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The Grammatical Roles of the English Articles with Reference to Translation into Arabic

Prof. Dr. Abdulrahman Ahmed Abdulrahman (*)& Asst. Prof. Dr. Mazin Fawzi Ahmed (*

1. Introduction

In actual usage, nouns appear in noun phrases, and the kind of reference such a noun phrase has depends on the accompanying ‘determiner’. One can distinguish three classes of determiners set up on the basis of their position in the noun phrase in relation to each other:

1. Central determiners (e.g., the, a, this).
2. Predeterminers (e.g., half, all, double).
3. Postdeterminers (e.g., seven, many, few).

The definite and indefinite articles are the commonest central determiners and their distribution depends on the class of the accompanying noun. Usually, the definite article is said to precede the expression of entities already mentioned, and the indefinite article is claimed to precede that of newly introduced ones (de Beaugrande, 1980: 137).

The present paper tries to show how, although the and a(n) do make up a grammatical system in Modern English, the two articles have quite different roles in the grammar. It also tries to show how the presence or absence of an article may result in an ambiguity having its bearing on the translation.

The examples used in this study have been collected from varied sources including newspapers, journals and books. Some other examples are from the researcher’s own experience in teaching English as a foreign language.

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2. The Grammatical System of the English Articles

For Dixon (2005: 26), the pre-head structure of a noun phrase (NP) with a common noun as head is:

a. an adverb modifying a complete NP, e.g., simply, such as, even, really, what a;

b. a predeterminer, e.g. all (of), some (of), one (of), another (of), any (of), one-quarter (of);

c. a determiner, which can be an article (the, a) a demonstrative (e.g., this, those) or a possessive word or NP (my, Tom’s, the old woman’s);

d. a superlative (tallest, most beautiful), a comparative (taller, more beautiful); or an ordering word (next, last) and/or a cardinal number (three) or a quantifier (many, few) or qualifier (some, any);

e. an ordinal number, e.g., fourth;

f. one or more adjectival modifiers;

g. one or more modifiers describing composition (e.g., wooden), origin or style (e.g., British), purpose/beneficiary (e.g., rabbit in rabbit food, medical in medical building).

Although only one element may be chosen from slots (a), (b), (c) and (e), there may be more than one in the other slots. Examples with two or three selections from slot (d) are: many taller entrants and two next fastest horses.

The English articles the and a(n) are grouped together. They occur as determiners, in slot (c). For the, this is the same slot as demonstratives, from which the definite article developed. And (c) must be the slot for the since it can precede a full array of choices from slot (d); for example, the (c) next (d) two (d) fastest (d) horses.

Many examples of complex NPs including a(n) could be explained equally well whether a(n) were in slot (c) or in slot (d). Compare a taller man and a last prayer with three (d) taller (d) men and one (d) last (d) prayer. The justification for placing a(n) in slot (c) lies in NPs such as a (c) shorter (d) last (d) prayer. Sentences such as *one shorter last prayer or *three shorter last prayers could only be produced in the most contrived circumstances.

Note that any of the items in slot (b) can be followed by the from slot (c) plus a head noun in plural inflection; for example all/
The quantifiers *many* and *few*, in slot (d), pattern with numbers and may be preceded by the – see examples (33-4) below. However *some* and *any*, from the same slot, behave quite differently. They cannot be preceded by either article as in *I saw some car(s) in the park, I didn’t see any car(s) in the park*. Some and *any* are similar to *a(n)* in referring to unspecified member(s) of a set. They differ from *a(n)* in not being restricted to singular reference. As such, we do not have *a some* or *an any*, since this would involve double marking of “unspecified”. And since *some* and *any* represent something which is not identified, they cannot co-occur with the definite article *the*.

