinds of universals: "a tendency toward explicitation and addition"(in contrast to native materials, translations frequently present the facts more directly), "a tendency toward disambiguation and simplification"(compared to native materials, translation typically makes language use simpler), and "a tendency toward normalization and conventionalization"(translation frequently follows the linguistic conventions of the target language) (Kruger, 2000: 137).

Yet, simplification is likely the translational universal that has generated the most discussion and argument, and from the standpoint of syntactic complexity, this paper investigates the simplification hypotheses in the translated texts.Literary writings can occasionally be lexically or syntactically complicated, therefore simplifying them

aims to make reading comprehension easier for specific reader groups, such as children, low literacy readers, and others.

The main objective of the present paper is evaluating the translators' knowledge of the texts' lexical and syntactic simplification as a common trait and examining the lexical and syntactic simplicity of the language used in translation while aiming to maintain the meaning and information to make the writings more readable.

2.Previous Research on Simplification

TUs has mostly been examined from a Eurocentric viewpoint in the field of translation studies(Tymoczko,1998 and Laviosa,2002). The majority of TU research has only been conducted on closely related European languages, thus the linguistic differences may not be as obvious as they are in languages that are genetically far from one another, as English and Arabic.

In previous research on TUs, various usage in lexical, syntactic, and stylistic aspects of translated and non-translated texts were found, as well as comparative over-representation/under-representation. These studies have shown some evidence that, with regard to a number of grammatical and syntactic aspects, translated language is different from non-translated language.

Nonetheless, simplification is perhaps the translation universal that has generated the most discussion and controversy and has drawn the attention of many academics. Simplification is described as the concept that translators unintentionally simplify the language or content or both. The translation studies literature that has already been written on simplification has mostly concentrated on finding the language characteristics that may be attributed to translation-specific factors. Many linguistic characteristics have been studied in relation to simplification throughout time. As an illustration, lexical simplification has been defined as "making do with fewer words" Blum-Kulka and Levenston(1983) translating formal, literate, and old terms in the original text using informal, conventional, and current lexis (Vanderauwera,1985) also a "lower type-token ratio" in the translated texts(Cvrček and Chlumská,2015).

Several studies have compared the syntactic complexity of translated and non-translated texts in an effort to simplify. Despite the fact that the word simplification has been often used and discussed in the field of translation studies, translated texts have seldom been compared to untranslated texts using metrics of syntactic complexity. In fact, according to the TUs framework, serious research should be done on syntactic complexity,since a methodical analysis of the syntactic characteristics of translational languages is essential to comprehending the key principles and benefits of the translation process. A thorough investigation of syntactic complexity can shed light on the problem of simplification and delve into

the syntactic characteristics of translation as opposed to non-translation (Liu and Afzaal,2021:4).

3.Syntactic Simplification

Keeping the content and meaning of a document while lowering the grammatical complexity is a method known as "syntactic simplification". It also entails changing certain syntactic elements in sentences to make the content simpler for a particular target audience, such as those with poor reading levels who have trouble comprehending lengthy phrases and complicated language (Siddharthan, 2006: 77).

The majority of works on syntactic simplification are relied on manual rules; one example is the splitting of sentences with multiple clauses, where only a small number of clause markers such as "relative pronouns and conjunctions" are represented. Additional syntactic simplification studies simulate simpler transformations using machine learning methods (Pactzold and Specia, 2013: 116). The current paper is based on hand-crafted rules of syntactic simplification.

Little research has been done on syntactic simplification, however several studies have been published in this area, most notably those by Vanderauwera (1985), who is noted in Laviosa (2002: 47) who discovers multiple instances where non-finite clauses are replaced with finite ones and suspended periods are suppressed to simplify difficult grammar. She also notices the replacement of confusing pronouns with versions that allow for more accurate identification (Kruger, 2002: 84).

By using various operations, such as splitting, linking sentences, removing sentences or portions of phrases, and changing the sentence's voice, Specia (2010: 32) looked at a different research that involved the translation of complex sentences into simpler ones.

The methodologies for syntactic simplification put forward by Siddharthan (2004: 29) include three stages: analysis, transformation, and production. The text must be analyzed in order to identify syntactic constructs that can be made simpler. After the text has been analyzed, it can then be transformed using a variety of techniques that will be covered in the following sections. The final step, regeneration, deals with the problem of maintaining text cohesion.

Before going further, it is worth mentioning the nature of English and Arabic sentences.

4.Syntactic Definition of the Sentence in English

Dickens (2002: 35)states that every phrase in English is claimed to include a verb, therefore the imperative "stop" is a syntactic sentence according to the traditional analysis of syntactic parts. All the "non-imperative sentence" have a subject and a verb. For instance, the sentence "they stop" includes "they" as the subject and "stop" as the verb .Moreover, certain grammatical statements may contain objects. For example, the vehicle is the object in the sentence they stop the vehicle. Certain verbs accept prepositional objects, or things that are preposition-based, as in "I rely on you" . The verb "to be" requires a complement rather than an object, hence this general pattern does not apply to it.

He also includes the components SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT that can be complicated as well as simple: they is a subject with simple one-word in they stop the vehicle but the vehicle is a complex phrase consisting of two words the + vehicle. The more sophisticated terms are the fast vehicle and the extremely fast vehicle. Verb tenses may be complicated as well; two instances are "may stop" and "should have stopped" (Dickens, 2002: 36).

5.Types of English Sentence

According to Quirk et al. (1985:47), there are two types of English sentences: simple and multiple. Simple sentences are made up of a single independent clause, and multiple sentences include compound and complex sentences.

5.1.Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is made up of a single independent phrase that has the following elements: a subject, verb, object, complement, and adverbial (Quirk et al., 1985: 720):

 "The dog barked".

 "The big hairy dog with sharp teeth barked at the mailman".

 "I received a letter from my friend Ashly".

5.2. Compound Sentence

According to Quirk et al. (1985: 719), a compound sentence is a multiple sentence in which the immediate elements are two or more coordinate clauses. The examples given below are instances of compound sentences with two independent clauses united by a coordinating conjunction.

"The dog barked and the cat ran away".

 "We wanted our picture taken, but we were out of film".

5.3. Complex Sentence

A simple sentence comprises only one main clause, similar to a compound sentence, however a complex sentence differs from a simple sentence in that it has several subordinate clauses that are used as sentence elements. (Quirk et al.,1985:987)

Relatedly, a complex sentence has an independent clause and a dependent clause, according to Aziz (1989: 204). Similar to the following instances:

"Because life is complex, we need complex sentences".

"Although I admire her reasoning ,I reject her conclusions".

"The puppy jumps into the lap whenever he wants to play".

5.4. Compound Complex Sentence

The definition of a compound-complex sentence is implied by its name. The sentence is complex. There will be a dependent clause on either one of the independent clauses or both. This also makes the sentence complex (Aziz, 1989: 206).

"Because I am an English teacher, some people expect me to speak perfectly, and other people expect me to write perfectly".

6.Syntactic Definition of the Sentence in Arabic

There are several similarities and differences between the syntactic structures of Arabic and English sentences. The predicate is the fundamental component of the sentence, and it's probable that some grammatical sentences in Arabic solely include predicates, as in "قف" (Dickens, 2002:36-37).

Even a single word, such "تقف" comprises a subject and a verb, claim traditional Arab linguists. The predicate here might be a noun other than a verb, as in " السيارة "مسرعة or a prepositional phrase, such as " السيارة وراء البيت" The subject in this sentence is a concealed 49 pronoun (ibid.).

