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Principles and Methodology of Translation

Hossein Mollanazar

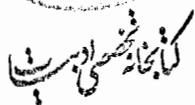


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Tehran
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In the Name of Allah
the Compassionate, the Merciful



بیشتر احتیاج به زبان - زبانهای خارجی - نبود، امروز احتیاج است به این، یعنی
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سخن «سمت»

یکی از اهداف مهم انقلاب فرهنگی، ایجاد دگرگونی اساسی در دروس علوم انسانی دانشگاهها بوده است و این امر، مستلزم بازنگری منابع درسی موجود و تدوین منابع مبنایی و علمی معتبر و مستند با در نظر گرفتن دیدگاه اسلامی در مبنای و مسائل این علوم است.

ستاد انقلاب فرهنگی در این زمینه گامهایی برداشته بود، اما اهمیت موضوع اقتضا می کرد که سازمانی مخصوص این کار تأسیس شود و شورای عالی انقلاب فرهنگی در تاریخ ۶۳/۱۲/۷ تأسیس «سازمان مطالعه و تدوین کتب علوم انسانی دانشگاهها» را که به اختصار «سمت» نامیده می شود، تصویب کرد.

بنابراین، هدف سازمان این است که با استمداد از عنایت خداوند و همت و همکاری دانشمندان و استادان متعهد و دلسوز، به مطالعات و تحقیقات لازم بپردازد و در هر کدام از رشته های علوم انسانی به تألیف و ترجمه منابع درسی اصلی، فرعی و جنبی اقدام کند.

دشواری چنین کاری بر دانشمندان و صاحب نظران پوشیده نیست و به همین جهت مرحله کمال مطلوب آن، باید بتدریج و پس از انتقادات و یادآوریهای پیاپی ارباب نظر به دست آید و انتظار دارد که این بزرگواران از این همکاری دریغ نوزند.

کتاب حاضر برای دانشجویان رشته های مترجمی، دبیری و ادبیات انگلیسی در مقطع کارشناسی به عنوان منبع اصلی درس «اصول و روش ترجمه» به ارزش ۲ واحد تدوین شده است. امید است علاوه بر جامعه دانشگاهی، سایر علاقه مندان نیز از آن بهره مند شوند.

از استادان و صاحب نظران ارجمند تقاضا می شود با همکاری، راهنمایی و پیشنهادهای اصلاحی خود، این سازمان را در جهت اصلاح کتاب حاضر و تدوین دیگر آثار مورد نیاز جامعه دانشگاهی جمهوری اسلامی ایران یاری دهند.

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Preface

There are many books written in English and Persian on translation theory and practice. Then what is the use of this book?

First, there has been a need for an English-Persian textbook used for the course 'Principles and Methodology of Translation'.

Second, the latest findings in linguistics (semantics, discourse analysis, etc.) and translation studies were intended to be used in a concise volume along with examples in Persian and English to connect theory to practice.

The textbooks written on translation, whether English or Persian ones, lacked in one or the other(s) of the following features:

- a) connecting linguistic findings to the practice of translation;
- b) containing examples of the English-Persian and Persian-English translation;
- c) providing exercises for the English-Persian and Persian-English translation; and
- d) being of an appropriate size for a 2-credit course designed for undergraduate students whose major course is 'English Language and Literature', 'Teaching English' or 'English Translation'.

This textbook includes the most significant and general issues and problems in translation. It contains four major chapters:

- a) Lexical meaning: Saying things directly,
- b) Implicit meaning: Saying things indirectly,
- c) Figurative meaning: Saying something, meaning another, and
- d) Structure: How to say things.

In each chapter there are some related sections in which some linguistic concept is introduced; then its application in translation is illustrated; finally some exercises are provided. This textbook focuses on the process of translation and deals with some common problems in the practice of translation. Any comments to improve this textbook will be welcomed warmly by the author.

Special acknowledgment must be made of Dr. Seyed-Ali Miremadi, associate professor of linguistics at Allame Tabataba'i University, who helped editing the book and providing insights into linguistic concepts.

I also extend thanks to Dr. Lotfollah Yarmohammadi, professor of linguistics at Shiraz University, whose good counsel and encouragement led to the compilation of the book. I am also indebted to SAMT Editing Office for technical editing of the book.

Hussein Mollanazar

Member of the Academic Staff at
Allame Tabataba'i University

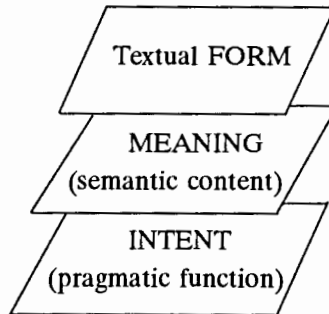
Introduction

Linguistics and Translation. Recent findings in linguistics have given a new impetus to translation studies and helped the theory and practice of translation a lot. Semantics, pragmatics, and discourse analysis have provided many implications for translation.

Language as Communication. Studies on the nature and function of the human language have shown that the function of language is primarily 'communication of message' to the receptors.

Discourse vs Text. Discourse encompasses all the elements relevant in communication: text as well as context. A text is the explicit realization of the discourse. But the author/speaker intends the reader/hearer to use certain contextual assumptions, such as relevant elements of situation or some shared background knowledge to interpret the whole message.

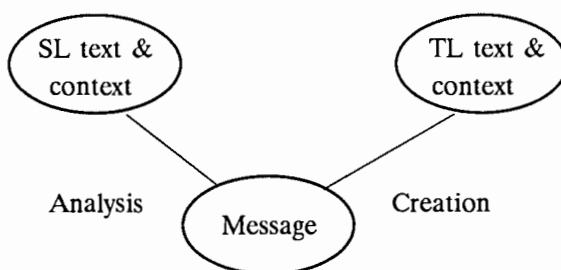
Different Layers of Discourse. The text and context interact to produce certain discourse. The discourse may proceed in three major layers as follow:



Form includes the phonological, lexical, and grammatical structures as well as the stylistic specialties. Form is language-specific. **Meaning** refers to the concept and feelings which the author intends the reader to understand and perceive. Meaning is universal. **Intent** is the message or communicative intention intended by the communicator (speaker/author).

Process of Translation. The first stage of translation process is the analysis and interpretation of the SL (source language) discourse (the text and the

relevant context) in order to find out all its different levels of form, meaning, and intent. The second stage is the creation of a new text which conveys the same message in the target language to the receptors.



Equivalence and the Best Method of Translation. Equivalence means approximation to the original version. Producing a TL (target language) identical version is impossible. There are three types of equivalence: a. formal, b. dynamic/semantic, and c. functional/communicative. The equivalence in all the three levels is the ideal one. However, it is not possible in practice. Therefore, the translator should first try to reach the communicative equivalence, then try to transfer and redistribute the sum total of the explicit and implicit information of the original in a natural and clear TL expression.

At last, if possible, the beauty and excellence of the form or the stylistic specialties are recreated.

Features of a Good Translation. A good translation is one which conveys the same message accurately, naturally, and clearly. Therefore, the features of a good translation are listed below according to the respective priority: a. accuracy, b. naturalness, c. clarity, and d. formal correspondence.

‘Formal correspondence’, that is, preserving the stylistic specialties should be observed whenever possible, or when it does not affect other features negatively. However, translation is basically a change of form: lexically, grammatically, and phonologically/orthographically. In other words, the form is usually sacrificed for accuracy, naturalness, and clarity.

One feature of the formal correspondence is the preservation of the ‘real concordance’, the intentional repetition of a word/phrase for the stylistic or thematic purposes in the same meaning, in the target language whenever possible.

Unit of Translation. The unit of translation is the chunk of language the translator chooses to translate at a time for ease of handling and recalling. The unit may fluctuate from a concept, to an utterance or to the whole discourse.

Chapter I

Lexical Meaning: Saying Things Directly

I.1. Denotation: Referential Meaning

Once when people saw the real object, of which you can see a picture here, they called it 'reed' in English and 'ری' in Persian:

reed



ری

The word 'reed' is a sign which denotes or refers to the real object, 'the referent', and the relationship between the two is called 'reference', or 'denotation'. Then people learned to make a musical instrument from the stalks of this plant; they called this instrument 'reed' in English and 'ری' in Persian again. So they used the same sign or word to call something else.

First we had a primary reference or sense, then other secondary references or senses developed with the development of, or acquaintance with, new things. Again people recently developed a new thing, a thin tube for sucking up liquids; and they needed to use a word to call it. In Persian, people regarded it 'ری' but in English people called it 'straw'.

straw



ری

'Reference' may apply to the relationship between the linguistic expression and things as well as events and attributes.

Types of Linguistic Forms/Words

Due to the development of language and different senses, three types of linguistic forms or words may be found in a dictionary: 1) monosemy, 2) homonymy, and 3) polysemy.

Monosemy*. There are some words in a language which have only one

referent, and one meaning or sense; such as:



Their meanings or senses have not expanded to cover further referents.

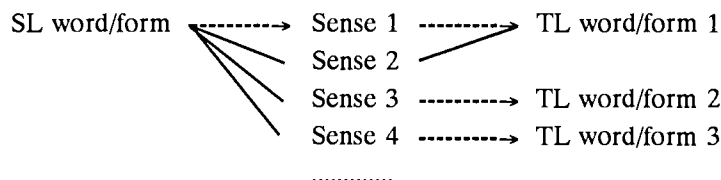
There are a few words having only one sense; however many foreign language learners and inexperienced translators think that most of the words they know have only one sense. This is because they know only one sense of a word, not more. Here lies the source of some errors in translation.

Homonymy. In the process of language development, some different words happened to have the same pronunciation (homophones) or the same spelling (homographs), or both the same pronunciation and spelling (homonyms) but different meanings; they are not semantically related.

Polysemy. As illustrated above, 'reed' and 'نی' have gained different senses:

SLW (Source language word)	Sense	TLW (Target language word)
reed	a kind of grass with tall stalks	نی
reed	a musical instrument	نی
straw	a thin tube for sucking up liquids	نی

In two of the senses, they are equivalent, but in the third sense, they are not. Therefore, an SL word or form may have various senses and each sense may be referred to by a different TL word or form:



The senses which a word has in the SL often do not match all the senses of the equivalent word in the TL.

Primary Sense vs Secondary Senses

Different senses of a word are divided into a primary sense and secondary senses. The primary sense of a word is the one:

1. used most commonly in a language;
2. usually learned before other senses;
3. recalled by native speakers when heard in isolation, out of context; and

4. which occurs as the first meaning for an entry in a dictionary.

The other senses are referred to as secondary senses. There is some similarity (overlap) of meaning between the various senses of a word. Secondary senses are derived from the primary sense. Polysemic words constitute the majority of words in a language. Taking a primary sense for a secondary sense is a source of error in translation.

SL	TL
standing room	اتاق برای ایستادن
a storm of laughter	طوفانی از خنده

How can one know which sense of a word is intended? One can know through:

1. nonlinguistic context,
2. grammatical context: part of speech, and
3. lexical context: other words used in the context.

Areas of Reference

Words carry different areas of reference in different languages. The reference of words across languages may be classified as follow:

1. Unrelated Words

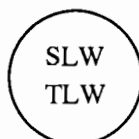


Due to slips of vision or mind, translators may take a word for another one with a similar spelling, thus providing a completely wrong equivalent.

Examples:

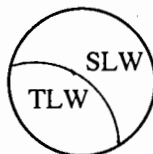
<u>Taking</u>	<u>For</u>	<u>Translated as</u>
ready	already	آمادگی داشتن
plan	planet	طرح
fight	flight	جنگ
pollution	population	آلودگی
extension	tension	انبساط

2. One-to-One Match



An SLW and its TL equivalent have exactly the same area of reference, for example: melon (خربزه). Such words pose no problem for translators, but there are very few of them across languages.

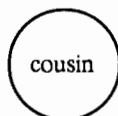
3. Inclusion



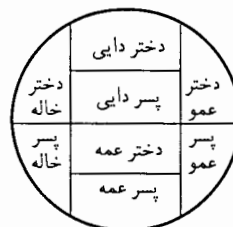
The area of SLW reference is much wider than that of the TLW, and the former includes the latter.

Examples:

English



Persian



The SLW is more general and the TLW is more specific. When translating from Persian into English, the more general word, e.g., 'cousin' should be used as the equivalent of one of the words noted in the area. And when translating from English into Persian, by the help of the context a more specific word like 'پسر عمو' should be chosen.

Examples:

1. Your father is my **uncle**. My mother was his half-sister, and older than he.

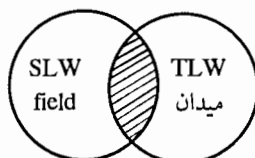
پدر شما دایی من است. مادر من خواهر ناتنی پدر شما و از او بزرگتر بود.

2. The woman was Ali's own **niece**, the child of his own father's daughter.

آن زن خواهرزاده علی بود، نوه دختری پدر علی.

4. Overlap

There is some similarity between the meanings of the SLW and TLW:



In a certain context, the TLW can be considered an equivalent for the SLW. This was discussed under 'polysemy', and this type of relationship between words across languages comes true regarding most words and their areas of reference in different languages.

Exercises

A) Add examples from Persian and English in the following table.

	Sound alike	Written alike	Examples
a. Homophones			reed, read خوان، خان
b. Homographs			lead / led /, lead / lɪd / دیر، یر
c. Homonyms			lie (lie down), lie (tell a lie) شیر (شیر درنده)، شیر (شیر خوردنی)، شیر (شیر آب)

B) Look up the above examples in a dictionary. Are the meanings of these words given under one entry (an item in a dictionary for which meanings are provided)?

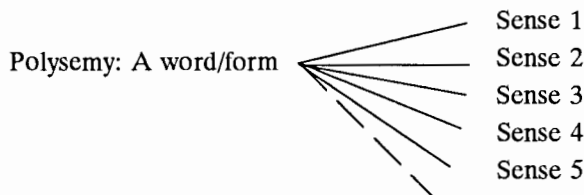
C) Translate the following sentences into English.

۱. پسرک روی زمین نشست.
۲. او بر صندلی ریاست نشست.
۳. گرد و غبار زیادی بر ظروف نشسته بود.
۴. حرفهایش بر دلم نشست.
۵. مهرش بر دلم نشست.
۶. هواپیما بر زمین نشست.
۷. پرنده بر شاخه درخت نشست.
۸. دیوار یک هفته پس از ساختن نشست کرد.
۹. با ایشان نشست و برخاست نداشته‌ام.
۱۰. فردا نشستی با حضور رئیس دانشکده خواهیم داشت.

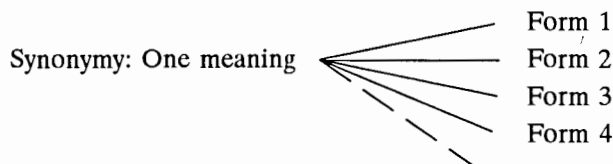
I.2. Collocation: Collocative Meaning

Synonymy vs Polysemy

In the previous section, it was explained that a word/form usually has various senses:



and that the context determines which sense is used. This is one side of the coin of translation; however, there is another side; synonymy:



Different words/forms may have the same referential meaning. A problem arises here: How should the translator choose from among these words/forms a proper equivalent for the SL word/form? These forms (i.e., words, phrases, or clauses) though referentially or denotatively the same, may be:

1. stylistically different—different in their stylistic meaning; like 'خوب' and 'مادان' and 'مادر' and 'نیکو'.
2. connotatively different—different in their connotation; like 'دوست' and 'رفیق'.
3. dialectically different—different in their dialect; like 'fall' and 'autumn'.
4. hyponyms—the relationship between two words may be that of inclusion; for example, in Persian the word 'ماشین' includes the meaning of 'اتومبیل'; therefore it can substitute for the latter, but the latter cannot substitute for the former everywhere.
5. collocationally different—different in their collocation; like 'پیر' and 'کهنسال'.

If words have the same meaning and they are not different in the above-mentioned aspects, then they are absolutely synonymous. In this case, the translator is free to choose any of the synonymous words.

Connotation and stylistic meaning will be dealt with in Section Four of this Chapter. Collocation will be studied here.

Collocation

A word may occur with certain other words; words occurring together are called 'collocates'. The meanings of words are determined by the context in which they are used; that is, the meanings of words are restricted by other words coming with them, their collocates.

1. Collocational Range

The range of the collocates for each word-though it may change-is limited. The ranges of collocates for a word in the SL and its equivalent in the TL overlap.

Notice the ranges of the collocates for 'میدان' in Persian and 'field' in English.

۹. میدان تره بار/میوه	۱. میدان مغناطیسی (magnetic field)
۱۰. میدان شهر	۲. میدان جنگ (battle field)
۱۱. میدان بزرگ	۳. مسابقات میدانی (field events)
۱۲. میدان سیاست	۴. ورزشهای میدانی (field sports)
۱۳. میدان بازی	۵. میدان دید (field of vision)
۱۴. میدان تاخت و تاز	۶. میدان نیرو (field of force)
۱۵. میدان تیر	۷. میدان جاذبه زمین
	۸. میدان اسب دوانی

16. oil field	26. field grade
17. the field of study/politics/science/...	27. field marshal
18. a baseball/cricket/football field	28. field officer
19. field-work	29. field pea
20. field artillery	30. field of honor
21. field-piece	31. field of wheat
22. field hospital	32. an ice-field
23. field of a telescope	33. a landing field
24. field-glasses	34. gold-field
25. field house	35. coal-field

We may conclude from the above-mentioned examples that though in some cases 'میدان' can be considered a proper equivalent for 'field', in other cases, we should use other words, e.g. 'market-place' and 'square' to translate 'میدان' and words like 'زمین', 'صحرا', 'دشت', 'صحرائی', 'منطقه', 'صحنه', and 'شاخه' to

translate 'field'. The choice of these equivalents should be made with regard to the collocates. Find the equivalents for the above phrases which are not provided.

2. Violation of Collocational Range

Inexperienced translators who resort to word-for-word translation, usually do not pay attention to the context, the collocates, or to the natural and acceptable collocations in the TL; therefore, the range of acceptable collocates is violated in the TL. Thus strange and unintelligible combinations of words are introduced into the TL.

3. Examples of Unacceptable Collocations

Notice the following examples which have been taken from some published works. As you see, some of the examples are strange and unnatural combinations of words and some are unintelligible.

SL	TL
the midnight streets	خیابانهای نیمه شب (سالک، ص ۱۰۹)
an arm of wild heat	یک بغل حرارت وحشیانه (پیمان، ص ۴۸)
a storm of laughter	طوفانی از خنده (آزاد، ص ۱۹۸ و رفیعی، ص ۲۸۴)
the looped fantasy of the forest creepers	منظره وهم ناپذیر خزندگان جنگل (پیمان، ص ۲۷)
thousands of people	هزارها مردم (دانشور، ص ۲۹)
the green rolling hills	تپه‌های غلتان سرسبز (دانشور، ص ۲۳۳)
The ululation swept across the island.	آوای ل ل ل ل تمام جزیره را جاروب می‌کرد. (پیمان، ص ۲۵۲)
The flies exploded.	مگسها منفجر شدند. (پیمان، ص ۱۸۸)
The broad-gauge runs to the valley.	ریلهای پهن به طرف درّه می‌دوند. (دانشور، ص ۲۶)
A shadow fronted him tempestuously.	در مقابلش سایه‌ای به جوش و خروش افتاد. (شاهین، ص ۱۴۹)

The above examples are classified into three most common unacceptable collocation types: a) Adjective + Noun, b) Noun + (of) Noun, and c) Subject + Verb. However, there are some other less frequent types.

Exercises

A) Why are the following phrases or sentences strange or unintelligible? Determine the types of the unacceptable collocations in the following Persian translations.

1. Msimangu suddenly burst out.

- انفجار ناگهانی (کشیش) مسیمانگو (سالک، ص ۶۹)
2. the heavy oppressive heat گرمای سنگین ستمگر (سالک، ص ۳۲۹)
3. He dashed away ... till he was hung up among creepers. آنقدر دوید که میان گیاهان خرنده آویزان شد. (پیمان، ص ۲۵۳)
4. Mr. Kumalo, I am glad to greet you. آقای کومالو از اینکه به شما سلام می‌کنم خوشحالم. (حافظی‌پور، ص ۳۹)
5. The lightning flashed over the hills. رعدوبرق تپه‌ها را روشن می‌ساخت. (حافظی‌پور، ص ۴۵۱)
6. We'd just made the fire up. آتش را تازه چیده بودیمش. (پیمان، ص ۱۲۶)
7. The next morning Harrison waited for his guest at the foot of the stairs. صبح بعد هاریسون در پای پله‌ها منتظر مهمانش بود. (سالک، ص ۲۰۵)
8. The flies exploded with a note. مگسها با فریاد پراکنده شدند. (پیمان، ص ۱۸۸)
9. the fire-sticks چوبدستیهای آتش‌زا (حافظی‌پور، ص ۳۲)
10. the dusk of the forest گرگ و میش جنگل (آزاد، ص ۱۹۴)
11. I have had the experience of meeting a young woman here in Johannesburg. اخیراً ملاقات زن جوانی در ژوهانسبورگ دست داد. (دانشور، ص ۱۹)

B) Translate the following phrases and sentences into Persian.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. one's waking life | 10. Now out of the terror rose another desire, thick, urgent, blind. |
| 2. the grim high wall | |
| 3. a thick desire | |
| 4. the fierce sunlight | 11. The maize hardly grows to the height of a man. |
| 5. a good son of the church | |
| 6. He started to climb heavily. | 12. A wild thought came to Kumalo in his wild and cruel mood. |
| 7. The sun was bright and danger had faded with the darkness. | 13. He suddenly burst out. |
| 8. We were working in the trees. | 14. After all he was a parson. |
| 9. He breathed fiercely. | 15. The small toy train climbs up on its narrow gauge from the Umzikulu valley into the hills. |

C) Fill in each blank with an appropriate word or phrase.

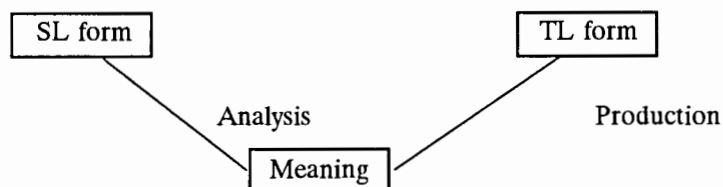
- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The air is thickened . | هوا است. |
| 2. the blessed vernal season | فصل بهار |
| 3. Her lips were too full . | لبهایش بود. |
| 4. into the hollow of a wave | در موجی بلند |
| 5. She wore a straw bonnet with white ribbons; and a long red Indian scarf. | |
| | کلاه لبه‌داری که روبان سفید داشت و شال هندی بلند قرمزی |
| 6. Mr. Wentworth's manner was pregnant , on the contrary, with a sense of | |

- برعکس، رفتار آقای ونتورث از احساس مسئولیت خطیر بود. grand responsibility.
7. "I shall keep them in the other house," Mr. Wentworth subjoined **more** pregnantly. آقای ونتورث گفت: «در آن عمارت نگاهشان می‌دارم.»
8. Then you believe in us? پس را باور می‌کنید؟
9. a **bad** headache سردرد
10. Charlotte's imagination **took no** journeys whatever. . تخیل شارلوت هیچ‌گاه
11. She had a nose. بینی پهنی داشت.
12. a of miserable people مستی آدم بدبخت
13. I want you to me a promise. می‌خواهم به من قولی بدهی.
14. a, fair man مردی بلند قامت و موبور
15. His eyes were too چشمهایش خیلی ریز بود.
16. His hair is موهایش پریشان است.
17. It seemed to him that the sky had begun to به نظرش رسید که آسمان دارد باز می‌شود.
18. It my eyes. چشمم را می‌زند.
19. local حال و هوای محلی
20. You had better it. بهتر است که پیش تو باشد.

I.3. Change of Form: Lexical Adjustment

As it was mentioned in the previous section, translation has two sides; that is, there are two processes involved in translation:

- analysis of the SL form in order to find out the meaning,
- production, or choice of proper TL form for this meaning:



"Translation is basically a change of form. In translation, the form of the SL is replaced by the form of the TL. It is meaning which is being transferred and must be held constant. Only the form changes. Since each language has its own distinctive form and pattern, the same meaning may be expressed in another language in quite a different grammatical or lexical form." (Larson, 1984, p. 3)

In this section, two important aspects of change of form (regarding content words) are introduced:

- 1) redistribution of semantic components, and
- 2) change in parts of speech.

