A Thesis Submitted In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Arts in Translation Studies

Subject:

**ON RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MORPHOLOGY KNOWLEDGE
AND QUALITY OF TRANSLATION**

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In The Name Of GOD

ABSTRACT

The present study intended to investigate whether there is any relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal text translation from English to Persian and to what extent do Iranian M.A students of translation use morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of words when translating legal texts from English to Persian.

To fulfill the purpose, a descriptive research was conducted on 30 Iranian M. A. students of translation. At the first step subjects received a morphology test in multiple choice format with 40 items selected from "Word Power Made Easy" by Norman Lewis. The time allowed to answer was 40 minutes. Next, a legal text including 4 paragraphs distributed to subjects. They translated the text from English to Persian. There were 30 underlined words for which the subjects were asked to find equivalent in Persian without using any dictionary and had to mention how they guessed the meaning through a think aloud questionnaire. The scores of morphology and translation tests were computed and the correlation between them was measured.

The Results of the study showed that two variables, Morphology knowledge and quality of legal texts translation are correlated and their correlation is significant at the level of 0.001. According to results of the research, there is a significant relationship between morphology knowledge and quality of legal texts translation. Therefore it is possible to improve quality of translation of legal texts improving morphology knowledge of legal translators.

C H A P T E R   I

BACKGROUND AND PURPOSES

1-1-Introduction

Translation is a process which starts with reading-comprehension. Understanding meaning of words has a very important role in translation process. To get the meaning of words, translators need some instruments such as Dictionaries, Mental Dictionary Entry, Contextual Clues and Morphology knowledge.

There are several cases in which it is not possible for the translator to use dictionaries to discover the meaning. In this condition the translator must refer to its mental dictionary. If there is no equivalent for unknown word in mental dictionary, the translators should try to guess the meaning. Morphology knowledge is an instrument in hand of translator to guess the meaning. But the question here is whether any relationship between morphology as a guessing tool and quality of translation.

1-2-Background of the Study

Some researches have already been studied in the scope of morphology in which the relation between this knowledge and FL/SL vocabulary learning has been studied and concluded. Davoudi (1995) in his unpublished MA thesis has studied etymology and morphology knowledge as one of the important factors in FL/SL vocabulary learning process. As this study shows, a number of scholars are of the opinion that morphology

should be given priority in the activities devoted to the enrichment of vocabulary with respect to its broad impacts in improving vocabulary knowledge. Some other researchers consider it as an auxiliary technique contributing to lexicon and think of it as an issue of secondary importance. The present study can be significant in showing the value of morphological approach in translation process.

Most people feel that there is a common sense relationship between vocabulary and comprehension. Messages are composed of ideas and ideas are expressed in words. Most theorists and researchers in education have assumed that vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are closely related, and numerous studies have shown the strong correlation between the two (Baker, 1995; Nagy, 1988; Nelson-Herber, 1986).

1-3-Statement of the Problem

Translating legal texts and their discourse is considered as a difficult profession by translators because of its painstaking characteristics. In this area, words or signifiers have a significant role to decode meaning or signified. Since, in legal texts, words and expressions have legal concept and are definite, precise and technical, and since they make some responsibilities for parties, it is very important to understand or guess the meaning of words in translation process. For instance in a contract, both

parties only believe in words of the contract; not more. If the translator of the contract doesn't understand the meaning of weighty words or phrases in source text, he won't be able to convey correct meaning into target language; therefore disputes and claims occur.

Despite the importance of words in legal translation, in the course of legal translation in Iran curriculum of translator training, students only learn how and where they can memorize true meaning of current words in legal text through bilingual dictionaries.

Broadening this horizon, Farid (1985) believes that in reading, when a new, unknown word is encountered, it will be helpful to go inside the word and analyze its parts. Knowing some parts and elements of a word or analyzing the word can help the reader to guess the meaning. It is also useful to remember the definition and meaning of word.

1-4-Significance of the Study

Reading a text to translate, translators come across several new words the meaning of which is unfamiliar for them. To solve this problem and understanding or guessing the meaning of new words, there are many ways which can be used.

First of all, translators can refer to dictionaries to find the meaning. But several times they have to read a text without referring to dictionaries, and then they must guess the meaning. Miller (1973) states that if a

translator doesn't know the meaning of a word in a particular context, it does little good for him to recognize the word by sight. Of course a word can have many different meanings, depending upon its use in the context. The more meanings a translator has for a particular word, the more likely he will be able to attain the exact comprehension of a passage that intended.

On the other hand, Richck (1988) suggests that becoming aware of the origins of common words and learning new sophisticated words related to historical developments can help student learn vocabulary. Therefore, you need some elements to know which can help you to analyze new words to extract the meaning.

Farid (1985) says that first, when in reading one comes across a new word containing the prefix or root, one will be helped in his effects to guess what the word means, he knows what a part of it means. He will be able to make a good guess by using his knowledge of prefix or root meaning. Second, learning words in this way makes it easier to remember the definitions of new words. In other words, knowing is a good memory aid.

As mentioned before, since words have legal responsibility and meaning, it is very important to get the right meaning in first sight. Therefore it could be worth studying whether morphological knowledge

can help legal translators to guess meaning of new words in translation process.

1-5-Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is any relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal text translation from English into Persian and to what extent do Iranian M.A. students of translation use morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of words in translating legal texts.

1-6-Research Questions

Based on the nature of the problem, and purpose of the study, this research attempts to find answers to the following questions.

- Is there any relationship between Morphological Knowledge and quality of legal texts translation from English into Persian?
- To what extent do Iranian MA students of translation make use of morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of words in translating legal texts from English into Persian?

1-7-Research Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis is proposed on the basis of the aforementioned research questions:

- There is no relationship between Morphological Knowledge and quality of legal texts translation from English into Persian.
- Iranian M.A students of English translation do not use morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words in translating legal texts from English into Persian.

1-8-Definition of Key Terms

1-9-Morphology Knowledge

It is better to discuss about morphology as the knowledge of how word are produced in a language. Regarding this matter, Aronoff (1976) represent the goal of morphology and states that the simplest goal of syntax is the enumeration of the class of possible sentences of a language, so the simplest task of morphology is the enumeration of the class of possible words of language.

In this regard, Haspelmath (2002) believe that morphology is the study of internal structure of words. He states that morphology is the study of systematic covariation in the form and meaning of words. Haspelmath

(2002) indicate morpheme as the smallest constituent of words and declare that morphology is the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words.

1-10- Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is a primary step in translation. Translator firstly must read the text; catch the general meaning of the text and then start to render the SL meaning into TL.

According to Mayer (2003) reading comprehension is understanding a text that is read, or the process of "constructing meaning" from a text. Comprehension is a construction or decoding process because it involves all of the elements of the reading process working together as a text is read to create a representation of the text in the reader's mind.

1-11- Legal Texts

Legal discourse is a highly specialized use of language requiring a special set of habits. Obviously, translating legal texts requires painstaking attention to detail and sensitivity to the consequences of subtle contextual changes. This kind of writing is such a departure from our everyday use of language that it is worthwhile to consider some of the specific

characteristics of legal language which the translator should keep in mind. Understanding why legal language is the way it is can help the translator to develop a kind of textual model, a sense of how language functions in legal discourse.

1-12- Think-aloud Protocol

Think-aloud protocols involve participants thinking aloud as they are performing a set of specified tasks. Users are asked to say whatever they are looking at, thinking, doing, and feeling, as they go about their task. This enables observers to see first-hand the process of task completion (rather than only its final product).

Over the last decade, Think-aloud Protocols (TAPs) have been used extensively in process-oriented Translation Studies (TS). Interest in empirical research into the translation process has grown substantially in the last decade, driven by the idea that what goes on in translators' heads while they are translating (versus what scholars had claimed might go on) is crucial to an understanding of translation, and is not derivable solely from an analysis of the final product, the translated text.

1-13- Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

In this study, as the researcher has chosen to do research on the relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal text

translation and using morphological knowledge by Iranian M.A students of English translation, the researcher's preference imposes some limitations to the possibilities of doing research on M.A students of English translation who translate legal texts. Sample selection is not absolutely random. For an acceptable randomization, the sample should have been selected and tested from the entire M.A students of English translation throughout the country, whereas this is not feasible. Finally, this study is confined to a limited number of M.A students of English translation in Tehran. Delimitation of this study are a) the subjects are all Iranian. b) the subjects are M.A students of English translation.

C H A P T E R   II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED

LITERATURE

2-1-Introduction

The present study is concerned with two ways of guessing the meaning of unknown in translation. These two fields of studies are known as Morphology knowledge and contextual clues. They can be studied in several aspects through which it can be clarified whether these tools can be helpful in translation process.

Words as a basic concept in context have an important role in translation. Coming across unknown, ambiguous words, translator may have some problems and obstacles in translation; barriers should be removed. There are some suggestions to omit these barriers: looking up the meaning, morphology knowledge and contextual clues.

Now, in this study it should be investigating when a legal translator encounter an ambiguous word, is it possible for him to guess the meaning through morphological rules and contextual clues.

2-2-Reading Comprehension

There are several abilities which constitute translation ability. One brand of these abilities is language skills. Reading as an input language skill, has a significant effect on translation process. Some researchers believe that translation starts with reading. Zhang (1997) discuss that the conclusion can be drawn that the whole translation process is necessarily a

process of reading which involves a constant negotiation of selective attention between aesthetic and efferent stances. In this regard Sager (1994, as cited in Kaur 2005) believes that the cognitive process of understanding as a starting phase of translation commence with reading and comprehension. There are many techniques of reading, according to the degree of familiarity with the topic and the subject knowledge of the translator. The technique adopted must allow the identification of the cognitive units of the text while at the same time retaining sufficient perception of the linguistic structure so that the translation can show the degree of recognizable linguistic relationship with the source document decided upon in the strategy decision.

Razmjou (2003) asserts that the first step in translation is extensive reading of different translations of different kinds of texts, since translating requires active knowledge, while analyzing and evaluating different translations requires passive knowledge. Therefore, receptive skills should be developed before the productive ones; i.e. by reinforcing their passive knowledge, translators will eventually improve their active knowledge. Receptive skills improve the translator's language intuition and make them ready for actual translating.

When the reader encounters a text, he should cope with semantic sense of words and also meaning of sentences. Since, he should be able to recognize whether a sentence is meaningful or meaningless.

2-3-Reading Comprehension for Translation

It is very important to know whether any difference exist between within-language reading and reading for translation. To know this, it should be clarified that how the translation process happen. According to Macizo and Bajo (2006), theories of translation propose that three major processes occur during the translation task: (1) analysis and understanding of the source text or discourse in the Source Language (SL), (2) switch between two linguistic codes, and (3) production of the text or discourse in the Target Language (TL). However, they have proposed two opposing views of how these processes work during translation.

Gerver (1976) and Danks & Griffin (1997) represent one of them as the horizontal/parallel approach, considers that translation involves reformulation, that is, establishing semantic matches between the lexical and syntactic entries in the two languages involved. The TL lexical units are supposed to be activated and checked in a continuous parallel manner, before SL meaningful chunks are fully comprehended and integrated into the discourse representation.

Opposed to this view, Seleskovitch (1976, 1999), Seleskovitch & Lederer (1995) introduce the vertical/serial approach considering that translation is the result of the processes of analysis and understanding of the input message. The translator's task is to give lexical expression to the

"meaning" extracted from these processes; full comprehension of the input is needed before the constructed meaning is reformulated in the target language. Thus, understanding and reformulation proceed in a discrete serial manner. De Groot, (1997, 2000), Gile (1997) and Gerver (1976) state that according to the horizontal approach, reformulation from one linguistic code to another would consume resources that would add to the resources needed for normal comprehension. These resources would be needed to access lexical entries in the TL, to hold the input message during translation, to store the partial results of the reformulation process and to distribute resources among all these concurrent operations.