While the example"السيارة سائقها مشهور"has a more complex predicate. Additionally, the Arabic verb may take an object as in,"يوقف الرجل السيارة"" (Dickens, 2002: 37)

As a result, Arabic sentences are not categorized similarly to English ones. Arab grammarians distinguish between verbal and nonverbal sentences (Aziz, 1989: 11-12).

Similar to English, there are several ways of subordination in Arabic: a clause that is relative, like "which was speeding along the road", "التي تسرع" على الطريق" is subordinate to the noun "السيارة" in the syntactic sentence:

وقفوا السيارة التي تسرع على الطريق

There are coordinating conjunctions in Arabic as well:ف ، و ، ثم، لكن

وقف الرسول أمام السلطان وناوله الرسالة

"The messenger stopped in front of the Sultan and handed him a letter".

أعطيته درهماً فابتسم

 "I gave him a dirham and he smiled".

قرأت الكتاب ثم أعطيته إلى أخي

"I read the book then I gave it to my brother".

لم يرَ أحداً في الدار لكن سمع امرأة تصرخ

"He didn't see anyone in the house but heard a woman shouting"

 Long and complicated sentences prove to be a stumbling block for current systems "which rely on natural language input". Methods that prepossess such phrases to make them easier will benefit these systems (Chandrasek et al., 1996: 1041).

In translation, breaking apart sentences is a typical tactic that is also regarded as a type of simplification .Translations often have shorter sentences than the original texts because long and complex phrases may be broken up into shorter, simpler ones(Volansky, 2012: 13).

According to As-Safi (2009: 61), the translator uses this technique known as "segmenting and chunking" when a phrase in the source language is "sliced" into "sense units" to accommodate "short-term memory".

7.Types of Arabic Sentence

The two traditional schools in linguistics in Arabic are Basri School and Kuufi School. They are well known for the everlasting dispute over the type of analysis they propose for the Arabic clause. This dispute is over showing whether the nominal or the verbal is the base and whether the subject or the topic is more prominent than the other. According to Abuu Muusaa (1979:279), the Basri school classifies clauses into verbal and nominal. The former type mainly starts with a lexical verb, e.g 'كسرَ عليُ البابَ'،.or starts with an object followed immediately by a lexical verb, e.g ؛'البابَ كسرَ عليُ' ،.it is regarded as a subject-prominent type because the action and the doer(s) are being highlighted. The latter type, on the other hand, starts with a noun or a nominal phrase and may or may not contain a verbal predicate, e.g 'المعلمون يخلصون في عملهم'and'. ، ' المعلمون مخلصون' When there is not any verbal element, Hassan (1973: 193) points out, the nominal phrase does not

contain any allusion to time taking into account that the nominal predicate modifies the subject. This type is considered a topic-prominent one, as it focuses on the proposition and neither on the doer or the action. Since the subject is governed nominatively by the verb, their sequence must reflect the criteria of the sequence of cause and effect as well. The subject must not precede the lexical verb, if it is to remain a subject. Once it does, it becomes a topic .

Two conflicting viewpoints appear tackling the supremacy of one type over the other. Abuu Muusaa(ibid) is in favour of the nominal clause or the topic-prominent type, as it follows a rhetorical criteria which is to(proceed from what is most familiar . ‘أن تبدأ بالأعرف’ (The Basris believe that the nominal is the basic sentence. Li and Thompson(1976), on the other hand, have shown that the verbal clause is the basic one, while the nominal is a variation of the verbal and the nominal one is pragmatically oriented, taking into consideration that any variation from the basic norm can only be used under certain circumstances and for particular purposes. Similarly, Keenan (1976), cited in Al-Duri (1998), has it that verbal clauses in Arabic occur predominantly in interrogation, negation, conditionals, subjunctive structures, jussive structures, etc. It is common to say ‘أ يدرسُ الطالبُ’ but not ‘ الطالبُ ‘ أ يدرسُ الطالبُ ’ but not ’ الطالبُ
‘يدرسُ’ and also، ‘لن يذهبَ عليُ’ but not‘لن عليَ يذهبَ’. It is therefore crystal clear that the occurrences of verbal clauses and their potential syntactic and morphological changes are by far greater than nominal clauses .

To finally conclude this section, Arabic is a VS or VSO patterns' language, rather than an SV or SVO patterns' language. The verbal clause, not the nominal one, is the basic. The nominal should be treated as a variant of the verbal .

Consider the following example:

The mayor met the demonstrators   ‘التقى المحافظُ بالمتظاهرين’ .

S.   V.   O.   O.   S.   V.

This simple example clearly demonstrates the discrepancies between the two languages with regard to word order patterns of sentences. Word order is extremely strict in English; but, it is not likewise in Arabic. It is obvious that the English sentence pattern is quite different from that of Arabic; i.e., the English (SVO) Vs. the Arabic (VSO). Although the pattern of SVO is also possible in Arabic, the pattern of VSO is more common and more basic.

8.Proposed Strategies of Syntactic Simplification of the Current Paper

8.1.Splitting as a simplifying strategy of simplification

Specifically, splitting includes sub-other strategies that help in achieving simplification features in the translated texts, as:

8.1.1.From Subordination to Coordination as a Form of splitting sentences

The connection of units of the same rank occurs during both subordination and coordination. In coordination, the units are components at the same level of constituent structure (Quirk et al., 1985: 918).

In Othman's (2004: 12) perspective, coordination is employed to communicate linked concepts, which roughly bear the same weight when both clauses of the sentences are provided as new information. They are typically equal both syntactically and semantically .

In contrast, subordination "the units form a hierarchy: the subordinate unit being a constituent of the superordinate unit" (Quirk et al., 1985: 918). The two forms of syntactic organization typically referred to as "parataxis (equal arrangement) and hypotaxis (under arrangement)" are coordination and subordination, respectively (Quirk et al., ibid.). Specifically, the initial location of the subordinate clause gives it greater weight than shifting it to the final place (Othman, 2004: 13).

Subordination and coordination are used differently in Arabic and English, with Arabic favoring coordination while English favors subordination (Othman, 2004: 20).

Khalil (2011: 14) states that "Arabic authors use a great deal of coordination and very little of the subordination which is so highly valued in English persuasive writing" . Because each language has its own linguistic system, the translator must be aware of any potential discrepancies between the source and target languages in order to provide correct translation and steer clear of anything difficult for the reader

In order for a translation to seem natural, the translator has to make use of all real sources of the target language, and not to represent the identical structure found in the source language. A straightforward example is the statement that follows.

"Because it rained, we cancelled the picnic".   بسبب المطر ألغينا الرحلة

The existence of the word (بسبب), despite some claims to the contrary, is a result of English's influence on Arabic (Khalil, 2011: 14). This is the point that Khalil makes when he says that that "the early semitic language contained no long sentences which means the sentences were short and linked with each other through a law",but

with time they started to utilize long sentences which look a little more sophisticated than before.

As a matter of fact, a straightforward particle exists that may be applied in the situations mentioned above. When rendered as in the following way, the particle (الفاء) takes the place of the English particle (because):

امطرت فألغينا الرحلة

While the second rendition is more accurate in Arabic, the first is not incorrect or inappropriate .

Think of a different example:

"Being unable to remove the chain, I jumped over and knocked vainly for admittance".