Redistribution of Semantic Components

A content word (or phrase) is a container—a container of meaning components. The process of grouping concepts and information in one term is called ‘lexicalization’.

Examples:

hold—have in the grasp
 sleet—snow/hail mixed with rain
 parasol—a lightweight umbrella used as a sunshade especially by women
 fetch—go or come after and bring or take back

This quality of words is language-specific; that is, the information contained or encapsulated in a single SLW is not necessarily lexicalized in a single TLW. The same information may be distributed over a phrase or a clause. There are two processes in the redistribution of semantic features:

1. Analytical Process

The components expand over a number of different words; that is, an SLW is rendered into a phrase or a clause as its TL equivalent; e.g.,

<u>Single SLW</u>	<u>TL phrase/clause</u>
sleet	برف و باران
hold	در دست نگه داشتن
vehicle	وسیله نقلیه
grate	بخاری دیواری
gaze	نگاه خیره
(He) exclaimed	با صدای بلند گفت
مکلف	for whom the religious principles are applicable
مسکین نواز	one who cares for wretches

2. Synthetic Process

Several components are grouped and compressed into a word; that is, an SL phrase/clause is rendered into a single TLW.

Examples:

<u>SL phrase/clause</u>	<u>Single TLW</u>
the violet blue sky	آسمان نیلگون
a walking stick	عصا

SL phrase/clause

steering wheel

رئیس جمهور

Single TLW

فرمان

president

It is natural in Persian to use doublets—two words joined with ‘و’ (meaning ‘and’)—with exactly the same meaning: The first of which is sometimes an Arabic loan word, and the second one, its Persian equivalent. Such doublets should not be imitated in English. A single word may cover the meaning and provide a proper equivalent.

Examples:

Persian

تلاش و کوشش

ظلم و ستم

عدل و داد

English

attempt

oppression

justice

Change in Parts of Speech

Languages have the same types of containers or grammatical forms, i.e., words, like ‘verb’, ‘noun’, ‘adjective’, ‘adverb’, etc., but they may put the same content, or meaning, in different containers. In one language, a ‘verb’ may carry some meaning, but in another language, the same meaning may be carried by a ‘noun’. Thus it is natural that parts of speech—noun, verb, adjective, adverb, etc.—may change in translation from the SL into the TL. Below, some examples of change in content words are given.

1. Verb

A) Change of an SL verb into a TL adverb/adjective; examples:

1. The church-bell **stopped** ringing. زنگ کلیسا دیگر صدا نمی کرد.
2. Felix himself **continued** to be in high good humor. فلیکس همچنان سرحال بود.
3. They **appeared** to be waiting for something. ظاهراً منتظر چیزی بودند.
4. They **seemed** to give a point to her Oriental or exotic aspect. این گوشواره‌ها ظاهراً بر حالت شرقی یا غریبی می افزود.
5. The last night's fortunate rainfall **freshened** the air. این هوای تمیز از موهبت بارندگی دیشب است.

B) Change of an SL verb into a TL noun (+ verb); examples:

1. The way the sky **touches** the house-tops is just like Cairo. نزدیکی آسمان به سقف خانه‌ها درست مثل قاهره است.
2. We **imagine** them to be both brilliant and tranquil.

به نظر ما همیشه باید آنها باهوش و آرام باشند.

3. These pilasters appeared to **support** a kind of classic pediment.

این ستونها ظاهراً پایه‌های نوعی سردر یونانی بود.

2. Adverb/Adjective

A) Change of an SL adverb/adjective into a TL verb; examples:

1. by a couple of **remarkably** small horses

توسط دو اسب که کوچکی جثه‌شان جلب توجه می‌کرد

2. a high, clean, rather **empty-looking** room

اتاقی تمیز با سقفی بلند که تقریباً خالی به نظر می‌رسید

B) Change of an SL adverb/adjective into a TL noun; examples:

1. But it was **probable** from moment to moment that one would be jostled.

اما هر لحظه این احتمال وجود داشت که به آدم تنه بزنند.

2. That was **the least** he could do.

این کمترین کاری بود که می‌توانست بکند.

3. the **Iraqi** army

ارتش عراق

4. **Southern** Iran

جنوب ایران

5. **vertebral** column

ستون مهره‌ها

3. Noun

A) Change of an SL noun into a TL verb/infinitive; example:

It was impossible **to go forward**.

پیشروی غیرممکن بود.

B) Change of an SL noun into a TL adjective/adverb; examples:

1. **stone** house

خانه سنگی

2. **South** Korea

کره جنوبی

The soldiers were **well-equipped**.

۳. سربازان عالی‌ترین تجهیزات را داشتند.

Change in Form

There are still other processes involved in 'change of form' rather than 'redistribution of semantic components' and 'change in parts of speech'; some examples are provided:

1. Positive $\xrightarrow{\text{to}}$ Negative + Antonym

Or

Negative $\xrightarrow{\text{to}}$ Positive + Antonym

No depressing influence is **absent** from the scene.

همهٔ اسباب ملال فراهم است.

2. Singular $\xrightarrow{\text{to}}$ Plural

Or

Plural $\xrightarrow{\text{to}}$ Singular

information

اطلاعات

trousers

شلوار

3. Reversal of Terms (Reciprocity)-buy/sell; borrow/lend

I am very much obliged to you.

خیلی لطف دارید.

When the moldy tombstones and funeral umbrage have received the ineffectual refreshment of a dull, moist snowfall.

و آنگاه که برفی تر و سنگین به سنگ قبرهای فرسوده و سایانهای غمبار طراوتی بی‌رمق بخشیده باشد.

Meaning has priority over form. Sometimes translators try to transfer a message without changing the form. The result is often a translation which is unintelligible, or unnatural and strange.

Different aspects of change of form are discussed under the topics: shift, transposition, and modulation, in books written on translation.

Examples of modulation (of the type 'reversal of terms'):

1. Would you like to go to the movies with me? آیا با من به سینما می‌آیی؟

2. I took mathematics final exam yesterday. دیروز امتحان نهایی ریاضی دادم.

Exercises

A) Provide equivalents for these words.

parasol:

fetch:

cigar:

قوری:

لبو:

B) Translate the following expressions into English.

۶. تسلیم و مطیع

۱. اختناق و خفقان

۷. مال و ثروت

۲. نیست و نابود

۸. تحصیل کرده و باسواد

۳. دلهره و اضطراب

۹. حرص و آرز

۴. سیر و سفر

۵. ماندنی و ابدی

C) Translate the following sentences into Persian.

1. He seems to be a nice man.
2. He happened to be my cousin.
3. He seems to me a good man.
4. Do you mean Mr. Brand?
5. They found out for me where he lived.

I.4. Associative Meaning

Referential meaning is the 'core' or central meaning of a word or phrase, which conveys factual information. But words/phrases may also have different usages and may arouse different emotional response in the hearer. Different kinds of additional or associated meaning were introduced under the topic 'synonymy' in Section Two, and one of them, collocative meaning, was discussed in the same section. Here, two kinds of associative meaning are surveyed.

Connotative Meaning: Connotation

Connotation shows people's emotions and attitudes towards what the word or phrase refers to. Such emotions and attitudes may be positive, negative, or neutral, in varying degrees. A proper equivalent is the one with almost the same connotation. Different connotations bring about improper equivalents. Some illustrative examples are given below:

1. the hurrying men and the **slow-strolling** maidens

مردان شتابزده و زنهای سرگردان

In English the phrase 'the slow-strolling' carries no negative connotation, but in Persian the phrase 'سرگردان' carries a negative connotation.

2. They **walked about** the streets at hazard.

بی هدف در خیابانها پرسه می زدند.

'walked about' carries a neutral connotation but 'پرسه می زدند' has a negative connotation. 'گردش می کردند' is a better equivalent.

Stylistic Meaning

Stylistic meaning refers to the style of speech or writing which varies according to the type of situation, the person or persons addressed, the location, the topic discussed, the medium used, etc.

1. Level of Formality

Language may vary on a continuum of formality:

Vulgar	Slang	Colloquial	General/Neutral	Formal	Legal Ceremonial
--------	-------	------------	-----------------	--------	------------------

Example:

decease

به لقاء ا... پیوست
به ملکوت اعلی پیوست
دعوت حق را لبیک گفت
به سرای (دیار) باقی شتافت
به ابدیت پیوست

depart (from) this life	به حق پیوست دار فانی را وداع گفت این جهان را بدرود گفت
expire	ارتحال یافت رحلت نمود/کرد
cease	وفات یافت مرحوم شد
pass away	فوت کرد درگذشت
<hr/>	
Formal	
go	از دنیا رفت
<hr/>	
Colloquial	
die	مُرد
	تمام کرد
kick the bucket	سقط شد
	به درک واصل شد
<hr/>	
Slang	

Some formal expressions in Persian:

تشریف داشتن = حضور داشتن
تشریف بردن = رفتن
تشریف آوردن یا تشریف فرما شدن = آمدن

The above examples are used only in the second and third person plural (instead of singular, the plural form is used), but not in the first person.

خدمت رسیدن = آمدن
خدمت شما/ایشان عرض کردن = گفتن
به عرض شما/ایشان رساندن = گفتن

These examples are used only in the first and third person singular or plural, but not in the second person.

2. Change of Style

Style may also vary according to (different) factors such as:

1. Register

Technical: incision—medical term for cut

Poetic: wither (= where to), ار (= اگر meaning if)

2. Time (archaic, obsolete, old-fashioned, modern)

thou, thee, ye (archaic), عدلیه

In a language, there is a special set of lexical items which can be used by certain people or in their presence. For example, the language addressed to a

child is quite different from the one addressed to an adult; e.g., مامانی (mum) and مادر (mother).

Inappropriate use of words, i.e., the use of words outside their appropriate stylistic or connotative context often causes strong reactions in native speakers of the language, either of annoyance, disappointment, or humor.

Exercises

A) Put a check mark (✓) the proper columns in front of these words or phrases.

Connotation (Word/Phrase)	Negative	Neutral	Positive
پوزخند			
سمح			
قاطع			
برخوردار بودن			
خاطره			
کله شق			
شور و شوق			
bitter laugh			
bag			
typewriter			
fascist			
mother			
home			

B) Which equivalent is proper?

SL	TL
1. notorious	بدنام مشهور
2. imperialism	جهان‌گیری جهان‌خواهی
3. home	خانه منزل
4. poor	مفلس فقیر
5. trafficker	سوداگر تاجر
6. مسن	old elderly
7. درگذشت	passed away died

C) Underline the formal words/phrases in the English sentence and its Persian translation?

- "She sends you her love; she sent me to announce her. She will come and pay her respects to your father."

- مرا فرستاد که ورودش را به شما اطلاع دهم؛ من حامل صمیمانه ترین درودهای اویم. خودش برای عرض ادب نزد پدرتان خواهد آمد.

D) Evaluate the following sets of words according to degrees of formality or informality: slang, colloquial, or formal.

1. man, bloke, guy, fellow
2. child, bairn, brat, kid, kiddie
3. pig, police officer, policeman, bobby, fuzz, cop
4. poor, stony-broke, broke, impecunious, poverty-stricken

۵. مرد، مرتیکه، یارو، آقا

۶. سر و کله‌اش پیدا شد، آمد، تشریف فرما شدند

۷. غلو کردن، اغراق کردن، چاخان کردن

۸. زیبا، خو بروی، پریچهره

۹. کوشش کردن، تلاش کردن، زور زدن

۱۰. حرف زدن، نطق کردن، سخن گفتن

۱۱. فریفتن، کلاهبرداری کردن، اختلاس کردن، تیغ زدن

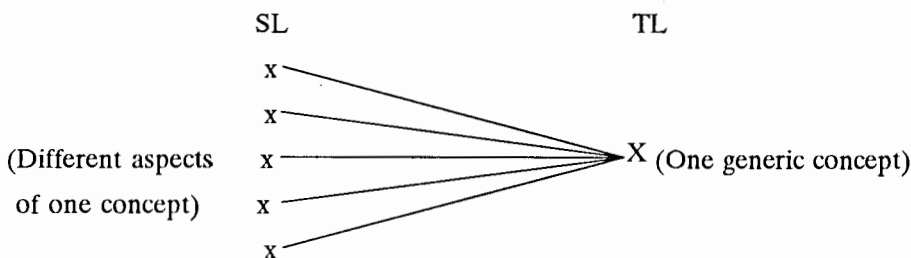
۱۲. جناب آقای، آقای، حضرت آقای، برادر گرامی، حضرت مستطاب عالی

For most people, slang words usually convey a negative connotation, too.

I.5. Lexical Gap

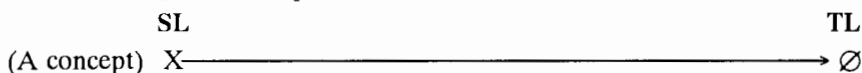
When a concept or the word/phrase representing that concept in the source language has no equivalent in the target language, it will create a problem for the translator and it is difficult to convey the meaning in the target language. This phenomenon is called *lexical gap* or *semantic void*. Such words are language-specific and culture-bound. Lexical gap is of two types:

- 1) In some culture, people distinguish among different aspects of a concept. Arabs distinguish among different types of camel and people in Alaska distinguish among different types of snow, but people in other societies do not need such distinctions and they use one generic word for all these different aspects.



- 2) On the contrary, in some societies, they lack in a concept altogether.

For example, people in some parts of the world do not know or have not seen snow or camel at all and hence they do not have any word to convey the concept.



Filling the Gap

How should the translator fill the gap? There are a few ways to provide equivalents and fill the gap. Some of them are introduced here.

1. Descriptive Equivalence

The translator may provide equivalence by using a generic word plus a modifier (descriptive modification) which restricts the generic word exclusively with its function, form or other attributes relevant to the particular context.

For example:

SL	TL
<p style="text-align: center;">soup</p> <hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/> <p style="text-align: center;">غذایی است</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p> <p>generic word</p> <p>It is a food</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">غذایی است آبکی دارای رشته، هویج و مرغ.</p> <hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/> <p style="text-align: center;">آبکی: دارای رشته، هویج و مرغ</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↓</p> <p>definition</p> <p>containing noodles, carrots, and chicken cooked in water.</p>

2. Cultural Substitution

In this method, the translator provides a substitution in the TL culture which approximates the concept as close as possible. For example:

SL	TL
<p style="text-align: center;">soup</p> <p style="text-align: center;">skyscraper</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">آش</p> <p style="text-align: center;">برج</p>

3. Calque or Loan Translation

The literal (word-for-word) translation of common collocations, names of organizations, the components of compounds and perhaps phrases is known as calque or loan translation.

Examples:

SL	TL
<p style="text-align: center;">shareholder</p> <p style="text-align: center;">automatic</p> <p style="text-align: center;">data-processing</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">سهامدار</p> <p style="text-align: center;">خودکار</p> <p style="text-align: center;">داده پرداز</p>

Sometimes such loan translations make unnatural combination of words such as:

skyscraper آسمانخراش

4. Coining: Lexical Creation

When a word is really needed in the target language, experts of a certain field of study may coin and introduce a new word in the TL. The created word should have the qualities of brevity, clarity, naturalness, and built on meaningful dynamic elements of the TL so that it may be approved by the native speakers and used extensively.

Examples:

SL	TL
vehicle	خودرو
computer	رایانه

The word 'ترابری', used as an equivalent for 'transportation' is not yet approved by the public because it is not built on meaningful elements yet another expression, i.e., 'حمل و نقل', is more common.

5. Borrowing Loan Words

Loan words (foreign words) are of two types:

- those which have already been used in the TL and more or less understood by the native speakers;
- those which are quite new to the TL and used for the first time in the TL, and hence unfamiliar and meaningless to the reader.

Some points on loan words should be taken into account.

A) Excessive Use of Loan Words

SL	Excessive use of LW	Proper equivalent
control tower	برج کنترل	برج مراقبت
irrigation system	سیستم آبرسانی	شبکه آبرسانی
traffic	ترافیک	رفت و آمد
project	پروژه	طرح
a series of	یک سری	یک مجموعه

B) Change in the Alphabet, Pronunciation, and Meaning of Loan Words

Transfer of loan words includes:

- transliteration, which relates to the conversion of different alphabets;
- the loan word is first adapted to normal pronunciation; for example: in Persian, 'لاستیک' (n.), is the loan word for 'elastic'. Its pronunciation has naturalized;

c) then the loan word is adapted to the normal morphology (word-forms) of the TL; 'لاستیکیها' (plural form) 'لاستیکی' (adjective)

d) the range of meaning (senses) of the loan word may expand.

In Persian, 'ماشین', the loan word borrowed from 'machine', has got a new sense, i.e., 'car', 'automobile'; and 'لاستیکی' includes the meanings of 'elastic', as well as 'rubber' and 'tyre'.

In English, 'café' does not mean 'coffee', nor does 'mutton' mean 'sheep' as their French sources did.

This shift of meaning may cause problems for the translator.

C) New Loan Words

As a last resort, the translator may use a loan word to fill a lexical gap. When the loan word is new to the native speakers, a problem arises: that of meaninglessness. The unfamiliar loan word comes in generally with empty meaning.

How is the problem of 'meaninglessness' to be met? One way is to provide footnotes, or a glossary of terms at the end of the book.

Another way is to add generic classifiers together with a specific loan word, or concise descriptions to the loan word, in the actual text.

The words or expressions which can be transferred into the target language are as follow:

- a) SL cultural words whose referent are peculiar to the SL culture;
- b) proper names are normally transferred unless they have recognized translations.

Exercises

A) Translate the following English words or expressions into Persian.

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. The Financial Times | 2. New Delhi | 3. Sabbath-breaker |
| 4. the ideal fine eyes | 5. a piece of cake | 6. a morganatic marriage |
| 7. a list of prices | 8. a welfare state | 9. General Motors |
| 10. eye-catching | 11. standards of living | 12. word-processor |
| 13. a series of projects | 14. peaceful co-existence | 15. UNESCO |
| 16. the engine of my car | | |

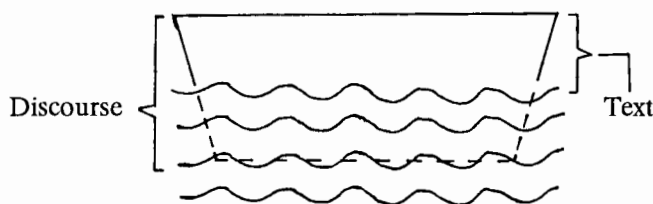
B) Translate the following Persian words or expressions into English.

- | | | | |
|------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------|
| روضة خوانی | خمس | وزارت جهاد سازندگی | جهاد با کفار |
| نقل و نبات | مجاهد نستوه | مشک | تعزیه |
| نوروز | ذوالفقار | دارالفنون | شهادتین |
| | | رژیم گرفته ام | قورمه سبزی |

Chapter II

Implicit Meaning: Saying Things Indirectly

II.1. Implicit vs Explicit Information



In every language, part of the discourse, message, is mentioned in the form or text explicitly and part of the discourse is left implicit, i.e., not expressed directly in the form. This tendency, i.e., the pattern of explicitness and implicitness, though universal, is different from one language to another. This implicit part of information is inferred by the native speakers from what is said. For example, when native speakers of Persian see the sign 'رنگی نشوید' literally meaning as 'Don't get stained with paint', attached, say, to a bench in a park, they quickly realize that the bench had been newly painted, and that they should not touch it. But in English, this explicit form is suppressed and an implied part emerges up and is made explicit. This sign may be 'Wet paint'.

Out of the following propositions, or meaning chunks, each language prefers to use one or two explicitly and others are left implicit:

- a. Paint recently applied.
- b. Not yet dry.
- c. Don't touch it!
- d. Beware of getting stained with paint.

This preference of implicit/explicit information division in texts depends partly on the author's style of writing and partly on the nature of the language. The patterns of a language, in the vocabulary, grammar, and text allow certain information to be communicated clearly even though left implicit.

Types of Implicit Information

According to Beekman and Callow (1974, p. 49), "There are two types of implicit information:

1. implicit information found within the document,
 - a. in the same paragraph or an adjacent one, (the immediate context)
 - b. elsewhere in the same document, (the remote context)
2. implicit information found outside the document, (the cultural context).

Most of the implicit information of the original is drawn from the immediate context."

When May Implicit Information Become Explicit?

In principle, implicit information may be expressed explicitly if, and only if, the target language necessitates it. It is made explicit because the grammar, or the meaning, or the stylistic and textual structures of the target language require it in order that the information conveyed will be the same as that conveyed to the SL readers.

The culture of a language community provides a context for the writer and his readers to share knowledge. This shared knowledge allows the writer to leave part of the information implicit. This type of implicit information, if not shared by the TL readers, should also be made explicit.

The clear, natural expression of the target language necessitates the change of explicit information into implicit information too.

Examples of the obligatory features of the grammar:

SL: Explicit

it, he, she

TL: Implicit

او

In English, there is a distinction among masculine, feminine, and neutral third person singular, but in Persian there is not such a distinction.

English: go, goes

Persian: می‌روم، می‌روی، می‌رود، می‌رویم، می‌روید، می‌روند

In Persian, the verb carries the categories of person and number, but in English only the third person singular in the simple present tense, the first and third person singular as 'am', 'is', 'was' in the present and past continuous tense carry the categories of person and/or number.

Because of the enclitic pronouns attached to the end of Persian verbs, the use of subject pronouns is considered redundant in most cases and therefore omitted in Persian texts. But in English, only the first and second person pronouns may be omitted in colloquial language, for example:

"Glad to see you."

“Understood?”

In practice, this makes it necessary for the translator to use the noun (in Persian) instead of the pronoun (in English) in the third person, in some cases, so as to avoid ambiguity.

Examples of translated sentences from the book اروپاییها in which implicit information has been made explicit and vice versa:

- The young man had risen from the table, **stretching his arms** a little; he walked to the window.

- مرد جوان، که از پشت میز بلند شده بود، با دراز کردن دستهایش کمی **تمدّد اعصاب کرد** و به کنار پنجره رفت. (ص ۱۳)

Here one semantic component of the word ‘stretch’ has been made explicit and the pronoun has been omitted and made implicit in Persian.

- The flowering shrubs and the neatly-disposed plants were **basking** in the abundant light and warmth.

- بوته‌های پر گل و گیاهانی که با نظم و سلیقه کاشته شده بودند تن به نور و گرمای فراوان آفتاب داده بودند. (ص ۲۷)

In English, the ‘sun’ is the common collocation of the words ‘basking’ and ‘light and warmth’ and implied clearly in the above sentence, but in Persian it is better and quite natural to be used explicitly.

- A second young lady presently came out of the house, across the piazza, descended into the garden.

- در همین هنگام دختر خانم دیگری از داخل ساختمان بیرون آمد، از ایوان گذشت، از پله‌ها پایین آمد، وارد باغ شد. (ص ۲۹)

Here, in Persian, ‘از پله‌ها’ (‘down the steps’) is needed and the translator has taken this piece of information from ‘a remote context’ and made explicit.

- Gertrude gave a smile and a little nod;

- گرتروود سرش را به علامت تأیید کمی تکان داد، لبخندی زد و ... (ص ۴۱)

When gestures-nonverbal language-are involved, the translator should give the meanings of the gestures as well, particularly when they are unintelligible or misunderstood by the TL audience.

Exercises

A) Find out the elements which have been made implicit or explicit in the following translated sentences from the book اروپاییها, underline them and put ‘Im.’ for ‘implicit information’ and ‘Ex.’ for ‘explicit information’ under them. Then try to find out the reasons.

1. It was the first time that Gertrude had heard so many words of French spoken.

اولین باری بود که گرتروود این همه کلمات فرانسوی را می‌شنید. (ص ۳۹)

2. a high, clean, rather empty-looking room

اتاقی تمیز با سقفی بلند که تقریباً خالی به نظر می آمد. (ص ۳۹)

3. He was handsome, but rather too stout. He had a pleasant smile.

خوش قیافه بود، ولی بدنی بیش از حد تنومند داشت. لبخند دلپذیری بر لب داشت. (ص ۳۲)

4. He took off his hat and wiped his forehead;

مرد جوان، کلاهش را از سر برداشت و با دستمال پیشانی‌اش را پاک کرد. (ص ۳۲)

5. The doors and windows of the large square house were all wide open, to admit the purifying sunshine;

درها و پنجره‌های عمارت بزرگ چهارگوش همه چهار طاق باز بود تا آفتاب تطهیرکننده به درون ساختمان بتابد. (ص ۲۸)

B) Translate the following sentences or phrases; try to provide natural expressions.