According to the vertical approach, although the input and the output of the translation task involve different linguistic codes, the primary process in translation is comprehension. The translators, as all readers, interpret the source text against their background knowledge and use their Working Memory (WM) resources to access the meaning of individual words, the syntactic structure of the sentences or to integrate meaning into higher structures. Once these processes have being carried out, production in the TL can proceed.

Hence, according to the horizontal view, within-language reading and reading for translation may differ, because the translator may engage in partial reformulation processes while reading for translating the source text, whereas, according to the vertical view, within-language reading and

reading for translation involve similar processes and impose similar demands. The translators as all normal readers engage in comprehension processes to construct an integrated meaningful representation and only then can they proceed to reformulate the input message to the TL. Thus, comprehension of the SL does not overlap with production in the TL.

To contrast these two viewpoints, first, the relative involvement of WM in reading and translation is explored. According to the vertical view, comprehension of the SL and access to the TL are independent processes that proceed in a serial manner and therefore, they should impose similar demands on WM. If this assumption is correct, there will not be any difference between reading for repetition and reading for translation. Ambiguity and memory load should have equivalent effects when reading for repetition and when reading for translation. In contrast, under the horizontal view of translation, reading for translation would be more demanding than reading for repetition because participants would engage in partial reformulation processes while reading the source text. If this assumption is correct, when reading for translation and the distance between the ambiguous word and the disambiguating context is large (high memory load), the effect of ambiguity should be evident. This effect should be much smaller when reading for repetition.

Second, in investigating the serial/parallel assumptions of the vertical and horizontal view were investigated, if comprehension and

reformulation proceed serially, the presence of cognate words in the sentences should not facilitate comprehension in either of the two reading conditions. In contrast, if the lexical entries of the TL are being activated while comprehending the SL, the presence of cognate words should facilitate the reading processes when participants are asked to translate the sentences. In this regard and based on conclusion of their research, Macizo and Bajo (2006) believe that reading for translation follow the horizontal approach.

Still, according to Paradis (1994), Paradis, Goldblum, & Abidi (1982), a third hybrid approach proposes that both serial and parallel models of translation only represent two possible routes to a translation response, so that any of these two processes or strategies can be used by any bilingual; experience and training determines which processes are used the most. However, within this hybrid approach there is some bias regarding the relative importance of both translation strategies. Seleskovitch (1976, 1999) and Paradis (1994) state that horizontal, code-to-code translation, is considered more probable in amateur translators or in conditions where performance temporarily breaks down, but it will rarely occur in experienced translators. In addition, recoding is also more probable when the SL linguistic form is continuously present (as in text-to-text translation), but it will rarely take place in conditions where the SL linguistic form is transient (as in consecutive interpretation).

2-4-Word in reading comprehension and its categories

Concepts and facts contained in content materials are communicated largely in words. If translators have limited content vocabularies, it can be assumed that they will be limited in their ability to comprehend the written materials of the content area subject. Davis (1968) argues that there is a strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Freebody and Anderson (1983) believe that there are a number of factors that contribute to relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, yet the most obvious is that a reader must know most of words in order to comprehend that text.

Word as the smallest unit of language has many definitions. One of these definitions has been represented by Bauer (1988) will be discussed. He believes that it is possible to say that a word is a unit which in print, is bounded by spaces on both sides. It is called an orthographic word, because it is linked to the spelling. But this definition has some deficiencies. For example when it comes to speaking, there is no clear distance and space between words. Then it is not possible to recognize words in this area.

On the other hand there are two types of word categorization which are as follow:

2-5-Structure words and content words:

In one hand, there are two kinds of vocabulary, namely structure words and content words. Structure words are learned early in part because they recur so frequently, but more importantly, because a reasonable sample of them must be mastered for a student to comprehend readily and speak meaningfully in any context. They are the mortar that holds the content word bricks together, with specific patterns indicating relationships between the lexical meanings of the content word. So information can be exchanged.

Faulk (1978) states that the content word or "lexical morphemes" represent the types of morphemes and words that express complexes of semantic features of great importance for communication. Structure words or "grammatical morphemes" provide small modification to the meaning of the lexical morphemes. These morphemes are generally short elements, represented phonetically by only one of few sounds and rarely occurring with strong stress.

2-6-Simple and complex words:

On the other hand, words can be divided into simple and complex forms. Depending on whether they include one morpheme

or two or more morphemes respectively. The simple words or what some linguists have called "core" words are the essential elements of meanings to which others are peripheral. In other words, core words can not easily be substituted for or even defined by "non-core" words. For instance, the words "eat", "devour", "defined-dine", "launch" all can be substituted by "eat" which is the core word for all of them, but none of them can easily substitute "eat".

2-7-Discovering Words Meaning Methods

2-8-Looking up the meaning

It is obvious that any translator, who works on a text, should be aware of the meaning of words. To reach this goal, translators need vast vocabulary knowledge. So, they should firstly learn vocabulary knowledge to recognize the meaning of words and then, translate them in the target language.

For many years vocabulary instruction has been accomplished using dictionary method. This method simply directed the student to look up unknown word in the glossary, the textbook or dictionary. The student would either recite or write the definition of a word. This method can be source of some confusion. Because definition of each word may have several unknown words which make learning the word difficult.

Another similar way to help students finding words meaning is marginal glossing. By offering additional notes or information beyond the text in the margin on the same page or on another page, glosses guide the learner and assist as a mediator between the text and the learner. Glosses have various functions in helping to decode the text by providing additional knowledge in specific content, skills, strategies, and definitions of difficult words. In the case of second language (L2) learning, gloss generally means information on important words via definitions or

synonyms (Nation, 2001; Richgels and Mateja, 1984; Stewrat and Cross, 1991; Stewrat and Cross, 1993). The two most important reasons to use glosses are to assist reading comprehension and aid vocabulary learning. In general, four advantages result from glossing.

First, glosses can help readers understand new words more accurately by preventing incorrect guessing. Some scholars including Bensoussan and Laufer (1984), Hulstijn (1992), Kruse (1979), Nation (2001) and Stein (1993) believe that deriving meaning from context can be difficult and risky because of readers' lack of language or reading strategies.

Second, glossing can minimize interruption while reading is in process. Since glossing provides definitions for low frequency words, L2 readers do not have to constantly look them up (Nation, 1990; Nation, 2001).

Third, according to Stewrat and Cross (1993), glosses may help readers build a bridge between prior knowledge or experience and new information in the text. In other words, interactions among gloss, reader, and text may promote comprehension and retention of the content of the text. Besides these points, glosses in key words can help readers recall their background knowledge and connect it to the text.

Fourth, according to Jacobs (1994) and Nation (1990), glosses can make students less dependent on their teachers, allowing for greater

autonomy. Since not all students have problems with the same words, they can look up just the words they do not know.

There have been some studies done on the effect of glossing in enhancing L2 language reading comprehension. Holley and King (1971), Johnson (1982), Jacobs et al. (1994) showed no significant effect for glossing in L2 reading comprehension, whereas Davis (1989) and Jacobs (1994) demonstrated that glosses can enhance it. Bell and LeBlanc (2000) compared use of first language (L1) glosses to use of L2 glosses and reported no significant difference between them in their effect on L2 reading comprehension.

Holley and King (1971) compared different types of glosses. U.S. students learning German (N=110) were randomly assigned to read the same passage but with different types of glosses: side-of-page; bottom-of-page; or glosses on an attached sheet. The subjects took multiple-choice vocabulary and reading comprehension tests. The results indicated that the three different forms of glossing, when placed at different positions in the text, did not make a significant difference on either vocabulary or reading comprehension tests.

Johnson (1982) was primarily interested in the role of cultural schema – knowledge about Halloween in this case – on L2 reading comprehension. She also tested the effect of the treatment of vocabulary under four different conditions: no help with vocabulary; studying the

definitions of words before reading; reading a passage with the target words glossed; and studying the target words before reading and reading the text with glosses. A cloze test was administered to measure retention of the target words. After reading the passage, seventy two advanced ESL university students were asked to recall the story in their L2 and to recognize exact sentences from the passage. The dependent measures – cloze test, recognition task, and written recall protocol – indicated that knowledge of Halloween facilitated reading comprehension, but exposure to the different types of vocabulary aids did not significantly affect the comprehension.

Jacobs et al. (1994) investigated the effects of L1, L2, and no gloss on foreign language reading comprehension along with foreign language vocabulary learning. Native speakers of English enrolled in the fourth semester of Spanish (N=85) were assigned to one of three different gloss conditions: no gloss, English (L1) gloss, and Spanish (L2) gloss. After reading a passage written in Spanish with different gloss conditions, they were asked to recall the story. The findings again showed that there was no significant difference among the different conditions, and participants expressed their preference for L2 glosses.

In contrast, Davis (1989) and Jacobs (1994) indicated that glossing resulted in a positive effect on L2 reading comprehension. Davis (1989) tested whether marginal glosses would improve comprehension of a text.

U.S. students in a French class (N=71) were divided into three text conditions and read a short story. The first condition was a read-write-reread group, in which participants read the passage for fifteen minutes, wrote what they could remember for ten minutes, and then reviewed the passage for five minutes. The second condition was to offer a vocabulary guide before reading, in which they were guided by questions and comments on the story and given definitions of some vocabulary. They studied the guide for ten minutes, read for fifteen minutes, and then wrote. The third condition was a vocabulary guide during reading (gloss): they were given the same questions and definitions of the same vocabulary in glossed form. They read the text for twenty-five minutes, and then wrote. Subjects who received vocabulary help either before or during reading did significantly better than those who received no help. In other words, it showed that those who read a text with glossing performed significantly better than those without glossing.

Jacobs' (1994) study showed a positive effect between glossing and foreign language reading comprehension. U.S. students learning Spanish (N=166) were randomly assigned to read two types of Spanish reading texts, that is, with no gloss and with English (L1) glossing. Subjects were asked to write in their L1 as much as they could recall of the content of the story. The results showed that the glossed group performed significantly better than the other group.

Bell and LeBlanc (2000) investigated the type of glossing frequently used for computer-based reading. U.S. undergraduates (N=40) enrolled in third semester Spanish were divided into two groups: L1 gloss and L2 gloss. They were asked to read a short story and then to take a multiple choice reading comprehension test. The findings showed there was not a significant difference between the L1 and L2 group, although the participants preferred L1 glosses over L2 glosses.

Myong Hee Ko (2005), in a both qualitative and quantitative research, investigated how different types of gloss conditions affect Korean college students' reading comprehension. One hundred and six undergraduates at a university in Korea participated in the study. Twelve were assigned to think aloud, and the rest (ninety-four) took part in the main study only. They read the material under one of three conditions: no gloss, Korean gloss (L1 glossing), and English gloss (L2 glossing). After reading, they were asked to take a multiple-choice reading comprehension test and to answer a questionnaire. The results of the quantitative analyses indicated that only the second language (L2) gloss condition significantly affected students' reading comprehension. However, the think-aloud protocols revealed that both types of glossing made their reading comprehension smoother and faster than was possible for those who read without glosses. In other words, even first language (L1) glosses enabled them to comprehend more easily while reading, although statistics did not

indicate a significant difference between the no gloss and L1 gloss conditions. When surveyed, learners showed their preference for glosses in the margin: more than 62% of the learners favored L2 glosses for their reading material.

According to the result of the mentioned research, it seems necessary to find another useful ways to discover words meaning.

2-9-Guessing the words meaning

Based on above mentioned discussions about word meaning discovery, it is possible to substitute the student with the reader and the reader with the translator and conclude that the translator can take the meaning through dictionaries and glossaries. But when it is not possible to use these tools, the translator needs some other useful instrument to guess the meaning of unknown words.