"عندما شق علي انتزاع السلسلة، وثبت وطرقت الباب طلبا للدخول ولكن دون جدوى".

Although the aforementioned translation seems to be aiming for hypotaxis, Arabic actually has a tendency to utilize paratactic conjunctions when the original text does not contain any paratactic or hypotactic conjunctions and instead uses a comma. As a consequence, it is feasible to translate comparable English sentences using asyndeton using the target text (Arabic) (Khalil, 2011: 14-15). Because Arabic, to some extent, trends more toward the use of paratactic formulations, Khalil uses the translation below to make the translation sound more natural.

"لم استطع نزع السلسلة فوثبت وطرقت الباب طلبا للدخول ولكن دون جدوى"

As a result,many coordinating conjunctions are used to translate the preceding English statement into Arabic.

According to Othman (2004:10), the following list of subordinators and the correspondent coordinators:

Subordinators	→	**Coordinators**
Although	→	But
If	→	and (then)
Unless	→	or (else)
When (adverbial)	→	and (then)
Who (adjectival)	→	and + subject…

Whereas	→	and/but (at the same time)
..., as a result of which	→	and as a result of that
As (adverbial)	→	and (so)
Participle clause	→	and (then)

Salfjeld (2008:118) asserts that commas or full stops are occasionally used to divide sentences. Below is an illustrative example of how the simplification is utilized by using coordination:

"In a few days Mr. Bingley returned Mr. Bennet's visit, and sat about ten minutes with him in his library".

This sentence is splitted in translation into Arabic by using a full stop.

بعد بضعة أيام،رد السيد بنجلي الزيارة للسيد بينت.جلس معه قرابة العشر دقائق في مكتبه.

8.1.2.Splitting the Subordinate clause (Non-restrictive relative clause)

Without the addition of any further elements, this type of structure may be divided into two or more segments (Collados, 2013: 466). like in the example below:

"Juan, who is still very young, got the prize".

| 1. Juan is still very young. | مازال جوان شابا |
| 2. Juan (he) got the prize. | ربح جوان الجائزة |

The relationship between the resulting sentences can then be made clearer by using a demonstrative pronoun and a subject. as in the example below by Zagood (2012: 56):

"Snakes, which are poisonous, should be avoided".

| 1. Snakes should be avoided. | يجب توخي الحذر من الحياة |
| 2. (Snake) They are poisonous. | (هي) الحياة مسمومة |

Based on what is stated above ,It is worth mentioning the differences between restrictive and non-restrictive clauses.

Non-restrictive relative clauses provide more details about an antecedent and are enclosed in "parentheses, commas, or dashes". "Separation marks" are commonly used to refer to these marks (Zagood, 2012: 55).On the other hand, as they lack separation markers, the restrictive relative clause is required to identify information (Zagood, 2012, 55-56). like in the illustration that follows:

"The coat which Jack had presented to her was in the safe".

كان المعطف الذي اهداه جاك لها في الخزانة.

The sentence above cannot be divided because it includes a limiting relative clause denoted by "which", and it also includes information necessary for the flow of meaning.

8.1.3.Splitting of Participial phrases

There are two different kinds of participles: present and past. These expressions start with a verb form that ends in -ing or -ed and serve as an adjective (Nofal, 2012: 2239). Like in the following example, the participial phrase frequently contains an object or/and modifiers that complete the proposition.

"Drifting deeply over the fields, the snow covered the deer's tracks".

The participle "drifting" is modified with the adverb "deeply" and the phrase "over the fields".

The participial phrases may provide non essential information, i.e. the sentence could stand alone if that information were allocated to a separate sentence, such as in the case that follows:

"Shocked by his mother's outrageous words , Alan decided to let her calm down".

انصدم الان بكلمات امه البذيئة، فقرر تركها لتهدأ.

Additionally, a demonstrative pronoun and/or a subject are added to the new sentence for clarity.

8.2.Reordering of Subordinate Clause

Embedded clauses, such as relative clauses, are frequently used in syntactic reordering at the clause level. Usually, a sentence's embedded (subordinate) clauses can be translated separately (Sudon et al., 2010: 418).

It's possible that some translators have a preference to begin their sentences with the main clause rather than the subordinate clause, such as in the example below:

"Being unable to remove the chain, I jumped over and knocked vainly for admittance"

"وثبت وطرقت الباب طلبا للدخول دون جدوى، فقد اعياني نزع السلسلة".

Therefore, according to Othman (2004: 21), the placement of the subordinate clauses does not alter the meaning of cause and effect. Further more, reordering strategies are used to make the source and target sides more similar without the use of explicit language information (Badr et al., 2009: 86).

8.3. Translating Direct Speech into Indirect Speech

According to Quirk, et al.(1985: 1021-1025)indirect speech reveals what has been said or written by the original speaker or writer whereas direct speech attempts to deliver the precise words that someone utters in speech or writing. When using indirect communication, paraphrasing or summarizing is frequently involved, and "change may be made from the original wording without affecting the essential truth of the report", as in the following example:

"David said to me after the meeting: "In my opinion, the arguments in favour of radical changes in the curriculum are not convincing".

اخبرني ديفيد بعد الاجتماع بانه مازال معترضا على أي تغيرات جذرية في بيان المنهج الدراسي

Switching from direct to indirect speech necessitates adjustments based on the context of the utterance. The distinctions entail the use of deictic language elements that are related to the time, location, and people being mentioned in the utterance (Quirk et al. ,1985: 1025–1026).

Shifts consist of the verb's tense, additional time and place references, such as now, yesterday, last week, etc., as well as personal pronouns and the demonstrative this and that.

As for Arabic language, most indirect speech are introduced by "أن " (Aziz, 1989: 278), building on the following two classifications:

1.place reference + demonstratives + personal pronoun

"The young woman said, I like this village because everything here is beautiful".

قالت الفتاة بانها تحب تلك القرية لان كل شي هناك جميل

2.Personal pronoun + tense forms of the verb + time references

"The teacher said, "My first task today, will be to examine current views on the motivations for armed conflicts".

قال المعلم بان مهمته الأولى ذلك اليوم كانت لبحث الأفكار الحالية حول دوافع النزاعات المسلحة

For the benefit of readers unfamiliar with the foreign language and for translation's purpose, several of the main characteristics of indirect communication are completely replicable (Pascal, 1977: 35).

9.Translation: An Introduction

Translation is roughly defined as the process in in which a message in one language is conveyed to another language. Translation, Newmark (1976: 5) says, is a five-thousand-year old mental process. A lengthy, well-tackled historical introduction of translation is neatly presented by McGuire (1980: 39-75) who gives a very comprehensive historical introduction to translation.

As far as the definitions of translation are concerned, there are two conflicting viewpoints. According to the first one, translation is defined in terms of transference of meaning. For example, House (1977: 52) maintains that the essence of translation is manifested in the preservation of 'meaning'. 'Meaning' has three related aspects: semantic aspect (the relationships between the linguistic units and their referents), pragmatic aspect (the relationships between the linguistic units and their users in a given situation) and textual aspect (the co-textual relationships).

According to the second view, translation is tackled in terms of finding an equivalent. Nida and Taber (1974: 12) approach translation in terms of achieving the "closest natural equivalent". There is another view that views translation as a multi-dimensional process, but it has not yet been fully tackled and approved.