1. a tall, fair young man

2. She was not dressed for church.

3. She hated it.

4. Tomorrow I shall go away.

5. You know what that means.

6. That was the least they could do.

7. Charlotte blushed quickly.

8. Charlotte looked at her a little.

9. Then he put on his hat again.

10. Should you need money, please inform me.

۱۱. هر سخنی که گفت و هر کاری که کرد به خاطر شما بود.

۱۲. بخواهید موفق شوید، باید کار کنید.

۱۳. کارم تمام بشود، همراهتان می آیم.

Note: Both in English and Persian, the conditionals are sometimes expressed without the word 'if' or 'اگر', but they are implied as in numbers 10 and ۱۲.

II.2. Presupposition (I): Substitution and Ellipsis

Each language has its own ways to link sentences formally or semantically to make texts. The text is referred to "any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length that forms a **unified whole**." (Halliday and Hassan, 1976, p. 1)

As a text develops, the information that has been introduced may be assumed to be 'known'. 'Known' (old or given) information does not need to be repeated over and over. Known information may be left implicit. Languages have special devices for leaving information implicit. Three of them which will be discussed here are substitution, ellipsis, and reference. These are also regarded as the *cohesive relations* which are partly responsible for creating a unified whole, i.e., a text.

Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another within the text or within the sentence. A substitute is a 'pro' form used in place of the repetition of a particular item and it has the same structural function as that for which it substitutes, that is, 'the presupposed item'. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976, pp. 90-91), "in English, the substitute may function as a noun, as a verb, or as a clause. To these correspond the three types of substitution: nominal, verbal, and clausal. The following is a list of items that occur as substitutes:

Nominal: one, ones, the same

Verbal: do

Clausal: so, not."

'That' and 'those' are two more nominal substitutes which are used only within the sentence. These words have different uses other than substitution.

1. The Nominal Substitutes: 'One(s)', 'The Same', 'That', and 'Those'

The substitute 'one(s)' functions the head of a noun phrase, and can substitute only for the head of a presupposed noun phrase. The substitute does not carry over any modifying elements; therefore, it is always defined with new modifying element(s) which make(s) a contrast with the presupposed noun phrase.

'One(s)', 'that', and 'those' are the nominal substitutes, too, which replace a head noun, especially in an of-phrase within the sentence.

'The same' substitutes an entire noun phrase including any modifying elements except those repudiated by new elements. Modifiers may be excluded, or added, by the use of the words 'but'/'without', or 'with'. The presupposed item of the substitute 'the same' cannot be a human, or a proper name.

2. Verbal Substitute: 'Do'

'Do' substitutes the entire verbal phrase of the previous sentence. The auxiliaries are not included. New elements can be added to the verb 'do' which will repudiate the counterpart elements in the presupposed verbal phrase, i.e., in the complement or predicate of the lexical verb. 'Do' cannot substitute the verbs 'be' and 'have' (in the sense of 'possess'). Those verbs substitute for themselves. There are other uses of the verb 'do' rather than the substitute 'do' which should not be confused with the substitute.

3. Clausal Substitute: 'So' and 'Not'

'So' and 'not' may substitute an entire dependent clause. 'So' is a positive substitute and 'not', a negative one. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976, p. 131), "clausal substitution takes place in three environments: report, condition, and modality (opinion). The substituted reported clause is always declarative, not interrogative or imperative."

'One(s)', 'that', and 'those' as substitutes are rendered into Persian as their presupposed nouns.

'The same' is translated as 'همان' or 'همین' into Persian. When some modifier is to be added, or excluded, 'ولی با' or 'ولی بدون' are also used.

'Do' is usually translated as its presupposed verb, and sometimes as 'این' or 'این طور بودن' or 'کار را کردن'.

'So' is usually translated as 'این طور' or 'همین طور'. And 'not' is also translated as 'این طور' or 'همین طور' plus a negative form of the lexical verb.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis is one of the common ways in which known or given information is left implicit. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976, p. 88), ellipsis is "that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing," or simply the omission of the given information in the new context. There are three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal, and clausal.

The translator should know the elements which are left out, i.e., their presupposed items. Ellipsis in Persian does exist, but the pattern sometimes does not match that of English.

Examples

All the following examples have been taken from the book *اروپاییها*.

1. He asked himself whether it could be that he was **in love with her**, and then hoped he was not; hoped it not so much for his own **sake** as for that of the amatory passion itself.

از خود می پرسید که آیا ممکن است که عاشق او شده باشد و بعد آرزو می کرد که کاش نشده باشد؛ این آرزو آن قدرها به خاطر خودش نبود که به خاطر خود آن شور عاشقانه. (ص ۱۷۰)

Notes: a) In English, the subject pronoun (in this case, 'he') may be omitted in an independent clause (not the first one) of a compound sentence if it is the same subject as that of the preceding clause.

In Persian, however, the subject pronoun may be omitted everywhere when it is not stressed.

b) 'in love with her' and its Persian equivalent, 'عاشق او' has been omitted.

c) In English, 'that' has substituted 'the sake', but in Persian, 'به خاطر' has been repeated twice as the equivalent of 'for the sake of'.

2. "What can be the motive," she asked, "of a man like you in saying so base a thing as that?"

"Does it sound very base?" asked Acton candidly. "I suppose it does, and I thank you for telling me so."

و پرسید: «چه چیز می تواند مردی مثل شما را وادارد که چنین حرف سخیفی بزند؟»
اکنون با لحنی صادقانه، پرسید: «به نظر خیلی سخیف می رسد؟ تصور می کنم این طور باشد،
و به خاطر بیان این مطلب از شما متشکرم.» (ص ۱۷۹)

Note: 'does' and 'so' are substitutes for 'sounds very base' and 'it sounds very base' respectively; they have been translated into 'این طور باشد' and 'این مطلب' respectively.

3. The Baroness rose, quickly, and Acton, more slowly, did the same.

بارونس به سرعت از جا برخاست و اکتون نیز، آهسته و آرام همان کار را کرد. (ص ۱۸۲)

Note: 'did the same' is a substitute for 'rose' and has been translated into 'همان' 'کار را کرد', which is a substitute for 'جا برخاست'.

4. Felix was smiling, but Mr. Brand was not even trying to.

فلیکس لبخند می زد، ولی آقای براند حتی سعی هم نمی کرد که لبخند بزند. (ص ۲۴۵)

Note: 'smile' has been omitted after 'trying to'; but in Persian, it has not been omitted; this omitted item has been filled with 'لبخند بزند' which is the repetition of the presupposed item. In other words, in English 'smile' is implied, but in Persian it is expressed explicitly.

5. Madame Münster put another question, "You expect, at any rate, to marry?"

"I shall be greatly disappointed if we don't."

مادام مونستر سؤال دیگری را مطرح کرد: «فکر می کنی، در هر صورت، با هم ازدواج کنید؟»
«اگر نکنیم، کاملاً سرخورده و مأیوس خواهیم شد.» (ص ۱۹۵)

Note: 'marry' has been omitted both in English and Persian.

6. "Why do you never come to see me any more?" she asked. "Have I displeased you?" "Displeased me? Well, I guess not!" said Clifford, with a laugh.

بارونس پرسید: «چرا دیگر به دیدن من نمی آیی؟ تو را ناراحت کرده ام؟» کلیفورد با خنده گفت:
«مرا ناراحت کرده باشید؟ نه فکر نکنم.» (ص ۲۲۲)

Note: In repeating one's utterance, part of it is omitted. Here, 'Have you' is not expressed, but implied.

'not' is a substitute for 'you have not displeased me'. In Persian, ellipsis takes place after 'فکر نکنم'; the omitted item is 'مرا ناراحت کرده باشید'.

7. Eugenia kept looking at him. "I should think you **would like that**."

"**Like it!**" cried Clifford.

"I should, if I were a young man calling upon a charming woman."

یوجینا همچنان نگاهش می کرد: «فکر می کردم خوشت بیاید.»

کلیفورد فریاد زد: «خوشم بیاید؟»

«من خوشم می آمد، اگر مرد جوانی بودم که به دیدن زن جذابی رفته باشد.» (ص ۲۲۲)

Note: In the process of **echoing**, a part of the first speaker's utterance is repeated; this part is usually the new information, and the old information is omitted. In the above conversation, 'Like it!' is repeated, and 'I would' is omitted. There is another case of echoing in item number 6.

In the last sentence of the above item, 'I would like it' is omitted after 'I should'. However, in Persian there is no case of ellipsis except the usual ellipsis of subject pronoun.

8. Acton asked **what had become of** Mr. Wentworth's companions.

"They are scattered about, amusing themselves as usual," said the old man ...

"And the others?"

اکنون پرسید که چه بر سر مصاحبین آقای وتورث آمده است.

پیرمرد گفت: «پراکنده شده اند و طبق معمول همیشه دارند خود را سرگرم می کنند ...»

گفت: «و بقیه؟» (ص ۱۷۳)

Note: The old elements of a question may be omitted; here, 'what had become of' has been omitted in English, and its Persian equivalent, too, is omitted.

II.3. Presupposition (II): Reference

There are certain elements in every language which make reference to something else within the text or context of situation for their interpretation. These elements, in English are: personals, demonstratives, and comparatives according to Halliday and Hassan. A list of them is provided here with their translation into Persian:

Personal Reference

1. Subject Pronouns

I	من	We	ما
You	تو	You	شما
He	او	They	آنان، آنها or
She	او		ایشان (literary or respecting)

It این، آن

One (generalized person) آدم، کسی، کس، or انسان (formal)

Persian distinguishes 'تو' (singular, familiar) from 'شما' (plural, or singular showing respect or distance).

'It' occurs as a universal meteorological operator in a few expressions, such as 'It's snowing' or 'It's hot today'. In such cases, 'it' is sometimes translated as 'هوا' into Persian.

'There', as a pronoun, is translated into Persian by zero equivalent, as it is sometimes true with 'it'.

In Persian, there is a tendency to omit the subject pronouns or to use their presupposed noun, because the verb carries an enclitic subject pronoun; the list of these enclitic subject pronouns attached to the verb is as follow:

ام، ای، د، ایم، اید، اند

The third person singular enclitic pronoun 'د' is used only in present tense. The use of these pronouns is obligatory in Persian.

2. Object Pronouns

me	من را	us	ما را
you	تو را	you	شما را
him	او را	them	ایشان را، آنان را، آنها را
her	او را		
it	این را و آن را		
one	انسان را، کسی را، آدم را		

These pronouns may be translated into subject pronouns preceded by a proper preposition such as 'از'، 'به'، or 'برای' when they are indirect object or prepositional object.

In Persian, there is a tendency to use their presupposed noun instead of them.

3. Possessive Adjectives

my	مـ	our	مانـ
your	تـ	your	تانـ
his	شـ	their	شانـ
her			
its			

one's آدم، کس، or انسان preceded by genitive ـ

In Persian, when they are not stressed, possessive adjectives are attached to the noun as enclitic endings. And when they are stressed, they are

used as genitive construction in the form of subject pronouns; for example:

book —————> کتاب
 my book —————> کتابم (unstressed)
 my book —————> کتاب من (stressed)

There is a tendency in Persian not to use the possessive adjective when it is implied; however, since the use of a determiner is often necessary in English, the possessive adjective is expressed; for example:

I raised my hands.

دستها را بالا بردم.

4. Possessive Pronouns

mine ours
 yours yours
 his theirs
 hers
 its

Their translation into Persian is made by the use of the word 'مالی' or the presupposed noun plus the proper form of subject pronouns.

5. Interrogative Pronouns

Who (subject, person)	چه کسی، کی
What (subject, thing)	چی، چه چیزی، چه or چی (colloquial)
Who (object, person, informal)	چه کسی را
Whom (object, person, formal)	چه کسی or چه کسی را preceded by a preposition

What (object, thing/process) چی، چه چیزی، چه
 These Persian equivalents may be used with 'را' or sometimes without it; and sometimes these equivalents may be preceded by a preposition.

Which (subject/object, thing/person, کدامیک (را)، کدام (را) with definite reference)

Whose (possessive, head or modifier, چه کسی preceded by مالی or genitive – person)

These pronouns refer exophorically to something, somebody, or some process in the context of situation; they are not cohesive.

6. Relative Pronouns

who-whomever (subject, person) که، هر که

who-whomever (object, person)	که، هر که
whom-whomever (object, formal, person)	که، هر که
which-whichever (subject/object, thing)	که، هر چه، هر کدام
that (subject/object, person/thing)	که
whose (possessive, person)	که plus a possessive
(possessive, thing, informal)	adjective which follows
	the possessed noun.
of which (possessive, thing)	که plus a possessive
	adjective which follows
	the possessed noun.

These pronouns refer back (anaphorically) to a noun or pronoun which is called antecedent; they are not cohesive, i.e., connecting two sentences.

7. Reflexive/Emphatic Pronouns

myself (خود(م)	ourselves (خود(مان)
yourself (خود(ت)	yourselves (خود(تان)
himself	themselves (خود(شان)
herself	
itself	

Formally they are translated as 'خود' but informally a corresponding possessive adjective is added to 'خود'. These self-constructions or pronouns refer back to a noun or pronoun within the same sentence. They are not cohesive. They may be used in six cases as in the following examples (Christopher et al.).

1. I wash myself. (Direct object) من خود(م) را می شویم.
2. She asked herself a question. (Indirect object) از خود(ش) سؤالی کرد.
3. You ought to be ashamed of yourself. (Prepositional object) از خودت باید خجالت بکشی.
4. I saw the director himself. (Object apposition) من خود مدیر را دیدم.
5. He himself gave it to me. (Subject apposition) او خودش آن را به من داد.
6. He gave it to me himself. (Subject apposition) او آن را خودش به من داد.

Self-constructions in items 1, 2, and 3 are unstressed and reflexive and those in items 4, 5, and 6 are stressed and emphatic.

Demonstrative References

this	این	these	این (as modifier)
			اینها (as head)

that	این، آن	those	* این، آن (as modifier) * اینها، آنها (as head)
here	اینجا		
there	آنجا		
now	اکنون، حالا و ...		
then	آن زمان، آن وقت و ...		
the	No formal marker is used in Persian.		

* Sometimes 'that' and 'those' which are usually translated into 'آن' and 'آنها' correspond with 'این' and 'اینها' in Persian, e.g.,

In Afghanistan, different groups are fighting against each other. **That** country suffers a civil war.

گروههای مختلف در افغانستان علیه یکدیگر می‌جنگند. این کشور گرفتار جنگ داخلی است.

Comparative References

1. Adjectives

General Comparison:

Identity: same, very, identical, equal همان، عین، برابر

General similarity: such, similar, additional همچنان، همانند، مشابه

Difference: other, different, else متفاوت، دیگر

Particular Comparison:

better, more, fewer, less, further, additional, etc. (comparative adjectives and quantifiers) بهتر، بیشتر و ...

2. Adverbs

General Comparison:

Identity: identically به طور برابر، عیناً

General similarity: similarly, likewise, so, such

همانطور، مثل آن، به گونه‌ای مشابه و ...

Difference: differently, otherwise به گونه‌ای متفاوت، به گونه‌ای دیگر و ...

Particular Comparison:

so, as و آنقدر، همان‌گونه و ...

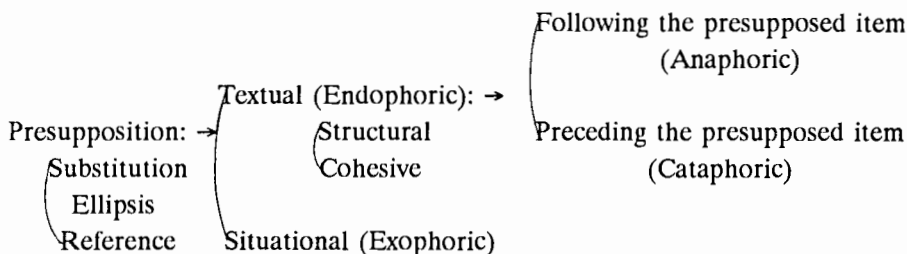
more به طور برابر/یکسان، less کمتر، بیشتر

Some General Points

All these devices: substitution, ellipsis, and reference are different forms of presupposition; that is, they may relate to something else, a presupposed item, within the text (endophoric), or in the context of situation (exophoric). The presupposed item usually precedes them (anaphoric relation), and only in case

of reference, it occasionally follows them (cataphoric relation). These devices may be used within the sentence, or between the sentences; accordingly they may be structural, or cohesive devices.

These relations may be summarized as follow:



The distinction between substitution (and ellipsis) and reference is that the relation in substitution is lexicogrammatical or formal, but in reference it is semantic.

The words used as substitutes or reference may have other functions which should not be mistaken as substitutes or reference.

* *Note:* The structural reference items, i.e., interrogative, relative, and reflexive have been taken from Quirk et al., and the substitutes and other reference items have been taken from Halliday and Hassan.

Exercises

A) Find cases of presupposition and distinguish among them—whether they are cases of substitution, ellipsis, or reference in the following sentences and in their translations from the book *اروپاینها*.

1. If there is any doubt about it today, there certainly will be none tomorrow.

اگر امروز درباره اش شک وجود داشته باشد، یقیناً فردا دیگر شک وجود نخواهد داشت. (ص ۱۲)

2. "She (fortune) has never put herself to any trouble for you."

"She must have put herself to a little, I think, to present me with so admirable sister."

«دیگر خودش را به خاطر تو به دردمر نینداخته است.»

«برای پیشکش کردن چنین خواهر ستایش انگیزی، لابد، باید کمی به خودش زحمت داده باشد.» (ص ۱۷)

3. ... and the red and blue sign-boards patched over the face of everything remind one of Mahometan decoration.

وتابلوهای اعلان قرمز و آبی که مثل وصله به تمام در و دیوار چسبانده شده است آدم را به یاد تزئینات مسلمانان می اندازد. (ص ۲۱)

4. "How should I wear it?"

"I don't know; differently from that."

«چطور باید بپندازمش، عزیزم؟»

«نمی‌دانم. فقط می‌دانم که این طوری نباید انداخت.» (ص ۳۰)

5. "Then you don't know who may be observing you. You are not on your guard."

You can't try to look pretty."

«آدم نمی‌داند چه کسی دارد از پشت نگاهش می‌کند. همیشه که آدم حواسش نیست. نمی‌توانی

سعی کنی قشنگ به نظر برسی.» (ص ۳۱)

6. "Tell me more," said Gertrude.

"No, I will leave that to her; she does it better."

گرترود گفت: «بیشتر بگویند.»

«نه، دیگر این کار به عهده خودش است. خودش بهتر از عهده آن برمی‌آید.» (ص ۴۵)

7. ... and it perplexed and weighed upon him,

و حالا این نکته سر درگمش می‌کرد و بر ذهنش سنگینی می‌کرد. (ص ۵۴)

8. "Gertrude judges by herself!" Acton exclaimed, laughing.

"Don't you, Gertrude?"

اکتون، در حالی که می‌خندید، اظهار داشت: «گرترود قیاس به نفس می‌کند؛ این طور نیست

گرترود؟» (ص ۷۰)

9. "She must be very unhappy!" said Gertrude.

"So she says," he answered.

گرترود گفت: «ایشان باید خیلی ناراحت باشند!»

جواب داد: «این طور می‌گویند.» (ص ۴۵)

10. "She will not like it," said Gertrude.

"Why not, dear?" asked Charlotte.

گرترود گفت: «خوشش نخواهد آمد.»

شارلوت پرسید: «چرا، عزیزم؟» (ص ۷۰)

11. He held her hands a moment.

آقای براند لحظه‌ای دست گرترود را در دست خود نگاه داشت. (ص ۳۳)

12. "I am never depressed."

"Oh, surely, sometimes," replied Mr. Brand.

«من هیچ وقت افسرده نمی‌شوم.»

آقای براند گفت: «چرا، حتماً گاهی می‌شوید.» (ص ۳۳)

B) In the above sentences, say whether each case of reference is exophoric or endophoric, anaphoric or cataphoric, structural or cohesive. For example, in item number 4, 'I' in the first sentence, and 'I' in the second sentence are exophoric; 'it' in the first sentence and 'that' in the second sentence may be exophoric or perhaps endophoric, depending on the context preceding it which is not brought here.

C) Make a list of all the cases of substitution, ellipsis, and reference and their presupposed items in English and the translation of each case into Persian and then put them in the following chart.

Item No.	Substitution	Ellipsis	Reference	Presupposed item	Equivalent in translation
1			it	a fact in the preceding sentence not mentioned	-اش

D) First determine the presupposed items in the following sentences, then translate the sentences into Persian.

1. I hope you will be better.
2. This country is superior in many respects to those you mention.
3. But they were very patriotic. And so are we.
4. They called him a foreigner; but he was not.
5. Her eyes, unlike the other's, were quick and bright.
6. I don't think one should ever try to look pretty.
7. It was probable from moment to moment that one would be jostled.
8. If one's cousins are of that pattern, the sooner one knows them the better.
9. His hat being removed, you would have perceived that his forehead was very large and smooth.
10. I have heard of young ladies staying at home for bad weather, but never for good.
11. "Does that sound as if we should bore you?" he added. "I don't think we shall—I really don't think we shall."
12. She had never in her life spoken to a foreigner, and she had often thought it would be delightful to do so.
13. And the Baroness took Mr. Wentworth's arm, who was not aware that he had offered it to her.
14. This is a different outline, my uncle, a different character, from that of your own daughters.
15. "You say things that puzzle me," Mr. Brand declared.
"I always know when I do it," proceeded Gertrude, "But people puzzle me more, I think. And they don't seem to know!"

E) (Individual Homework): Choose a passage of two paragraphs from a book or other sources. First find cases of substitution, ellipsis, and reference. Then find their corresponding presupposed items. Are all of the presupposed items inside the text?

Chapter III

Figurative Meaning: Saying Something, Meaning Another

III.1. Metaphor and Simile

A **simile** is a figure of speech which involves a comparison; e.g.,

1. The baby's skin is as smooth as silk.
2. My feet are colder than ice.

۳. او همچون اسب نجیب است.

۴. مؤمن مانند کوه استوار است.

A **metaphor** is also a figure of speech which involves a comparison. The only difference between a simile and a metaphor is that in a simile the comparison is explicitly stated, usually by a word such as 'like' or 'as' or, in Persian, by 'مانند', 'مثل', and 'همچون', while in a metaphor the comparison is just implied; e.g.,

Simile

She is like a rose.

بهرام مانند شیر است.

Metaphor

She is a rose.

بهرام شیر است.

Metaphors are often used to make a strong impact. The more appropriate and original the metaphors, the more powerful will be their impact.

A figurative comparison should be distinguished from a literal, nonfigurative comparison. In a figurative comparison, there is usually an element of exaggeration. For example:

Simile: The book is as heavy as an elephant.

True comparison: The box is as heavy as my suitcase. (nonfigurative)

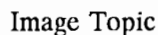
Simile: John eats like a pig.

True comparison: John eats like his overweight brother.

Metaphor: John is a tiger.

Nonmetaphor: That animal is a tiger.

۶. بهرام شیر است. (Metaphor)



۷. شیری را دیدم که شمشیر می‌زد. (Metaphor)



The point of similarity, 'دلیری', is left implicit in sentences ۵ and ۶ above. Both the topic and the point of similarity are left implicit in sentence ۷ above.

Sometimes all three parts of the simile or metaphor are explicitly stated in the text. But sometimes one (or even two) of the parts is (are) left implicit.

Identifying the Point of Similarity

Quite often it is the point of similarity which is left implicit. The identification of the point of similarity between the topic and the image is vital to the understanding of any metaphor or simile. Clearly there is danger of misunderstanding if the receiver of the message focuses on the wrong component of meaning. The clues to correct interpretation of the implicit point of similarity are found a) in the immediate context, or b) in the shared background knowledge.

a) Contextual Clues

The implicit point of similarity may be understood from the immediate surrounding context. The topic and the image are not similar in all aspects of their meaning, but only in one particular component of their meaning, or in a selected group of components. In different contexts, different components of meaning may be relevant.

b) *Shared Background Knowledge*

In cliché or standard (established) metaphors or similes, the image is so constantly used with a certain point of similarity that they become fixed collocates; that is, they usually come together. Such images and their collocates, i.e., their accompanying points of similarity, whether expressed or implied, are part of the cultural (background) knowledge shared by the giver and the receiver of the message in a certain culture/community. The target language receiver of the message who lives in a different culture does not share this background knowledge, so the established source language image may convey an obscure, ambiguous, or quite a different meaning for him, or it may sound unnatural or strange to him.