3. Uses of the Articles

1. The Indefinite Article

Singular indefinite noun phrases have several basic uses (Jacobs, 1995: 109):

a. The specific indefinite use refers to a specific entity that is not yet familiar to the addressee and not uniquely identified by the noun phrase, e.g.,

1. She saw a tall tree with purple blossoms.
2. A young accountant interviewed her.

b. The generic indefinite use indicates a class of entities, e.g.,

3. They advertised for a three-bedroom apartment.
4. A car can be very expensive.

c. The generic predicate noun phrase use provides a classification; this is a special case of the generic indefinite use, e.g.,

5. Toby was a deerhound.
6. Denver is an interesting city.

2. The Definite Article

The definite article *the* is used with almost any kind of noun – count or noncount, singular or plural – except for noncount proper nouns. It is used when its noun phrase indicates an entity that should
be identifiable. The entity may be taken to be identifiable for any of the following reasons (Ibid.: 110-111):

a. It has previously been identified to the reference.

b. There is only one such entity or event, at least in our everyday experience, e.g., the earth, the sun.

c. Within a particular context, the entity is something which exists, e.g.,

   - in the context of a family, one can talk about the father, the mother, etc.
   - in the context of a human body, one can talk about the head, the nose, etc.
   - in the context of a law court, one can talk about the judge, the defendant, etc.
   - in the context of a process, event, book, poem, or anything else viewed as a linear sequence, one can talk about the beginning, the middle, and the end.
   - in the context of things viewed as occupying space, one can talk about the front, the top, the left-hand side, and the exterior.

d. The entity has been referred to previously. Thus, A tall woman entered the room may be followed by the statement Oscar noticed that the woman looked angry.

e. The entity is represented as unique in some context by modifiers like the superlatives strongest, most beautiful, thickest, least valuable, or by other words designating uniqueness, such as only and sole in the only reporter and the sole representative.

f. The entity is present at the time of the utterance or within a reasonable time before the utterance, e.g., the brown jacket, the boy over there.

g. The entity is expressed as a noun with a specific rather than generic reference, followed by an identifying modifier, as in the anger that he felt.

Although the two articles are mutually exclusive, which justifies their being placed in one grammatical system, they have quite different roles in the grammar. Let us consider the following sentences:
He’s the winner.

He’s a winner.

As regards (7), it is incomplete. One should specify what he is the winner of if it is not clear from the context or preceding discourse. In contrast, (8) is an acceptable sentence without any context being supplied. It would mean, at the least, that he won one thing once.

4. The Article ‘The’ and Demonstratives

Demonstratives this/these and that/those can function as a complete NP or as a determiner in slot (c). Some occurrences of a demonstrative as determiner may be substituted by the with no substantial difference in meaning.

Demonstratives are generally considered to be definite, but it is clear that their definiteness is not a matter of inclusiveness. A sentence like Pass me that book is likely to be used in a context where there is more than one possible referent corresponding to the description book, and the utterance may well be accompanied by some gesture indicating which book the speaker has in mind. Hawkins (1978) argues that demonstrative reference always involves a contrast, clear or implied, between the actual referent and other potential referents. What links demonstratives with the definite article is identifiability. In uttering Pass me that book, or I’ve read this book, the speaker assumes that the hearer can determine what is intended, by contrast with Pass me a book or I’ve read a book.

Demonstratives have two kinds of anaphoric function – substitution anaphora and textual anaphora (see Dixon, 2003).

a. Substitution anaphora: The anaphoric NP substitutes for a full NP, which could have been repeated in place of the anaphoric constituent. Here are examples:

9. He gets a large salary, but that/this salary does not meet all his needs.

10. She died on Thursday and (on) that afternoon they had a party.

In (9), the could be used in place of that or this. Similarly in (10), but it is to be noted that with the demonstrative one can say either that afternoon or on that afternoon, whereas with the definite article one must say in the afternoon. In versions of (9) and (10) with the definite article, the salary and the afternoon are uniquely specified – the large salary that he gets, and the afternoon of the day she died,
Thursday. In summary, a demonstrative in slot (c), with substitution anaphoric function, can generally be replaced by the.

b. Textual anaphora: This involves an NP with a demonstrative which refers back not to an NP but to a proposition which is typically a clause but could be a lengthy stretch of discourse. Examples:

11. He drinks excessively and for that reason Mary left him.
12. He does not study and this behaviour worries Mary.

The definite article the may not substitute for a demonstrative in textual anaphoric function. It seems that only a deictic determiner may be used, referring back to something larger in extent than an NP.

One can find many utterances which employ a deictic for a uniquely recognisable referent, which could equally well be specified by the, as in:

13. This (the) suit fits well.
14. Where did you sell that (the) car?
15. Did you get that (the) cheque which I sent?
16. I chose that (the) solution which I considered most appropriate.

The demonstrative that has a further sense as intensifier with an adjective or adverb, a function which is not open to the; for example, He was that angry. And in an appropriate context, that or this may modify a proper noun with derogatory overtones, as in I hate that George W. Bush.