9.1.The Translation of English sentences containing syntactic simplification:

Generally speaking, translation is an operation performed on two or more languages, in which the ST is replaced by the TT on the basis of finding equivalence between both texts: (lexis and grammar of the ST are replaced by

equivalent lexis and grammar from the TL and the ST phonology (or graphology) is also consequently replaced by TL phonology or graphology. Syntactic simplification, generally speaking, is the process of reducing the grammatical complexity of a stretch of language while retaining its information and meaning. Translating English sentences containing syntactic simplification opts for a lower level of information load in translations by reducing syntactic density, clipping the sentence length, and that syntactic simplification is really a gnarled area of study . Linguistic and grammatical translations are terms used to refer to any approach which views translation as a question of replacing the ST linguistic and grammatical units with equivalent corresponding TL units. Linguistic and grammatical translations, which are considered faithful by Nida and Taber(1974), contain elements which can be directly derived from the ST wording, avoiding any kind of explanatory interpolation or cultural adjustment which cannot be justified on the basis of such translation types. Translation is also envisaged as "a pragmatic notion", as overtly expressed by Gutt (1998: 52). So, within the domain of semantics and pragmatics, one may possibly define translation as the process in which meaningful utterances within a certain context in one language are converted into meaningful utterances in another linguistic system paying great attention to trying to convey equivalent effect similar to that imparted by the original utterances in its context of situation. Pragmatic translation is a term used to refer to such a type of translation which pays attention not only to denotative meaning, but also to the way utterances are used in communication and the way we comprehend them in context. Newmark (1988b: 132) says that the essential elements in achieving a similar effect are clarity, simplicity and orderly arrangement. In the light of our previous discussion, the principle of equivalent-effect will be adopted as the basic guide-line in translating Arabic verbal clauses.

10.Data Analysis and Discussion

The data have been chosen from the novel —Pride and prejudice —By Jane Austen (1813) retrieved from: https://www.gutenberg.org/files/1342/old/pandp12p.pdf.

(10) selected sentences translated by (6) subjects took who were Junior teachers and M.A. students in the Department of Translation – College of Arts – University of Mosul. These sentences were analyzed syntactically in terms of the proposed syntactic strategies chosen for this paper in the light of Larson's

model adopted. As for the translation model adopted in the present paper, it is based on Larson's1984 (cited in Sariano ,1995:95-96),which refers to two types of translation formed-based and meaning –based translations .The first is called literal translation which is more precise in form, and the second is called idiomatic translation which focuses on finding not so much equivalent foreign words for each word ,but using words and phrases to convey the same meaning.

Eva , 2012 refers to this type presented by Larson as using the natural forms of the receptor language in terms of grammatical structures and in the choices of lexical items, and the translation should sound originally in the receptor language not like a translation.
According to Larson 1984 (cited in Eva , 2012:12)mentions four main stages to be followed by translators : studying of the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the SL text, which is analyzed in order to determine its meaning. The discovered meaning is then re-expressed or reconstructed using the grammatical structures which are appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural context.

ST (1)

"Till Elizabeth entered the drawing-room at Netherfield, and looked in vain for Mr. Wickham among the cluster of red coats there assembled, a doubt of his being present had never occurred to her".

The above sentence represents a state of subordination , In order to coop with the certain type pf reader comprehension ,some translators preferred simplifying it while others show faithfulness to the source text,as follows:

 Out of 6 students, 3 preferred to use coordination instead of subordination, for example:

دخلت اليزابيث قاعة الاستقبال في نذرفيلد ، وفتشت عن السيد ويكهام بين الجمع المرتدين معاطفا" حمراء المجتمعين هناك. كانت على يقين بوجوده .

While the three others tended to preserve the original subordination in their renderings into Arabic, such as:

* إلى أن دخلت اليزابيث غرفة الاستقبال في نذرفيلد حتى بدأت تبحث عن السيد ويكهام بين حشد ذوي المعاطف الحمراء المحتشدين هناك ولم تشك بوجوده.

The Proposed Translation

دخلت اليزابيث غرفة الاستقبال في نيذرفيلد ، وبحثت بلا جدوى عن السيد ويكهام وسط حشد من الضباط لم يساورها اي شك بخصوص حضوره.

ST(2)

"It soothed, but it could not console her for the contempt which had thus been self-attracted by the rest of her family; and as she considered that Jane's disappointment had in fact been the work of her nearest relations, and reflected how materially the credit of both must be hurt by such impropriety of conduct, she felt depressed beyond anything she had ever known before".

This is a long sentence. It is rendered into Arabic by cutting it into separate units by using transformation from subordination into coordination as a form of splitting complex sentence , this includes replacement of the semicolon with a period or a full stop, as below:

1. It soothed

2.but it could not console her for the contempt which had thus been self-attracted by the rest of her family.

3. and as she considered that Jane's disappointment had in fact been the work of her nearest relations.

Here the subordinator '**as**' is replaced by a coordinator.

4. reflected how materially the credit of both must be hurt by such impropriety of conduct.

5. she felt depressed beyond anything she had ever known before.

Out of 6 students, 5 could split the sentence, such as

فخفف عنها ، لكنه لم يواسي الازدراء الذي جذب انتباه بقية أفراد العائلة. واعتبرت بان خيبة أمل جاين كانت بسبب اقرب أقربائها ، وقد اثر هذا الأمر على سمعة كليهما <u>ماديا</u>. فأصابها إحباط شديد أكثر من أي شي عرفته من قبل.

اسكنها ، ولكنه لم ينجح في تعزيتها على الإذلال الذي انتبه له سائر أفراد الأسرة ، كما اعتبرت بان الخذلان الذي أحست به جاين كان بالحقيقة من عمل اقرب المقربين لها. وقد تشوهت سمعتهما حقا بسبب ذلك التصرف غير اللائق . فاجتاحها اكتئاب لم تشهد مثله من قبل.

While one student neglected this strategy in his translation and tended to be faithful for the source text:

.... فقد هدأتها إلا انه لم يواسيها للازدراء الذي لاقته من أفراد عائلتها والذي كان جذبا للنفس، وعندما فكرت بان خيبة أمل جين كانت في الحقيقة من فعل اقرب المقربين لها وعكست مدى تضررهما ماديا بسبب مخالفات قواعد السلوك ، شعرت باكتئاب أكثر من أي شي عرفته من قبل.

The proposed Translation

خفف عنها لكن لم ينجح في مواساتها عن الازدراء الذي لفت انتباه باقي أفراد أسرتها. واذ اعتبرت خيبة أمل جاين من عمل اقرب شخص لها ، عكس هذا مدى تأثر سمعتهما بسبب ذلك التصرف غير اللائق و انتابها إحباط شديد لم تعهد مثله من قبل.

ST(3)

"But in an instant arose the dreadful suspicion of his being purposely omitted for Mr. Darcy's pleasure in the Bingleys' invitation to the officers; and though this was not exactly the case, the absolute fact of his absence was pronounced by his friend Denny, to whom Lydia eagerly applied, and who told them that Wickham had been obliged to go to town on business the day before, and was not yet returned; adding, with a significant smile, 'I do not imagine his business would have called him away just now, if he had not wanted to avoid a certain gentleman here.'