To guess the meaning, the translator as a reader must extract meaning of words through external and/or internal factors affected the word meaning. The external factor is called contextual clues and internal factors are entitled as morphological rule.

2-10-Morphology

Texts and contexts include world of words through which they can produce and convey meanings. As it is obvious, it is one of translation goals to convey the meaning. So, it is necessary to use words meaning to get the text and context meaning. To do this, there are several ways through which the reader reading for translation can obtain words meaning. There are three approaches of finding word-meanings as (a) Reference theory which would express the relationship between word and entity (b) Componential analysis which would make use of an analogy

from chemistry-'each word contains a number of atoms of meaning' which is called Morphology (c) Meaning postulates which would relate meaning through the conventions of set theory or context.

In the world of translation time and tools is one of the most important factors to get a better result. In this regard, several general and specialized dictionaries and encyclopedias have been created recent years. These instruments can be helpful and can expedite and improve translating process. But, sometimes it is not optimum to use dictionaries because of time and environmental limitations. In this condition, translator or interpreter needs more useful tools.

Morphology and contextual clues can be useful instrument in this area. In next chapters these two ways and tools are discussed in detail.

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies words; it is concerned with the internal structure of words as well as the formal relationships that exist among the words of a language. Haspelmath (2002) believes that morphology is the study of systematic covariation in the form and meaning of words. According to Aronoff (1976) the simplest goal of syntax is the enumeration of the class of possible sentences of a language, so the simplest task of morphology, the least we demand of it, is the enumeration of the class of possible words of language.

Various aspects of knowledge of morphology may be distinguished in different aspects. The following classification is based on the discussion

by Tyler and Nagy (1989).

➢ Relational knowledge: This is the knowledge (or perception) that two words are morphologically related to each other; that is, they share a common lexical base (e.g., argue-argument as opposed to off-offer or depart-department). Previous studies have shown that semantic relatedness is a prerequisite for viewing words as derivationally "related." Most previous research on morphology has studied relational knowledge, which has been extensively discussed in the psycholinguistic literature.

➢ Syntactic knowledge: This is the knowledge that derivational suffixes mark words for syntactic category in English (e.g., X-izeV; X-ationN). One of the primary functions of derivational morphology is to change the syntactic category of a word. Even if one doesn't know the lexical stem of the word, the derivational suffix can often provide highly reliable information about its syntactic category. For example, one can reliably guess that ambiguity is a noun and ambiguous is an adjective even if one does not know the meaning of the stem ambigu-.

➢ Selectional knowledge: This is knowledge of the selectional restrictions on the concatenation of stems and affixes— for example, that the English nominalizing suffix -ness attaches to adjectives but not verbs (e.g., quietness vs. *playness). Learners also

need to know restrictions on which specific affix(es) to use in the derivation of a particular syntactic category given the morphophonological characteristics of the stem and/or intended function (e.g., quietness vs. *quietation). Tyler and Nagy (1989) refer to this aspect of knowledge as distributional and propose that it is developmentally the latest to be acquired.

Morphological research aims to describe morphological patterns in of human language. Haspelmath (2002) indicates sub-goals of morphological research as follow:

➢ Elegant description: linguists believe that morphological patterns should be elegant and have a rule. For example a single English noun is changed to plural adding –s and it is better than listing singles and plurals. The main criterion of elegance is generality.

➢ Cognitive realistic description: linguists believe that it is necessary for generalizations to be cognitively real in addition to elegance and generality. For instance English speakers cognitively know the "add –s to singular to make it plural" rule. Then listing of singulars and plurals is not appropriate. Because speakers can not keep them in their mind.

➢ System-external explanations: in this regard the question should be answered: "why are the patterns the way they

are?" It is obvious that only non-accidental facts, i.e. universals of human language can be explained. For example, -s plural is not universal. But this rule is not accidental. If a language has morphological plural form of nouns at all, it will have plurals of nouns denoting people. This sub-goal is called system-external explanation in sense that it refers to facts outside the language system.

➢ A restrictive architecture for description: according to many linguists, formulation of some general design principles and construction of architecture for description is one of important goals of grammatical research. The innate part of speaker's grammatical knowledge is called Universal Grammar. To sum up, one goal of grammatical research is to discover those principles of the innate universal grammar that are relevant for word structure.

Morphology is not prominent in all languages. What one language expresses morphologically may be expressed by a separate word or left implicit in another language. In this regard, linguists categorize the degree to which languages use morphological rules. Haspelmath (2002) mentions these categories as follow:

➢ Isolating: when a language has almost no morphology and thus exhibits an extreme degree of analicity. Language such as Vietnamese and Yoruba is considered as isolating languages.

> ➢ Analytic: where morphology plays a relatively modest role, such as English language.

> ➢ Synthetic: where morphology plays a more important role, such as Sumerian, Swahili or Lezgian.

> ➢ Polysynthetic: when a language has an extraordinary amount of morphology and perhaps many compound words, such as Greenlandic Eskimo.

To study one field of knowledge it is necessary to know about elements and constituents of that field. As it is perceivable morphology knowledge is the study of morphemes and how they come together to produce new words.

2-11- What is The Morpheme?

According to Yule (1996) Morpheme is a minimal unit of meaning or grammatical functions. In other word morpheme is the smallest meaningful part of a linguistic expression that can be identified by segmentation (Haspelmath, 2002).

2-12- Different Categories of Morphemes

Yule (1996) believes that morphemes can be divided into two different categories, Free and Bound**.** He states that free morphemes are those which can stands by themselves as a single word, e.g. open and tour.

He also split free morphemes into two groups, namely lexical and functional free morphemes. He explains lexical free morphemes as follow:

"The first category is that set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs which we think of as the words which carry the "content" of messages we convey. These free morphemes are called lexical morphemes.

…we can add new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, so they treated as an "open" class of words."

Yule indicates functional free morphemes in this way: "This set consists largely of the functional words in the language such as conjunctions, preposition, articles and pronouns. Because we almost never add new functional morphemes to the language, they are described as a "closed" class of words."

Another category of morphemes are bound morphemes which are those morphemes that can not normally stand alone, but which are typically attached to another form, e.g. re-, -ist, -ed, -s.

Yule divide bound morphemes into two categories too. The first category is derivational bound morpheme which is used to make new words in the language and are often used to make words of the different category from the stem.

Another category here is inflectional bound morphemes. These are not used to produce new words in the English language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of the word. Inflectional morphemes are used to show if a word is plural or singular, if it is past tense, and if it is a comparative or possessive form. English has only eight inflectional morphemes: Noun+   -'s,-s

Verb+   -s,-ing,-ed,-en

Adjective+   -est, -er

2-13- Lexemes and Word-forms

According to Haspelmath (2002) there are two different notions of word. He defines lexeme as one of these notions. He believes that lexeme is a dictionary word name of which is originated from the mental dictionary in human heads, lexicon. Lexemes are abstract entities and can be thought of as sets of word-forms.

On the other hand, he describes word-forms as text words which are whatever is separated by spaces in writing. Word-forms are concrete in that they can be pronounced and used in texts. Every word-form belongs to one lexeme. The set of word-forms that belongs to a lexeme is often called a paradigm.

2-14- A brief history of English language origin

There are several studies on English language history. Somebody such as Baugh and Cable (1993) believe that English language has several important aspects and one of these considerable aspects is the mixed character of its vocabulary. They believe that English is classified as Germanic language. That is to say, it belongs to the group of languages to which German, Dutch, Flemish, Danish, Swedish and Norwegian also belong. There are many common grammar structures and words between these languages. On the other hand, more than half of its vocabulary is derived from Latin. Some of these borrowings have been direct a great many through French and some through other Romance languages. English language has not any interest to make new words through combination of existing elements and just, in several cases, go outside its language sources and borrow from other languages.

In this regard, word-formation processes in languages such as English is discussed as follow.

2-15- Coinage

One of the least common processes of word–formation in English is Coinage, that is, the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources are invented trade names for one company's product which

become general terms (without initial capital letters) for any version of that product. For example: aspirin, nylon, kleenex, teflon, xerox.

2-16-Borrowing (loanwords)

A loanword (or loan word) is a word directly taken into one language from another with little or no translation. By contrast, a calque or loan translation is a related concept whereby it is the meaning or idiom that is borrowed rather than the lexical items itself. The word loanword is itself a calque of the German Lehnwort and/or the Dutch Leenwoord.

Words which a language inherits from an ancestral language from which it develops are not borrowed words. Inherited words usually constitute most of the vocabulary of a language.

Although loanwords are typically far fewer than the native words of most languages (creoles and pidgins being exceptions), they are often widely known and used, since their borrowing served a certain purpose, for example to provide a name for a new invention. Loanwords can also be called, "borrowings."

According to Yule (1996) one of the most sources of new words in English is the process simply labeled borrowing, that is, the taking over of words from other languages. Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of loan-words from other languages, including alcohol (Arabic), piano (Italian), and yogurt (Turkish).

2-17- Classes of borrowed words

Certain classes of words are more commonly borrowed than others, usually words for exotic concepts or ideas. What is "exotic" varies from language to language. Thus, English names for creatures not native to Great Britain are almost always loanwords, and most of the technical vocabulary referring to classical music is borrowed from Italian.

By contrast, function words, such as pronouns, numbers, and words referring to universal concepts, are usually not borrowed, but have been in some cases.

2-18- Borrowing beyond word level

Idiomatic expressions and phrases, sometimes translated word-for-word, can be borrowed, usually from a language that has "prestige" at the time. Often, a borrowed idiom is used as a euphemism for a less polite term in the original language. In English, this has usually been Latinisms from the Latin language and Gallicisms from French. If the phrase is translated word-for-word, it is known as a calque.

2-19- Loanwords in English

English has many loanwords. In 1973, a computerized survey of about 80,000 words in the old Shorter Oxford Dictionary (3rd edition) was

published in Ordered Profusion by Thomas Finkenstaedt and Dieter Wolff. Their estimates for the origin of English words were as follows:

- French, including Old French and early Anglo-French: 28.3%

- Latin, including modern scientific and technical Latin: 28.24%

- Germanic languages, including Old and Middle English: 25%

- Greek: 5.32%

- No etymology given or unknown: 4.03%

- Derived from proper names: 3.28%

- All other languages contributed less than 1%

However, if the frequency of use of words is considered, words from Old and Middle English occupy the vast majority.

The reasons for English's vast borrowing include:

- (to a relatively small extent) the existence of other languages native to Britain;

- the invasion of England by the Vikings and the Normans;

- its modern importance;

- its being a scientific language;

- its development as a trade language in the 18th century; and

- the flexibility of its syllable structure.

This lack of restrictions makes it comparatively easy for the English language to incorporate new words. Compare this with Japanese, where the English word "club" (itself originally from Old Norse) was turned into "kurabu" because of Japanese's inflexible syllable structure. However, the English pronunciations of loanwords often differ from the original pronunciations to such a degree that a native speaker of the language it was borrowed from is not be able to recognize it as a loanword when spoken.

English often borrows words from the cultures and languages of the British Colonies. For example there are at least 20 words from Hindi, including syce/sais, dinghy, chutney, pundit, wallah, pajama/pyjamas, bungalow and jodhpur. Other examples include trek, aardvark, laager and veld from Afrikaans, shirang, amok (Malay) and sjambok (Malay via Afrikaans).

2-20- Affixes

The majority of English affixes, such as "un-", "-ing", and "-ly", were present in older forms in Old English. However, a few English affixes are borrowed. For example, the agentive suffix -er, which is very prolific, is borrowed ultimately from Latin. The verbal suffix '-ize' comes (via, Old French, via Latin) ultimately from Ancient Greek and was used liberally in America, often to the chagrin of the British.