1. as white as snow

سفید همچون برف

Both Persian and English use the same established similes.

2. as black as coal

به سیاهی شب

Persian and English use different images for the same point of similarity.

3. as good as gold

خوب چون جواهر

The image 'مثل طلا', the literal equivalent of 'as gold', is obscure and unnatural in Persian.

The word-for-word translation of 'مثل ماه' into English, i.e., 'as the moon', is misunderstood. It makes a wrong sense in English.

In another culture, a different image probably provides an appropriate equivalent for such metaphors (or similes). Even sometimes the receptor culture does not make comparisons of the type which occurs in the source text metaphor.

Live and Dead Metaphors and Similes

According to Larson (1984, p. 249), "*Dead metaphors* are those which are:

- a) a part of the idiomatic constructions of the lexicon of the language;
- b) found and defined in dictionaries as figurative meanings;
- c) understood directly without paying attention to the underlying comparison; and
- d) constantly used in the language.

"*Live metaphors*, on the other hand, are those which are:

- a) constructed on the spot by the author or speaker to teach or illustrate;
- b) understood only after paying special attention to the comparison which is being made; and
- c) complex metaphors which often consist of a number of related images or a general image running through the text."

Newmark (1988, p. 106) subcategorizes dead metaphors into 'dead', 'cliché', 'standard', and 'adapted' ones and live metaphors into 'recent' and 'original' ones.

a) *Dead Metaphors/Similes*

Group 1. 'Noun (figurative) + of + Noun' Pattern: square, space, field, line, top, bottom, foot, mouth, arm, head, circle, drop, fall, rise, bridge, chain, link, etc.

These are one-word metaphors which frequently relate to universal terms of space and time, the main part of the body and the main human activities.

Persian usually adds the suffix 'ـه' to the original word to make such metaphors: دسته، پایه، زبانه، لبه، دامنه، دماغه، روده، دهانه، عقربه، زمینه، باله، گردنه، تیغه، عالمه، بدنه، تنه، ... سقوط، چهارچوب، پل ارتباطی، طریقه، سلسله، حلقه، ستون.

The same image

the leg of a table

پایه میز

the mouth of a cave

دهانه غار

the long arm of coincidence

دست

تصادف (تقدیر)

Different image

an arm of heat

زبان آتش

the hand of a clock

عقربه ساعت

a load of hogwash

یک مشت اراجیف

the eye of a needle

سوراخ سوزن

Group 2. Technical Usage of Common Words: fin, frame, port, skirt, seal, clutch, worm, collar, fork, idler, nut, cradle, dog, element, jack, etc.

عنصر، پره، سپر، شغالدست، سگدست، کاسه نمد، ماهک، شمع، دنده، صفحه، قنداقه، کرمک، هرزه گرد
For example:

1. the fin of a motorcycle

۲. سپر ماشین

These are one-word metaphors which are added to the technical terminology of a semantic field and therefore contribute to greater accuracy in the use of language.

Group 3. Verb (figurative) + Noun

1. to run into debt
2. to kill time
3. to rise the price
4. to elbow one's way
5. to play with someone's feelings
6. to break the silence
7. to root out the faults
8. to kill with weariness
9. to trump up an excuse
10. to weigh up

بدهکار شدن
وقت‌کشی کردن
قیمتها را بالا بردن
به نیروی بازو (به زور) راه را باز کردن
با احساسات کسی بازی کردن
سکوت را شکستن
ریشه کن کردن
از خستگی کشتن (از پا در آوردن)
بهانه تراشیدن
سبک سنگین کردن

Group 4. Adjective (figurative) + Noun

1. filthy lucre
2. a wooden face
3. starry eyes
4. a sunny look
5. (with) a heavy heart
6. a double-decked bus

چرک کف دست
چهره بی‌حالت
چشماني درخشان
نگاهی گرم و پرفروغ
دل‌تنگ
اتوبوس دوطبقه

7. golden hair

موهای طلایی

8. rapier-like wit

ذهن وقاد

Group 5. Verb + Noun (figurative)

1. to explore all avenues

تمام سوراخ سنبه‌ها را گشتن

2. to leave no stone unturned

از هیچ کوششی فروگذار نکردن

Group 6. Verbal Phrase (verb + noun) (figurative)

1. His life hangs on a thread.

زندگیش به تار مویی بسته است.

2. to cast a shadow over something

سایه افکندن بر چیزی

3. to split hair

مو شکافی کردن

4. to draw the net wider

میدان را وسیعتر گرفتن

5. to throw up the sponge

لنگ/سپر انداختن

6. a politician who has made his mark

سیاستمداری که آوازه در کرده

Group 7. Stock or Standard Metaphors: They include established images as qualities of people or things.

1. as graceful as a swan

خوش خرام چون کبک

2. as poor as a church mouse

بی چیز چون گدای شب جمعه

3. as good as gold

خوب چون جواهر، یک پارچه آقا

4. as meek as a lamb

مثل بره

5. as soft as wax

نرم چون موم

6. as plentiful as blackberries

فراوان مثل ریگ

7. as smooth as velvet

نرم چون حریر

b) Live Metaphors/Similes

Group 1. Recent Metaphors: "Metaphorical neologism often 'anonymously' coined, which has spread rapidly in the source language." (Newmark, 1988, p. 111)

Examples: groovy

محشر، معرکه

spastic, spasmoid

عوضی

greenback

پشت گلی (اسکناس)

Park your carcass.

جنازه‌ات را پارک کن.

'in'

تو فرم

Group 2. Original Metaphors/Similes: They are created or quoted by the source language writer. They may be universal, cultural or vaguely subjective.

Translating Metaphors and Similes

The following steps should be taken in translating a metaphor or simile:

a) The metaphors and similes should be found in the text; the translator

should always be alert to the metaphors and similes,

b) Then the translator should determine whether the comparison is a live metaphor/simile or simply a dead figure; and

c) Different components of the metaphor or simile should be identified.

The implicit parts should be inferred from the context or cultural background. It can be very helpful to write explicitly the components of the metaphor or simile in the following sentence:

'Topic is like Image because Point of Similarity'.

Dead metaphors (or similes) should be translated by the natural equivalent form in the target language, which may be a metaphor, simile, or literal meaning.

Larson (1984, p. 254) suggests the following ways to translate the live metaphors/similes: "(a simile would follow steps 3, 4, and 5):

1. The metaphor may be kept if the receptor language permits (that is, if it sounds natural and is understood correctly by the readers);
2. A metaphor may be translated as a simile (adding like or as);
3. A metaphor of the receptor language which has the same meaning may be substituted;
4. The metaphor may be kept and the meaning explained (that is, the topic and/or point of similarity may be added; and
5. The meaning of the metaphor may be translated without keeping the metaphorical imagery."

Exercises

A) Identify the topic, image, and point of similarity in each of the followings. State your answers in the form of a sentence, as follows:

'Topic is like Image because Point of Similarity'.

1. The king put a yoke upon the necks of his people.
2. John was a shining lamp.
3. You are a mist that appears for a little.
4. I will come like a thief.
5. He is as tall as a giraffe.
6. His hair was white as snow.
7. People are like grass, here today and gone tomorrow.
8. He is the head of the department.
9. His eyes were like fire.
10. His voice was like a trumpet.

B) Fill the missing image in the following metaphors/similes.

as noble as	نجیب چون
as easy as	آسان چون
as harmless as	بی آزار چون
as hot as	تند چون
as light as	سبک چون
as old as	عمر
as pale as	رنگ پریده چون
as loose as	شل چون
as greedy as	درنده چون
as bright as	روشن مثل

C) Identify the topic, image, and point of similarity in the following metaphors/similes.

۱. جاده چون مار به خود می پیچید.
۲. چون کوه در مقابل دشمنانش ایستاد.
۳. دختر گلم آمد.
۴. ایران اسلامی قبیله آمال بسیاری از مسلمین است.
۵. در بحر تفکر غرق بود.
۶. پرنده جانم در هوای تو پرواز می کند.
۷. دریای رحمت خداوند

D) What problem might be encountered in trying to translate each of the following?

Translate them into Persian.

1. He is fast just like a greyhound.
2. I am just a machine.
3. Athens is the mother of arts and eloquence.
4. Like a leopard, the mugger stalked his prey.
5. Those pigs ate all the food.
6. He galloped into the room.
7. There is a ray of hope for him.
8. He looked as good as gold.
9. They are a collection of angels.
10. They are as like as two beans.

E) Underline the metaphoric images; then translate the following passages.

1. "And you, cousin, where did you get that enchanting complexion?" She went on; "Such lilies and roses!"

The roses in poor Charlotte's countenance began speedily to predominate over the lilies.

2. For a long moment she stood looking down into the trunk, while each detail of its contents imprinted itself on her brain like an image on a film. Each tiny detail was indelibly clear and never to be forgotten.

She could not have stirred a muscle in that moment. Horror was a black cloak thrown around her, stopping her breath, hobbling her limbs.

Then her face dissolved into formlessness. She slammed down the lid and ran up the stairs like a mad thing. She was breathing again, in deep, sobbing breaths that tore at her lungs.

III.2. Idioms and Proverbs

Idioms

Idioms are language-specific figurative expressions which occur in all languages. Idioms are expressions of “at least two words which cannot be understood literally and which function as a unit semantically.” (Beekman and Callow, 1974, p. 121)

In other words, an idiom is “a number of words which, when taken together, have a different meaning from the individual meanings of each word.” (Seidl and McMordie, 1988, p. 13)

Idioms can be divided into:

- a) clear or unclear regarding their meaning; i.e., whether the overall meaning of the idiom has any relation with its individual words or not;
- b) regular or irregular regarding their form and structure;
- c) fixed idiom or idiom with variants; i.e., whether any parts of the idiom can be changed or not; and
- d) formal, general/neutral, colloquial, slang, etc. according to their level of style.

Examples:

1. to give someone to understand (Meaning: clear; Structure: irregular)
2. to cut no ice (Meaning: unclear; Structure: regular)
3. to go great guns (Meaning: unclear; Structure: irregular)
4. to paint the town red (Fixed idiom; Only the tense may change)
5. a hard/tough nut to crack (With variants)
6. to come to a bad/nasty/sticky/no good/untimely end (With variants)

Idioms are part of the lexicon of a language and they can be found in dictionaries.

Different forms and vocabulary may be used in idioms. In English phrasal verbs, prepositional phrases, parts of the body, and verbal idioms

consist the majority of idioms. In Persian, too, compound verbs, parts of the body, and verbal idioms are very common and frequent.

Examples:

a) Phrasal Verbs: break down, break through, carry on, etc.

“Verbal combinations with prepositions and particles can have a nonidiomatic meaning as well as an idiomatic meaning.” (Seidl and Mc-Mordie, 1988, p. 101) e.g.,

1. He decided **to pack** his job **in**. (Idiom)

2. She opened her suitcase and **packed** all the clothes **in**. (Nonidiom)

b) Compound Verbs (Persian): به کار گرفتن، دست انداختن، کلک زدن

c) Prepositional Phrases: at length, across the board, within one's means;

d) Verbal Idioms:

1. to hold one's ground

2. to take the floor

3. to mind one's own business

4. to meet someone half-way

۵. سر به سر کسی گذاشتن

۶. پوست خربزه زیر پای کسی انداختن

۷. کلاه کسی پس معرکه بودن

۸. آب از آب تکان نخوردن

e) Parts of the Body: (e.g., head)

1. to lose one's head

2. to get something into one's head

3. from head to toe

4. above one's head

5. head over heels

6. to talk one's head off

۷. سر در آوردن

۸. به درد سر انداختن

۹. سر تا پا

۱۰. سر به زیر

۱۱. خاک بر سر

۱۲. سر در گریبان

There are many idioms and proverbs in Persian which are made with parts of the body as subject. Such idioms (or proverbs) are translated into English with a relevant pronoun as subject.

Examples:

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| He is intelligent. | ۱. کله‌اش کار می‌کند. |
| He faced an obstacle. | ۲. سرش، به سنگ خورد. |
| He has a stony heart. | ۳. دش از سنگه. |
| I miss him a lot. | ۴. دلم برایش خیلی تنگ شده. |
| I feel sad. | ۵. دلم گرفته. |
| He has the habit of stealing. | ۶. دستش کج است. |
| He can earn his living. | ۷. دستش به دهنش می‌رسد. |
| I took a risk. | ۸. دل به دریا زدم. |
| He has dangerous political views. | ۹. کله‌اش بوی قورمه‌سبزی می‌دهد. |
| I desire to be with you. | ۱۰. دلم هوایت را کرده. |
| I can do nothing. | ۱۱. دستم به جایی بند نیست. |
| I am broken these days. | ۱۲. دستم تنگ است. |
| He was scared to death. | ۱۳. بند دلش پاره شد. |
| I have no hope in that. | ۱۴. چشمم آب نمی‌خورد. |
| He came to his senses. | ۱۵. حالش جا آمد. |
| I don't have the face to tell him. | ۱۶. رویم نمی‌شود که به او بگویم. |
| He is half-seas-over. | ۱۷. کله‌اش گرم است. |
| It's beyond his mind. | ۱۸. عقلش قد نمی‌دهد. |
| His mouth watered after seeing all the food. | ۱۹. از دیدن آن همه غذا دهنش آب افتاد. |

An important group of idioms in Persian and English is 'politeness formulas', i.e., the cliché expressions used in situations such as greeting, leave-taking, etc. which are intended to maintain social relations. Some examples of Persian politeness formulas are given below along with their English equivalents:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Hello! | ۱. سلام علیکم! |
| Good-bye! | ۲. خدا حافظ! |
| So long! | ۳. به سلامت! خدا نگهدار! |
| Please, come over. | ۴. سرافراز بفرماید. |
| May I leave? | ۵. اجازه مرخصی می‌خواهم، زحمت را کم کنیم. |
| Hard working! | ۶. خدا قوت! |
| How are you? | ۷. حال شما خوبه؟ |
| Welcome! Thanks for coming! | ۸. خوش آمدید! |
| Did you have a good time? | ۹. خوش گذشت؟ |

Procedures in Translating Idioms

The first step in translating idioms is to recognize them. The pitfall for the translator is to translate idioms literally. A word-for-word translation of idioms is often nonsense or even sometimes amusing. Therefore the translator has two possible ways to translate an idiom naturally:

a) an appropriate idiom is found in the target language as its equivalent; and

b) when there is no proper idiom in the TL for that meaning, a non-figurative expression conveying the same meaning should be used.

“The translator also needs to develop a sensitivity to the use of idioms in the receptor language and use them naturally to make the translation lively and keep the style of the source language. There will often be words in the source language which are not idioms, but are best translated with an idiom.” (Larson, 1984, p. 116).

The method mentioned above should be used to **compensate for** the idioms removed in the TL through method b).

Examples:

a) An idiom in the SL has an equivalent idiom in the TL. In other words, both languages use idioms to convey a certain meaning, but with different forms and vocabulary: e.g.,

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1. He played off the job. | کار را از سر باز کرد. |
| 2. He went back on his word. | زیر قولش زد. |
| 3. He swells like a turkey cock. | باد در دماغ می اندازد. |
| 4. I've learnt it by fits and starts. | جسته گریخته یاد گرفته ام. |
| 5. They served him out. | حقش را کف دستش گذاشتند. |
| 6. He did not turn a hair. | خم به ابرو نیاورد. |
| 7. Don't lose your hair! | دستپاچه نشو! |
| 8. He makes mountains out of mole-hills. | از کاه کوه می سازد. |
| 9. to lay the cornerstone | کلنگ جایی را زدن |
| 10. He is wide of the mark. | از موضوع پرت است. |
| 11. to rub on a raw nerve | سوهان روح بودن، موجب اعصاب خردی گشتن |
| 12. We came to a rupture. | کلاهمان تو هم رفت. |
| 13. She takes after her mother. | به مادرش رفته است. |
| 14. He is Jack-of-all-trades. | همه کاره است. |
| 15. This poor man can hardly make both ends meet. | پیرمرد بیچاره دستش به دهانش نمی رسد. |
| 16. He ran with his life. | جان سالم به در برد. |

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 17. He doesn't care a fig. | ککش هم نمی‌گزد. |
| 18. He plays fast and loose. | بازی در آورده. |
| 19. He showed a clean pair of heels. | دو پا داشت دو پا هم قرض کرد. |
| 20. He was put out of the way. | او را سر به نیست کردند. |
| 21. He made a scene. | قیامتی برپا کرد. |
| 22. He is no scholar. | چیزی بارش نیست. |
| 23. It doesn't serve our purpose. | به درد ما نمی‌خورد. |

b) An SL idiom has no proper equivalent idiom in the TL. Therefore, the meaning of the idiom is put into a nonfigurative expression in the TL.

Examples:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. He was given a lesson. | متنبه شد. |
| 2. I knew this all along. | مدام از آن باخبر بودم. |
| 3. What is up? | چه خبر است؟ |
| 4. My friend got the lion's share. | بهترین قسمت نصیب دوستم شد. |
| 5. Bring your children too, by all means. | حتماً بچه‌هایتان را هم بیاورید. |
| 6. Will you keep an eye on this luggage for me, please? | لطفاً مواظب اسباب من باشید. |
| They disgraced him. | ۷. آبرویش را ریختند. |
| He frowned. | ۸. جبین درهم کشید. |
| I have no hope in that. | ۹. چشمم آب نمی‌خورد. |
| He would like to be left alone. | ۱۰. مایل است او را به حال خود بگذارند. |

Introducing Proverbs

"A proverb is a popular short saying, with words of advice or warning."
(*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*)

A proverb is "a short well-known, supposedly wise, saying usually in simple language." (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*)

The proverb is considered as a unit of meaning. What the speaker intends the hearer to understand is not the literal sense of the proverb, but rather its application in the particular context in which the speaker uses it. Proverbs make a cultural resource of a nation. Proverbs differ from idioms in that

Proverbs

- a) are full sentences;
- b) have no variant parts;
- c) contain some moral teaching,
e.g., advice, warning, etc.;

But idioms

- a) are part of a sentence;
- b) sometimes have variant elements;
- c) are not intended to teach anything;

Proverbs

- d) are used mainly in socio-cultural, or literary texts;
- e) are based on some legends, folklore, a great poet's/author's saying or maxim;
- f) are less frequently used; and
- g) are rarely intended literally.

But idioms

- d) are used in every type of text;
- e) are figurative extensions of word meaning;
- f) are more common and frequent; and
- g) are sometimes used literally.

Both proverbs and idioms, however,

- a) are considered as units of meaning or translation;
- b) should not be translated literally (word-for-word); and
- c) may sometimes have no natural figurative equivalent in the target language.

A contrastive analysis of the English and Persian proverbs shows that there are many proverbs in the two languages which have similar meanings;

Examples:

a) Some similar proverbs can be found in the two languages with more or less similar form, vocabulary, and meaning; e.g.,

1. Vessels leak of what they hold. از کوزه همان برون تراود که در اوست.
2. As long as the blanket, so far you may stretch. پایت را به اندازه گلیمت دراز کن.
3. Take no thought for tomorrow. چو فردا شود فکر فردا کنیم.
4. He who seeks diligently will find. عاقبت جوینده یابنده بود.
5. Better a good lie than a harmful truth. دروغ مصلحت آمیز به ز راست فتنه انگیز.
6. Better a wise enemy than a foolish friend. دشمن دانا به از نادان دوست.
7. There is a telepathy among hearts. دل به دل راه دارد.
8. Better late than never. دیر رسیدن بهتر از نرسیدن است.
9. It is God who bestows livelihood. روزی دست خداست.
10. He fishes in troubled waters. از آب گل آلود ماهی می گیرد.
11. Between pillar and post there may be rescue.

از این ستون به آن ستون فرج است.

b) Many proverbs may be found in the two languages which have similar meanings and can be applied in the same contexts, but they have different forms and vocabulary; e.g.,

1. Begin your web, and God will send you the thread.
از تو حرکت از خدا برکت.
2. Out of sight, out of mind.
از دل برود هر آنکه از دیده برفت.
3. He kills two birds with one stone.
با یک تیر دو نشان می زند.
4. Mills will not grind if you give them not water.
بی مایه فطیر است.
5. The darkest hour is just before the dawn.
در نومیدی بسی امید است.
6. An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure.
علاج واقعه قبل از وقوع باید کرد.
7. He has a finger in every pie.
نخود هر آش است.
8. You may know by a handful the whole sack.
مشت نمونه خروار است.
9. His bread is buttered on both sides.
نانش در روغن است.
10. Travelling broadens the mind.
بسیار سفر باید تا پخته شود خامی.
11. He missed the aim.
تیرش به سنگ خورد.
12. Never put off till tomorrow what you can do today.
کار امروز به فردا مکن.
13. The face is the index of the heart.
رنگ رخساره خبر می دهد از سر ضمیر.
14. A fool's tongue is long enough to cut his own head.
زبان سرخ سر سبز می دهد بر باد.

Translating Proverbs

Beekman and Callow (1974, p. 136) suggest three ways to translate a proverb:

- “1) the words following the proverb could be introduced as the meaning of the proverbs;
- 2) it can be replaced with an equivalent local proverb; and
- 3) its nonfigurative meaning could be stated straightforwardly.”

Exercises

A) Translate the following sentences into Persian.

1. It disappeared before you could say 'Jack Robinson'.
2. Money doesn't grow on trees.
3. Before long he was dismissed.
4. He broke his word.
5. Above all remember his advice.
6. He would like to see this in black and white.
7. The child was brought up by his aunt.

8. I took him for his brother.
9. He is better off in his new job.
10. I ran short of money last week.
11. He offered a thin cigarette.
- "I'm off them," the teacher explained.
12. Please don't sidetrack the real issue.
13. This problem is a thorn in my side.
14. Will you put in a word for me, please?
15. Help yourself!
16. He was deaf to his father's advice.
17. There is a double standard here.
18. When things go wrong, you had better consult some experts.
19. I advise you to let him alone.
20. I think there is something the matter with them.

B) Translate the following sentences into English.

۱. به سلامت!
۲. به امید دیدار!
۳. خدمت می‌رسم.
۴. تشریف نداشتید.
۵. رسیده‌ام به خیر!
۶. دست شما درد نکند.
۷. چه فرمایشی دارید؟
۸. چشم شما روشن!
۹. مجبور است به همین اتاق کوچک بسازد.
۱۰. مرا مقابل داروخانه پیاده کرد.
۱۱. آیا می‌توانید از گفته‌های او سر در بیاورید؟
۱۲. جای‌تان خالی بود.
۱۳. توی خط این چیزها نیست.
۱۴. با رئیس چپ افتاده است.
۱۵. حالش جا آمد.
۱۶. کار از کار گذشته است.
۱۷. این کار به مرور زمان درست می‌شود.
۱۸. این دو دوست با یکدیگر قهر کرده‌اند.
۱۹. عمرش وفا نکرد.
۲۰. کاری به کارش نداشته باش.

C) Find an appropriate natural equivalent for these English proverbs.

1. When you are in Rome, do as the Romans do.

2. What comes with the wind goes with water.
3. Liars should have good memories.
4. Practice makes perfect.
5. Haste makes waste.
6. A burnt child dreads the fire.
7. One swallow does not make summer.
8. Hoist your sail when the wind is fair.
9. Actions speak louder than words.
10. Too many cooks spoil the broth.
11. A thousand wishes never fill your pail with fishes.
12. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth.
13. Don't count your chickens before they are hatched.
14. Much coin, much care.
15. Do good, and cast it into the sea.
16. Speak of the angels, you hear the sound of their wings.
17. Lies have short wings.
18. Walls have ears.
19. If angels come in, the devils disappear.
20. Absence makes the hearts grow fonder.

D) Underline the idioms and proverbs in the following dialog between a soldier, Grossbart, and a sergeant; then translate the whole dialog.

- “Just a day, Sergeant. I'd take the blame if anything happened.”
- “The captain isn't here to sign a pass.”
- “You could sign.”
- “Look, Grossbart---
- “Sergeant, for two months, practically, I've been eating **trafe** till I want to die.”
- He pointed a finger at me. “You,!” he said. “That wasn't for you to read.”
- “I read it. So what?”
- “That letter was addressed to a congressman.”
- “Grossbart, don't feed me any baloney. You **wanted** me to-read it.”
- “Why are you persecuting me, Sergeant?”
- “Are you kidding!”
- “I've run into this before,” he said, “but never from my own!”
- “Get out of here, Grossbart! Get the hell out of my sight!”
- He did not move. “Ashamed, that's what you are,” he said. “So you take it out on the rest of us. They say Hitler himself was half a Jew. Hearing you, I wouldn't doubt it.”