The above sentence is too long , it should be simplified to sound more natural in the target language, therefore more than one strategy is applied, that is cutting into shorter units then transforming it into coordination in addition to splitting the subordinate clauses(non-restrictive relative clauses) into separate sentences, Particularly" to whom Lydia eagerly applied", "and who told them that Wickham had been obliged to go to town on business the day before". The translators,in fact, were divided into two groups with different degrees of

awareness in simplification as an easy readable version of the source text, as set forth below:

3out of 6 students could achieve simplification in the above sentence ,they were aware of dealing with such sentences for the sake of a certain group of readers comprehension, for example:

ولبرهة تولد شك رهيب بعدم دعوته قصدا من بين دعوات السيد بنجلي لبقية الضباط بتأثير من السيد دارسي.وهذا لم يكن السبب الحقيقي، ولكن حقيقة غيابه أعلن عنها صديقه ديني .شخص هرعت اليه ليديا بلهفة. واخبرهم بان ويكهام اضطر الى الذهاب الى البلدة في عمل ولم يعد بعد. وأضاف بأنه لم يتصور بان عمله قد طلبه في ذلك الوقت بالذات ، فقد أراد ان يتجنب شخصا معينا هناك.

While three other students failed to use the simplification strategy which have been mentioned previously in this sentence ,such as splitting into separate sentences and preference of using coordination to subordination ,for example:

لكن سرعان ما دب في نفسها شك مريب بان دعوة السيد ويكهام قد حذفت عن عمد نزولا عند رغبة السيد دارسي في استضافة السيد بنجلي للضباط وبيد ان ذلك لم يكن السبب الرئيسي لان الحقيقة هي ما قالها صديقه ديني الذي لجأت اليه ليديا بلهفة لمعرفة الخبر منه والذي اجاب بان السيد ويكهام قد ذهب الى لندن في عمل يوم أمس ولم يعد بعد ثم أضاف قائلا بابتسامة ملفتة:

"لا يمكنني ان أتصور أبدا بان عمله يتطلب منه الحضور ألان، اللهم إلا ان كان رحيله بقصد تحاشيه شخصا ما هنا في الحفل".

The proposed translation

ولكن فجأة انتابها شك رهيب بحذفه قصدا بتأثير من السيد دارسي من بين دعوات السيد بنجلي للضباط . لم يكن الأمر على هذا النحو بالضبط ، ولكن السبب الرئيسي في غيابه أعلن عنه صديقه ديني.شخص سألته ليديا عنه ، فقد اخبرهم بان ويكهام كان مضطرا للذهاب الى البلدة في عمل ولم يعد بعد . ثم أضاف قائلا بأنه لم يتصور بان عمله من منعه في ذلك الوقت بالذات ولكنه أراد أن يتجنب أحدا ما هناك.

ST(4)

"They repulsed every attempt of Mrs. Bennet at conversation, and by so doing threw a languor over the whole party, which was very little relieved by the long speeches of Mr. Collins, who was complimenting Mr. Bingley and his sisters on the elegance of their entertainment"

This sentence includes non -restrictive relative clauses, especially represented by which and who . They can be splitted and appropriate subjects are added.

out of 6 students, only two performed the strategy of splitting non-restrictive relative clauses, such as:

لقد أحبطتا كل محاولات السيدة بينت للتحدث معهما وبفعلهم هذا كدروا أجواء الحفلة كلها . وتلطفت قليلا بأحاديث السيد كولنز الطويلة. فقد كان السيد كولنز يطري على السيد بنجلي وأختيه لكرمهم وترحيبهم بضيوفهم.

While the four others were unaware of such strategies and translated correspondingly to the source text structure, such as:

* رفضوا كل محاولات السيدة بينت للتحدث معهم مما عكر الحفلة برمتها والتي لم تصفو إلا بخطابات السيد كولنز الطويلة الذي كان يمدح السيد بنجلي وأختيه لحسن ترحيبهم وضيافتهم وأدبهم الذي كان جليا في حفاوتهم بضيوفهم.

The proposed translation

تجنبتا كل محاولات السيدة بينت للتحدث معهما . وبهذا التصرف كدروا أجواء الحفلة كلها ، ولم تتلطف إلا قليلا بأحاديث السيد كولنز الطويلة. فقد كان يثني على السيد بنجلي وأختيه لكرمهم وترحيبهم بالضيوف.

ST(5)

"She had dressed with more than usual care, and prepared in the highest spirits for the conquest of all that remained unsubdued of his heart, trusting that it was not more than might be won in the course of the evening".

The above sentence contains more than one participle phrase that could be separated and translated independently therefore the splitting strategy is used to render this sentence ,as follows:

1. She had dressed with more than usual care.

2. and prepared in the highest spirits for the conquest of all that remained unsubdued of his heart.

This is an ing-participle phrase, it is splitted and a subject is added.

3. trusting that it was not more than might be won in the course of the evening.

The same is applied to this sentence.

3 out of 6 students tended to deal with the above sentence as series of independent sentences ,such as:

<div align="right">اعتنت بملابسها أكثر من المعتاد . وتأهبت بروح عالية لتستولي على قلبه . كانت واثقة بأنها ستنجح في ذلك إثناء الأمسية.</div>

Yet, the three others were faithful to the source text structure , for example:

<div align="right">*جاءت الى الحفل متانقة في ملبسها أكثر من قبل متهيأة بروح متوثبة لتغزو قلبه ، متيقنة تماما بقدومه بعد قليل .</div>

The proposed translation

<div align="right">تأنقت اكثر من المعتاد . وكانت على اعلى مستوى من الاستعداد . وقد ايقنت بفوزها به في الوقت المتبقي من الأمسية.</div>

ST(6)

"And, gathering her work together, she was hastening away"

This sentence also contains a participle Phrase "gathering her work together", which can be transformed into a complete sentence and makes sense by itself . Inferring the real subject from the whole sentence a new subject can add to the new one .In rendering it into Arabic , the student translators varied in their renderings based on their competence in dealing with simplification as a specific purpose of translation, as follows:

All the six subjects tended to utilize the strategy discussed above in translation of this sentence in an attempt to simplify the text, such as:

<div align="right">وجمعت لوازم عملها. كانت مسرعة...</div>

<div align="right">جمعت ما كانت تشغل نفسها به.ذهبت بسرعة....</div>

The proposed translation

<div align="right">جمعت اعمالها وسارعت بالذهاب....</div>

ST(7)

"when her inquiries after Rosings were made, seemed in danger of sinking into total silence".

This is a complex sentence ,the subordinate clause '**when her inquiries after Rosings were made**' is reordered to the final position to render the sentence with more acceptability in the target language.

Out of 6 students,3 were conscious of translating the above sentence into Arabic by means of reordering subordinate clauses ,for example:

غرقا في صمت تام بعدما استفسرت عن جماعة روزينجز

While 3 out of 6 students failed to use the previous discussed strategy because they were unaware of simplifying such complex sentence for some special kind of readers, such as:

وبعد ان أجاب كل أسألتها عن روزينجز غرق في صمت تام

The proposed translation

غرقا في صمت تام بعد السؤال عن جماعة روزينجز

ST(8)

"If I can but see one of my daughters happily settled at Netherfield," said Mrs. Bennet to her husband, 'and all the others equally well married, I shall have nothing to wish for".

The above sentence is an extract of direct speech. It is rendered into Arabic by transforming into indirect speech for more clarity(this will be tackled later) . On the other hand it is a compound-complex sentence, therefore it can be translated by reordering the subordinate clauses to the final position to give more emphasis,which is represented by"If I can but see one of my daughters happily settled at Netherfield".

4 out of 6 students tended to reorder the subordinate clause in their translations into Arabic, such as:

أخبرت السيدة بينت زوجها بأنها لا تتمنى سوى رؤية إحدى بناتها مستقرة بسعادة في نيذرفيلد والأخريات متزوجات مثلها تماما.