2-21- Compounding

Yule (1996) believes that when there is a joining of two separate words to produce a single form, it is called a compound word. Thus, Lehn and wort are combined to produce lehnwort in German. This combining process, technically known as compounding, is very common in languages like German and English, but much less common in languages like French and Spanish. For example: bookcase, textbook, wallpaper.

A compound word is made up of two or more words that together express a single idea. There are three types of compounds:

➢ Open compound consists of two or more words written separately, such as salad dressing, Boston terrier, or April Fools' Day.

➢ Hyphenated compound has words connected by a hyphen, such as age-old, mother-in-law, force-feed.

➢ Solid compound consists of two words that are written as one word, such as keyboard or typewriter.

In addition, a compound may be classified as permanent or temporary. A permanent compound is fixed by common usage and can usually be found in the dictionary, whereas a temporary compound consists of two or more words joined by a hyphen as needed, usually to modify another word or to avoid ambiguity. In general, permanent compounds begin as temporary compounds that become used so frequently they

become established as permanent compounds. Likewise many solid compounds begin as separate words, evolve into hyphenated compounds, and later become solid compounds. Although the dictionary is the first place to look when you are trying to determine the status of a particular compound, reference works do not always agree on the current evolutionary form of a compound, nor do they include temporary compounds. The following general rules apply to forming compounds. Keep in mind that words that are made up of a word root plus a prefix or a suffix are not normally considered compounds, strictly speaking. But for convenience we discuss them here since they are also sometimes hyphenated.

2-22- Prefixes and Suffixes

Normally, prefixes and suffixes are joined with a second element without a hyphen, unless doing so would double a vowel or triple a consonant: antianxiety, anticrime, antiwar but anti-intellectual; childlike, taillike but bell-like. Even so, many common prefixes, such as co-, de-, pre-, pro-, and re-, are added without a hyphen although a double vowel is the result: coordinate, preeminent, reenter.

A hyphen is also used when the element following a prefix is capitalized or when the element preceding a suffix is a proper noun: anti-American, America-like.

The hyphen is usually retained in words that begin with all-, ex- (meaning "former"), half-, quasi- (in adjective constructions), and self-: all-around; ex-governor; half-life but halfhearted, halfpenny, halftone, halfway; quasi-scientific but a quasi success; self-defense but selfhood, selfish, selfless, selfsame.

Certain homographs require a hyphen to prevent mistakes in pronunciation and meaning: recreation (enjoyment), re-creation (new creation); release (to let go), re-lease (to rent again).

2-23- Compound as a Noun or Adjective

In order to avoid confusion, compound modifiers are generally hyphenated: fine-wine tasting, high-school teacher, hot-water bottle, minimum-wage worker, rare-book store, real-life experiences. If there is no possibility of confusion, or if the hyphen would look clumsy, omit the hyphen: bubonic plague outbreak, chemical engineering degree, temp agency employee.

When a noun that is an open compound is preceded by an adjective, the compound is often hyphenated to avoid confusion: wine cellar, damp wine-cellar; broom closet, tiny broom-closet; house cat, old house-cat.

Compound adjectives formed with high- or low- are generally hyphenated: high-quality programming, low-budget films.

Compound adjectives formed with an adverb plus an adjective or a participle, are often hyphenated when they occur before the noun they modify: a well-known actor, an ill-advised move, best-loved poems, a much-improved situation, the so-called cure. However, when these compounds occur after the noun, or when they are modified, the hyphen is usually omitted: the actor is well known; an extremely well known actor.

If the adverb ends in -ly in an adverb-adjective compound, the hyphen is omitted: a finely tuned mechanism, a carefully worked canvas.

Compound adjectives formed with an adverb or a noun and a past participle are always hyphenated when they precede the noun they modify: well-kept secret, above-mentioned reason, helium-filled balloons, snow-capped mountains. Many compounds of this type have become permanent and are therefore hyphenated whether they precede or follow the noun they modify: a well-worn shirt, his shirt was well-worn; the tongue-tied winner, she remained tongue-tied.

Also hyphenate compound adjectives formed with an adjective and a noun to which -d or -ed has been added: yellow-eyed cat, fine-grained wood, many-tiered cake, stout-limbed toddler. Many of these compounds have become permanent hyphenated or solid compounds: middle-aged, old-fashioned, lightheaded, kindhearted.

Compound adjectives formed with a noun, adjective, or adverb and a present participle are hyphenated when the compound precedes the noun it

modifies: a bone-chilling tale, two good-looking sons, long-lasting friendship. Many of these compounds have become permanent solid compounds: earsplitting, farseeing. Many other compounds have become permanent and are hyphenated whether they precede or follow the noun they modify: far-reaching consequences; the consequences are far-reaching.

Compound nouns formed with a noun and a gerund, are generally open: crime solving, house hunting, trout fishing. Many of these compounds, however, have become permanent solid compounds: faultfinding, housekeeping.

Compound modifiers formed of capitalized words should not be hyphenated: Old English poetry, Iron Age manufacture, New World plants.

Usage is divided with regard to compounds that are proper names used to designate ethnic groups. Under normal circumstances such terms when used as nouns or adjectives should appear without a hyphen: a group of African Americans, many Native Americans, French Canadians in Boston, a Jewish American organization, an Italian American neighborhood, Latin American countries. However, many (but not all) compounds of this type are now frequently hyphenated: African-Americans, Asian-American families, French-Canadian music but Native American myths.

Nouns or adjectives consisting of a short verb combined with a preposition are either hyphenated or written solid depending on current usage. The same words used as a verb are written separately: a breakup but break up a fight; a bang-up job but bang up the car.

Two nouns of equal value are hyphenated when the person or thing is considered to have the characteristics of both nouns: secretary-treasurer, city-state, time-motion study.

Compound forms must reflect meaning. Consequently, some compounds may change in form depending on how they are used: Anyone may go but Any one of these will do; Everyone is here but Every one of these is good.

Scientific compounds are usually not hyphenated: carbon monoxide poisoning, dichromic acid solution.

2-24- Phrases

Phrases used as modifiers are normally hyphenated: a happy-go-lucky person, a here-today-gone-tomorrow attitude.

A foreign phrase used as a modifier is not hyphenated: a bona fide offer, a per diem allowance.

2-25- Numbers

Numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine and adjective compounds with a numerical first element (whether spelled out or written in figures) are hyphenated: twenty-one, thirty-first, second-rate movie, third-story window, three-dimensional figure, six-sided polygon, ten-thousand-year-old bones, 13-piece band, 19th-century novel, decades-old newspapers.

Spelled-out numbers used with -fold are not hyphenated; figures and -fold are hyphenated: tenfold, 20-fold.

Compounds of a number and -odd are hyphenated: four-odd, 60-odd.

A modifying compound consisting of a number and a possessive noun is not hyphenated: one week's pay, hours' work.

Fractions used as modifiers are hyphenated unless the numerator or denominator of the fraction contains a hyphen: three-eighths inch, twenty-four hundredths part; the pie was one-half eaten. Fractions used as nouns are usually not hyphenated: He ate one half of the pie.

2-26- Color

Compound color adjectives are hyphenated: a red-gold sunset, a cherry-red sweater.

Color compounds whose first element ends in -ish are hyphenated when they precede the noun but should not be hyphenated when they

follow the noun: a darkish-blue color, a reddish-gold sunset; The sky is reddish gold.

2-27- Blending

This combining of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process called blending. However, blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. For example: smurk (smoke+ murk), smaze (smoke+haze).

2-28- Clipping

According to Yule (1996) the element of reduction which is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process described as clipping. This occurs when a word of more than one syllable (facsimile) is reduced to a shorter form (fax), often in casual speech. For example: cab (cabriolet), fan (fanatic), ad (advertisement).

Clipping mainly consists of the following types: (1) Back clipping (2) Fore-clipping (3) Middle clipping (4) Complex clipping.

> **back clipping**

It is the most common type, in which the beginning is retained. The unclipped original may be either a simple or a composite. Examples are: *ad* (advertisement), *cable* (cablegram), *doc* (doctor), *exam* (examination), *gas* (gasoline), *math* (mathematics), *memo* (memorandum), *gym* (gymnastics, gymnasium) *mutt* (muttonhead), *pub* (public house), *pop* (popular concert), *trad* (traditional jazz).

➢ **fore clipping**

The final part is retained. Examples are *phone* (telephone), *varsity* (university), *chute* (parachute), *coon* (racoon), *gator* (alligator), *pike* (turnpike).

➢ **middle clipping**

The middle of the word is retained. Examples are *flu* (influenza), *tec* (detective), *polly* (apollinaris), jams (pyjamas), *shrink* (head-shrinker).

➢ **Complex clipping**

Clipped forms are also used in compounds. One part of the original compound most often remains intact. Examples are: *cablegram* (*cable* tele*gram*), *op art* (*op*tical *art*), *org-man* (*org*anization *man*), and *linocut* (*lino*leum *cut*). Sometimes both halves of a compound are clipped as in *navicert* (*navi*gation *cert*ificate). In these cases it is difficult to know whether the resultant formation should be treated as

a clipping or as a blend, for the border between the two types is not always clear. According to Bauer (1993), the easiest way to draw the distinction is to say that those forms which retain compound stress are clipped compounds, whereas those that take simple word stress are not. By this criterion *bodbiz, Chicom, Comsymp, Intelsat, midcult, pro-am, sci-fi,* and *sitcom* are all compounds made of clippings.

According to Marchand (1969), clippings are not coined as words belonging to the standard vocabulary of a language. They originate as terms of a special group like schools, army, police, the medical profession, etc., in the intimacy of a milieu where a hint is sufficient to indicate the whole. For example, in school slang originated *exam, math, lab,* and *spec*(ulation), *tick*(et = credit) originated in stock-exchange slang, whereas *vet*(eran), *cap*(tain), are army slang. While clipping terms of some influential groups can pass into common usage, becoming part of Standard English, clippings of a socially unimportant class or group will remain group slang.

2-29- Backformation

A very specialized type of reduction process is known as backformation. Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced

to form another word of a different type (usually a verb). For example: emote (from emotion), donate (donation).

A putative base is created to underlie a form perceived as derived. Heuristically, the process is often accomplished by de-affixation. Thus, donate was backformed from donation to serve as a putative base from which the latter could be derived. Backformation is clearest when a form is created to underlie a borrowing. For instance, Old French begar(d) entered English as beggar, and already in Early Middle English, a verb beg was created to underlie it. German Schwindler entered English as swindler, and a verb swindle was backformed.

The usual way to recognize a backformation is by the first-attestation dates of related forms. Since existing forms can accidentally remain unattested in written records, this is not infallible, but the longer the intervening time, the more secure is the probability of backformation. Peddle, edit, and sculpt are backformations. The forms peddl-er, edit-or, sculpt-or are readily analyzed as agentives in -E/OR, which are derived from verbs, cf. act-or, sing-er. Since the nouns editor (etc.) originally had no verb base in English, one was created to underlie the agent noun. More simply, if an act-or ACTs, an edit-or EDITs, and a new verb is born. Two recent formations in this class are the technical lase (off) "cut (off) with a laser', backformed from laser, and the popular auth (to author).

2-30-Backformation in the English language

Many words came into English by this route: Pease was once a mass noun but was reinterpreted as a plural, leading to the backformation pea. The noun statistic was likewise a backformation from the field of study statistics. In Britain the word burgle came into use in the 19th century as a backformation from burglar (although in some parts of North America burglarize is usually used).

Even though many English words are formed this way, new coinages may sound strange, and are often used for humorous effect. For example, gruntled or pervious (from disgruntled and impervious) would be considered mistakes today, and used only in humorous contexts. The comedian George Gobel regularly used original back-formations in his humorous monologues. Bill Bryson mused that the English language would be richer if we could call a tidy-haired person shevelled - as an opposite to disheveled.