The article the can be used with a proper name in completely different circumstances, when identifying one of a number of people or river, etc. that share the same name. For example, I mean the Tigris river south of Turkey, not the Euphrates river. In the following example:

17. He noticed fossilised fish remains embedded in the rock; the (these) remains suggested that volcanic activity has raised the rock.

the remains, an instance of substitution anaphora, can be replaced by a deictic anaphora, these remains. Another example is:

18. He arrived on a Thursday and by the (that) Saturday had settled the estate.
Other instances of possible substitution of a demonstrative for the involve a slight addition of meaning, e.g.,

19. She sat outside in the hot sun.
One can say in that hot sun, with that adding a deprecatory sense of the hot sun not being a good thing.

Slot (c) of NP structure involves a choice between an article, a demonstrative and a possessor. In quite a few instances, the can be replaced by an appropriate possessor, as in:

20. She took him by the (his) hand.
21. How’s the (your) family?

Generally, the is used to identify the unique referent of the NP in which it occurs, as in The best (one) of all, The first in line.

Certain abstract nouns and some adjectives when functioning as NP head take the, for example:

22. I think a lot about the future.
23. Don’t dream of the impossible!
And the can also have generic reference, as in:

24. Do you play the piano?

There are some grammatical constructions which require one or more definite articles. These include the correlative comparative, as in The longer the better, The more the merrier and The more hours you work the more we’ll pay you as well as set expressions like (He’s) the worse for drink.

The can be used with a noun at its introductory mention, if a unique referent is understood, e.g.,

25. The vicar knocked on the door.
26. The boss always reads the paper on the train in the morning.
27. Beware of the dog!

Generally, if the head of an NP is a common noun then it will take the for referential specification. If the head is a proper noun, this should have unique reference, so no article is required. However, a number of common nouns referring to geographical features or buildings are often omitted when modified by a proper name, so that the NP now consists just of the proper noun. An interesting feature is that a definite article which was required by the common noun head is retained when the common noun is omitted, e.g., the Atlantic (ocean), the Hilton (hotel), The Amazon (river).
The has a further role, pointing out that something is the best of its kind. In classical Greek, the definite article was used in exactly the same way, so that “The Poet” was used to refer to Homer and “The Stagirite” for Aristotle (considered the most esteemed person to come from Stagira) (Harris, 1965: 223). Similar use of the definite article in Modern English is seen in:

28. This is the life!
29. I’ll be the event of the year!

There is an interesting contrast between the inclusion and omission of the before the name of a limited set of institutions. Compare:

30. The choirboy is going to church/school.
31. The plumber is going to the church/school.

In (30), the boy is going to church to participate in a service or to school to participate in lessons, while in (31) the plumber is going to mend a burst pipe. For the plumber, the church/school is simply a building which, like almost all buildings, has pipes that can burst, and so it is appropriate to include the in (31). However, the is omitted, as in (30), when someone is going to an institution to take part in the normal, defining business of that institution.

In British English, the definite article can be omitted after an appropriate proposition with a small number of names of institutions. The main ones are:

32. after to, from, in, at before school, church, college, university
    after to, from, in before town, prison, hospital, theatre

(only for operating theatre in a hospital)

Other dialects of English show variation. For example, in American English, the cannot be omitted from before hospital (Trudgill and Hannah, 1982: 61).

It is to be noted that the can also be omitted from He’s lying in (the) bed and (He’s getting out of (the) bed since these are prototypical activities with respect to a bed.

5. The Article A(n) and the Number Modifier One

One function of a(n) is to be the unstressed equivalent of one. Consider an NP X rabbit(s), where X is a number or quantifier. We
can focus on the identity of $X$, as in column (a) – where the number or quantifier is stressed – or on rabbit(s), as in (b) – where the noun is stressed.

33. (a)  
'one rabbit  
'two rabbits  
'five rabbits  
'twenty rabbits  
'many rabbits  
'few rabbits

(b)  
a 'rabbit  
'rabbiths  
'rabbit

Regular count nouns in English take an obligatory number inflection, with zero suffix for singular and $-s$ for plural. If the actual non-singular number is not to be specified, nothing precedes 'rabbits. With singular number, and stress on 'rabbit, one must be replaced by a.