On the other hand, 2 students rendered the same extract of the direct speech, they were faithful to transfer the same words, for example:

"لو كنت استطيع ان أرى إحدى بناتي سعيدات في نذرفيلد"، قالت السيدة بينت لزوجها،" والبقية أراهم متزوجات وسعيدات"، فهذا كل ما اتمناه

The propose translation

أخبرت السيدة بينت زوجها بأن اقصى امنياتها هي رؤية إحدى بناتها مستقرة وسعيدة في نيذرفيلد، وان تحصل الاخريات على زواج مضمون مثلها.

ST(9)

"…..adding, with a significant smile, 'I do not imagine his business would have called him away just now, if he had not wanted to avoid a certain gentleman here".

This extract ,which represents direct speech, is replaced by indirect speech with other changes concern the difference in deictic features of time '**now'** , place '**here'** and tense form of the verb(present tense).

4 out of 6 student translators resorted to transform the direct speech into indirect in order to paraphrase the meaning and reduce the load of realization on the reader's mind.

وأضاف بابتسامة واضحة بأنه لم يتصور بان عمله قد استدعاه في ذلك الوقت بالذات ، فقد أراد ان يتجنب شخصا معينا هناك.

أردف قائلا بأنه لم يتخيل بان عمله قد تطلب حضوره آنذاك الا ان قصد تجنب شخص محدد في الحفل هناك.

While other two students had the tendency to translate the source direct speech into its compatible one in the target language as in:

أضاف قائلا بابتسامة ملفتة:"لا يمكنني ان أتصور أبدا بان عمله يتطلب منه الحضور ألان، اللهم إلا ان كان رحيله بقصد تحاشيه شخصا ما هنا في الحفل".

The proposed translation

مضيفًا ، بابتسامة ملحوظة بانه لم يتخيل بان عمله دعاه للذهاب آنذاك، فقد أراد ان يتجنب احد النبلاء هناك.

ST(10)

"she observed:

How very suddenly you all quitted Netherfield last November, Mr. Darcy! It must have been a most agreeable surprise to Mr. Bingley to see you all after him so soon; for, if I recollect right, he went but the day before. He and his sisters were well, I hope, when you left London?".

This extract of direct speech contains different personal pronoun ,such as"you", tense forms of the verb as past and present tenses ,and time references like "the day before",which in turn will be changed into other variables in the indirect speech . Accordingly, 3 out of 6 subjects paid attention to indirect speech realization in their renderings , for example:

فتابعت السؤال عن مغادرتهم السريعة لنذرفيلد تشرين الثاني الماضي. كما أخبرته بان الأمر كان مفاجئة عظيمة للسيد بنجلي بان يراهم بعده بوقت قصير. وتذكرت جيدا ،فقد غادر قبلهم بيوم. وسألته عن حال أختيه عندما غادر لندن.

Otherwise, the other three subjects preferred to adhere to the source direct speech, as in:

فقالت:يا للعجب يا سيد دارسي ، غادرتم جميعكم نيذرفيلد على نحو مفاجئ في تشرين الثاني الماضي! وحتما أن رؤيتكم بعد فترة وجيزة من مغادرته كانت أفضل مفاجأة للسيد بينغلي فحسب ما أتذكر أنه غادر قبلكم بيوم واحد فقط. أمل ان هو وأخواته كانوا بخير عندما غادرتم لندن.

The proposed translation

اخبرت السيد دارسي بملاحظتها لمغادرتهم نيثرفيلد بشكل مفاجيء وسريع أواخر نوفمبر الماضي، ولابد انها كانت مفاجاة سارة للسيد بنغلي ليراهم بعد سفره عن قريب. فحسب ماتتذكر فانه قد سافر قبل يوم من مغادرتهم . وتامل بانه هو واختيه بخير عندما غادر لندن .

Conclusion

The present paper was aimed at identifying the simplification features in translated texts using certain simplification strategies to deal with the issue of syntactic complexity. It also revealed that the translators sometimes differ or agree in using simplification strategies for the same text.

It showed that syntactic simplification strategies of the current paper indicated that approximately less than 50% of student translators were aware of syntactic simplification, while the others tended to use literal renditions. The translators who achieved syntactic simplification tended to reproduce a target text compatible to some extent to the naturalness and conventionality of the receptor language.

Additionally, it also identifies that even simplification as a universal feature of translation remains highly controversial, because it is not fit for all languages , all the analyzed sentences proved that this regularity in translation behavoiur is found to some extent in the selected subjects' translations.

This paper draws the attention of students of translation to be acquainted with how to convey the ST message, taking into consideration the reader and his limited ability in comprehension ,for example children, readers with certain disorders or levels of knowledge.

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التحقق من وعي المترجمين في التبسيط النحوي للترجمة من الإنكليزية إلى العربية

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الملخص: إن التبسيط النحوي هو عملية تقليل الصعوبة القواعدية لنص معين مع الحفاظ على المعلومات والمعنى. ويستلزم أيضًا تغيير بعض العناصر النحوية في الجمل لجعل المحتوى أبسط لجمهور مستهدف معين ، مثل أولئك الذين لديهم مستويات قراءة ضعيفة والذين يجدون صعوبة في فهم العبارات الطويلة واللغة المعقدة.

يعنى هذا البحث بالخصائص النحوية للتبسيط في خضم عملية الترجمة من الإنكليزية إلى العربية ، علاوة على المشاكل المحتملة التي قد تعترض المترجمين في سعيهم لتقديم ترجمات ناجحة دلالياً على وجه العموم ونحوياً على وجه الخصوص للتبسيط النحوي. يهدف البحث إلى سبر أغوار الموضوع عن طريق تسليط الضوء على التبسيط النحوي والذي يعد أحد السمات المتكررة والتي تدعى بالمظاهر العالمية للترجمة، كما ويهدف إلى اكتشاف ما إذا كانت اللغة المستخدمة في الترجمة قد تم تبسيطها نحوياً أم لا، وهذا ما جرى إتمامه في هذه الأثناء عن طريق محاولة الحفاظ على المعنى والمعلومات وذلك لجعل النص المترجم مستساغاً لدى القارئ.

افترضنا أن ترجمة الجمل الإنكليزية التي تحتوي على التبسيط النحوي تسعى إلى تحقيق المحتوى الأدنى من المعلومات في الترجمات عن طريق تقليل التركيز النحوي وتقليل طول الجملة وأن التبسيط النحوي في النصوص الأدبية يسبب مشاكل جمة للمترجمين العرب. وأخيراً، فإنه من الممكن ترجمة مثل هذه الجمل بجودة إلى العربية. للتحقق من مصداقية الفرضيات، تم إعداد تقرير مفصل حول التبسيط النحوي وجرى استعراض الأنواع والوظائف الأساسية لهذا المصطلح وقمنا بإنتقاء مجموعة من الأمثلة الإنكليزية من عمل أدبي لجين أوستن وتم إتباع نظاماً لغرض فهمهم بشكل كامل ولترجمتهم بدقة وتم تحليل البيانات وإقتراح ترجمات بديلة كلما إقتضت الضرورة.

الكلمات المفتاحية : التبسيط النحوي والنصوص الادبية و المحتوى النحوي والترجمة من الإنكليزية إلى العربية.