Frequently backformations begin in colloquial use and only gradually become accepted. For example, burger (and beefburger, cheeseburger, etc., from hamburger) is in common use today though it would have been considered awkward or colloquial as late as the 1940s; and enthuse (from enthusiasm) is gaining popularity, though it is still considered substandard by some today.

The immense celebrations in Britain at the news of the relief of the Siege of Mafeking briefly created the verb to maffick, meaning to celebrate both extravagantly and publicly. "Maffick" was a back-formation from Mafeking, a place-name that was treated humorously as a gerund or participle.

2-31- The mechanics of backformation

Backformations of borrowed terms generally do not follow the rules of the original language. For example Homo sapiens is Latin for thinking man. As with all Linnaean species names, this is singular in Latin (plural would be homines sapientes) but it is sometimes mistakenly treated as plural in English, with the corresponding singular backformation Homo sapien. Similarly antipodes, borrowed from Greek via Latin, has the apparent form of a plural noun, and is sometimes treated as such, with antipode taken to mean "an antipodal point". The final podes is indeed plural, meaning feet, and the corresponding singular would be transliterated as pous (foot). However antipodes itself is a compound of anti (opposite) and podes (feet). As such, it is not a plural noun at all, and the singular *antipous, if it existed at all, would mean "a substitute foot." ("Opposite a foot" would be anti poda.)

Some regard such divergence as incorrect, or as a mark of ignorance. Others assert that a language is determined by its usage and that strictly

applying such a principle of correctness would render English a highly irregular blend of Anglo-Saxon, Latin, French and every other language from which it had ever borrowed.

2-32- Conversion

A change in the function of a word, as, for example, when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction), is generally known as conversion. Often a word of one lexical category (part of speech) is converted from a word of another lexical category; for example, the noun *green* in golf (referring to a putting-green) is derived ultimately from the adjective *green*. Conversions from adjectives to nouns and vice versa are both very common in English; much more remarked upon is *verbing,* the creation of a verb by a converting a noun or other wordFor example:

butter   :   have you buttered the toast?

Conversion is the usual term for change of category (N, V, etc.) without overt formative. Older examples include the denominal verbs (to) belt, ransom, mirror, etc.

Conversion is accomplished in different ways in different frameworks, some with a zero affix, and others with movement into an empty category. This has led to confusion in the terminology, and different linguists subsume different things under the rubric of conversion. Simple category conversion, such as "past passive participle" to "adjective", is

sometimes called transposition and distinguished from conversion. By the narrow definition of conversion as transposition, it is impossible to account for the range of meanings or for the semantically impossible denominal verbs.

Conversion is used to mean movement into an empty category. Verbs so derived are called zero verbs by Tyler (1999). Zero verbs involve several distinct semantic relations (Konkol 1960; Karius 1985; Plag 1999; Tyler 1999; Lieber 2004), the core of which is exemplified as follow:

➢ ACTOR [be an actor; do what an actor does; perform X]:

Umpire (the game) 'perform the task of an umpire'

➢ GOAL [turn X into noun]: cripple "cause to become a cripple";

Coil (the rope) 'put the rope into a coil'

➢ INSTRUMENT [utilize X to affect object]: hammer 'hit with a hammer'

➢ LOCATION [put object in X]: bottle 'put in a bottle'

➢ LOCATUM [put X in/on object]: saddle 'put a saddle on (a horse)'

➢ PRIVATIVE [remove X from object]: skin 'deprive of skin'

Some derivatives allow more than one interpretation, e.g. stone 'throw stones at' and 'remove stones from (fruit)'; dust 'remove dust from' and 'cover with powder'; glue and cork can be instrument or locatum verbs. And so on. Most of these types have existed since Old English

(Kastovsky 2002), e.g. husian 'to house', piporian 'to pepper', beddian 'provide with a bed', heapian 'make into a heap'. The privative type was rare without an affix in Old English.

2-33- Acronyms

An acronym is a word which is devised from the written form of a lexical construction. A construction, by definition, consists of more than one morpheme; a written construction consists, usually, of more than one written word; an acronym is formed from the first letter or letters of each major word. There are two types of acronyms, the kind like USA, FBI, ICBM, in which one recites the first letter of each major word in the construction—or perhaps of each major morpheme, as in the case of Inter-continental Ballistic Missile-and the type like UNESCO, NATO, HUD, in which one "sounds out" the initial letters or a little bit more. Both kinds are based on writing but influenced by speech; they do not make contrastive use of capital and small letters (e. g. FBI vs. fbi) nor of punctuation marks (FBI vs. F.B.I, for instance), much less different kinds of type, since such visual contrasts do not translate into speech contrasts.

The letter-recitation type of acronym, as has been said, contains one letter for each major word in the construction, but there is no absolute determination of what a major word is, and there are a few instances of two letters occurring for a single word, like tb (alternatively, t. b., TB, or T. B.)

for tuberculosis, ID for identification, and TV for television. Such acronyms are pronounced with maximum stress on the last letter-name (VD, ROTC, YMCA). There are no constraints on what letters may co-occur, even repetitions of the same letter being permitted: AAUP, IWW, etc. The only constraint would seem to be in length, most such acronyms containing between two and five letters. (Six-letter acronyms like SPBQSA, the Society for the Preservation of Barbershop Quartet Singing in America, are facetious.) Repeated letters may be vocalized with the words double or triple: Triple-A for the American Automobile Association and other organizations, N-double-A-C-P for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, I-$^{\text{double}}$-O- I for the International Organization of Odd Fellows. The pronounced acronym is thus phonologically rather remote, in many instances, from what one would say in the long form. The fact that some acronyms are based on Latin (a. m., p. m., M.D., Ph. D.) contributes to the phonological distance between acronym and usual equivalent, as do the vagaries of English spelling (compare a. k. a. for also known as).

The letter-sounding type of acronym has to conform to the phonotactic norms of the language. So, for example, the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee, which could be just S-N-C-C in one type of acronym, becomes, in the other type of acronym [snIck] with the two C's reduced to one value, [k], and a vowel imported. One may ask

why this particular vowel, and where did it come from? When R-O-T-C, for the Reserve Officers Training Corps, is translated into the letter-sounding type of acronym, it may be realized as [rótesi] or [ratsi], which suggests that there is considerable freedom as to what vowel sound is added and whether or not a vowel sound is added. Little words like of and in, especially the former, may be used to feed in vowels when these are needed, or they may be ignored when no such need exists; the Congress of Racial Equality becomes not CRE but CORE, which is not only pronounceable but an existing word; The Department of Transportation is DOT; the Test of English as a Foreign Language becomes TOEFL [tofəl] because TEFL [tefəl] already means Teaching English as a Foreign Language, a contrasting but obviously related designation. Various portions of the source term may be included in the acronym; witness AMESLAN [aemeslaen] for American Sign Language; CREEP for the infamous Committee to Re-elect the President; such bureaucratic designations as the Navy's AdComSubLant for Administrative Command, Submarine Forces, Atlantic Fleet; such trade names as Panagra, Socony, and Texaco; and such geographical names as Delmarva and Texarkana. In many obvious cases the acronym does not just result from an established name; rather, the source term is chosen in order to lead to a particular acronym, not merely pronounceable but in some way significant. It is hard to imagine, for example, that the name Women Appointed for Volunteer

Emergency Service, originating in World War II, was chosen for any purpose other than to yield WAVES, or that the term Cooperative for American Remittances to Europe could have been selected except to lead to a more frequent appellation, CARE. In summary, acronyms of the type we have called letter-sounding must be pronounceable within the existing canons of pronounceability; being pronounceable they may coincide with existing words, and sometimes such a coincidence is favored for the semantic association. Acronyms are secondary designations, inasmuch as an acronym must be derived from a more primitive name or term, but the acronym may well out-perform and out-last its source.

2-34- Affixation

The first concept in studying affixation is affix. According to Haspelmath (2002), affix is a short morpheme with an abstract meaning. Next concept is root which is the core of a word. Root is that part of a word form which remains when all inflectional and derivational affixes have been removed. Root is the main part of word which can not be omitted and can not be analyzed any further into constituent morphemes. Another rather similar concept is the base. According to Bauer (1988), it is possible to call anything affixes are attached to, whether it is just a root or something bigger than a root, a base. As Haspelmath (2002) stated, in inflected word-forms, a base can be called stem. Yorkey (1970) states that the stem of a word is its basic form, the fundamental element which is

common to all other forms of the word. So in the formation of "dealings", the root is deal, but the base to which the –s is added is dealing. If an affix is attached before a base it is called a suffix, and if it is attached after a base, it is called suffix, and if it is attached in the middle of a base it is called infix. A prefix usually changes the meaning of a word while a suffix usually changes its parts of speech.

For example: prepacked

root: pack   prefix: pre   suffix: ed

Affixes are divided into two groups: Inflectional and Derivational affixes. There are some differences between these two kinds of affixes. Haspelmath (2002) stated these differences as follow:

➢ Inflection is related to the syntax, but derivation is not relevant to the syntax. It means that inflectional morphemes produce a new word form of a lexeme from a base; derivational morphemes produce a new lexeme from a base.

➢ Inflection is obligatory, but derivation is optional.

➢ Inflected word-forms cannot be replaced by simple words, but derived lexemes can be replaced by simple words. By this concept, he means that in a specialized syntactic construction, inflected words cannot be replaced by simple words when an inflectional category is tailored precisely to that construction (e.g. Brazil is bigger (not: big) than Argentina). But nominal plurals

can be replaced by singulars (when nothing agrees with them), and Verbal tense and Aspect categories can be replaced as well (e.g. The dogs (or: dog) walked home).

➢ Inflected word-forms express the same concept as the base, but derived lexemes express a new concept.

➢ Inflectional categories express a relatively abstract meaning, but derivational meanings are relatively concrete.

➢ Inflected word-forms are semantically regular, but derived lexemes can be semantically irregular.

➢ The meanings of inflectional categories are less relevant to the meaning of the base, but derivational meanings are very relevant to the meaning of the base.

➢ Inflectional categories can be applied to their base without arbitrary limitations, but derivational formations may be limited in arbitrary way.

➢ Inflection is expressed at the periphery of words, but derivation is expressed close the root.

➢ Inflection induces less base allomorphy, but derivation induces more base allomorphy.

➢ Inflectional categories may be expressed cumulatively, but derivational formations are not expressed cumulatively.

➢   Inflectional categories can not be iterated, but derivational formations can be iterated.

Besides investigating nature of affixes, they can be categorized and classified based on their position in the word. There are five types of affixes in this classification:

> Prefix

> Suffix

> Infix

> Superfix

> Interfix

> Circumfix

> Simulfix

As above mentioned, prefixes are those which occur before the base or stem and suffixes are put after the stem. They have some characteristics which explained before.

Other types of affixes are described as follow:

2-35- Infixes

An infix is an affix inserted inside another morpheme. For example, Arabic uses a common infix ت, -t-, usually for a reflexive form. It is placed after the first consonant of the root; an epenthetic –i- is added since words can not begin with a consonant cluster. An example is اجتهد (ijtihada) "he worked hard" from "جهد"(jahada) "he strove".

2-36- Superfixes:

It is a suprasegmental internal modification of a base, i.e change of tone or stress in a base, when this has same effect as adding an affix. The stress difference between pairs such as:

'abstract   abs' tract

2-37- Interfixes

It is an affix which occurs between two bases. The –o- that occurs in words like anthropology, biology and mythology may be an interfix in English.

2-38- Circumfixes

Circumfix is an affix, a morpheme which is placed around another morpheme. It contrasts with prefixes, attached to the beginning of words; suffixes that are attached

at the end; and infixes inserted in the middle.

The circumfix is probably most widely known from the German Past Participle (ge-, -t regular verbs) the verb spielen has the participle gespielt.