It is to be noted that any of the expressions in (33) may be identified by preposing the, giving:

34. (a)  
the 'one rabbit  
the 'two rabbits  
the 'five rabbits  
the 'twenty rabbits  
the 'many rabbits  
the 'few rabbits

(b)  
the 'rabbit  
the 'rabbits

Since the simply precedes everything else in (34), we might expect the a 'rabbit. However, the and a make up a single grammatical system and are mutually exclusive, so that we just get the 'rabbit.

One can also place this/these or that/those or a possessor before each of the NPs in (33), and again a is dropped after this or that or a possessor. Only one choice may be made from slot (c) in NP structure, covering demonstratives, possessors and the two articles.

Le us consider the following question and the two possible answers following it:

35. Could a 'boy lift that box?
36. No, (a 'boy couldn’t) but a 'man could.  
37. No, (one 'boy couldn’t) but 'two boys could.

The words in parentheses could be omitted, but if they are included, they will serve to make explicit the contrast – in (36) between 'man and 'boy (each with the unstressed form a) and in (37) between 'one boy and 'two boys (with the number stressed). These examples clearly show that a functions here as the unstressed variant of one.

Let us consider the following example:

38. She said 'one short word: “Good”.

The emphasis here is on the fact that a single word was given, and stress falls on 'one. If the focus was on the length of the word, stress would go on 'short and one would be replaced by a: She said a 'short word: “Good”.

When a single item is to be focused on, a common means is to use one of (slot b) followed by the in preference to one (slot d), as in:

39. This is one of the assumptions behind the Arab revolutions.

There are circumstances in which a can replace one with little difference in meaning or emphasis. For example:

40. He has five hens and one (a) rooster.

However, there are set expressions where only one is possible, such as one day soon.

The article a(n) may be replaced by one as in:

41. It was only an (one) hour.

Here when one is used in place of a, it attracts stress away from the following lexeme.

Other instances of a(n) cannot be replaced by one as in:

42. He lives in a palace.
43. An ink that will dry easily.

One could only be substituted for a(n) here if a contrast were introduced, as with one … another or one … two:

44. He lives in 'one place and works in 'another.
45. 'One ink that will dry easily and 'two that won’t.

However, the great majority of instances of a(n) do not implicitly relate to one. The indefinite article simply indicates an unspecified
member of a set as in He is a cheat. Note that only nouns which are countable may be preceded by a(n). One can say

46. I have a right to know.

since right is countable (I know my rights). But one cannot say *He made the offer with a sincerity, since sincerity is not countable. However, there are set expressions with a plus a non-countable noun, as in (do it) with a vengeance.

A(n) also has a somewhat unusual use, preceding a human propensity adjective which modifies a proper name or title, as in:

47. A delighted chairman of the board told shareholders there had been a record profit.

The article a in this instance related to the adjective rather than to the head of the NP, i.e., chairman.

There are a number of set phrases which include a(n):

what a (shame)  a few (of)
such a (disaster)  a lot (of)
many a (ship)  a little (of)
much of a (size)  a bit of a

The indefinite article is used to mean ‘for each’, as in a dollar a day, sixpence a dozen, and two at a time.

Jespersen (1933: 177) states that “while little and few are negative terms, a little and a few are positive”. Here are two of his examples:

48. There are few mistakes in his papers. (less than one might expect, i.e. praise)

49. There are a few mistakes in his papers. (there should have been none, i.e. criticism)

In appropriate circumstances, a noun following a number in slot (d) may be omitted, leaving the number as head of the NP. Examples:

50. a. one man taller than me.
    b. one taller than me.

51. a. two men taller than me.
    b. two taller than me.

We can replace one man by a man and two men by men, as in:

52. a man taller than me.

53. men taller than me.
However, man/men could not be omitted from (52-53), as they can be from (50-51). That is, we cannot have an NP *a taller than me or *taller than me. In other words, one can be a modifier as in (50.a) or a head noun as in (50.b) but a(n) may only be a determiner.

6. Underlying Sequence of Articles

The article the is often used in a generic sense, as in I dislike the bagpipes. Further, a(n), or just the plural form of a countable can be used with a generic sense.