دراسة تجريبية لتحليل منظور الطلاب تجاه استخدام قواعد تقييم الخطابة في تقييم اللغة

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ملخص البحث :-

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى استكشاف منظور الطلاب تجاه استخدام قواعد تقييم الخطابة في تقييم مهارتهم في التحدث أمام الجمهور. جمعت الدراسة البيانات من خلال استبيان تم إجراؤه على ٤٠ من طلاب السنة الثانية من قسم الترجمة و قسم اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة جيهان - السليمانية. تشير نتائج الدراسة إلى أن الطلاب بشكل عام لديهم منظور إيجابي تجاه استخدام قواعد التقييم في تقييم مهارة التحدث أمام الجمهور. يعتقد الطلاب أن قواعد التقييم توفر إرشادات وتوقعات واضحة ، وتخلق عملية تقييم عادلة وموضوعية. علاوة على ذلك ، وجدت الدراسة أن استخدام قواعد التقييم في تقييم مهارات التحدث أمام الجمهور هو أداة تعليمية فعالة يمكن أن تزيد من مشاركة الطلاب وتحفيزهم وإنجازهم. لذلك ، توصي الدراسة بأن يستمر المعلمون في استخدام قواعد التقييم.

An empirical study of analysing students' perspective towards the use of public speaking rubric in language assessment

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Abstract

This study aimed to explore the students' perspective towards the use of public speaking rubric in the assessment of their public speaking skill. The study collected data through a survey administered to 40 second year students from the Departments of Translation and English Language in Cihan University-Sulaimaniya. The findings of the study suggest that students generally have a positive perspective towards the use of rubrics in the assessment of their public speaking skill. Students believe that rubrics provide clear guidance and expectations, create a fair and objective assessment process. Moreover, the study found that the use of rubrics in assessing public speaking skills is an effective teaching tool that can increase student engagement, motivation, and achievement. Therefore, the study recommends that educators continue to use rubrics as a tool for assessing public speaking skill and other forms of student learning.

1. Introduction

The meaning of the word "rubric" is not clear from dictionary definitions. Instead, they show the Latin origin of the word and its historical connection to the colour red in Christian texts (Stevens and Levi, 2005). According to the online Merriam-Webster Dictionary, a

rubric can mean anything from "an authoritative rule" to "a guide listing specific criteria for grading or scoring academic papers, projects, or tests" (cited in Natthiko et al, 2022). According to Brookhart (2013), the association of red with rules and guidelines goes back to the Middle Ages, at that time the colour was used to draw attention to important guidelines for the conduct of liturgical services.

The term "rubric" became common use in classrooms when the 1990s saw the advent of new forms of assessment. According to Turley and Gallagher (2008) administrators and researchers utilized rubrics to examine and show the effectiveness of a school system in order to compare and rank schools throughout the country. Modern assessment techniques that are reliable, objective, and successful must include rubrics because of their utility in both formative (during learning) and summative (after learning) evaluation. The fundamental goal of using rubrics in the classroom is to help students learn by directing their behaviours and giving them a clearer picture of their own progress (Turley and Gallagher, 2008).

This research tries to explore the students' perspective towards the use of rubric to assess their public speaking skill, in order to gain insights into their perceptions and attitudes towards this assessment tool, and to identify any potential benefits or drawbacks of using rubrics in assessing public speaking skill from their perspective.

Thus, this study seeks to address the following questions:

1- What is the perspective of students towards the use of public speaking rubric in language assessment?

2- What implications the students' perspective might have pedagogically?

2. Literature review

Rubrics have been used for assessing students for years and for a variety of reasons. Several educators believed they were evaluating their learners in ways that was not very accurate or fair (Gardner, 2000). Instructors desire the ability to evaluate students using real-world activities or challenges (Dodge and Picket, 2007). Others claimed that many teachers did not provide learners with a clear explanation of the evaluation criteria or how those factors were used to evaluate students (Dodge and Picket, 2007). Some instructors argue that formative assessment techniques have not been utilized as effectively as they might be to guide student improvement (Marzano, Pickering, Pollock, 2001; Marzano, 2007, 2010). Nowadays, many educators feel that assessment procedures should be fair to all students (e.g., gender, culture, etc.) and help them by providing clear expectations, relevant and helpful feedback, and positive reinforcement to learning objectives. (Cleveland, 2011).

2.1. Definition of rubric

In the field of assessment and evaluation, a rubric is a scoring scale that assists in summarizing the competence levels of students (Popham, 1997, p. 2; Brualdi, 1998, p. 2). According to Mertler (2001), scoring guidelines are considered as rubrics since they provide criteria for specific expected performance and are used to grade the work of students or evaluate performance. Rubrics are commonly presented in this manner in the form of tables, and they typically consist of four primary components (Stevens & Levi, 2013). And the components are description of the task, scale (scoring), evaluative criteria, quality descriptions (Stevens & Levi, 2013).

2.2. Types of rubric

Generally speaking, rubrics can be classified into four types (holistic, analytic, general, and task-specific) (Brookhart, 2013). With a holistic rubric, the evaluative criteria are reviewed in their entirety and a single descriptive scale is used to render an overall evaluation (Popham, 1997: 72; Moskal, 2000: 3). The phrases and grades commonly used in colleges and universities (e.g., A for "excellent," B for "good,") are an example of a holistic rubric. As can be seen, this weighted evaluation by the assessor takes into account all factors concurrently; consequently, it is holistic. Whilst an analytic rubric focuses on "more particular characteristics of performance" (Scott, 2000, p. 48) and requires the scorer to deliver criterion-by-criterion ratings, a descriptive rubric

focuses on "more general aspects of performance" (Popham, 1997). In other words, the measured skill is broken down into its established criteria, with multiple levels of competency ranging from the least to the most. This method of evaluation permits a careful interpretation of the work; hence, the work may be good on one dimension, but ordinary or poor on one or more others. Generic rubrics utilize criteria and descriptions of performance that are applicable to (thus the name) or can be used with a variety of jobs. The assignments must all represent the same learning outcome, such as writing or mathematics problem solving (Brookhart, 2013). The final type is task-specific rubrics, which are, as their name suggests, rubrics that are tailored to the performance task for which they are employed. Task-specific rubrics include the solution to a problem, an explanation of the logic students are expected to apply, or a list of the facts and concepts students must provide (Brookhart, 2013).

2.3. Speaking rubric

Accurately assessing a person's speaking abilities can be difficult due to the numerous variables that influence how effectively a person speaks a language. This includes the listener's accent, prior knowledge, attitude toward the speaker, and personal biases. In addition, speaking evaluations are conducted face-to-face and in real-time, often between an examiner and a candidate, unless the evaluation is conducted by a machine and reviewed by a human. The major objective of speaking

evaluation is to identify the spoken English features of non-native English speakers. This is accomplished by creating specified observation and evaluation criteria. (Luoma, 2004; Tracing, 2011; Jones, 2011).

Knight (1992) suggests a number of speech assessment criteria from which teachers can choose the most suited for their situation (cited in Ulker, 2017). The list includes eight different criteria and they are:

• Grammar (range and accuracy).

• Vocabulary (range and accuracy).

• Pronunciation (individual sounds, emphasis, rhythm, intonation, and connecting/elimination/assimilation)

• Fluency (speed of talking, hesitation while speaking, hesitation before speaking).

• Conversational skill (topic development, initiative, and conversation maintenance).

• Sociolinguistic competence (distinguishing register and style, use of cultural references).

• Non-verbal (eye-contact and body language).