2-39- Simulfix

In linguistics, Simulfix is a type of affix that changes one or more existing phonemes in order to modify the meaning of a morpheme. Examples of Simulfix in English are generally considered irregularities, all

of which left over from pluralization rules that existed before the Great Vowel Shift. They include:

mouse   mice

man   men

tooth   teeth

louse   lice

2-40- Legal context and Translation

As a consequence of the still increasing transnational commercial and scholarly cooperation and exchange, more and more often legal information has to be translated. Sometimes the content of legal documents (contracts, statutory provisions, books and articles on legal topics and so on) has to be translated into another language. But even more frequently information on rules from one legal system has to be provided in the legal language of another legal system. In both cases the translator or the lawyer involved is confronted with difficulties of legal translation. In both cases bilingual legal dictionaries could play an important role in the translating process by providing translation suggestions and information on the linguistic context of terms in the target language.

De Groot (1999), Sandrini (1994) and Wiesmann (2004) state that the specific problems of the translation of legal terminology are caused by the system-specificity of the legal language. This system-specificity has as

a consequence that within a single language there is not only one legal language, as, for instance, there is a single chemical, economic or medical language within a certain language. A language has as many legal languages as there are systems using this language as a legal language.

As a consequence, it is of primary importance to establish that one legal language must be translated into another legal language. One should not translate from a legal language into the ordinary words of the target language, but into the legal terminology of the target language. If the target language is used in several legal systems as the language of the law, a conscious choice must be made for the terminology of one of the possible target legal languages. One target language legal system must be chosen, that is to say, a single legal system which uses the target language as its legal language. The choice of a particular target language legal system should depend on the potential users of the translation. Subsequently, the information contained in the terminology of the source language legal system must be represented by the terminology of the target language legal system.

According to Van Laer (1999), once one has opted, where necessary, for a particular target language legal system, he or she can get to work. The meaning in the source language legal system of the terms to be translated must be studied, after which a term with the same content must be sought

in the target language legal system. Translators of legal terminology are obliged to practice comparative law.

Gémar (1988), De Groot (1996) and Herbots (1987) focus on the fact that through comparative law, the translator of legal terminology needs to find an equivalent in the target language legal system for the term of the source language legal system. Because of the system-specificity of legal terms, logically, full equivalence only occurs where the source language and the target language relate to the same legal system. In principle, this is only the case when translating within a bilingual or multilingual legal system.

Where the source and target language relate to different legal systems, equivalence is rare. De Groot (1999) believes that apart from the diverse embedding of a term in a legal system as a whole, near full equivalence occurs if

> ➢ there is a partial unification of legal areas, relevant to the translation, of the legal systems related to the source language and the target language

> ➢ in the past, a concept of the one legal system has been adopted by the other and still functions in that system in the same way, not influenced by the remainder of that legal system.

If no acceptable equivalents in the target language legal system can be uncovered, subsidiary solutions must be sought. According to Sarcevic (1997) three subsidiary solutions may be distinguished.

2-41- Preserving the source term

There will be no translation and the source term or its transcribed version is used. If needed, the term may be explained by adding information in parentheses or in a footnote in the form of a literal translation or a remark.

Generally spoken, one should not too often preserve source language terms in the translation. The primary purpose of a translation is to make the source text more accessible to persons who do not master the language of the source text. This purpose is frequently neglected if certain terms are not translated.

If many untranslated source language terms are introduced into the target language, there is also the danger of making the translation into a collection of foreign-language words glued together by prepositions, adverbs and verbs from the target language. Furthermore, if the reader has no or little affinity with the morphology of the source language, he or she is faced with a combination of letters which is incomprehensible, hard to pronounce or retain. As a result of the above, it may be concluded that using an untranslated term from the source language in the target language

must be avoided in particular, where there is little or no morphological correspondence between the two languages. The purpose of every translation is after all the transfer of the information contained in the term and this does not happen if terms are left untranslated, unless the translator knows that the source language expression is somewhat transparent to the reader of the target text. Furthermore, expectations about transparency should not be set too high.

There are additional disadvantages which plead against preserving the source language term in the target language, if the source language has a different alphabet or employs characters based on pictograms. For the average reader of the target text, employing the original term in unfamiliar characters is devoid of meaning. In such a case, transcription will be necessary, although even the transcription, if not accompanied by an explanation, will not or hardly provide information to the readers of the target text.

A short step beyond "simple" transcription is what Sarcevic (1988) qualifies as "naturalization": the linguistic adaptation of a source language term to the rules of the target language. In such cases, Pasternak (1993) refers to "phonetic annexation of foreign language terms without loss of their meaning" in the target language. However, it is preferable to qualify such a linguistically adapted term as a neologism.

Earlier the possibility was mentioned of clarifying the original term by adding a "literal" translation in parentheses. By such a literal translation is meant: a translation of elements, focusing on the ordinary usage of the source and target language, which form the building blocks of the source language legal term to be translated. Some authors list such a "literal" of "word-for-word" translation as a separate alternative in the event of the absence of an equivalent concept. This is not very useful. Such a word-for-word translation may be sensible in making the untranslated source language term a little more accessible.

Independent of the original term, such a literal translation only makes sense, if it yields an equivalent, a paraphrase which is comprehensible to lawyers from the target language legal system, or forms a useful neologism.

2-42- Paraphrasing

A paraphrase is used to describe the source language term. If the paraphrase in the target language is a virtually perfect definition of the source language concept, such a paraphrase approximates an equivalent consisting of several words. Sarcevic (1988) qualifies this as a descriptive equivalent. The legal entity thus described does not exists as such in the target language legal system, but the combination of its elements makes the

term accessible to a lawyer trained in that system. Where the circumlocution is defective, this subsidiary solution resembles a neologism. The desirability and the usefulness of paraphrasing as a subsidiary solution are contingent on the length and complexity of the paraphrase, and the purpose of the translation.

2-43- Neologism

A term is used in the target language that does not form part of the terminology of the target language legal system, if necessary in combination with an explanatory footnote.

It must be emphasized, however, that the term "neologism" is used here in a very broad sense. In the context of legal translation, each term not belonging to the target language legal system has to be considered a neologism. Often the expression "neologism" is used in a more narrow sense meaning each term that does not exist in the target language. The broader definition of "neologism," however, is a logical result of the premise discussed earlier that legal information must not be translated from source language into target language but from the terminology of the source language legal system into the terminology of the target language legal system selected by the translator. From this it follows that all terms that do not belong to the target language legal system opted for must be qualified as neologisms.

C H A P T E R III

METHODOLOGY

3-1-Introduction

As it was mentioned earlier, the aim of the present study is to determine whether there is any relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal text translation from English into Persian and whether Iranian M.A students of English translation use morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of words in translating legal texts from English into Persian.

This chapter which consists of six parts describes what the researcher did to address the above question: subjects, design, instruments, procedures and the data collection. The subject selection entails the population from which the researcher selected the sample. The number of subjects selected from the population and how they were selected are also discussed. This is followed by a description of what data-gathering devices, i.e. what instruments were used and then a comprehensive description of the procedure of the treatment conducted in this study is presented. Subsequently, the design of the research is elaborated and, finally, the method of analyzing the data is discussed.

3-2-Subjects

Subjects of this study were M.A. students majoring in English translation chosen from Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran. One

group of the above mentioned subjects were randomly chosen which comprised a sample of 30 students.

3-3-Instruments

Instruments adopted for data collection in this study included: 1) A test measuring student's knowledge of morphology in multiple choice format with 40 items selected from "Word Power Made Easy" by Norman Lewis (1991). The subjects were to attempt it in 40 minutes without using any dictionary. 2) 4 paragraphs of legal text which translated from English into Persian cumulatively contained 30 underlined legal words which they should translate through guessing the meaning. The texts were selected from legal contracts and Tender Documents. In this test, too, subjects could not use dictionaries to get the meaning of underlined words. 3) A think aloud questionnaire through which subjects stated how they guess the meaning of words.

3-4-Procedures

In the first step, the researcher distributed the Morphology test among samples of M.A. students of English translation, and the allocated time for answering the first test was 40 minutes. In the second step, the researcher administered English legal texts to 30 subjects, this test also contained 4

legal paragraphs and the allocated time for answering the second one was 60 minutes. During this step, think aloud protocol questionnaire distributed among subjects through which they explained how they got the meaning of selected words.

3-5-Design

In this study, the researcher adopted a comparative model due to the research

purposes which included the computation of the relationship (correlation) between two variables of morphological knowledge of M.A. students of English Translation in translating legal texts as the independent variable and quality of their produced translation as the dependent variable. Also, the percentage of using morphological knowledge by subjects collected through think aloud questionnaire procedure.

3-6-Data Collection

At the first step, all raw scores obtained from morphology and translation tests and also percentage of using morphology knowledge to guess the meaning of underlined words were tabulated and appeared in four columns (Appendix I). For statistical procedures which included four scores for

each single subject, SPSS Package was used to illustrate descriptive and inferential statistics through graphic and numerical ways.

The obtained scores of subjects were analyzed in three steps. The first analysis was a t- test between two scores of translation measured by two professional legal translators.

The second analysis was conducted to investigate the correlation between morphology scores and translation scores. In this step all descriptive statistics including graphs were presented to explore and describe data.

The third analysis, finally, was carried out to describe the degree of using morphology knowledge to guess the meaning of words in a legal test.

Details of data analysis process and all steps to answer the research question and the null hypothesis, table of scores and all computations will appear in the fourth chapter.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4-

4-1-Introduction

As mentioned in the first chapter, the current research sought to find out the answers to the following questions:

- Is there any relationship between Morphological Knowledge and quality of legal texts translation from English into Persian?

- To what extent do Iranian MA students of translation make use of morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of words in translating legal texts from English into Persian?

According to these questions, the following null hypotheses were considered:

- There is no relationship between Morphological Knowledge and quality of legal texts translation from English into Persian.

- Iranian M.A students of English translation do not use morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words in translating legal texts from English into Persian.

In order o test the above hypotheses, the researcher conducted a series of calculations and statistical routines and came up with the results that are elaborated comprehensively in the following parts of this chapter.

4-2-Testing the Hypotheses

As it was mentioned, the main concern and focus of this study was to find out whether there is any relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal texts translation from English into Persian.

To test the null hypothesis, the required raw data for each subject was collected and encoded to be analyzed.