–“What are you trying to do with me, Grossbart?” I asked him. “What are you after?” “You want me to give you special privileges, to change the food, to find out about your orders, and to give you weekend passes.” “Grossbart, why can’t you be like the rest? Why do you have to stick out like a sore thumb?”

–He made an about-face and headed off.

E) The following sentences have been chosen from the book *اروپاییها*. Underline the English idioms and proverbs. If you think their translations are not appropriate, try to give proper equivalents.

1. Their attitude seemed to imply that she was a kind of conversational mountebank, attired, intellectually, in gauze and spangles.

حالتشان طوری بود که گویی یوجینا زبان بازی است که با زیرکی بر خود تور و پولک آویخته است. (ص ۶۳)

2. You might eat off the floors, and you can sit down on the stairs.

آدم می تواند بر کف زمین غذا بخورد و روی پله ها بنشیند. (ص ۴۹)

3. “Cousin William,” Robert Acton interposed, “do you want to do something handsome? Make them a present, for three months, of the little house over the way.”

“You are generous with other people’s things!” cried his sister.

“Robert is very generous with his own things,” Mr. Wentworth observed dispassionately.

رابرت اکنون وارد بحث شد: «پسر عمو ویلیام، می خواهید کار جالبی بکنید؟ عمارت کوچک رو به رو را به مدت سه ماه در اختیارشان بگذارید.»

خواهرش بانگ برآورد: «با مال مردم خیلی دست و دل بازی!»

آقای ونتورث با لحن خشکی گفت: «رابرت با اموال خودش هم خیلی دست و دل باز است.» (ص ۷۱)

4. Augustine could trust her, but the sense of walking in the dark betrayed itself in the physiognomy of this spare, sober, swallow, middle-aged person.

آگوستین می توانست به او اعتماد کند، اما قیافه این زن میانسال تکیده و موقر و رنگ پریده احساس راه رفتن در تاریکی او را برملا می کرد. (ص ۷۹)

5. What fish did she expect to land out of these very stagnant waters?

انتظار صید کدام ماهی را در این آبهای راكد داشت؟ (ص ۷۹)

III.3. Metonymy, Synecdoche, and Euphemism

“The distinguishing feature of figurative senses is the type of relation they sustain to the primary sense of the word. There is no meaning shared between the (primary and figurative) senses but rather a part-whole or contiguous relationship.” (Beekman and Callow, 1974, p. 95)

Metonymy

They categorize the associative relations of contiguity into three types (1974, p. 97):

- a. temporal (a time word - - - - event)
- b. spatial ('the world' - - - - 'people')
- c. logical (cause - - - - effect)

However, a fourth type may be added:

- d. possessed - - - - possessor

The figure of metonymy is based on any of the associative relations listed under the general heading of 'contiguity'. "Metonymy is a figure of speech that consists in using the name of one thing for that of something else with which it is associated." (*Webster's Third New International Dictionary*)

Type	Metonymy	The thing actually meant
a. Temporal:	پانزده خرداد هفته شهریور بیست و دو بهمن	قیام مردمی (در آن روز) شهادت مردم (در میدان شهدا) پیروزی انقلاب اسلامی (در آن روز) برای مثال: بیست و دو بهمن را گرامی بداریم.
b. Spatial:	world جهان kettle کتری	people مردم جهان water آب
e.g., The kettle is boiling.		
c. Logical:	Hafiz delight	his poetry bright color
e.g., The yellow cuckoo-buds paint the meadows with delight.		
d. Possessed - - - - Possessor:	crown skirt	monarchy woman/girl
e.g., Those lands belong to the crown.		

Synecdoche

Beekman and Callow categorize the associative relations of part-whole into three types (1974, p. 97):

- a. a member - - - - class relation (or generic - - - - specific)
- b. a constituent - - - - whole relation
- c. an attribute - - - - whole

Webster's Third New International Dictionary suggests another type:

- d. the material - - - - thing.

Synecdoche, with which metonymy is often associated, is based on any of the 'part-whole' relations.

Examples:

Type	Synecdoche	The thing actually meant
a.1. Member - - - - Class	cutthroat	assassin
	bread	food

برای مثال: او نان آور خانواده است.

a.2. Class - - - - Member:

creature	man
خلق	انسان / شخص

برای مثال: هر که خدای تعالی را بیازارد تا دل خلقی به دست آرد، خدای تعالی همان خلق را بر وی گمارد تا دمار از روزگارش برآرد.

b.1. Constituent - - - - Whole:

sail	ship
souls	people
white fang	wolf

برای مثال: عمر به خشنودی دلها گذار.

b.2. Whole - - - - Constituent:

the smiling year	spring
------------------	--------

c. An Attribute - - - - Whole:

The Blessed	God
رحمان	خداوند

برای مثال: شکر حق تعالی بر همه واجب است.

d. Material - - - - Thing made of it:

willow	bat
تیر و تخته	لوازم چوبی منزل: مبلمان، میز و غیره
طلا	انگشتر، گردنبند و غیره

برای مثال: رفتیم بازار (چند قطعه) طلا خریدیم.

"Synecdoche and metonymy are alike in that both substitute some significant detail or aspect of an experience for the experience itself." (Perrine, 1970, p. 615)

These two figures of speech may be grouped into 'dead' or 'live' ones. According to Perrine (1970, p. 615), "Many synecdoches and metonymies, of course, like many metaphors, have become so much a part of the language that they no longer strike us as figurative, such as the case with:

redskin	for	Indian
paleface	for	whiteman
salt and tar	for	sailor"

Euphemism

- “1. The substitution of an agreeable or inoffensive word or expression for one that is harsh, indelicate, or otherwise unpleasant or taboo.
2. A polite, tactful, or less explicit term used to avoid the direct naming of an unpleasant, painful, or frightening reality.” (*Webster's Third New International Dictionary*)

“The use—in place of the blunt term for something disagreeable, terrifying, or offensive—of a term that is vaguer, less direct, or less colloquial.” (Abrams, 1971, p. 55)

“They are the reverse of plain speaking about any controversial subject or whatever is taboo in a particular culture. They are the hardest means of disguising the truth of physical fact.” (Newmark, 1988, p. 110)

“The substitution of an acceptable, inoffensive expression for one that is socially unacceptable, offensive, or which may suggest something unpleasant.” (Beekman and Callow, 1974, p. 119)

Qualities of Euphemism and the ‘Substituted’ Word

Euphemism is:	(The direct naming or plain speaking of) The actual controversial thing, taboo, is:
a. acceptable, agreeable, or pleasant (To the HEARER)	a. unacceptable, disagreeable, and unpleasant (To the HEARER)
b. inoffensive, mild, polite, tactful (On the part of the SPEAKER)	b. offensive, harsh, indelicate (On the part of the SPEAKER)
c. less direct/explicit, indirect, vague/vaguer, less colloquial (As LANGUAGE)	c. painful, frightening, terrifying, unpleasant, harsh (As EXPERIENCE)

Euphemism is used in the following semantic fields:

- a. *Sex*: (regarding parts of the body, the bodily functions, adultery, etc.)
e.g., Joseph did not touch her. يوسف او را لمس نکرد.
- b. *Death*:

1. pass away	for	die
2. ملك الموت	for	عزرايل
- c. *Religion*: God, Satan, etc.

1. از ما بهتران	for	genies
2. Gosh darn	for	God damn!

d. *Addiction*: Narcotics, different states of mind, etc.

- | | | |
|----------|-----|--------------------------|
| 1. drugs | for | narcotics; illegal drugs |
| 2. گرد | for | هروین |

e. *Excretion*:

- | | | |
|--|-----|---|
| 1. comfort station (American English)/public convenience (British English) | for | public toilet
(provided by local government) |
| آبریزگاه عمومی | for | توالت عمومی |
| 2. bathroom, restroom, and washroom (American English)/lavatory, WC, loo (British English) | for | toilet |
| دستشویی | for | توالت |

f. *Miscellaneous*:

- | | | |
|--------------------|-----|--------------|
| 1. underprivileged | for | poor |
| 2. اقشار آسیب پذیر | for | فقرای جامعه |
| 3. آقا زاده | for | پسر، پسر شما |

Some Iranians would use 'ضعیفه' (the weaker sex) to refer to their wives or call them. Nowadays, some Iranians may use the name of their son (in the following construction) to call their wives: ('mother of' + son's name),

e.g., 'والده آقا جواد' or 'مادر جواد' (mother of Javad).

Other men, specially young and middle-aged, may refer to their wives informally as 'وزیر جنگ' ('The Minister of War') or 'وزیر کشور' (The Minister of Home Affairs) or more formally as 'حاج خانم' instead of saying 'my wife'.

Translating Metonymy, Synecdoche, and Euphemism

The first step in translating these figures of speech is to recognize them.

If the figure is dead, the existing natural equivalent—whether figurative or nonfigurative—is used in the TL. The possibilities of the equivalent are as follow:

- The same figure is used in the TL to refer to the thing actually meant in the original (e.g., washroom: دستشویی).
- There is an equivalent figure in the TL which can replace the original one (e.g., paleface: سفید پوست).
- In the TL, the thing itself is mentioned directly. Care should be taken to avoid naming a taboo, or something considered unpleasant in the TL,

directly. However, the range of taboos are not the same in different cultures.

d. Sometimes, it will be necessary to use a figurative expression to replace a statement which is not expressed figuratively in the SL.

If the figure is live, it is kept, if possible; that is, if the figure and its associative relation is meaningful and clear to understand in the TL, e.g.,

SL: White Fang

TL: سپید دندان

Exercises

A) Underline the figures of metonymy, synecdoche, and euphemism in the following sentences. Determine whether they are 'dead' figures or 'live' ones and what they really mean. Then translate the sentences into Persian.

1. I don't believe him.
2. Heaven forbid!
3. For Goodness sake!
4. He has gone, poor fellow!
5. We've green stuff.
6. James spent the evening reading Shakespeare.
7. Pray the powers above to give you assistance.
8. He was ogling the heavily mascaraed skirt at the next table.
9. And cuckoo-buds of yellow hue
Do paint the meadows with delight.
10. "Cuckoo, Cuckoo!" O word of fear,
Unpleasing to a married ear!
11. I should have been a pair of ragged claws
Scuttling across the floors of silent seas.

B) Underline the figures of metonymy, synecdoche, and euphemism in the following sentences. Then translate these sentences into English.

- | | |
|---|--|
| ۹. شاه تاج و تخت خویش را بر فنا می‌دید. | ۱. حق تعالی روزی همه را فراهم می‌کند. |
| ۱۰. دستم به دامنیت! کمکم کن. | ۲. دست بالای دست بسیار است. |
| ۱۱. خونت را می‌ریزم! | ۳. خیاری که خوردم چقدر تلخ بود! |
| ۱۲. مرا باشد از درد طفلان خبر | ۴. اصلاً این آهن پاره حرکت می‌کند؟ |
| که در خُردی از سر برفتم پدر | ۵. تهران در برابر توطئه‌های امریکا |
| ۱۳. از زاد معنی چیزی با من نمانده بود و | سکوت نمی‌کند. |
| دل بر هلاک نهاده بودم. | ۶. اگرچه زنش را طلاق داده بود، باز به او |
| ۱۴. دلش نمی‌خواهد مزاحمش شویم. | رجوع کرد. |
| ۱۵. عمر به خشنودی دلها گذار | ۷. دست اجل او را نیز با خود برد. |
| تا ز تو خشنود بود کردگار | ۸. خیلی نصیحت کردم ولی کو گوش |
| | شنوا؟ |

Chapter IV

Structure: How to Say Things

IV.1. Basic Sentence Patterns

Sentences may be categorized according to:

- a. the type into: **simple**, compound, complex, and compound-complex;
- b. the syntactic class into: **statement** (declarative), question (interrogative), and exclamation (exclamatory);
- c. the order of words into: **neutral** (nonemphatic), and emphatic;
- d. the form into: **affirmative**, and negative;
- e. the completeness into: **complete** (regular), elliptical, and defective;
- f. the elements into: **obligatory** and optional; and
- g. the voice into: **active** and passive.

A **sentence pattern** is a linear representation of the structure of a sentence expressed in terms of syntactic functions such as subject, object, complement, etc. A **basic sentence pattern** refers to the structure of simple affirmative statements in the most neutral order without any optional deletions or transformations (as underlined above). Other sentence patterns come from basic sentence patterns. The basic patterns can be expanded by the addition of various optional adverbials (of time, manner, frequency, etc.). The following are basic patterns in English taken from Quirk et al. (1975, p. 167):

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. S V _i | 5. S V _t O A |
| 2. S V _{li} A | 6. S V _t O C _o |
| 3. S V _l C _s | 7. S V _t O _i O _d |
| 4. S V _t O | |

The above symbols refer to sentence elements as:

S = Subject

V = Verb (intransitive, transitive, or linking)

A = Adverb or prepositional phrase

C = An adjective or noun as Complement (of subject or object)

O = Object (indirect or direct)

A comparison of the basic sentence patterns in English and Persian will be made, and examples be given for each pattern.

Sentence Pattern 1

Subject	Verb intransitive	Verb intransitive	Subject
1. The wind	blew.	وزید.	باد
2. The audience	laughed.	خندیدند.	حضار
3. A carriage	came.	آمد.	کالسکه‌ای
4. It	is raining.*	می‌بارد.	باران
Compound verb**			
5. That man	teaches.	درس می‌دهد.	آن مرد
6. My brother	works.	کار می‌کند.	برادرم
7. He	departed.	عزیمت کرد.	او
8. Water	flows.	جریان دارد.	آب
9. He	rose.	برخواست.	او
10. Birds	fly.	پرواز می‌کنند.	پرندگان

* Sometimes 'it' refers to weather phenomenon and is concerned with events involving precipitation. In Persian, a noun (such as 'باران', 'برف') is used as its equivalent.

** Compound verbs in Persian consist of an unstressed verbal element and a stressed nonverbal element which may be (a) a noun, (b) an adjective, (c) an adverb, or (d) a preposition, such as:

English equivalent	Verbal element	+	Nonverbal element
To work	کردن		(N.) کار
To find	کردن		(Adj.) پیدا
To advance	رفتن		(Adv.) پیش
To run away	رفتن		(Prep.) در

"Generic objects form compounds with the verb. They are not marked with the direct object marker: To read books (کتاب خواندن)" (Thackston, 1978, p. 82)

The same pattern is used in Persian and English. However, the non-verbal element of the compound verb in Persian may be confused with an object or complement.

Sentence Pattern 2

2.A. Subject	Verb (linking)	Adverb/PP	Verb	Adverb/PP	Subject
1. That man	is	here.	است.	اینجا	آن مرد
2. The students	remain	in class.	می مانند.	در کلاس	دانش آموزان
3. He	stayed	at home.	ماند.	در خانه	او
4. My parents	are	away.	هستند.	در سفر	والدینم
5. The meeting	is	at 8 o'clock.	برگزار می شود.	ساعت هشت	جلسه

The same pattern is used in Persian except that the verb and adverb exchange their places.

A variation of this pattern combines 'there' as a sort of dummy subject when the real subject is indefinite.

2.B. Subject	Verb (linking)	Subject	Adverb/PP	Verb	Adverb/PP	Subject
1. There	is	some money	in my pocket.	هست.	در جیبم	مقداری پول
2. There	will be	a parade	downtown.	برپا می شود.	در مرکز شهر	یک راهپیمایی
3. There	is	a pressure	on me.	قرار دارم.	تحت فشار	من

Persian uses 'SAV' or 'ASV' as its equivalent. 'There' has no equivalent. Intransitive verbs may also be used in pattern 2.

2.C. Subject	Verb (intransitive)	Adverb/PP	Verb	Adverb/PP	Subject
1. He	got	through the window.	وارد شد.	از پنجره	او
2. We	didn't go	anywhere.	نرفتم.	جایی	ما
3. She	entered	the room.	وارد شد.	به اتاق	او
4. A chair	stands	on four legs.	می ایستد.	روی چهار پایه	صندلی

Sentence Pattern 3

3.A. Subject	Verb (linking)	Complement (of subject)	Verb	Complement	Subject
1. That man	is	a merchant.	است.	تاجر	آن مرد
2. His son	became	chairman.	رسید.	به ریاست	پسرش
3. He	remains	a student.	خواهد ماند.	دانش آموز	او
4. He	is	intelligent.	است.	باهوش	او

Sentence Pattern 3 (Cont.)

3.A. Subject	Verb (linking)	Complement (of subject)	Verb	Complement	Subject
5. Peter	seems (to be)	stupid.	به نظر می‌رسد.	احمق	پیتِر
6. The team	grew	tired.	شد.	خسته	تیم
7. This soup	tastes	good.	دارد.	مزه خوبی	این سوپ
8. The table	appears (to be)	smooth.	به نظر می‌رسد.	صاف	میز
9. The milk	turned	sour.	شد.	ترش	شیر
10. Ahmad	turned	red.	شد.	سرخ	رنگ احمد
11. This tea	smells	good.	است.	خوب	بوی این چای
			دارد / می‌دهد.	بوی خوبی	(این چای)
12. This wall	feels	rough.	دارد.	سطح ناصافی	این دیوار
13. The plan	proved	useless.	از آب در نیامد.	نقشه خوبی	—
14. His dream	came	true.	از آب درآمد.	درست	رویايش
15. The wall	is	white.	است.	سفید	(رنگ) دیوار
16. This pool	is	deep.	است.	عمیق	این استخر
			دارد.	عمق زیادی	(این استخر)
17. Ali	is	strong.	است.	قوی	علی
			است.	زیاد	(زور علی)
			دارد.	زور زیادی	(علی)
18. That book	is	cheap.	است.	ارزان	آن کتاب
			دارد.	قیمت کمی	(آن کتاب)
			است.	کم	(قیمت آن کتاب)
19. This pool	is	two meters deep.	دارد.	دو متر عمق	این استخر
			است.	(عمق این استخر)	دو متر
20. That car	is	mine.	است.	مال من	آن ماشین

The subject complement is a noun or adjective which tells something about the subject.

The list of linking verbs, which connect the subject to the complement, includes the followings:

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| a. be, remain, stay, etc. | بودن، ماندن، ... |
| b. look, seem, appear, etc. | به نظر رسیدن |
| c. become, grow, turn, get, come, go, etc. | شدن |
| d. smell, taste, sound, feel, etc. | 'اسم' داشتن، 'اسم' دادن |

If the English adjective refers to the complexion of the subject, the subject in Persian usually takes the form of 'رنگی' or صورت + 'subject' (the color/the face of + subject) (example No. 10).

The expressions containing verbs of sensory perception, group 'd', plus adjectives can be expressed in Persian in two ways:

- 1) The nominal cognate (noun with the same meaning) of the verb will be combined with the subject and the verb changes to 'بودن' ('to be'); (e.g., Nos. 11 and 12).
- 2) The nominal cognate of the verb will be combined with the adjective to make a noun phrase used as the complement; the verb changes to the verbs 'داشتن' ('to have') or 'دادن' ('to give'); (examples 7, 11, and 12).

When the complement assigns some quality (usually color) to the subject, (e.g., item 15), it may also be expressed in two other ways:

- a) 'رنگی' + NP (subject) + Adjective + 'بودن' رنگ دیوار سفید است.
- b) NP (subject) + 'رنگی' + Adjective + 'داشتن' دیوار رنگ سفید دارد.

When the complement assigns some measure quality or gradable descriptive attributes to the NP (subject), (e.g., items 17, 18, and 19), in Persian this pattern can be expressed in two more ways:

- a) NC-e* + NP (subject) + 'زیاد' ('much') / or 'کم' ('little') + 'بودن' عمق این استخر زیاد است.
- b) NP (subject) + NC-e + 'زیادی' or 'کمی' + 'داشتن' این استخر عمق زیادی دارد.

* 'NC-e' is the nominal cognate of the adjective which makes an NP with the subject or the adjective.

The measure quality may be quantified by placing a measure unit before the adjective (of the upper extreme) in English and by putting it in place of 'زیاد' or 'کم' in the above pattern (in the previous paragraph); (see item 19).

There is a special case of this pattern (pattern 3) which contains a dummy 'it' as subject referring to:

- some point or period in time,
- distance,
- some sort of sensation,
- weather conditions, and
- identifying the person (in response to the expressions such as 'Who is it?')

3.B. It	Verb (linking)	Complement (of subject)	Verb	Complement	Subject
1. It	was	late.	بود.	دیر	—
2. It	is	10:30.	است.	ده و نیم	(ساعت)
				ساعت ده و نیم	(الان)
3. It	's	Monday.	است.	دوشنبه	(امروز)
4. It	was	hot.	بود.	گرم	هوا
5. It	is	sunny.	بود.	آفتابی	هوا
6. It	's	a nice day.	است.	روز زیبایی	(امروز)
7. It	's	a cloudy night.	است.	شب ابری	(امشب)
8. It	's	me.	آم.	من	(این)
9. It	's	300 Kms to Tehran. (The distance to Tehran is 300 Kms.)	است.	۳۰۰ کیلومتر	فاصله اینجا تا تهران
10. It	's	far.	است.	دور	(تا آنجا)
11. It	is	noisy there.	است.	شلوغ	آنجا
12. It	is	thirty miles.	است.	سی مایل	تا آنجا
13. It	is	before sunrise.	است.	قبل از طلوع آفتاب	(الان)
14. It	is	my birthday.	است.	روز تولد من	امروز

In Persian, the subject can usually be deleted in this pattern.

When the subject is an infinitive phrase, a participial phrase, or a nominal that-clause, a variation of this pattern is used; that is, the subject transforms to the final position, and a dummy 'it' fills the subject position.

3.C. It	Verb (linking)	Complement	Subject	Verb (linking)	Complement	Subject
1. It	is	nice	to see you.	هستم.	خوشوقت	من از دیدار شما
2. It	is	no good	hoping for their help	است.	بی فایده	امیدواری به کمک آنها
3. It	was	impossible	to go further.	بود.	ناممکن	پیشروی
4. It	is	necessary	for you to be economical	است.	ضروری	صرفه جویی برای شما
5. It	is	necessary	that you be so economical	است.	که خیلی صرفه جویی کنید.	لازم

Persian usually uses the 'SCV' pattern as its equivalent. Sometimes, especially when there is a that-clause in English, Persian may use a '-CVS' pattern (item 5).

Sentence Pattern 4

Subject	Verb (transitive)	Object	Verb (transitive)	Object	Subject
1. I	will mail	the letter.	پُست خواهم کرد.	نامه را	من
2. His friend	wrote	a book.	نوشت.	کتابی	دوستش
3. This book	costs	ten dollars.	می‌ارزد.	ده دلار	این کتاب
4. They	received	some gifts.	دریافت کردند.	هدایایی	آنها
5. We	lit	a fire.	روشن کردیم.	آتشی	ما
6. They	were throwing	stones.	می‌انداختند.	سنگ	آنها
7. I	like	him.	خوشم می‌آید.	از او	من
8. Parvin	married	a doctor.	ازدواج کرد.	با یک دکتر	پروین
9. He	helped	me.	کمک کرد.	به من	او
10. They	fought	a merciless fight.*	بی‌رحمانه جنگیدند.		آنها
11. She	laughed	a merry laugh.*	از ته دل خندید.		او
12. He	died	a violent death.*	به سختی جان داد.		او

Persian uses the 'SOV' pattern as the equivalent of the English 'SVO' pattern. When the subject is a pronoun, it may be deleted in Persian.

As it was mentioned earlier in this lesson, generic objects may form compounds with the verb. For example, item number 6 has the pattern 'SV' in Persian; that is, 'سنگ می‌انداختند' is a compound verb. Note that 'سنگ' is in the singular form.

* There is a small group of verbs in English with cognate objects. The corresponding Persian equivalents usually contain an adverb of manner used with an intransitive verb. The equivalent pattern in Persian is 'SAV'. See sentences 10, 11, and 12.

When the object is generic or nonspecific, the direct object marker 'را' is deleted in Persian; e.g., items 2, 3, 4, and 5.

Sometimes Persian uses an indirect or prepositional object in place of the English direct object. Thus the equivalent pattern in Persian will be 'SP_oV'. See items 7, 8, and 9. Some English direct objects which are translated in Persian by prepositional objects are preceded by the following verbs: like, dislike, meet, hate, marry, fight, tell, answer, help, serve, enter, discuss, treat, fit, suit, etc.

