

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents reviews of related literature. The review of related literature consists of some relevant theories used to analyze the data and to answer the research problem including the definition of translation, syntax, grammar, syntactic analysis and the history of Holy Qur'an's translation.

A. Translation

1. The Definition of Translation

The experts have their own opinions about the definition of translation. Newmark states translation as “rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text.”¹ Translation sometimes involves some kinds of loss of meaning due to a number of factors, so a good translation is not only seen from the changes in language, but also transfer of the meaning.

¹ Peter Newmark, *A Textbook of Translation*. (New York: Prentice Hall International, 1988), 5.

Nida and Taber suggest that the translation is not only the transfer of the closest meaning from source language text into the target language text, but it also should concern about the style. “Translation consist of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.”²

According to Larson, translation means:

- a. Study the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation and cultural context of the source language text.
- b. Analyzing the source language text to discover its meaning.
- c. Reveals again the same meaning using the lexicon and grammatical structures appropriate in the target language and cultural context.³

Meanwhile, Catford defines translation as “the replacement of textual material in one language (Source

² E. A. Nida and Charles Taber, *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1969), 1

³ Mildred L. Larson, *Meaning-Based Translation: A Guide to Cross-Language Equivalence*. (New York: University Press of America, 1984), 3.

Language) by equivalent textual material in another language (Target Language).”⁴

It was clear from the definitions above that the translation is not just a synonym for the word, but the message in the original text should be conveyed well. Integrity of the text, style and intention of the author’s text should remain visible.

2. The Methods of Translation

Newmark explains eight methods of translation in two perspectives. The first emphasizes on the source language (SL), and the other emphasizes on the target language (TL). Each perspective provides four methods of translation.

SL emphasis means that the translation follows what is common or normal in the source language, such as the structure, the lexis, and the culture of the source language. The methods that emphasize on the source language are:

- a. Word for word translation

⁴ J. C. Catford, *A Linguistic Theory of Translation*. (London: Oxford University Press, 1965), 20.

In this method, the translator keeps the SL word order and uses the common equivalent words to express the meaning of the source text. The mechanical and cultural words are translated literally to make the translator easier to understand the text before translating it. The main use of word for word translation is either to understand the mechanics of the source language or to construct a difficult text as a pre-translation process.

b. Literal translation

The translator tries to change the SL structure into TL structure, but the lexical words are translated singly out of context. As pre-translation process, literal translation indicates the problems to be solved.

c. Faithful translation

A faithful translation tries to reproduce the contextual meaning of the SL, within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. It transfers cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical abnormality (derivation from SL norms) in the translation.

It attempts to be completely faithful to the intentions and the text-realization of the SL writer.

d. Semantic translation

Semantic translation differs from faithful translation only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value (the beautiful and natural sound) of the SL text. The less important cultural words are translated by the neutral word or functional term, but not as the cultural equivalent. It is more flexible than the faithful translation in terms of allowing the translator's intuition works based on the original meaning.⁵

Besides SL emphasis, Newmark also describes TL emphasis methods. In this method, the translator does not only consider the discourse, but also any other aspects, such as the structure, the lexis, and the culture on the TL.

The methods that emphasize on the target language are:

a. Adaptation

⁵ Peter Newmark, *A Textbook of Translation*, 45-46.

It is the freest form of translation. This method transfers the cultural elements of SL into cultural elements of the TL. It is used mainly to translate drama or poem. The themes, characters, and plots are usually preserved, but the SL culture converted to the TL culture and the text rewritten.

b. Free translation

In this method, the translator usually paraphrases the content of the SL without considering the manner and form of original text, so the TL text can be longer or shorter than the original text. It is usually used on journalistic. Newmark explains the free translation as the method of translation, but he also objects to say that the results is a translation, because the TL text is much different from the SL.

c. Idiomatic translation

Idiomatic translation reproduces the messages of the original text. However, it can give the wrong message, because in reproducing the message the translator uses

colloquialisms and idioms in the TL that may have different meaning of the SL.