In order to analyze the data gathered from the tests, the well-known statistical software package SPSS-X was used. As mentioned before, subjects were selected from M.A. students of translation. For this reason and because all subjects passed the entrance exam, it was assumed that they were at the level of proficiency. At the first step, the morphology knowledge of subjects was tested by an original standard test from Word Power Made Easy by Norman Lewis (1991). The descriptive statistics of morphology score are as follow:

Table 4-1: Descriptive Statistics of Morphology Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
M. scores	30	21	38	31.53	3.665

Figure 4-1: frequency of morphology score:

Mean = 31.53
Std. Dev. = 3.665
N = 30
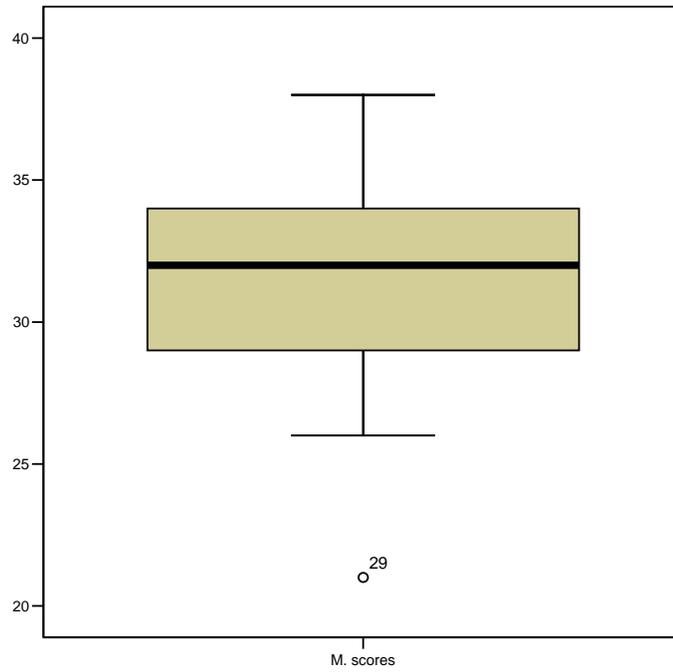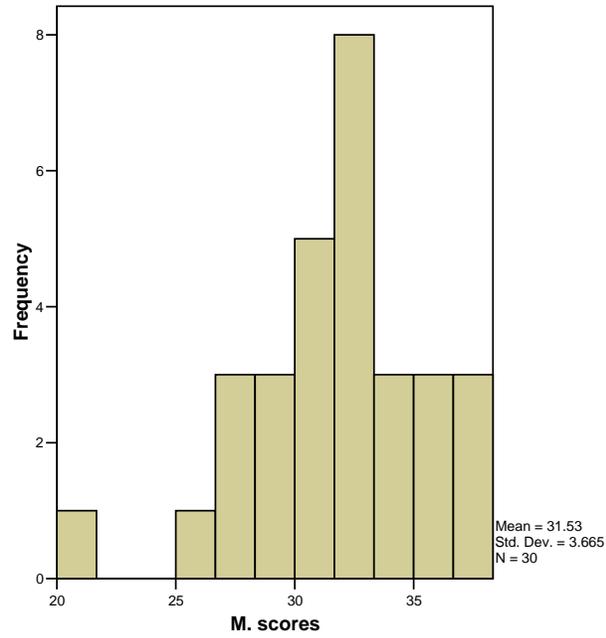
Figure 4-2: Box Plot of Morphology Scores

Subjects, then, received a legal text including four paragraphs

selected from legal and contractual documents. The text included thirty

underlined morphological-significant words. The translations of subjects

were rated and scored by two professional legal translators. A T-test was

run to compare the mean scores of two groups. Table 4.2 shows the

descriptive statistics of two translation scores of the sample.

Table 4-2: Descriptive Statistics of Translation Scores

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	translation Scores1	17.39	30	1.969	.360
	translation Scores2	17.49 2	30	1.930	.352

In the following graph the scatter plot of two translation score is presented.
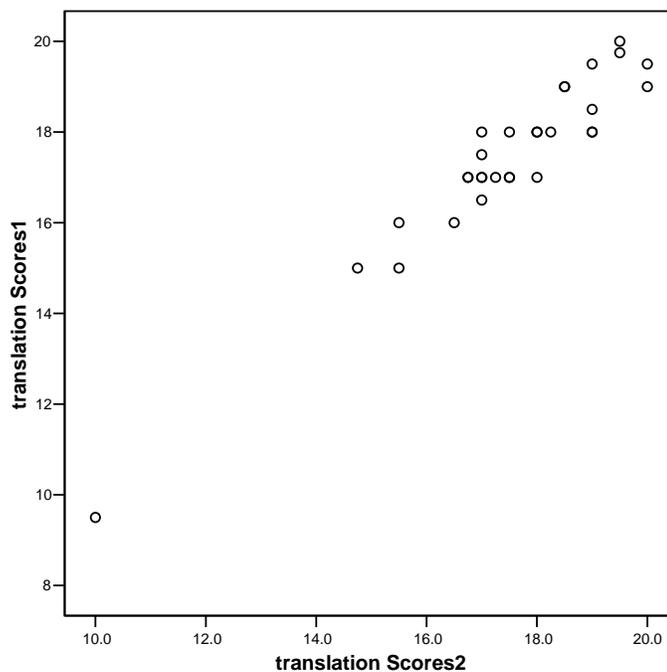
Figure 4-3: The Scatter Plot of Two Translation Scores

The presented scatter plot shows that two scores of translation are
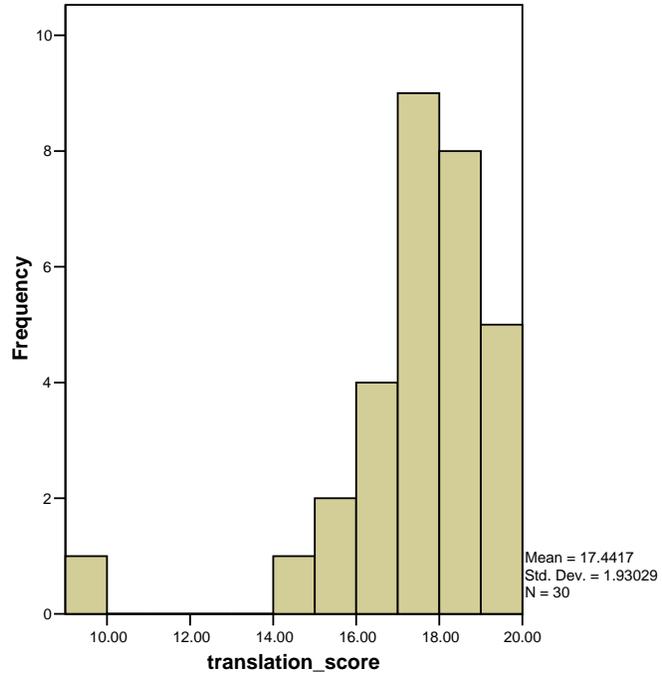
concordant to each other.

Figure 4-4: The Histogram of Frequency of Translation Scores
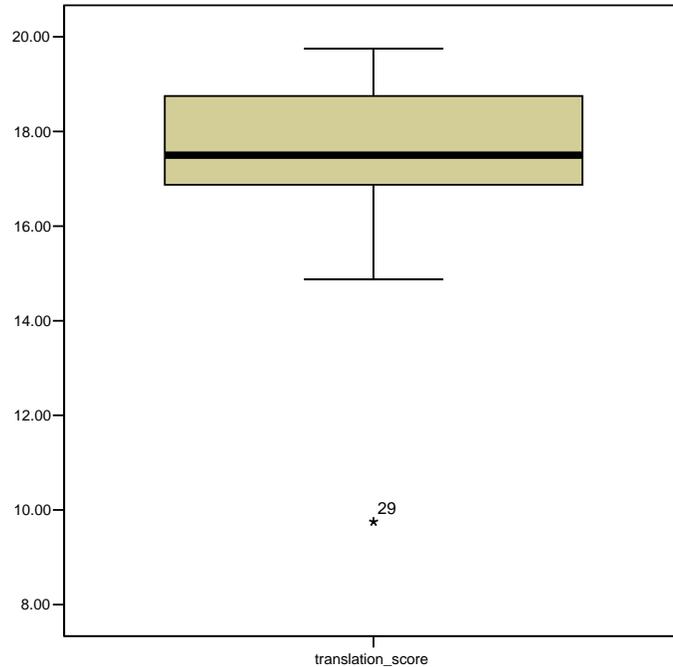
Figure 4-5: The Box Plot of Translation Scores

In the following table the correlation of two translation scores have been calculated which shows a reliable correlation and significance, because the correlation (0.960) is close to 1.

Table 4-3: Correlation of Two Translation Scores

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Translation Scores1 & Translation Scores2	30	.960	.000

After this step, two scores gathered by morphology knowledge and translation tests compared to each other to find out whether there is any relationship between these two variables. In Table 4-4, the correlational statistics is presented:

Table 4-4: Correlation of Translation Scores and Morphology Scores

		Translation Score	M. Scores
Translation Score	Pearson Correlation	1	.841(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	30	30
M. scores	Pearson Correlation	.841(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	30	30

Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

The above table shows that two scores (morphology and translation) are correlated; because the correlation coefficient is more than 0.8 and close to 1. Again, the significance and P=value are 0.001 and therefore the result is reliable.

Figure 4-6 depicts the scatter plot of translation scores and morphology scores. The R sp Linear (0.707) shows that it is possible to guess the score of translation using morphology scores.
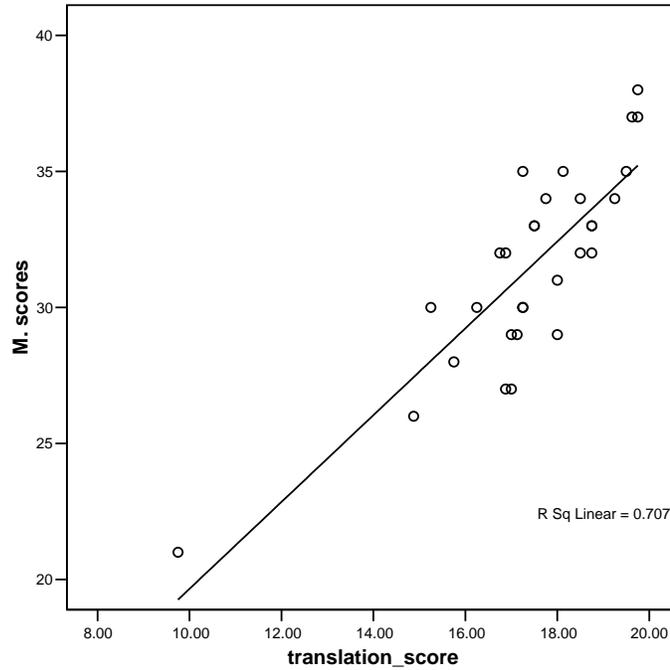
Figure 4-6: The Scatter Plot of Two Translation Scores and Morphology Scores

Based on these results, it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between two variables. Thus the first null hypothesis is rejected in that there *is no* relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal texts translation from English into Persian.

At the same time subjects were translating legal texts, they received a think aloud questionnaire to indicate whether they use their morphological rules to guess the meaning of underlined words without using dictionaries. The descriptive statistics represented in the following Table 4-5:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
M. scores	30	21	38	31.53	3.665
no guess	30	0	19	2.93	3.562
morphological rules	30	0	22	12.90	5.365
correct answers	30	11	30	27.07	3.562

Table 4-5: Descriptive statistics of guessing way

According to results of second part of the research, second null hypothesis is rejected too, in that Iranian M.A students of English translation *do* use morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words in translating legal texts from English into Persian (45.17%).

A more comprehensive discussion of the findings and pedagogical implications of this study are presented in the next and final chapter of this research.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND

IMPLICATIONS

5-

5-1-Restatement of the Problem

It is widely acknowledged that translating legal texts is a difficult profession for translators because of its complicated and significant discourse and characteristics.

Based on existing literature (as discussed in the second chapter of this study), morphology knowledge has a clear role in understanding the meaning of words in the first step of translation procedure, which is reading comprehension. In this regard, the researcher did this research to find the relationship between morphology knowledge and quality of translation.

5-2-Results and Discussions

As stated already, the main concern of the study was to find out whether there is any relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal texts translation from English into Persian and to what extent do Iranian MA students of translation make use of morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of words in translating legal texts from English into Persian. To test the null hypotheses: 1. "there is no relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal texts translation from English into Persian", and 2. "Iranian M.A students of English translation do not use morphological knowledge or contextual clues to guess the

meaning of unfamiliar words in translating legal texts from English into Persian", the required raw data for each subject was collected and encoded to be analyzed.

For the first hypothesis, a t-test was run to find out the correlation of morphology score and translation scores. The t-observed value was consequently greater than the critical value (Level of Significance for two-tailed test). Accordingly, it can be concluded that there was statistically significant correlation between morphology knowledge and quality of legal texts translation. Thus the first null hypothesis, that is, there *is no* relationship between morphological knowledge and quality of legal texts from English into Persian at the .01 level of significance.

For the second hypothesis, a think aloud questionnaire gathered necessary information to indicate to what extent Iranian MA students of translation make use of morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of words in translating legal texts from English into Persian.