Sentence Pattern 5

Subject	Verb	Object	Adverb	Verb	Adverb	Object	Subject
1. I	put	the book	on the desk.	من	کتاب را	روی میز گذاشتم.	
2. I	saw	Hasan	yesterday.	من	حسن را	دیروز دیدم.	
				(من)	دیروز حسن را	دیدم.	
3. He	left	the book	here.	او	کتاب را اینجا	جا گذاشت.	
4. He	took	his hat	off.	او	کلاهش را	از سر برداشت.	

Sentence Pattern 6

Subject	Verb (transitive)	Object	Complement	Verb (transitive)	Complement	Object	Subject
1. People	elected	him	president.	مردم	او را به ریاست جمهوری	برگزیدند.	
2. We	called	him	a hero.	ما	او را قهرمان	خواندیم.	
3. They	chose	Mr. Smith	chairman.	آنها	آقای اسمیت را به ریاست	برگزیدند.	
4. They	named	their son	David.	آنها	نام پسرشان را دیوید	گذاشتند.	
5. We	found	him	happy.	ما	او را خوشحال	یافتیم.	
6. The sun	keeps	us	warm.	آفتاب	ما را گرم	می‌کند.	
7. We	painted	the box	green.	ما	جعبه را رنگ سبز	زدیم.	
8. They	set	the prisoners	free.	آنها	زندانیان را آزاد	کردند.	
9. I	pushed	the door	open.	من	در را باهل دادن	باز کردم.	
				(من)	در را هل دادم و باز کردم.		
10. He	kept	me	waiting.	او	مرا معطل	گذاارد.	

Sometimes the complement and the verb make a compound verb in Persian; such as 'گرم کردن', 'آزاد کردن', 'معطل گذاردن', and 'باز کردن'.

Sometimes, the Persian equivalents may contain two verbs, one used instead of the complement (e.g., sentence 9).

Sentence Pattern 7

Subject	Verb (transitive)	Object _i	Object _d	Verb (transitive)	Object _d	Object _i	Subject
1. I	gave	him	a book.	من	به او کتابی	دادم.	
2. Parvin	told	him	something.	پروین	به او چیزی	گفت.	
3. I	read	him	the letter.	من	برایش نامه را	خواندم.	

Sentence Pattern 7 (Cont.)

Subject	Verb (transitive)	Object _i	Object _d	Verb (transitive)	Object _d	Object _i	Subject
4. He	paid	me	the money.	پرداخت.	پول را	به من	او
						(او پول را به من پرداخت.)	
5. She	made	herself	a cup of tea.	او	برای خودش	یک فنجان چای درست کرد.	
6. He	did	me	a favor.	او	در حق من	لطیفی کرد.	
7. I	get	you	a copy of that book.	من	برای شما	یک نسخه از آن کتاب را می آورم.	
8. I	envy	Mary	her talent.	من	به مری	به دلیل استعدادش حسودیم می شود.	

The above sentences can be used with the preposition 'to' (sentences 1, 2, 3, and 4), or with 'for' (sentences 6, 7, and 8), in the pattern 'SVO_dP_o' as well. However, with some verbs, e.g., 'spare', 'envy', 'afford', 'cost', and 'deny', this pattern with prepositional object cannot be used (sentence 8).

Moreover, with other verbs such as 'explain' and 'show', only the 'SVO_dP_o' pattern is possible to be used; for example,

He explained the situation to me.

In Persian both patterns-'SVO_dO_i' and 'SVO_iO_d'-may be used, but in either case the indirect object is preceded by a preposition, and the direct object, if it is specific or definite is followed by 'را'.

Persian may use a part of one's body (or something related to a person) as the grammatical subject of a sentence. Such a sentence should usually be rendered into English with a logical subject. These sentences in Persian may be categorized into four groups:

Group 1. Persian pattern: NP + Poss. Pron. + Adjective + Verb

English pattern: Logical Subject. + Feel/Be + Adjective

1. He feels/is glad. خوشحاله.
2. I feel/am relieved. فکرم راحت شد.
3. I feel/am dizzy. سرم گیج می رود.
4. I feel/am worried for him. دلم برایش شور می زند.
5. I feel sleepy. خوابم می آید.
6. I feel nausea. دلم به هم می خورد.

Group 2. Persian pattern: NP + Poss. Pron. (+ Complement) + Verb

English pattern: Logical Subject + Have + Predicate

1. I have chaps on my hands. دستهایم چروک خورده است.
2. I have a headache. سرم درد می کند.
3. I have a crook in my back. پشتم خم شده است.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| 4. I have a throbbing pain in my hand. | دستهایم می سوزد. |
| 5. I have decayed teeth. | دندانهایم کرم خورده است. |
| 6. He has a good brain. | کله اش خوب کار می کند. |

Group 3. Persian pattern: NP + Poss. Pron. + Verb

English pattern: Logical Subject + Verb + NP (which includes the Persian subject)

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. I burned my hands. | دستهایم سوخت. |
| 2. I got short of breath. | نفسم بند آمد. |
| 3. I am beginning to sneeze. | عطسه ام می گیرد. |
| 4. I stammer. | زبانم می گیرد. |
| 5. I flared up in anger. | کفرم در آمد. |
| 6. He was surprised. | چشمهایش گرد شد. |

Many idioms are expressed in this Persian pattern.

Group 4. Persian pattern: NP + Poss. Pron. (+ Complement) + Verb

English pattern: Poss. Pron. + NP + Verb (+ Complement)

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. My hands swelled. | دستهایم ورم کرد. |
| 2. My body got wet. | بدنم خیس شد. |
| 3. My eyes got tired. | چشمهایم خسته شد. |
| 4. His hair is thick. | موهایش پرپشت است. |
| 5. My hiccup stopped. | سکسکه ام بند آمد. |
| 6. My hair is scurfy. | سرم شوره می زند. |
| 7. My nose was stuffed. | بینی ام گرفت. |

The English renderings of the above Persian sentences have almost the same structure as their Persian counterparts.

Exercises

A) Translate the following sentences into Persian.

- | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. The fire burns. | 11. He broke his leg. |
| 2. The audience applauded. | 12. He dreamed a terrible dream. |
| 3. Ahmad became pale. | 13. Naser sang a beautiful song. |
| 4. Susan is intelligent. | 14. I have wrinkles on my forehead. |
| 5. It was 1996. | 15. He turned pale. |
| 6. It's Javad. | 16. I lost my patience. |
| 7. It is important to go. | 17. His mouth watered. |
| 8. I am fine. | 18. Tears came into my eyes. |
| 9. I felt pleasant. | 19. His life failed him. |
| 10. I feel pity for him. | 20. It's hot in here. |

B) Translate these sentences into English.

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| ۱. خیلی دیر شد. | ۱۹. شب سردی است. |
| ۲. چهار کیلومتر راه است. | ۲۰. پنج شنبه بود. |
| ۳. زود خوابیدن کار خوبی است. | ۲۱. درس خواندن مشکل است. |
| ۴. پروین با یک مهندس ازدواج کرد. | ۲۲. حسابی کتک خوردند. |
| ۵. کفرم درآمد. | ۲۳. دلم درد می‌کند. |
| ۶. هیچ چیزی را برایم انکار نکرد. | ۲۴. معلم دارد درس می‌دهد. |
| ۷. این گل بوی خوشی دارد. | ۲۵. مقداری پول روی میز است. |
| ۸. قیمت این ژاکت زیاد است. | ۲۶. رنگ اتاق آبی بود. |
| ۹. برف می‌بارد. | ۲۷. ارتفاع این دیوار زیاد است. |
| ۱۰. الان زود است. | ۲۸. باران می‌آید. |
| ۱۱. از اینجا تا تهران ۲۰۰ کیلومتر است. | ۲۹. هوا ابری است. |
| ۱۲. هوا مه‌آلود است. | ۳۰. ساعت ده است. |
| ۱۳. رنگش پرید. | ۳۱. مَنَم. |
| ۱۴. این جای بوی خوبی می‌دهد. | ۳۲. یک نفر در باغ است. |
| ۱۵. این غذا خوشمزه است. | ۳۳. این دیوار سطح صافی دارد. |
| ۱۶. طول این در دو متر است. | ۳۴. به نظر می‌رسد جواد خوشحال است. |
| ۱۷. آن میز یک متر عرض دارد. | ۳۵. سنش زیاد است. |
| ۱۸. ارتفاع برف یک متر بود. | ۳۶. هفتاد سال دارد. |

C) Read the following passage and say to which pattern each sentence belongs.

Looking on the Bright Side

IT IS WELL known that no news is good news; what is less widely understood is that good news is bad news. And this particular bit of truly significant news has not yet, apparently, penetrated to China, where the authorities have decreed, according to a report by the *Daily Telegraph's* inquisitive and entertaining Peking correspondent, Graham Earnshaw, that only good news is to be reported, and that stories of such negative matters as crime and corruption are no longer to be published.

It won't work I'm afraid. The heirs of Mao are only the latest in the long line of those who have dreamed the same dream; that if you do not draw attention to the darkness, it will turn to light of its own accord. The hunger is constantly making itself felt in this country, too; it's a poor month that doesn't see a letter in one newspaper or another complaining that the press prints only bad news. Yet a newspaper which published nothing but that which can be seen through rose-colored spectacles would speedily find its readers deserting in their numbers to rivals unafraid of pointing out that life is not altogether a bowl of cherries, and the only reason that such a fate will

not overtake the Chinese papers under the new dispensation is that readers have no rival sheets to desert to.

The problem can be summed up in a dozen words: We do not wish to be told that which we already know. We know that most husbands do not murder their wives, that few bank managers abscond with the funds, that although some aeroplanes crash, far more arrive safely, that not every dog will bite. And we know these things for a reason far deeper and more important than that provided by the statistics which bear out our convictions. We are instinctively possessed of the truth that the universe runs on the principle that the bad is the exception to the good.

And it follows from this that what attracts our attention and awakens our interest is the exception, which means, broadly speaking, the bad news. A headline reading 'Nearly 55,000,000 people not struck by lightning in Britain last year' will not sell newspapers, nor will it deserve to. And I cannot believe that things are any different in China, where a news item in the *People's Daily* recording the fact that practically all the wheat sown the previous spring had grown upwards rather than downwards is unlikely to have the readers spilling their breakfast coffee into their laps in their excitement.

Crime in China will not diminish merely because the newspapers are forbidden to mention it, nor will the incidence of corruption among Chinese officials or politicians be less because there is a general pretense that there isn't any. In Paradise, no doubt, nothing unpleasant ever happens. Here below, other standards obtain. When mosques or synagogues are built, a patch or a corner of the building is always left unfinished; perfection belongs only to Allah or Jehovah, and it is not for men to pretend to it. In China, however, though they do not believe they are already perfect, they believe that by telling each other that they are they will presently come to be.

Bernard Levin: *Speaking Up*

IV.2. Words, Phrases, and Clauses: Contents of Sentence Patterns

Nouns

Nouns can fill the positions of a subject, an object, an object of preposition, a complement, and an appositive.

A noun may take the form of a word, phrase or clause.

1. Single-Word Nouns

Single-word nouns may be:

- a. a proper noun—names of a person, place, geographical spot, book, ...

- b. a common noun-noncount nouns or plural count nouns
- c. a personal pronoun
- d. a gerund

Examples:

1. **Dogs** bite fiercely. (Subject)
2. John sent Mary **money**. (Direct object)
3. He told **Javad** the truth. (Indirect object)
4. I took it from **Ali**. (Object of preposition)
5. They elected John **president**. (Objective complement)
6. John waited at the **bus** stop. (Premodifier or nominator)
7. The most fierce beasts, **wolves**, live and hunt in groups. (Appositive)
8. **Ali**, come here. (Direct address)
9. I like **swimming**. (Direct object-gerund)



2. Phrases

Phrases functioning as nouns may be: a noun phrase, a gerund + predicate, or an infinitive + predicate.

A) Noun Phrases

The structure of a noun phrase in English is:

NP → Determiner(s) (+ Adjective(s)) (+ Premodifying Noun(s)) + Head
Noun (+ Postmodifier(s))

Examples:

1. **That house** belongs to my uncle. (Subject)
2. My husband sells **expensive Chinese antiques**. (Direct object)
3. My uncle sold **that rich couple** some expensive antiques. (Indirect object)
4. I waited for **my brother** for two hours. (Object of preposition)
5. My uncle is **the richest man in town**. (Subjective complement)
6. I consider my uncle **a very fortunate man**. (Objective complement)

B) Gerund Phrases

The structure of a gerund phrase in English is:

GP → (Noun/Possessive/Object Form of Pronoun) (+ Not +) Gerund (+ Predicate)

Examples:

1. **Interviewing small children** is amusing. (Subject)
2. **Her cleaning the house everyday** is not necessary. (Subject)

3. My father's favorite pastime is **collecting foreign stamps**. (Subjective complement)
4. I have always been interested in **learning about different cultures**. (Object of preposition)
5. My father really enjoys his favorite pastime, **collecting stamps**. (Appositive)
6. Her husband appreciates **her cleaning the house everyday**. (Direct object)

Forms of Gerunds

General	Perfect
<i>Active:</i> offering	having offered, having been offering
<i>Passive:</i> being offered	having been offered

The gerund phrase may be used as the head noun or postmodifier in an of-phrase. For example:

1. The idea of **Hasan's getting a job as a travelling salesman** doesn't appeal to his wife. (Postmodifier)
2. **The storing** of the merchandise became a problem after the warehouse burned down. (Head noun)
3. **The shouting** of the children disturbed his sleep. (Head noun)

In sentence 2 above, the phrase 'the merchandise' is the object of the gerund 'storing'.

In sentence 3 above, the phrase 'the children' is the subject of the gerund 'shouting'. In this pattern, intransitive verbs are mostly used.

The gerund phrase is also used after prepositions. For example:

He is interested in **learning languages**.

The following verbs may precede a gerund (phrase) used as a direct object:

acknowledge	enjoy	practice
admit	escape	prevent
anticipate	*excuse	quit
appreciate	finish	recall
avoid	forgive	recommend
can't help	justify	resent
consider	imagine	resist
defer	keep (continue)	risk

delay	mention	stop
deny	mind (dislike)	suggest
detest	miss	*understand
discuss	postpone	be used to

*These verbs are always followed by the possessive forms before the gerund.

Persian may use an infinitive, a cognate noun (a noun derived from the verb), or a noun clause as the equivalent of the gerund (phrases) used after the above verbs. For example:

1. Sometimes it's impossible to prevent **fighting among children**.

(Cognate noun) گاهی نمی‌شود از دعوی بین بچه‌ها جلوگیری کرد.

2. I like **swimming**.

(Infinitive) من شنا کردن را دوست دارم.

3. I didn't mention **seeing you yesterday**.

(Noun clause) من نگفتم که دیروز شما را دیدم.

C) Infinitive Phrases

The structure of an infinitive phrase is:

IP → (for/of/to + Subject +) (not +) Infinitive (+ Predicate)

Forms of Infinitives

General	Perfect
<i>Active:</i> to offer, to be offering	to have offered, to have been offering
<i>Passive:</i> to be offered	to have been offered

Examples:

1. **For her to clean the house everyday** is absolutely necessary. (Subject)
Or It is absolutely necessary for her to clean the house everyday.
2. I have always liked **to study business**. (Object)
3. His desire has been **to enter graduate school**. (Subjective complement)
4. He had only one desire—**for his family to be in good health**. (Appositive)

When the subject of a sentence is an infinitive phrase, a gerund phrase, or a noun clause, the English language often a) uses the pronoun 'it' as the false subject of the sentence and b) places the subject after the verb/adjective (see the second form of example 1 above).

The following verbs may precede an infinitive (phrase) used as a direct object:

Group 1. The 'subject' of the main verb is the 'subject' of the infinitive.

(can) affect	determine	proceed
agree	endeavor	promise
appear	fail	prove
arrange	forget	refuse
arrive	happen	resolve
be	hesitate	seek
bother	hope	seem
care (neg. and interrog.)	intend	struggle
choose (= prefer)	learn	swear
claim	manage	tend
come	mean	threaten
consent	neglect	undertake
decide	offer	venture
demand	plan	volunteer
deserve	prepare	wait
	pretend	

Example: I can't afford to buy a new coat.

The infinitive 'to buy' refers to 'I', the subject of the main verb 'can't afford'.

Group 2. The 'object' of the main verb is the 'subject' of the infinitive.

advise	empower	invite	urge
allow	enable	motivate	warn
appoint	encourage	oblige	
cause	entitle	order	
caution	forbid	permit	
challenge	force	persuade	
coerce	get (= cause)	remind	
command	help	request	
compel	hire	require	
condemn	implore	show ... how	
dare (= challenge)	incite	teach	
defy	induce	tell	
direct	instruct	tempt	

Example: I advise you to buy a new coat.

The infinitive 'to buy' refers to 'you', the object of the main verb 'advise'.

Group 3. Either the subject or the object of the main verb may be the subject of the infinitive.

ask	dislike	prepare
beg	expect	want
choose	like	wish
dare	need	
desire	prefer	

Examples: 1. I want to buy a new coat.

'to buy' refers to 'I', the subject of the main verb 'want'.

2. I want you to buy a new coat.

'to buy' refers to 'you', the object of the main verb 'want'.

Some verbs may be followed by either infinitive phrase objects or gerund phrase objects.

abhor	disdain	need
advise	dislike	neglect
allow	dread	permit
attempt	endure	plan
cannot bear (also	forbid	prefer
interrog.)	* forget	* regret
begin	hate	* remember
cease	hesitate	scorn
commence	intend	cannot stand (also
continue	like	interrog.)
decline	love	start
		* stop

* The infinitive after the verbs 'forget,' 'regret,' 'remember,' and 'stop' refers to an action that happens **after** the action of the main verb. The gerund after these verbs refers to an action that happens **before** the action of the main verb.

The following verbs may be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive construction, but the meaning changes:

mean + infinitive = intend

mean + gerund = result in

propose + infinitive = plan; intend

propose + gerund = suggest

try + infinitive = to make an effort

try + gerund = experiment

Some verbs are followed by two-part objects containing to-less infinitives as the second part.

bid (= request)	listen to
dare (in neg. or interrog. when not followed by an object)	look at
feel	make (= compel)
have	notice
hear	observe
help	overhear
let (= allow)	see
	watch

Example: She watched the passengers get off the bus.

When the passive of such verbs is used, the 'to' is usually required; e.g.,

The children were made to clean their own rooms.

With verbs of perception, the -ing form (participial) may also be used in the active or passive.

Persian usually uses a subjunctive form and sometimes a noun clause as the equivalent of the infinitives used after the verbs in the above-mentioned lists.

Examples:

1. I like to swim.

(Subjunctive) من دوست دارم شنا کنم.

2. He hopes to receive a scholarship for next year.

(Subjunctive) او امیدوار است که سال دیگر بورس تحصیلی دریافت کند.

2. She threatened to call the police.

(Noun clause) او تهدید کرد که به پلیس خبر می دهد.

3. Noun Clauses

Clauses functioning as nouns are dependent sentences beginning with a subordinator such as: that, which, where, who, whom, what, why, when, how, whether (or not), if, etc.

Examples:

1. **Why she was angry** surprised me. (Subject)
 2. **That the world is facing a food shortage** is a fact. (Subject)
- Or It is a fact **that the world is facing a food shortage**. (Subject)
3. We didn't hear **what they were talking about**. (Object)
 4. I was worried about **how sick he was**. (Object of preposition)
 5. The question is **whether he will get the money**. (Subjective complement)
 6. His belief **that coffee grows in Brazil** is correct. (Appositive)
 7. I'm sure **that he will succeed**. (Adjective complement)

A noun clause may be derived from a statement, question, request, or exclamation; however, the order of words in it is always statement, that is, 'Subject + Verb + Predicate'.

The use of a noun clause beginning with 'that' as the subject of the sentence is very formal (e.g., sentence 2 above). In less formal situations, speakers of English often use the dummy 'it' as the subject of the sentence and place the noun clause at the end of the sentence (the second form of sentence 2).

Adjectives

Adjectives may be used after verbs, as complement (of subject or object). Also it usually constitutes part of a noun phrase and modifies a noun. An adjective may take the form of a word, phrase or clause.

1. Single-Word Adjectives

Single-word adjectives may precede a noun, or follow a verb or a noun.

Examples:

1. The **tall** man asked me a **difficult** question.
2. It came **true**.
3. I found it **easy**.
4. The **falling** stones make this road **dangerous**.
5. This yogurt tastes **sour**.

Some adjectives may be used *only* in a noun phrase, such as: lone, former, elder, eldest, little, main, chief, principal, mere, very, only, particular, live, inner, outer, upper.

Some others may be used *only* as a complement, such as: alone, alike, awake, asleep, afraid, aware, ashamed, unable, glad, content, well.

In the following situations, the adjectives are used after the nouns:

- a) the adjectives: possible, available, responsible, involved, concerned;
e.g., We'd like to speak to the person **responsible**.
- b) after lengths and measures; and
e.g., 2 years old; 10 meters high
- c) after indefinite pronouns ending in -body, -one, -thing, -where.
e.g., something available

2. Adjective Phrases

Adjective phrases may take the form of a prepositional phrase, participial phrase, or an infinitive phrase, usually following the noun they modify as post-

modifiers. For example:

1. We regard him a man of courage. (Prepositional phrase)
به نظر ما او مرد جسوری است.
2. The essays **written in this book** are very interesting. (Participial phrase)
مقاله‌هایی که در این کتاب نوشته شده خیلی جالب است.
3. This library does not contain any studies **dealing with the psychological effects of the Civil War**. (Participial phrase)
این کتابخانه در مورد اثرات روانی جنگ داخلی هیچ کتاب تحقیقاتی ندارد.
4. The man **to see** is standing over there. (Infinitive)
مردی که باید ببینیم آنجا ایستاده است.
5. The next question **to be considered** is the crucial one. (Infinitive)
مسئله بعدی که باید مطرح شود مسأله‌ای بحث‌انگیز خواهد بود.

The participial phrase may take the same form as the gerund.

The participial and infinitive phrases are usually translated into their counterpart adjective clauses in Persian.

3. Adjective Clauses

Adjective clauses are dependent sentences beginning with a relative pronoun or adverb: who, whom, whose, that*, which, when, where, why, before, after, the same ... as, etc. An adjective clause modifies the noun which comes before it (antecedent). It may also come after the sentence and modify the whole sentence.

* 'that' may replace 'who', 'whom', or 'which' in restrictive clauses when they are not preceded by a preposition.

Examples:

1. He paid the money to the man who (or that) had done the work.
(antecedent) (adj. clause)
 2. Here is the house **where** I live.
 3. This is the girl **whose** picture you saw.
 4. The concert **which** I told you about was last night.
- Or The concert **about which** I told you was last night.
5. Javad made high grades on his exams, **which made his parents happy.**
(Adjective clause which modifies the whole sentence.)

An adjective clause is either necessary to identify the noun it follows (a defining or restrictive clause) or it is unnecessary (a nondefining or nonrestrictive clause). An unnecessary adjective clause gives additional information about the noun, and it is separated by commas around it or before it from the rest of the sentence. The adjective clauses are unnecessary

when

a) the antecedent has already been modified enough;

e.g., 1. Late in the evening they sent out for some coffee. The coffee, **which had been boiling for a long time**, tasted rancid.

e.g., 2. The first grammar test, **which was on the tenses**, was difficult for me.

b) the antecedent is a proper noun;

e.g., 1. Many people congratulated William Faulkner, **who had just won the Nobel prize for literature**.

e.g., 2. Denver, **which is a beautiful city**, has two universities.

e.g., 3. The Arctic ocean, **which is a polar ocean**, occupies about 5,440,000 square miles between North America and Greenland.

c) the antecedent is one of a kind; and

e.g., 1. The boy's mother, **who loves him very much**, has made many sacrifices for his happiness.

e.g., 2. My brother, **who lives in Shiraz**, got married yesterday. (I have one brother.)

d) the antecedent refers to all of a class.

e.g., The chairs, **which were in bad condition**, were sent out to be repaired and refinished.

In Persian, the relative pronoun 'که' introduces the adjective clause. An enclitic -i ('ی') added to the antecedent marks the restrictive clause. However, when nouns are restricted by possessive pronouns or pronominal enclitics, they do not take the restrictive -i marker; instead, they may be preceded by the demonstrative adjective. For example,

آن دخترم که دیروز در شهر دیدید به تهران رفته است.