54. The fox is a cunning animal. (comparing the prototypical fox to other animals)
55. A fox is a cunning animal. (any unspecified member of the set of foxes)
56. Foxes are cunning animals. (the whole class)

Since the and a(n) are mutually exclusive, in instances where one might expect a sequence of articles, only one may appear (The discussion is based on Jespersen, 1949: 468-9).

i. Underlying the plus a. As shown in (33-34) of section 5, where the plus a would be expected, we get just the.

ii. Underlying a plus the. If there are several paintings by Raphael called The Madonna and Child, one could say:

In each of (i) and (ii), the first of an underlying sequence of articles is retained: each of (i) and (ii), the first of an underlying sequence of articles is retained: the a becomes the and a turns out to be a.

One can also get a sequence of underlying the the, as in (59) or a a as in (61), being reduced to just one occurrence.

58. He lives at the end of Bedford Street nearest to the Strand.
59. He lives at the [The] Strand end of Bedford Street.
60. I have a suitcase which is a little heavier than yours.
61. I wish I had a [a] little heavier suitcase.

7. Using Articles as Devices for Disambiguation

One powerful device of structural ambiguity is the set of plural and non-count nouns. Cottle (1975: 47) shows that while there is a definite article for singular as well as plural nouns, there is no indefinite article for plural nouns. Put differently, while most
singular nouns require an article, plural nouns do not require an article when the noun is indefinite since no such article exists.

The absence of an article makes it more likely that a noun will be confused with a different part of speech. For example, the headline “British Left Waffles On Falkland Islands” (Lederer, 1987: 92), the use of a plural waffles creates an ambiguity as to whether waffles is functioning as a noun or some other part of speech, in this case a verb, and thus whether left is to be interpreted as a verb or noun. An article would require a noun interpretation of waffles. Further, the absence of an article often creates a confusion about the location of constituent boundaries where he delineation makes it easier for particular noun or parts of noun phrases to be confused with other parts of speech. For example, in the sentence “Only a few high schools have carefully developed programs” (Stageberg, 1971: 360), it is unclear whether the word developed is functioning as a verb in a present perfect construction, or whether it forms part of the noun phrase constituent (an adjective modifying the following noun). An article would eliminate such an ambiguity. If, for example, the verb phrase in the sentence were “have a carefully developed program” or “have carefully developed a program”, no such ambiguity would be possible since what follows an article must be part of a noun phrase. This is just the sort of situation one may find in the following humorous texts that use a gerund phrase:

   Boy: Oh, yes, very.
   Girl: Then you won’t mind moving some down out of the attic for Mother.

   (Kohl and Young, 1963: 113)

63. Question: What’s worse than raining cats and dogs?
   Answer: Hailing taxis.

   (Clark, 1968: 107)

Notice that the use of a plural is essential in these texts in order for the ambiguity to work. If we take a singular, there is a difference between “hailing a taxi” and “a hailing taxi”.

Like plurals, non-count nouns such as rice, milk, sand, and so forth, also constitute powerful devices. Whereas count nouns lack indefinite articles with their plural, non-count nouns, which have no
plural form, go even further by also resisting any indefinite articles with their singular.

As in the case of plurals, non-count nouns may create a confusion regarding constituent boundaries or the nature of a particular constituent. For a useful comparison we may look back at an example mentioned earlier. We saw how the plural in “Only a few high schools have carefully developed programs” causes a problem for interpretation. In his taxonomy, Stageberg (1971: 361) pairs that sentence with the sentence, “Departmental chairman in southern universities have limited academic freedom”. It is clear that the non-count noun freedom serves the same purpose as the plural programs as it uses no article that would otherwise make constituent boundaries clear.

But what is more significant with non-count nouns as devices is their inability to carry the –s inflectional suffix. The lack of any overt inflection endings on the non-count nouns provides them with an additional capacity for being confused with other lexical categories which also lack such an inflectional ending such as adjectives, adverbs, and in some cases verbs.

If one looks at an SVC construction, particularly one using a predicate nominative, one can see how easily a non-count noun lacking not only an article but an inflectional –s may be mistaken for a verb in a passive construction, provided the non-count noun shares the same morphology with a past participle form of a verb. In the following texts the non-count noun may be interpreted as either a noun in a predicate nominative construction or a verb in a passive one:

64. Question: When is a spanking like a hat?
   Answer: When it is felt. (Clark, 1968: 171)

65. Diner: This coffee is like mud.
    Waiter: Well, it was ground this morning! (Ibid: 176)

The non-count noun may also contribute to an ambiguity between a noun and adjective in an SVC (subject, verb, complement) versus SVO (subject, verb, object) constructions as in the following text:

66. What is a good way to get fat?
Fry up some bacon. (Rosenbloom, 1976: 30)

The question in the text comes from an underlying structure in which a person gets fat. Depending on whether the word get is a linking or transitive verb, the following word will be either an adjective or a noun. An adjective in a predicate position is not normally mistaken so easily for a noun since the noun would usually require an article, but the non-count noun fat avoids such a constraint.