• Content (relevance of arguments and ideas).

• Pragmatic competence.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research design

The study adopts a quantitative research design, which involves collecting numerical data through a survey.

3.2. Participants

The study involves 40 participants who are second year students from the Translation and English Language Departments in Cihan University-Sulaimaniya. The participants were selected using purposive sampling, which involved selecting individuals who met specific criteria.

3.3 Data collection and analysis

The study uses a survey to collect data from the participants. The data collection tool is a survey which consists of 10 questions, the survey has a five-point rating scale (from Totally Disagree to Totally Agree) in which the students were asked to respond to statements related to the use of rubrics. The survey was adopted, but with modification, from a study conducted by Laurian and Fitzgerald (2013). The participants were assessed during the lecture of Listening and Speaking. The collected data were analysed using SPSS 23.

4. Results

In the following section the results are shown. Each table represents a question (statement) and the responds chosen by the participants. The results of the responds (Agree and Totally agree or Disagree and Totally disagree) are grouped together.

Table 1: **Question 1**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	10	50.0
Neutral	19	47.5
Totally agree	11	27.5
Total	40	100.0

The first statement is about the usage of a rubric if it was available for an assignment, and the table shows that 77.5% of participants would use a rubric if it was available for an assignment, with the rest of the participants being neutral.

Table 2: **Question 2**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	28	70.0
Neutral	5	12.5
Totally agree	6	15.0
Totally disagree	1	2.5
Total	40	100.0

The second statement is about having rubrics as a help when doing works. As seen from the table 85% of participants have a positive

perspective towards having rubrics as a help while doing their work, with 12.5% of participants being neutral and only one participant totally disagreeing.

Table 3: **Question 3**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	6	15.0
Disagree	23	57.5
Neutral	4	10.0
Totally agree	3	7.5
Totally disagree	4	10.0
Total	40	100.0

The third statement is about doing the work without a rubric so they have the freedom to design their own ideas. The table shows that 67.5% of participants disagree with the statement and 22.5% agree with it, while 10% are neutral.

Table 4: **Question 4**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	2	5.0
Disagree	21	52.5
Neutral	6	15.0
Totally agree	2	5.0
Totally disagree	9	22.5
Total	40	100.0

The fourth statement is about rubrics lowering the standards for the work. As it can be seen from the table 75% of participants disagree with the statement, with 10% agreeing and 15% being neutral.

Table 5: **Question 5**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	12	30.0
Neutral	10	25.0
Totally agree	17	42.5
Totally disagree	1	2.5
Total	40	100.0

The fifth statement is about rubrics helping to raise the standards for the work. The table shows that 72.5% of participants agree to the statement, with 25% being neutral and only 2.5% disagreeing.

Table 6: **Question 6**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	3	7.5
Disagree	9	22.5
Neutral	5	12.5
Totally agree	1	2.5
Totally disagree	22	55.0
Total	40	100.0

The sixth statement is about rubrics stifling creativity. As the table indicates 77.5% of participants disagree with this statement, while 10% agree to the statement and the last 12.5% are neutral.

Table 7: **Question 7**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	15	37.5
Disagree	1	2.5
Neutral	2	5.0
Totally agree	19	47.5
Totally disagree	3	7.5
Total	40	100.0

The seventh statement is about how the work was better when a rubric was used in this class. In this table the results show that 85% of participants agree with this statement, while 10% disagree and lastly 5.0% are neutral.

Table 8: **Question 8**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	1	2.5
Disagree	12	30.0
Neutral	3	7.5
Totally agree	1	2.5
Totally disagree	23	57.5
Total	40	100.0

The eighth statement is about how the work was not better when a rubric was used in this class. As the table shows 87.5% of participants disagree with the statement, while 5.0% agree with the statement and the last 7.5% are neutral.

Table 9: **Question 9**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	17	42.5
Disagree	1	2.5
Neutral	5	12.5
Totally agree	16	40.0
Totally disagree	1	2.5
Total	40	100.0

The ninth statement is about how the rubric helped the teacher to grade more fairly. As shown from the table 82.5% of participants agree with the statement, and only 5.0% disagree with it, with the last 12.5% being neutral.

Table 10: **Question 10**

Responds	Frequency	Percent
Agree	13	32.5
Neutral	1	2.5
Totally agree	25	62.5
Totally disagree	1	2.5
Total	40	100.0

The tenth and final statement is about whether the participants will use rubrics if they become teachers. 95% of participants agree with the statement, with only 2.5% disagreeing, and 2.5% being neutral.

5. Discussion

This study examines the perspectives of learners regarding the usage of rubrics to evaluate public speaking ability. A survey was administered to a sample of students who had completed a public speaking assignment that was evaluated using a rubric for this study.

The results of the study indicated that the majority of students viewed rubrics favorably. According to the results of the first and second questions, 77.5% of students would want to have a rubric when they have an assignment, and 85% would like to have one whenever they do any work, because "rubrics save time and give students with timely, meaningful feedback" (Stevens and Levi, 2005, p.17).

Students believed that the rubric assisted them in comprehending the requirements for their public speaking assignments and provided clear direction for enhancing their performance. It is also obvious from the results that the majority of students believe rubrics can help to improve the quality of their work, and that when rubrics are utilized in class, their work improves; yet, some students, 10% believe it limits their creativity.

In addition, the survey indicated that students viewed the usage of rubrics as fair and objective, with 82.5% of respondents believing that rubrics made the evaluation process more objective. They viewed the rubrics as a clear and straightforward method for evaluating their work. Thus, a rubric can avoid 'Assessment bias', which "refers to aspects of an assessment instrument that offend or unfairly penalize a group of pupils because of students' gender, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, religion, or other such group-defining factors" (Popham 2017, p. 127). This perception of fairness and objectivity is essential since it might boost students' motivation and involvement in the learning process. Furthermore, Andrade and Du (2005) pointed out that using a rubric

makes the students less anxious about their assignments which also leads to more motivation and involvement.

Overall, the findings of this study suggest that students have a positive attitude toward the use of rubrics to evaluate public speaking skills, as 95% of the students indicated that they will use rubrics when they become teachers, as rubrics provide clear guidance and expectations, create a more objective and fair assessment process, and provide valuable feedback to help students improve their skills.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the use of rubrics as a means of evaluating skills related to public speaking has become increasingly common in recent years. Students, generally, have been shown to have a favorable attitude toward the application of rubrics, according to the data that was gathered through the survey. Students have the perception that rubrics offer clear direction and objectives, produce an assessment procedure that is fair and objective, and provide meaningful feedback that assists them in improving their skills. Rubrics are an effective teaching tool that can help to boost student engagement, motivation, and achievement. As a result of this, it is strongly suggested that teachers keep utilizing rubrics as a tool for evaluating students' proficiency in public speaking as well as other aspects of their education.

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Appendix

Public Speaking Rubric

Questions	Totally disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Totally agree
1. When I have a rubric available for an assignment I use it to inform my work					
2. I like to have a rubric to help me in my work.					
3. I would rather do my work without a rubric so I have the freedom to design my own ideas					
4. A rubric lowers the standards for my work.					
5. A rubric helps me to raise the standards for my work.					
6. A rubric limits my creativity.					
7. In this class my work was better when I used a rubric.					
8. In this class my work was better when I did not use a rubric.					
9. In this class the rubric helped the teacher to grade more fairly.					
10. When I become a teacher I will use rubrics on a regular basis with my students.					