When the relative 'که' functions as the object of a preposition or possessive of the adjective clause, its proper grammatical position must be filled by a pronoun agreeing in number and person with the antecedent. For example;

۱. دوستانی را که با آنها صحبت می کردم از زمان دبیرستان می شناختم.

۲. مردی که دخترش مریض است به داروخانه رفته است.

Adverbs

Adverbs may modify

a) an adjective or adverb: e.g., **very** old; **so** quickly

(Such adverbs are called intensifiers.)

b) a verb: e.g., I came **here** yesterday.

c) an entire sentence: e.g., **To tell the truth**, I miss the beautiful weather in my country.

Adverbs are usually optional elements of sentences. In English, they may come at the beginning, in the middle (after the first auxiliary or before the main verb), or at the end of the sentence.

1. Single-Word Adverbs

Some adverbs are in the form of a word such as;

- a) adverbs of time: today, yesterday, tomorrow, etc.
- b) adverbs of place: here, there, etc.
- c) adverbs of manner: quickly, fast, hard, late, well, etc.
- d) adverbs of frequency: usually, often, already, always, etc.

2. Adverb Phrases

Some adverbs may take the form of a phrase:

- a) a noun phrase: e.g., next month, last year, etc.
- b) a prepositional phrase: e.g., in the drawer, in two months, since 8 o'clock, for that reason, etc.
- c) a participial phrase: e.g.,
 - 1. I fell **while running down the stairs**. (Time)
 - 2. **Seeing me board the plane**, my mother began to cry. (Time)
 - 3. **Wanting to know the truth**, he was ready to do every effort. (Cause)
- d) an infinitive: e.g.,
 - 1. **(In order) To learn swimming**, you need practice under the guidance of a tutor. (Purpose)
 - Or You need practice under the guidance of a tutor **so that you would learn swimming**. (Adverb clause of purpose)
 - 2. I had to listen carefully **to hear the dialog**. (Condition)
 - Or I had to listen carefully **if I wanted to hear the dialog**. (Adverb clause of condition)
 - 3. **To be honest**, I hate the cold weather. (Modifying the entire sentence)
 - 4. I took my camera to the last game **to take pictures of my favorite players**. (Cause/Reason)
 - Or I took my camera to the last game **because I wanted to take pictures of my favorite players**. (Adverb clause of reason)

Infinitive phrases are commonly used to replace adverb clauses beginning with 'so that', 'if', and 'because'.

Participial phrases can express adverbs of time, cause or reason. Infinitive phrases may express purpose, condition, cause or reason. Such phrases are

usually translated into a clause in Persian by adding subordinators such as: 'چون', 'زیرا', 'هنگامی که', 'تا اینکه', etc. However, adverbial phrases of cause and purpose can be kept as phrases in Persian beginning with: 'به خاطر', 'برای', 'به', etc. in the following pattern: 'Preposition + Nominalized infinitive/a Cognate noun + Predicate'. For example:

برای دانستن حقیقت، حاضر بود دست به هر کاری بزند.

3. Adverb Clauses

Some adverbs are in the form of a dependent (subordinate) clause. Adverb clauses are introduced by subordinators, such as: when, where, because, so that, as if, if, so ... that, although, etc.

Examples:

1. **As soon as I returned home**, I made a fire. (Time)
2. **Wherever it's sunny and warm**, I am happy. (Place)
3. **Since it is so beautiful there**, my parents are going to move. (Reason)
4. I want to be near the beach **in order that I might learn to water ski**. (Purpose)
5. My brothers swim **as if they were fish**. (Manner)
6. **Unless the lessons are very cheap**, I won't be able to take any. (Condition)
7. Shiraz is **such a beautiful city that I can't imagine staying in Tehran**. (Result)
8. **Though my father likes mountains and snow**, I'm sure he will learn to like beaches and sand. (Contrast)

Adverb clauses may precede a main clause, then a comma is used after it. They may follow the main clause, then a comma is not needed except when the clause is introduced by 'although', 'though', 'even though', and 'in spite of the fact that'. The adverb clause may come within the main clause, then it should be separated by commas: e.g.,

Once, **after I had seen a Dracula movie**, I had a nightmare.

Adverb clauses are usually translated into Persian in the form of a clause.

The use of tenses in adverb clauses in Persian and English will be compared and contrasted.

Exercises

A) Read the following passage; underline all the phrases and clauses. Then indicate whether they are nouns, adjectives or adverbs.

The place of assembly filled quickly; Jack, Simon, Maurice, most of the hunters, on Ralph's right; the rest on the left, under the sun. Piggy came and stood outside the triangle. This indicated that he wished to listen, but would not speak; and Piggy intended it as a gesture of disapproval.

"The thing is: We need an assembly."

No one said anything but the faces turned to Ralph were intent. He flourished the conch. He had learnt as a practical business that fundamental statements like this had to be said at least twice, before everyone understood them. One had to sit, attracting all eyes to the conch, and drop words like heavy round stones among the little groups that crouched or squatted. He was searching his mind for simple words so that even the littluns would understand what the assembly was about. Later perhaps, practiced debaters—Jack, Maurice, Piggy—would use their whole art to twist the meeting: But now at the beginning the subject of the debate must be laid out clearly.

"We need an assembly. Not for fun. Not for laughing and falling off the log"—the group of littluns on the twister giggled and looked at each other—"not for making jokes, or for"—he lifted the conch in an effort to find the compelling word—"for cleverness. Not for these things. But to put things straight."

He paused for a moment.

B) Do the same with the passage below.

تا آخر هیچ یک از شاگردان نتوانست به سؤالی که معلم عالی قدر طرح کرده بود جواب درستی بدهد. هرکس جوابی داد و هیچکدام مورد پسند واقع نشد. سؤالی که رسول اکرم (ص) در میان اصحاب خود طرح کرد این بود.

«در میان دستگیره‌های ایمان کدامیک از همه محکمتر است؟»

یکی از اصحاب: «نماز». رسول اکرم: «نه». دیگری: «زکات». رسول اکرم: «نه». سومی: «روزه». رسول اکرم: «نه». چهارمی: «حج و عمره». رسول اکرم: «نه». پنجمی: «جهاد». رسول اکرم: «نه». عاقبت جوابی که مورد قبول واقع شود از میان جمع حاضر داده نشد، خود حضرت فرمود: «تمام اینهایی که نام بردید کارهای بزرگ و بافضیلتی است، ولی هیچکدام از اینها آنکه من پرسیدم نیست. محکمترین دستگیره‌های ایمان دوست داشتن به خاطر خدا و دشمن داشتن به خاطر خداست.»

به نقل از: داستان راستان

C) To which basic sentence pattern does each sentence of the above passages belong?

D) Translate the following sentences into English.

۱. مردی که درباره‌اش صحبت می‌کردم الان در اتاق انتظار نشسته است.
۲. دانشجویی که کتاب را از او خریدم در یک کتابفروشی کار می‌کند.
۳. دانشجویی که کتابش را به من قرض داد در یک کتابفروشی کار می‌کند.
۴. آنهایی که آنجا نبودند از موضوع چه می‌دانند؟
۵. آنها که آنجا نبودند از موضوع چه می‌دانند؟
۶. آن برادرم که در شیراز زندگی می‌کند مهندس الکترونیک است.

۷. خواهرم که در اصفهان به سر می‌برد بتازگی ازدواج کرده است.
۸. دانشجویان که برخی از آنها خارجی هستند باید در یک برنامه ویژه شرکت کنند.
۹. مردم برای شرکت در تظاهرات از قبل خود را آماده می‌کنند.
۱۰. به دلیل کارکردن زیاد، فرصت کافی برای درس خواندن ندارد.

E) Translate the following sentences into Persian.

1. To be frank, I hate snow and cold weather.
2. The chairs which were broken were taken away for repair.
3. Realizing that I was tired, she stopped talking and fetched me a glass of orange juice.
4. My friend whose father is an engineer has invited me to a dinner.
5. Take away the desk with the broken drawer. (The drawer of which is broken)
6. The man standing over there is my cousin.
7. I like to take a rest in a quiet place.
8. To tell the truth, I miss my hometown.
9. Insulted, she burst into tears.
10. Having finished our homework, we began to watch TV.

IV.3. The Verb and the Related Elements (I): The Indicative and Imperative Moods

“A verb is a word which a) occurs as part of the predicate of a sentence, b) carries markers of grammatical categories such as tense, aspect, person, number, and mood, (and voice) and c) refers to an action or state.” (*Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, 1985)

“Mood relates the verbal action to such *conditions* as certainty, obligation, necessity, and possibility.” (Quirk et al., 1975, p. 40)

These conditions can be categorized into three groups: a) factual, b) nonfactual or hypothetical and c) imperative (of orders/requests) which are often shown by the form of the verb—indicative, subjunctive, or imperative.

“Tense is the relationship between the form of the verb and the *time* of the action or state it describes. Verbs may be in the past, present, (or future) tense.” (*Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, 1985) Often tense and time do not correspond at all.

“Aspect concerns the *manner* in which the verbal action is experienced or regarded, such as whether it is in progress, habitual, repeated, momentary, or completed.” (Quirk et al., 1975, p. 40)

Indicative Mood

1. Indicative Mood in Declaratives and Interrogatives

"The indicative mood is the form of the verb used in declarative sentences or questions: She sat down. Are you coming?" (*Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, 1985)

It relates the verbal action to the condition of certainty.

In the following table, the forms of Persian and English verbs are contrasted for each tense and aspect in the indicative mood.

A Contrast of the Persian and English Verb Forms in the Indicative Mood

Tense Aspect	A. Present	B. Past	C. Future	D. Future in past
1. Simple	go/goes	went	will/shall go	would go
a. General (Repeated)	می‌روم / می‌رود	می‌رفتم	خواهم رفت	می‌خواستم بروم
b. Once (Not-repeated)	see/sees می‌بینم / می‌بیند	went رفتم	می‌روم	
2. Continuous	am/is/are going (دارم) می‌روم / (دارد) می‌رود	was/were going (داشتم) می‌رفتم / (داشتیم) می‌رفتیم	will be going	would be going
3. Perfect	have/has gone رفته‌ام / رفته است	had gone رفته بودم	will have gone	would have gone
4. Perfect continuous	have/has been going / می‌رفته‌ام / می‌رفته است	had been going می‌رفته بودم	will have been going	would have been going

2. Notes and Commentaries on the Above Table

A.1.a. It is the timeless present which is used to express repeated actions and general truths; for example,

I study mathematics.

رشته ریاضی می‌خوانم.

A.1.b. It is the real present which may be used in the following cases:

1. (radio) commentary on sports;

Javad passes to Ali.

جواد به علی پاس می‌دهد.

2. (stage) declarations;

I call you a true man.

من شما را یک مرد واقعی می‌دانم.

3. nonaction verbs expressing state or condition;

We need more chairs.

به صندلیهای بیشتری نیاز داریم.

It is also 'the historic present' referring to past time, in vivid narrative for dramatic effect (such as in plays), not with verbs of communicating;

At that time, in comes a policeman.

در این موقع، پلیسی وارد می شود.

It also expresses future actions (especially with verbs of motion);

We leave tomorrow.

فردا عازم می شویم.

A.2. Example:

I am studying now.

الان (دارم) درس می خوانم.

It also expresses future action;

He's giving a lecture tomorrow.

فردا سخنرانی می کند.

A.3. The past narrative tense in Persian corresponds to the present perfect tense in English, since both indicate an action which has started in the past and continued to the present or its effects remain at the present time. Both refer to an action which has relevance to the present time. Therefore, here, this Persian tense is shifted to the 'present' column.

I have bought a car.

یک ماشین خریده ام.

Past actions with a relevance to the present time can be expressed in the present perfect in English **provided the time of its accomplishment is not mentioned or implied**, and in the past narrative tense in Persian, disregarding the above-mentioned condition; for example,

1. This book was written at the time of Sa'di.

این کتاب را در زمان سعدی نوشته اند. (این کتاب در زمان سعدی به تحریر درآمده است.)

2. Who said we are poor people? چه کسی گفته است ما آدمهای فقیری هستیم؟

A.4. Example:

I have been studying for 8 hours.

هشت ساعت درس خوانده ام.

The present perfect as well as present perfect continuous tenses have also another correspondent in Persian: the indicative present after expressions of temporal duration:

1. He has worked in this factory for several years.

چندین سال است که در این کارخانه کار می کند.

2. I have been reading this novel since 3 p.m.

از ساعت سه بعدازظهر تا به حال مشغول خواندن این رمان بوده ام.

This pattern may be also used in the future perfect (continuous), past perfect (continuous), and future in past perfect (continuous) tenses.

B.1.a. Past habitual actions in English are expressed in simple past tense or in 'used to/would' constructions but in Persian such actions are expressed in the past continuous tense; for example,

I studied (used to/would study) mathematics when I was in high school.

وقتی در دبیرستان بودم، ریاضی می خواندم.

B.1.b. Example:

I bought a car last week.

هفته گذشته یک ماشین خریدم.

"The past absolute tense is used for actions 'as good as done' and states just perceived to have come about." (Thackston, 1978, p. 76) In other words, the past tense in Persian is sometimes used to express an action which takes place in the present or future time. This usage is not possible in English:

1. Run away as they are coming.

فرار کنید که آمدند.

2. I'm coming, mother.

آمدم، مادر.

B.2. Example:

1. I was studying all yesterday.

تمام دیروز درس می خواندم.

2. I was watching TV when you rang.

(داشتم) تلویزیون تماشا می کردم که زنگ زد.

The Concrete Tenses in Persian (A.2. and B.2.)

"An auxiliary tense formation of the verb that belongs to the spoken tongue, but which is being accepted more and more into the written idiom, is the 'concrete' past and present. Both of these tenses are formed with ('داشتن') as an auxiliary conjugation. These formations occur only in the affirmative; no negative exists.

The present concrete: I am going.

دارم می روم.

The past concrete: I was going.

داشتم می رفتم.

Corresponding exactly to the English past and present continuous for ongoing actions and states, these tenses now contrast with the present indicative (in Persian, A.1.) ('I go. I do go.') and the past and past continuous (Persian, B.1.) ('I went. I used to go.')" (Thackston, 1978, pp. 196-197)

B.3. Example:

I had bought a car before coming back to Tehran.

قبل از اینکه به تهران برگردم، یک ماشین خریده بودم.

B.4. Example:

1. I had been studying mathematics for a long time before I took the exam.

قبل از اینکه امتحان بدهم مدت زیادی به مطالعه ریاضیات پرداخته بودم.

2. I had been working there for two years.

دو سال بود که در آنجا کار می کردم.

The Persian also employs the past continuous forms to translate the progressive aspect of English time reference; for example,

I had been playing tennis before it started to rain.

قبل از اینکه باران بیارد (داشتم) تنیس بازی می کردم.

C. In Persian, there is only one aspect for future; that is, the simple future tense. For other aspects in future tense which exist in English, one can put the very aspect (or its alternative: the present indicative) existing in Persian as their correspondent. But if, for example, the perfective aspect is more significant than its futurity, one can use the past narrative tense as the correspondent of the future perfect tense; for example,

By that time he will have gone. تا آن موقع او دیگر رفته است.

However, as Fallahi (1991, p. 171) puts, the future time in English may be expressed by the following grammatical devices:

- “1. Will/shall + infinitive (Also called simple future);
2. Will/shall + be + present participle (Also called future progressive);
3. Will/shall + have + past participle (Also called future perfect);
4. Will/shall + have + been + present participle (Future perfect progressive);
5. Be going to + infinitive;
6. Be + to + infinitive;
7. Be + about to + infinitive;
8. Verb + infinitive;
9. Modals with future reference;
10. Simple present with future reference;
11. Present progressive with future reference.”

Notes: a. ‘shall’ is used for 1st person singular, mainly in Southern British English. (Quirk et al., 1975, p. 213)

b. ‘ll’ is the contracted form for will/shall in conversations/dialogs.

c. English will/shall forms include other meanings with modal coloring which will be dealt with in the next lesson.

C.1. Example:

I will (am going to) buy a car tomorrow. فردا یک ماشین می‌خرم.

C.2. Example:

I will be studying chemistry all this evening.

تمام شب را به مطالعه شیمی خواهیم پرداخت.

In Persian, the construction ‘در حال/ مشغول’ + infinitive + ‘(a proper form of) بودن’ is equal to English continuous tenses. ‘مشغول’ may be used only in respect to animated beings.

C.3. Example:

I will have studied this section by eight a.m.

این بخش را تا ساعت هشت امشب تمام خواهیم کرد.

C.4. *Example:*

I will have been studying for ten hours by 6 a.m.

تا ساعت ۶ بعد از ظهر امروز، ده ساعت از درس خواندنم خواهد گذشت.

D. 'Future in the past' tenses, which mainly exist in conditional sentences and reported speech, have no specific correspondents in Persian. Other tenses and verbal forms may be used as their equivalents.

D.1. *Example:*

1. He **would buy** a car, if he had enough money.

اگر پول کافی داشت، ماشین می خرید. (Past continuous)

2. He said he **would buy** a car the following week.

او گفت که هفته بعد یک ماشین می خرد (خواهد خرید). (The future)

D.2. *Example:*

"He **would be studying** the following day," said he.

او گفت که فردای آن روز درس خواهد خواند. (The future)

D.3. *Example:*

1. I **would have bought** a car, if I had had enough money.

اگر پول کافی داشتم، یک ماشین خریده بودم. (The remote past)

2. He said that he **would have studied** the whole section by tomorrow.

گفت که تا فردا تمام آن بخش کتاب را خواهد خواند. (The future)

D.4. *Example:*

He **would have been studying** for 8 hours by noon on last Friday as he said.

(صبح جمعه گذشته) گفته بود که تا ظهر جمعه هشت ساعت از درس خواندن او خواهد گذشت.

(The past continuous)

3. *Examples of Noncorrespondence of Persian/English Tenses*

Some examples have been mentioned before. Other examples are put forth below.

A) In clauses beginning with 'after', 'when', and 'if' (in the sense 'when'), the absolute past tense is usually used in Persian.

1. After he **had left**, all the guests arrived.

بعد از اینکه او رفت، همه مهمانان آمدند.

2. Come to me after you've **finished** your homework.

بعد از اینکه تکلیف را تمام کردی بیا پیش من.

3. Let me know when he **returns**.

وقتی برگشت، به من اطلاع بده.

4. When all the students **had come**, the teacher began the lesson.

وقتی همه دانش آموزان حاضر شدند، آموزگار درس را شروع کرد.

5. Buy me a newspaper if you go shopping.

اگر به خرید رفتید، یک روزنامه برای من بخرید.

B) In English, clauses beginning with 'as if', may carry the simple past, subjunctive 'were', or past perfect tense. In Persian, their equivalents are the indicative present or past narrative tense.

1. He talks as if he were a scientist.

طوری حرف می زند که انگار دانشمند است.

2. You look as if you had worked for ten hours.

قیافه ات طوری است که گویی ده ساعت کار کرده ای.

C) *Conditionals*. Conditional sentences follow a certain pattern and carry fixed forms of verb in English, but in Persian different forms may be used.

1. "I will do it if you agree.

اگر موافقت کنید من این کار را می کنم.
اگر موافقت کنید من این کار را خواهم کرد.
اگر موافقت می کنید من این کار را خواهم کرد.*
اگر موافقت کردید من این کار را می کنم.**
اگر موافقت کردید من این کار را خواهم کرد.**
(Safavi, 1371, p. 24)

۲. «اگر چنین کتابی داشتم آن را نمی فروختم.

If I had such a book, I would not sell it.

If I had had such a book, I would not have sold it."

3. "If he had gone earlier, he would have caught the train.

اگر زودتر می رفت، به قطار می رسید.**
اگر زودتر رفته بود، به قطار رسیده بود.
اگر زودتر می رفت، به قطار رسیده بود.*
اگر زودتر رفته بود، به قطار می رسید.**
(Fallahi, 1991, p. 199)

D) *Sequence of Tenses*: In English, when the main verb of a complex sentence containing a noun clause object is in the past tense, the verb in the noun clause object usually takes past form also, but it is not usually the case in Persian.

1. He said that the train had just arrived.

او گفت که قطار تازه رسیده است.

* Some native-speakers consider these sentences unnatural.

** These sentences seem to have a different meaning, from the original. (Author)

2. He asked me what color I wanted.

از من پرسید چه رنگی می خواهم (می خواهی).

3. I knew he wouldn't come.

می دانستم که نخواهد آمد (نمی آید).

E) Miscellaneous

1. My father is not back yet.

پدرم هنوز برنگشته است.

2. You are late again.

باز هم دیر کرده ای.

3. I hear you are going to Egypt next month.

شنیده ام ماه آینده عازم مصر هستی.

4. You are welcome to our party.

به مهمانی ما خوش آمدید.

5. Water consists of two molecules of hydrogen and one molecule of oxygen.

آب از دو عنصر هیدروژن و یک عنصر اکسیژن تشکیل شده است.

The Imperative Mood

"The imperative mood is the form of the verb in imperative sentences. For example: Be quiet!

In English, imperatives do not have tense or perfect aspect but they may be used in the progressive aspect. For example: Be waiting for me at five."
(Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, 1985, p. 183)

The base form of the verb is used for requests, commands, or instructions. An adverb may precede the imperative verb in English:

Always open that door slowly.

آن در را همیشه آهسته باز کنید.

Don't ever open that door.

آن در را هرگز باز نکنید.

Formulas of politeness such as 'please', 'will (or would) you please' often accompany requests: Please open the door.

A passive voice may be used in imperatives, by the help of 'get'. For example: Get washed.

A list of imperative forms are as the following. (see Quirk et al., 1975, p. 202)

First Person

Singular: Let me have a look.

نگاهی بکنم.

Plural: Let us (Let's) all work hard. (First and second person together)

همه سخت کار بکنیم.

Don't let's open the door. (Informal)

Let's not open the door.

Second Person, Singular and Plural

1. Open some windows.

Don't open any windows.

2. You open some windows.
Don't you open any windows.

Third Person

1. Someone open the door. کسی در را باز کند.
Don't anyone open the door.
2. Let each man decide for himself.
Don't let anyone fool himself that he can get away with it.

When the subject is used in imperatives, it is always stressed and such commands cannot naturally be combined with markers of politeness, such as 'please'.

The subject in imperatives may be confused with the vocative:

Javad, you go to the board.

↓ ↓

The vocative The subject

According to Quirk et al. (1975, pp. 202-203), "A persuasive or insistent imperative is created by the addition of 'do' (with a nuclear tone) before the main verb:

- Do have some sherry.
- Do let's go to the theatre.
- Do be seated.

...

'Do', 'don't', and 'let's' are used in isolation as elliptical commands:

A: Shall I open the door? B: Yes, do.

No, don't.

A: Shall we watch the game? B: Yes, let's."

The imperative forms in Persian are just like the present subjunctive forms except that in the second person singular, 'ای' is omitted:

The subjunctive forms: بروم، برویم، برود، بروند، بروی، بروید

The imperative forms: بروم، برویم، برود، بروند، برو، بروید

In Persian, the present indicative or the future forms may also be used in the imperative mood as an indirect or polite command or warning. For example:

۱. اینجا می‌نشین و منتظر من می‌مانی. ۲. شما از اینجا نخواهید رفت.

These forms are equal to 'shall-constructions' in the second and third persons in English: He shall go. (از اینجا) برود. You shall stay here. همین جا می‌مانی

Exercises

A) Translate the following sentences into Persian.

1. Send him to me when he comes.
2. I'll give it to you after you've paid for it.
3. He will have reached the town by two o'clock.
4. I know he was at home.
5. He said he had just arrived.
6. Give him my message if you see him.
7. You look as if you had run a long way.
8. Who said I am a teacher?
9. You said you'd take them somewhere for Easter.
10. It had been raining, and the streets were still wet.
11. I've known him for a long time.
12. I am going to learn Arabic.
13. Would you please carry my case?

B) Translate the following sentences into English.

۱. اگر جای شما بودم آن کار را نمی کردم.
۲. دو هفته است که دنبال این کتاب می گردم.
۳. ابن سینا در اصفهان زندگی می کرده است.
۴. معلم آمد، بچه ها شلوغ نکنید.
۵. اگر خواستید، من فردا به شهر می روم.
۶. تا ظهر فردا این صندلی را ساخته ام.
۷. وقتی دکتر می رسد می بیند رنگ از روی بیمار پریده است. نبضش را می گیرد تا مطمئن شود زنده است.
۸. آب در دمای ۱۰۰ درجه سانتیگراد می جوشد.
۹. تو داری زندگی را به خاطر اعتیاد به باد می دهی.
۱۰. الان دارم می روم سرکار، بعداً می بینمت.
۱۱. داشتم می رفتم مدرسه که تصادف کردم.
۱۲. وقتی کارم تمام شد، به شما سر می زنم.
۱۳. شماره تلفن او را به خاطر نمی آورم.
۱۴. آیا این دو روش با هم فرق می کنند؟
۱۵. خواهرش از سال ۱۳۶۷ به بعد در تهران زندگی می کند.
۱۶. ساعت چهار بعد از ظهر مشغول امتحان دادن خواهم بود.
۱۷. می روی یک لیوان آب برایم سی آوری.
۱۸. هرکس نظر خود را بگوید.