8. Articles and Translation

The absence of an article may result in confusing a certain part of speech with another. Such confusion will have its bearing on translation, for unless context or other factors make things clear, a translator would render the sentence or piece of discourse in the way he understands it. Let us take the sentence already discussed:

67. Only a few high schools have carefully developed programs.

The sentence has two interpretations which result in two renderings as follows:

1. لم يطور برامجاً تطويراً دقيقاً إلا القلة من المدارس الثانوية.
2. لا تمتلك برامجاً متطورة بدقة إلا القلة من المدارس الثانوية.

Placing an article before the adverb ‘carefully’ or before the noun “program” would eliminate such an ambiguity and would produce a single rendering.

The same goes for the following sentence:

68. Departmental chairmen in southern universities have limited academic freedom.

1. لقد حدد رؤساء الأقسام في الجامعات الجنوبية الحرية الأكاديمية.
2. لا تمتلك رؤساء الأقسام في الجامعات الجنوبية حرية أكاديمية محدودة.

The ambiguity in the sentence emanates from the confusion regarding the constituent boundary of the noun phrase “academic freedom”.

The use of an article may put an end to the ambiguity, as in the following text:

69. What’s worse than raining cats and dogs?

Hailing taxis.

In this text, the ambiguity stems from the plurality of the noun ‘Taxis’. Had it been singular by placing the article (a) before it, the
ambiguity would have been eliminated and the text would not have been humorous. Consequently, this will have its bearing on translation, for if the text contains the singular noun ‘a taxi’, the translation would run something like:

ما هو أسوأ من المطر الغزير؟
مناداة سيارة أجرة.

As it stands, the translation seems to be incohesive an incoherent, because the ambiguity in which the SL text consists has been removed by introducing the indefinite article (a) before the singular noun ‘taxi’. For the translation to be cohesive and coherent the translator is required to relay the ambiguity of the SL intact in the TL text. In other words, he should look for an equivalent ambiguity in the TL that can perform the same function. However, if he could not find an equivalent ambiguity, he should resort to the strategy of recontextualisation, in that he is required to change the reality to which the original text refers so that the new reality would have the same effect as that in the SL text. With this in mind, the text (68) cannot be translated successfully without having resource to recontextualisation, because the ambiguous noun phrase “hailing taxis” has no equivalence in Arabic. Here is the proposed Arabic translation of the English text (69):

ما هو أسوأ من لصق الصور على الجدران.
لصق التهم.

9. Concluding Remarks
The present study has explored the grammatical roles of the articles in English and arrived at the following conclusions:

1. The definite article the developed from demonstratives, whereas the indefinite article a developed from one used as a number modifier in an NP.

2. Many instances of demonstratives can be replaced by the with no appreciable difference in meaning. As for a(n), it still functions in some occurrences as an unstressed variant of one.

3. Rather few instances of the may be replaced by a demonstrative; where this is possible, it often involves a certain difference of meaning or emphasis. On the other hand, a(n) has a
non-contrastive sense; it must be substituted by one if there is a contrast such as one … two or one … another.

4. The article the serves to uniquely identify the referent of the NP in which it occurs, irrespective of countability or number. It also occurs in set constructions such as The more he eats the less he speaks. As for a(n), in most instances of use it has moved away from association with one and simply indicates an unspecified member of a set.

5. The indefinite article a(n) can still only be used – like one – with countable nouns.

6. In addition to their grammatical roles, the articles have the semantic function of disambiguating sentences. That is, an understanding of such articles can allow greater awareness of how to prevent structural ambiguity. But just as significantly, such an awareness can also help to create it.

7. The ambiguity stemming from the presence or absence of articles in texts has its bearing on translation, for the successful translation should reflect such an ambiguity in the TL.

References


The Grammatical Roles of the English Articles with Reference to Translation into Arabic

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