According to the results of second part of the research, second null hypothesis is rejected in which Iranian M.A students of English translation (45.17%) *do* use morphological knowledge to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words in translating legal texts from English into Persian.

5-3-Pedagogical Implications

It is obvious that any descriptive research has been conducted to get a pedagogical goal and its value will be realized when their results and implications would come to the real world of teaching, testing and material development. In this regard, this research has some pedagogical implications which are as follows:

As it was mentioned in previous chapters there is a positive relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension. Also, it has been confirmed through several researches that reading comprehension has an important role in translation process. Supporting by previous chapters, it is claimed that morphological knowledge affects the ability of discovering words meaning through words structure. Based on findings of this research, morphology is also an appropriate tool for guessing the meaning of words.

Moreover, it was mentioned that legal texts have a different characteristics which make translation process a difficult job. In English Translation curriculum, only one course is devoted to legal texts translation and one course to terminology and morphology. On the one hand, the time devoted to these two courses is too limited and not enough, and on the other hand, their teaching plan is not sufficient to improve ability of translation students to translate legal texts.

In this regard the following pedagogical implications and suggestions are delivered to be included in classes of these two courses:

1)   It should be remembered that the goal of teaching and learning is using knowledge in the real world. Therefore, material using in legal translation course should be authentic and not just based on theory. Teacher as the leader of teaching-learning process should find appropriate materials to teach in the class. The degree of difficulty, the topic, current problems in translating legal texts and other necessary information about translating this kind of text should be considered by the teacher.

2)   The teacher a professional knowledge about translating legal texts. This kind of knowledge help teacher to make students familiar with real environment and objectives of this professional field of translation.

3)   The students who are learning translating legal texts must have background knowledge about several kinds of legal texts, legal discourse, legal terminology and know-how of encountering translation difficulties. To teach them, the teacher must provide suitable and practical framework for students about nature of legal texts.

4)   To teach legal terminology, the teacher must prepare information about internal and external relations of legal words. Internal relation means morphological knowledge about internal structure of words. According to findings of this research, morphology knowledge can help legal translators to guess the meaning of unknown words and also to

translate with a good and acceptable quality. One way is that the teacher presents some information about legal word-stems, prefixes and suffixes.

5) As it was mentioned, translating legal texts is a sensitive job. Because all discourse elements and discourse are meaningful in this kind of translation. To encounter this importance, students must be com across several authentic texts in which there are some sophisticate and deceptive conditions.

Finally it should be noted that "practice makes perfect" in translation of legal texts and the teacher should be capable of supervising all activities of students and solve their problems in translating of this kind of texts. On the other hand, students should be aware of objectives of legal texts and context and in this way, it would be possible to train professional legal translators.

5-4-Suggestions for Further Research

1. First and foremost, this study can be replicated to find out whether the same results would be obtained or not.

2. The same research can be run among Iranian professional legal translators.

3. The same research can be run among Iranian professional legal interpreters.

4. The impact of contextual clues as another way of guessing the meaning on translation quality of Iranian M.A. students of translation can be studied.

In short, the researcher hopes the results obtained from the present study would be useful for translators to facilitate translation process and improve quality of translation product. Also the researcher hopes that the result would be helpful to English translator-training courses in Iranian universities.

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APPENDIX I

THE RAW SCORES

subject	Morphology . scores	translation Scores1	translation Scores2	morphology usage
1	35	17	17.5	22
2	30	16	16.5	15
3	29	17	17	16
4	32	17	16.75	15
5	34	19.5	19	14
6	27	17	17	16
7	30	17.5	17	19
8	29	18	18	13
9	33	18.5	19	10
10	32	18	19	14
11	27	17	16.75	14
12	38	20	19.5	13
13	29	17	17.25	13
14	35	19	20	20
15	33	18	17	16
16	32	16.5	17	14
17	37	19.75	19.5	16
18	33	19	18.5	15
19	30	15	15.5	13
20	28	16	15.5	12
21	30	17	17.5	8
22	34	18	19	10
23	37	19.5	20	17
24	26	15	14.75	12
25	31	18	18	0
26	32	19	18.5	0
27	35	18	18.25	10
28	34	18	17.5	21
29	21	9.5	10	5
30	33	17	18	4

APPENDIX II

MORPHOLOGY KNOWLEDGE TEST

Following is a list of words containing some of the stems and affixes frequently used in English. Underline the best synonym. Note that using dictionary is not allowed. Tests should be answered in 40 minutes.

1. acclaim
   a. demand   b. applaud   c. surpass   d. elect

2. anomaly
   a. abnormality b. ignorance   c. accident   d. rarity

3. capitulate
   a. summarize   b. execute   c. withdraw   d. surrender

4. debility
   a. debit   b. instability   c. pain   d. weakness

5. engender
   a. maneuver   b. cause   c. fertilize   d. remember

6. expedient
   a. free   b. fatigued   c. advantageous d. rapid

7. malign
   a. disapprove   b. mistreat   c. slander   d. curse

8. reiterate
   a. stutter   b. repeat   c. rewrite   d. reassess

9. venerable
   a. antique   b. retired   c. respectable   d. inimitable

10. contiguous
    a. simultaneous b. infectious   c. accidental   d. adjacent

11. deference
    a. postponement b. obligation   c. respect   d. pride

12. embryonic
    a. hereditary   b. rudimentary c. functioning   d. developed

13. excision
    a. determination b. migration   c. deletion   d. example

14. Immure
    a. ripen   b. shut in   c. exempt   d. betray

15. Levity
    a. gentleness   b. forgetfulness c. flippancy   d. increase

16. pragmatic
    a. perplexity   b. experienced c. practical   d. ideal

17. recluse
    a. aged person b. woman-hater c. hermit   d. miser

18. diurnal
    a. everlasting b. news account c. solar   d. daily

19. gratuitous
    a. reproachful b. satisfactory c. uncalled for d. thankful

20. incongruous
    a. incompatible   b. poorly timed   c. unofficial   d. uneven

21. adjunct
    a. adaptation   b. addition   c. solemn oath   d. decree

22. concordat
    a. endorsement   b. agreement   c. liaison   d. document

23. ineffable
    a. speechless   b. unspeakable   c. feminine   d. rude

24. peruse
    a. read through   b. exhaust   c. condense   d. change

25. virulent
    a. overpowering   b. venomous   c. sudden   d. manly

26. Concomitant
    a. accompanying   b. half-asleep   c. unnecessary   d. reserved

27. effulgent
    a. emergency   b. bursting   c. radiant   d. sacred

28. expatriate
    a. go into exile   b. watch out   c. expand   d. pardon

29. pertinacious
    a. persistent   b. unabashed   c. related   d. bold

30. predatory
    a. anticipated   b. carnivorous   c. plundering   d. powerful

31. grandiloquent
    a. domineering   b. generous   c. pompous   d. genuine

32. minuscule
    a. terrifying   b. colorless   c. deficient   d. small

33. supervene
    a. precede   b. interfere   c. displace   d. ensue

34. annular
    a. ring-shaped   b. alimentary   c. arboreal   d. yearly

35. factitious
    a. historical   b. artificial   c. fictional   d. natural

36. intransigent
    a. uncompromising   b. traveling   c. sleepless   d. complex

37. demise
    a. false statement   b. stage set   c. message   d. death

38. iniquitous
    a. too curious   b. unequal   c. biased   d. wicked

39. amortization
    a. sudden death   b. small refund   c. long delay   d. liquidation

40. ablution
    a. innocence   b. difficult problem   c. washing   d. flight

Answer Sheet

NAME:
SURNAME:
COURSE:

1		11		21		31	
2		12		22		32	
3		13		23		33	
4		14		24		34	
5		15		25		35	
6		16		26		36	
7		17		27		37	
8		18		28		38	
9		19		29		39	
10		20		30		40	

APPENDIX III

TEST OF LEGAL TEXT TRANSLATION

Translate following legal texts without using dictionary. Try to guess the meaning of underlined words. Necessary time for this test is 60 minutes. Note that it is important for you to know how you guessed the meaning of underlined words.

1. <u>Without</u> <u>prejudice</u> to any other warranties and guarantees set forth in the contract, contractor shall make good and indemnify company against any defects and/or deficiencies in the plant and/or the work for an initial warranty period, in respect of each of the <u>offshore</u> <u>platforms</u>, each of the offshore <u>pipelines</u>, and each of the four trains of <u>onshore</u> plant, of eighteen months commencing from the effective date of the relevant <u>Provisional</u> Acceptance Certificate, as such initial Warranty Period shall be extended for any rework and/or time of <u>operational</u> <u>stoppages</u> to allow rework on such completed parts of the plant and/or the work as provided for under <u>sub-articles</u> 20.5.2 and 20.5.3.

1. --

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2. The above situation is radically different from that where the design is intended to be complete but is not, or there are omissions in the <u>documentation</u> and/or <u>contradictions</u> between contract documents. Such problems often result from <u>inadequate</u> or badly managed <u>precontract</u> phases where the preparation of design and contract documentation is compressed into too short a time frame. The pressures in precontract periods are <u>understandable</u>; the client almost <u>invariably</u> views the construction process as a means to his end and is anxious not to spend either more time or expense on it than he absolutely has to. The client wants his plant, factory, office etc. as soon as possible so that his end is achieved without delay and too much expense. There has to be an education process to ensure that any client, particularly one not regularly engaged in construction projects, understands that apparent savings in time and <u>expenditure</u> in the precontract phase can result in more substantial delays and expenditure in the construction phase. The client may still have reasons to pursue early <u>commencement</u> of his project but in such circumstances he should acknowledge that it is a commencement with incomplete information, and adapt accordingly.

2. --

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3. It should be recognized that the purpose of the provisions in most construction contracts for the completion date to be <u>postponed</u> for defined events or circumstances is <u>twofold</u>: firstly to protect the contractor against claims from the employer for damages due to <u>non-completion</u>, and secondly to <u>preserve</u> the employer's right to deduct damages for late completion <u>notwithstanding</u> the defined breaches of contract by the employer. Without the provisions for <u>postponement</u> of the completion date any breach by the employer, or his agents, of the contract provisions would enable the contractor to claim that he had been prevented from completing in accordance with the contract by the employer's breach and that his obligation was <u>thereafter</u> only to complete in a 'reasonable' time. The extensions of the completion date provisions serve to preserve the contract mechanism for determining the date of completion in the face of defined changes or breaches.

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4. A <u>cross-examination</u> of a witness is not always necessary or <u>advisable</u>. A witness tells the truth wholly or partially, or he tells a <u>falsehood</u>. If he tells the whole truth a cross-examination may have the effect of rendering his testimony more circumstantial and impressing the jury with a stronger opinion of its truth. If he tells only a part of the truth, and the part omitted is favorable to the client of the counsel cross-examining, he should direct the attention of the witness to the matters omitted. If the testimony of the witness be false the whole force of the cross-examination should be directed to his <u>credibility</u>. This is done by questioning him as to his means of knowledge, his <u>disinterestedness</u>, and other matters calculated to show a want of integrity or veracity if there is reason to believe the witness prejudiced, partial, or willfully dishonest.

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1)   Selected Words:

1. Offshore
2. Platforms
3. Provisional
4. Without
5. Prejudice
6. Pipeline
7. Onshore
8. Operational
9. Stoppage
10. Sub-article

2)   Selected Words:
1. documentation
2. contradictions
3. inadequate
4. precontract
5. understandable
6. invariably
7. expenditure
8. commencement

3)   Selected Words
1. postponed
2. twofold
3. non-completion
4. preserve
5. postponement
6. notwithstanding
7. thereafter

4)   Selected Words
1. cross-examination
2. advisable
3. falsehood
4. credibility
5. disinterestedness