IV.4. The Verb and the Related Elements (II): Hypothetical Mood (Situations)

"Hypothetical (or nonfactual) mood is expressed in English to a very minor extent by the subjunctive, to a much greater extent by past tense forms, but above all, by means of the modal auxiliaries." (Quirk et al., 1975, p. 51)

The Subjunctive Mood and Its Uses in English

"The subjunctive mood is the form of the verb often used to express uncertainty, wishes, desires, etc. In contrast to the indicative mood, the subjunctive usually refers to nonfactual or hypothetical situations." (*Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, 1985, p. 183)

The subjunctive (in English) has two forms: a) the stem form of the verb; b) 'were', the past form of 'be'.

1. Uses of the Present Subjunctive Mood

The present subjunctive (in English) may be found in:

A) That-Clauses After Certain Expressions (Mandative Subjunctive)

Expressions in the main clause (preceding that-clauses) may be categorized into three classes: factual, emotive, and volitional.

1. After factual expressions (containing an adjective or verb), an indicative verb is used:

I am sure that he is here now.

I know how he did it.

2. After emotive expressions, an indicative verb or putative 'should' is used:

I was angry that he should ignore me.

I regret that { she should worry about it.
 { she worries about it.

3. After volitional expressions, a subjunctive verb or 'should' is used:

I am adamant that he be appointed.

I insisted that he (should) admit all applicants.

Volitional expressions, or expressions of urgency, may contain a verb or an adjective (phrase) which convey recommendation, resolution, demand, hope, wish, or urgency. Some volitional verbs are: order, suggest, request, require, urge, demand, insist, ask, command, recommend, propose, forbid, beg, desire, advise, vote, decide, and decree. Some volitional adjectives are: adamant, imperative, keen, insistent, willing, reluctant, eager, important, necessary, essential, urgent, vital, advisable, and desirable.

These subjunctives are used in formal situations; in informal contexts, one would rather make use of other devices: to-infinitive or 'should' + verb.

Persian, too, uses the present subjunctive in the same situation, whether English uses the subjunctive, 'should + verb', or to-infinitive forms.

B) Some Fixed Expressions (Formulaic Subjunctive)

- " 1. Come what may, we will go ahead.
 2. God save the Queen!
 3. God bless you!
 4. Suffice it to say that
 5. Be that as it may
 6. Heaven forbid that
 7. So be it then!
 8. Far be it from me to spoil the fun." (Quirk et al., 1975, pp. 51-52 & 204)

There is an archaic optative form of the verb in Persian made by adding â ('â') after or before the last letter of the third person singular present declarative, such as:

	یاد، بادا	} ←	بودن ← بُود
(Negative)	مبادا، مبادا		

نشستن ← نشیند ← نشیندا، نشیناد

This formation is rarely used in modern Persian, only in a few formulaic expressions; such as:

مرگت بادا!
 نفرین بر او بادا!
 بادا بادا مبارک بادا!
 درود خداوند بر او بادا!
 دست مرزادا!

In modern Persian, the optative form is replaced by the subjunctive. Most of the above English formulaic expressions can be translated by the use of the subjunctive (or rarely the optative) form.

۱. ما پیش خواهیم رفت هرچه بادا بادا!
۲. خداوند او را حفظ کند!
۳. خدا تو را برکت دهد!
۴. زنده باد ایران!

C) The Adverbial Clauses

According to Quirk et al. (1975, p. 340), "1. The present subjunctive is used very occasionally and in rather formal use, in real conditional clauses and concessive clauses:

Whatever be the reasons for it, we cannot tolerate this disloyalty.

2. Clauses of concession and purpose may also very occasionally contain

a verb in the subjunctive mood to express 'putative' meaning:

Though he be (or is) the president himself, he shall hear us."

Persian may use the subjunctive form or the indicative form in the above situations:

۱. دلیل آن هرچه باشد (هست)، ما نمی توانیم این عهدشکنی را تحمل کنیم.
۲. اگر خود رئیس جمهور هم باشد، باید صحبت های ما را بشنود.

2. Uses of the Past Subjunctive

" 'Were' is used in formal clauses of hypothetical meaning, such as those introduced by **if**, **as if**, **as though**, **though**, the imperative verbs 'suppose', and 'imagine', and optative verbs like 'wish'." (Ibid, p. 340)

1. If I were you, I'd go there.

(The absolute past) اگر جای شما بودم، آنجا می رفتم.

2. He acts as if he were unaware of recent developments.

(The present indicative) طوری عمل می کند که گویی از تحولات اخیر بی خبر است.

3. Suppose he were here.

(The present indicative) فرض کنید او اینجا است (باشد).

4. I wish I were a millionaire.

(The past indicative) کاشکی یک میلیونر بودم.

Past Tense Forms in Unreal Situations

In certain unreal situations, past tense forms are used.

1. Conditional Sentences

1. If the weather is good, I'll go to the beach.
2. If he calls, tell him to come here at once.
3. If you will (or are willing to) clear the table, I'll wash the dishes.
4. If he should call, (or should he call), tell him I'll be right back.
5. If (or when, whenever) the weather is good, I go to the beach.
6. (Last year) if (or when, whenever) the weather was good, I went to the beach.
7. If he studied harder, he would pass his examination.
8. If the weather had been good yesterday, I would have gone to the beach.
9. Had we known about this sooner, we could have helped you.
10. If the boy had listened to his parents last year, he wouldn't be in trouble now.
11. He would be studying at the university now if his father hadn't lost all his money.

Items 1-6 are real conditions which are possible to be realized. While

items 7-11 are unreal conditions; "Such conditions are either impossible to realize or are not likely to be realized in the near future. In these sentences, a contrary-to-fact condition exists." (Frank, 1972, p. 33)

In item 7, which refers to the present time, a past tense form indicates the unreal condition. In items 8-11, the past perfect form is used with past unreal conditions. (see also 2. in p. 100 and C) in p. 94)

2. Adverbial Clauses of Manner

1. He looks as if he needs sleep.
2. He looks as if he hasn't slept for a week.
3. He looks as if he needed sleep.
4. He looks as if he hadn't slept for a week.

The past tense, and past perfect tense in manner clauses beginning with 'as if' or 'as though' (items 3 and 4 above) indicate that the speaker is doubtful about his statement. In items 1 and 2, the speaker is almost certain. The past form "refers to the time that is simultaneous with that of the main verb; the past perfect indicates time that precedes that of the main verb." (Frank, 1972, p. 42) (see also 2. in p. 100 and B) in p. 94)

3. Noun Clauses After 'Wish'

1. I wish (that) it would stop raining. (Present-to-future time)
2. I wish (that) I knew how to paint. (Present time)
3. I wish (that) I had not eaten so much. (Past time)

Wishes in items 2 and 3 are contrary to fact and unrealized. However the wish in item 1 is possible to realize. (see also 2. in p. 100)

They are translated into the present subjunctive, past tense, past remote tense respectively in Persian.

۱. کاشکی باران بند بیاید.

۲. کاشکی نقاشی بلد بودم.

۳. کاشکی این قدر نخورده بودم.

Some grammarians consider the past forms used in unreal situations as 'the past subjunctive forms' e.g., Frank in his book, *Modern English* (part II, 1972, pp. 33, 42, and 67).

The Modal Auxiliaries

In the following table, a list of modal auxiliaries in English, their meanings and uses, examples for each use, and some recommended Persian equivalents have been provided.

In attempting to match and juxtapose the English modals with their Persian equivalents, one will find that there is not a one-to-one match of modals and thus there is a gap which should be filled with other items, such as:

a) Impersonal expressions preceding that-clauses:

ممکن است / بود، امکان دارد / داشت، لازم است / بود، ...

b) Adverbs:

لا بد، حتماً، احتمالاً

c) Main verbs:

اصرار داشتن، ترجیح دادن

d) Zero equivalent.

Meaning and use	Modals	Examples	Persian equivalents
Legal & quasi legal injunction	shall	The vendor shall maintain the equipment in good repair.	باید
Ability	can	Can you help him?	
	could	He could skate when he was very young.	توانستن
Contingent use	would	I would read it if I had time.	
	should	We should love to go abroad, if we had the chance.	
Permission	can	Can I see the pictures?	توانستن
	may	May I open the door?	می شود
	could	Could I borrow your pencil?	ممکن است
Possibility	can	He can meet you at the station.	توانستن
	could	I could go with you tomorrow.	شاید
	may	I may get a scholarship.	ممکن است / بود
	might	I might get a scholarship.	امکان دارد / داشت
Willingness	will	I'll do it if you will.	خواستن
	shall	You shall do exactly as you wish. (On the part of the speaker)	
	would	Would you excuse me?	می شود
Obligation	should	Every student should read this book.	باید
	ought to	They ought to help him.	(می) بایست
	must	You must be back by 10 o'clock.	بایستی
Intention	shall	We shall let you know our decision.	خواستن
	will	I'll write as soon as I can. (Mainly first person)	
Necessity	need	They needn't help him.	باید
	must	I must study for my examination.	بایست
	can	There cannot be a mistake. (In negative and interrogative sentences)	لازم / ضروری بودن

Meaning and use	Modals	Examples	Persian equivalents
Polite request	will	Will you please help me?	ممکن است
or refusal	would	Would you please give her a message? I will not discuss it.	امکان دارد
Request for agreement	shall	Shall I answer the telephone?	توانستن
Past custom	used to would	I used to play a lot of football. My father would take us to the park every Friday when we were children.	عادت داشتن —
Desirability	had better	You'd better not be late.	بہتر است صلاح در این است کہ
Prohibition	mustn't	You mustn't borrow my car.	نباید
Preference	would rather had rather would sooner had sooner	I'd rather walk than ride.	ترجیح دادن
Logical conclusion	should ought to	Hasan was in the United States. He should speak English well. He ought to speak English well.	باید، بایست لابد، حتماً
Inescapable conclusion	must	It's getting dark. It must be late.	باید، لابد
Prediction	will should must	The game will be finished by now.	باید حتماً لابد
Probability	should would shall will would	If he should call, let me know. That would be his mother. He shall do it, whatever you say. (I insist) He will do it, whatever you say. (He insists)	احتمال دارد احتمالاً خواستن اصرار داشتن لازم است باید
Putative use after certain expressions	should	I am sorry that this should have happened	—

There is no need to provide an equivalent marker for the English modal. For example: 'should' in the putative use, 'used to' or 'would' in the past custom, and 'would' or 'should' in the conditional sentences. In these cases, the structure, or the verbal tense infers the meaning implied by the English modal.

In cases a, b, and c, these items—verbal phrases or adverbs—are followed by the subjunctive form of the (main) verb.

The Subjunctive Mood and Its Uses in Persian

In Persian, the hypothetical (or nonfactual) mood is chiefly expressed by the present and past subjunctive forms. The subjunctive mood is used frequently in Persian and it is of two forms: a) the present subjunctive, and b) the past (or perfective) subjunctive.

The present subjunctive mood is formed like the present indicative except that the indicative marker 'می' is replaced by the prefix 'بی':

When followed in the next syllable by -o- or -aw, 'بی' may change to 'بی':

When followed by a verb beginning with a vowel, 'بی' changes to 'بی':
'بی' (or 'بی', 'بی') changes to 'بی' in negative form and is usually dropped in compound verbs:

می‌روند ← بروند ← نروند
بزرگ می‌شود ← بزرگ بشود ← بزرگ نشود

The present subjunctive form of the verbs 'بودن' and 'داشتن' are formed irregularly:

بودن ← باشیم داشتن ← داشته باشیم

The past subjunctive form is formed with the past participle followed by the present subjunctive form of 'بودن':

رفته باشد، بوده باشد

The participle takes the negative marker:

نرفته باشد، نبوده باشد

1. Uses of the Present Subjunctive Mood

The present subjunctive mood is used in the following cases:

A) In interrogative expressions of doubt and hesitation where English normally uses 'should'.

1. What should I say? چه بگویم؟
2. Why shouldn't we go? چرا نرویم؟

B) As a jussive (indicating a request or suggestion) in all persons where English normally uses 'let'.

1. Let's go. برویم.
2. Let it be just as it is. همانطور که هست باشد. (بگذار همان طور باشد.)

****C)** After 'چه ... چه ...' or 'یا ... یا ...' or when two opposite alternatives are involved.

۱. چه بگویی چه نگویی (بگویی یا نگویی) فرقی نمی‌کند.

It makes no difference whether you say it or not.

۲. خواهی نخواهی این کار را انجام می‌دهم.

I will do it whether you like it or not.

D) In optative expressions where English normally uses 'may'. (see also *B* in p. 99)

1. God forbid!

خدا نکند!

2. God forbid!

زیانم لال (بشود)!

3. May God have mercy upon him!

خدا بیامرزتش!

Or May God forgive him!

E) In questions asking the addressee's agreement (or opinion) about a suggestion.

1. Shall we go?

برویم؟

2. First we eat lunch. Do you agree (or OK)?

اول ناهار می‌خوریم، باشه

(باشد)؟

F) After expressions of warning or prohibition beginning with 'نکند' and 'مبادا'.

Beware of saying anything!

مبادا (نکند) حرفی بزنی!

Or Don't say anything.

****G)** After expressions of denial beginning with 'حاشاکه'.

It is not so.

حاشاکه چنین باشد.

Or I deny such a thing.

****H)** After impersonal 'باید (می)', 'بایست (می)', and 'بایستی' which indicate obligation or necessity, three verbal forms may be used;

I must/should go. (The present subjunctive)

۱. باید بروم.

He should have gone. (The past continuous)

۲. بایستی می‌رفت.

(But he didn't.)

He had to go. (The past continuous)

او بایست می‌رفت.

He didn't need to go. (The past continuous)

نمی‌بایست می‌رفت.

One must/should go. (The short infinitive)

۳. باید رفت.

One had to go. (The short infinitive)

بایست رفت.

(Impersonal/passive)

****I)** After impersonal 'شاید' which indicates possibility, four possible forms may be used.

I may go. (The present subjunctive)

۱. شاید بروم.

It is possible I won't go. (The absolute past)

۲. شاید هم نرفتم.

(This expression is emphatic and refers to future time.)

I might go.

۳. شاید می‌رفتم.

It was possible I would go. (The past continuous referring to past time)

One may go. (The short infinitive)

۴. شاید رفته باشد.

(It is an impersonal expression. The stress is on 'شاید'. In this case, 'می‌شود' is equivalent to 'شاید' in colloquial language.)

J) As a verbal complement of the following expressions. Note that the subordinating conjunction 'که', like English 'that', is optional.

1. Possibility: (Impersonal constructions)

ممکن است / بود، امکان دارد / داشت، بعید است / بود، ...

It's possible we won't return.

امکان دارد (که) برنگردیم.

** 2. Probability: (Impersonal constructions) ... احتمال دارد / داشت، محال است که، ...

It is probable that he will stay there.

احتمال دارد (که) همانجا بماند.

** 3. Necessity: (Impersonal constructions)

ضرورت دارد / داشت، لازم است / بود، ضروری است / بود، ...

It was not necessary for me to go.

لازم نبود بروم.

Or I didn't need to go.

4. Obligation:

مجبور بودن، موظف / مکلف بودن، مجبور کردن، واداشتن

I am obliged to go.

۱. مجبورم که بروم.

Or I must go.

We forced him to go.

۲. او را مجبور کردیم که برود.

5. Will and purpose:

خواستن، انتظار داشتن، اصرار داشتن، ...

We want to eat lunch.

می‌خواهیم نهار بخوریم.

6. Desire and preference:

مایل بودن، آرزو داشتن، ترجیح دادن، ...

He isn't inclined to speak.

مایل نیست حرف بزند.

** 7. Value-judgement or desirability:

شایسته است / بود، بهتر است / بود، صلاح در این است / بود که، ...

You'd better leave here.

بهتر است اینجا را ترک کنی.

Or I'd rather you left here.

8. Command and prohibition:

فرمودن، دستور دادن، امر کردن، گفتن، ...

I was told to leave here.

۱. به من گفتند اینجا را ترک کنم.

They told me they would stay here tonight. (Declarative)

۲. به من گفتند امشب اینجا می‌مانند.

9. Demand and request:

خواهش کردن، دعا کردن، تقاضا کردن، ...

خواهش می‌کنم با پیشنهادم موافقت بفرمایید.

I entreat you to agree to my proposal.

- ** 10. Doubt and ignorance:** شک داشتن، تردید داشتن، ...
I doubt that it is so easy. شک دارم که به این سادگیها باشد.
- ** 11. Hope:** امیدش این است، امیدوار بودن، ...
امیدوارم که در امتحان جامع موفق شوم.
I hope I will succeed in the comprehensive examination.
- ** 12. Supposition:** از اینکه، تصور کرد که، این فرض را که، باور کرد که، ...
از اینکه آنها پیروز بشوند، ما نباید نگران باشیم.
We should not get worried supposing that they may win.
- ** 13. Opinion where doubt is implied:** فکر کردن، تصور کردن، ...
I think he may be there. فکر می‌کنم که آنجا باشد.
I think he is there. فکر می‌کنم که آنجاست.
- ** 14. Emotion when the dependent verb is not yet realized:** ترسیدن، خجالت کشیدن، خوشحال شدن، ... از ترس اینکه، مبادا، ...
We'll be happy to see you. خوشحال می‌شویم که شما را ببینیم.
- ** 15. Ability:** توانستن، قادر بودن، ...
You cannot go. (The present subjunctive) ۱. نمی‌توانید بروید.
۲. نمی‌توان (نمی‌شود) رفت.
One cannot go. (Impersonal + the short infinitive)
- ** 16. Dependence:** بستگی (به این) دارد که، ...
بستگی (به این) دارد که چطور با مشکل برخورد کنی.
It depends how you tackle the problem.
- 17. Getting or giving permission:** اجازه خواستن، اجازه دادن، اجازه گرفتن، ...
Let me say something. اجازه می‌خواهم مطلبی بگویم.
- 18. Readiness or refusal:** حاضر بودن، آمادگی داشتن، آماده بودن، ...
I am not ready to say anything. حاضر نیستم حرفی بزنم.
- 19. Attempt/Struggle:** به تکاپو افتادن، سعی کردن، تلاش کردن، ...
ایران تلاش می‌کند به آخرین پیشرفتهای تکنولوژیک دست یابد.
Iran tries to attain the latest technological achievements.
- 20. Wish: (see also 3. in p. 101)** کاش، کاشکی، ...
I wish it would stop raining. کاشکی باران بند بیاید.

K) In adjectival clauses

- ** 1. When the antecedent is an indefinite relative pronoun or conjunction:** هرچه، هرچند، هر وقت، ...
۱. هرچه بگویم فرقی نمی‌کند.
Whatever I may say, it won't make any difference.
۲. هرچه می‌گوید راست است.
Everything he says is right. (Definite pronoun)
۳. با هر که صحبت کنی همین نظر را به تو خواهد داد.

Whoever you may talk to, they will give you the same view.

**** 2. When the antecedent is indefinite:**

۱. دنبال مردی می‌گردم که ژاپنی بلد باشد.

I'm looking for a man who knows Japanese.

۲. دنبال مردی می‌گردم که ژاپنی بلد است. (دنبال مردی که ژاپنی بلد است می‌گردم.)

I'm looking for the man who knows Japanese. (Definite antecedent)

**** 3. After negative expressions:**

هیچکس آنجا نبود که انگلیسی حرف بزند.

There was no one there to speak English.

**** 4. After comparatives which correspond generally to 'too ... to do sth':**

شما باهوشتر از آن هستید که دروغهای او را باور کنید.

You are too intelligent to believe his lies.

L) In adverbial clauses of

1. Time after 'قبل از اینکه' or 'پیش از اینکه', no matter what tense follows in the main clause.

قبل از اینکه به ایستگاه برسیم، قطار رفته بود.

Before we reached the station, the train had left.

**** 2. Time after 'تا',**

تا کارتان را تمام نکنید نمی‌توانید بروید.

You can't go until you finish your work.

تا ما به ایستگاه برسیم قطار خواهد رفت.

The train will have left by the time we get to the station.

3. Time after 'وقتی که', 'هنگامی که', 'در حالی که' etc. (see also A) in p. 93),

When you see, you will believe.

وقتی ببینی باور می‌کنی.

او می‌خواست تخم مرغ را آب‌پز کند و پیش برادرش بماند تا او آن را بخورد.

She wanted to boil the egg and stay with her brother until he ate it.

**** 4. Condition:**

اگر، مگر، به شرطی که، ...

(اگر) بخواهی/می‌خواهی قبول بشوی، باید حسابی درس بخوانی.

If you want to pass, you should study hard.

**** 5. Concession:**

ولو، حتی اگر، اگرچه، ...

ما از اینجا خواهیم رفت ولو اینکه شما مخالف باشید.

We will leave here even though you may oppose.

6. Purpose after:

تا، تا اینکه، برای اینکه، ...

Or without any marker,

I've come to say we won't buy your car.

آمدم بگویم ماشینتان را نمی‌خریم.

He has raised his hand so as to beat him.

دستش را بالا برده تا او را کتک بزند.

**** 7. Manner after:**

به جای اینکه، بی‌آنکه، بدون اینکه

He passed without seeing me.

۱. بی‌آنکه مرا ببیند، از کنارم گذشت.

۲. به جای اینکه از من بپرسد، شخصاً تصمیم گرفت چه کار کند.

Instead of asking me, he decided himself what to do.

8. Result after expressions indicating cause):

سبب می شود، باعث می شود، موجب می شود که، ...
این امر سبب می شود که روابط دوجانبه گسترش یابد.

This may cause the bilateral ties to expand.

2. Uses of the Past Subjunctive Mood

The past subjunctive is used for the doubtful past realization of verbs.

In cases specified by two asterisks (**) in the previous section (I. in p. 104), the past subjunctive form may be used. For example:

He must have gone.

۱. باید رفته باشد.

They may have already come.

۲. شاید آمده باشند.

۳. به شرطی می توانید بروید که کارتان را تمام کرده باشید

You can go provided you have done your work.

Exercises

A) Write sentences carrying the past subjunctive forms for the cases specified in I. in p. 104 by two asterisks (**), then translate these sentences into English.

B) Translate the following sentences into Persian. Determine in which items, the subjunctive form is used in both Persian and English.

1. I'd rather walk than ride.
2. You had better not be late.
3. I used to play a lot of football.
4. I insisted that he admit all applicants.
5. Heaven forbid that he should come late.
6. I am angry that he should ignore me.
7. You look as if you had not slept for two weeks.
8. The vendor shall maintain the equipment in good repair.
9. It is imperative that every student fill the form.
10. He wants to be a fireman when he grows up.
11. Suffice it to say that we won't wait for the late-comers.
12. Would you mind if I open the window?
13. Willy-nilly, we must observe the regulations.
14. Be it the case, we will decide another course of action.

C) Translate the following sentences into English. In which language is the subjunctive form used more frequently? Why do you think so?

۱. تا شما نروید، من هم نخواهم رفت.
۲. اگر رفته باشد، چه کار کنیم؟
۳. فرمودند ما نرویم.
۴. می ترسم او را نبینم.
۵. خوشحال هستیم این طور شده است.
۶. امیدوارم که اینجا بمانم.
۷. اگر جای شما بودم، آن کار را نمی کردم.
۸. نفرین بر او باد!
۹. درود خداوند بر او باد!
۱۰. چی بخوریم؟
۱۱. حاشا که چنین چیزی گفته باشم.
۱۲. نکند مرا معطل بگذاری!
۱۳. بعید است با نظر شما موافقت کند.
۱۴. نمی شود با رئیس جرّ و بحث کرد.
۱۵. قبل از اینکه حرفی بزنند، فهمیدم چه می خواهد.
۱۶. نمی توانند یاد گرفته باشند مگر اینکه به مدرسه رفته باشند.
۱۷. حتی اگر این کتاب را خودش نوشته باشد افکارش مال او نیست.

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کتابخانه