d. Communicative translation

It attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original text considering the TL readers (their level of education, class, and age). The translation product conveys the meaning of the source text communicatively, so it can be read and understood easily by the reader.⁶

B. Syntax

Languages have rules. The rules of a language are called the grammar. The reason for these rules is that a person needs to be able to speak an indeterminately large number of sentences in a lifetime. The effort would be impossibly great if each sentence had to be learnt separately. By learning the rules for connecting words, it is possible to create an infinite number of sentences, all of which are meaningful to a person who knows the syntax. A finite number of rules facilitate an infinite number of sentences that can be simultaneously understood by both the speaker and

⁶ Peter Newmark, *A Textbook of Translation*, 46-47.

the listener. In order for this to work with any degree of success, the rules have to be precise and have to be consistently adhered to. The grammar of a language has several components, those can be described as follows:

- a) The phonetics that governs the structure of sounds;
- b) The morphology that governs the structure of words;
- c) The syntax, which governs the structure of sentences
- d) The semantics that governs the meanings of words and sentences.

As the explanation above, syntax is one of mayor subfields of linguistics. The word “Syntax” is derived from a Greek word *Syn* means together and *Taxis* means arrangement.⁷ As the other subfields those concern on a particular aspect of language, generally syntax concern on sentences. Sentences in particular (in linguistics) are more than sequences of words which convey meaning. Sentences have systems, linear order and hierarchical structures which relate with the meaning. To

⁷George Yule, *Pragmatics*, 4.

discover those systems, linguists made a particular study in term of syntax.

Syntax is the study of the way in which sentences are constructed; how sentences are related to each other.⁸ Syntax may be roughly defined as the principles of arrangement of the construction formed by the process of derivation and inflection (words) into larger constructions of various kinds.⁹ Syntax also can be defined as how words are combined to form phrases, clauses and sentences.¹⁰ Furthermore, Gleason and Ratner define syntax as the study of how words can be put together to produce the well formed sentences of a language.¹¹ Based on the definition above, it is concluded that syntax is the branch of descriptive linguistics that observes composition and words relation in the form of phrase and sentence grammatically.

⁸ Cipollone, *Language Files*, 5.

⁹H. A. Gleason, *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics*, 128.

¹⁰Keith Brown and Jim Miller, *Concise Encyclopedia of Syntactic Theories* (London: Cambridge University Press, 1996), 85.

¹¹H. A. Gleason, Jean Berko and Nan Bernstein Ratner, *Psycholinguistics* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1998), 5.

C. Grammar

Grammar is rules of a language governing the sounds, words, sentences, and other elements, as well as their combination and interpretation.¹² The word grammar also denotes the study of the abstract features or a book presenting these rules. In a restricted sense, the term refers only to the study of sentence and word structure (syntax and morphology), excluding vocabulary and pronunciation. A common contemporary definition of grammar is the underlying structure of a language that any native speaker of that language knows intuitively.

1. Structural Grammar

Structural grammar is a means of analyzing written and spoken language.¹³ It is concerned with how elements of a sentence such as morphemes, phonemes, phrase, clauses, and parts of speech are put together. Under this form of linguistic analysis, it is how these elements work together that is most important, as the relationships between the elements typically

¹²Andrew Radford, *Syntax A Minimalist Introduction*, 1.

¹³Norman C. Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston), 307.

have a greater meaning than any of the single elements. The study of this method therefore is an important tool for improving clarity in communication.

Structural grammar operates under the assumption that what is seen on the surface is also the straightforward meaning behind the words of a sentence.¹⁴ Everything is accepted literally and at face value, and no attempt to identify implied meaning is made. The fact that the choice and arrangement of sentence elements creates absolute meaning makes structural grammar a foundation for being understood. Once a person has the absolute meaning, he can look beyond it to implied meaning if desired.

2. Transformational Grammar

Transformational grammar, also called Transformational-generative grammar, a system of language analysis that recognizes the relationship among the various elements of a sentence and among the possible sentences of a language and uses processes or rules (some of which are called

¹⁴Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*, 307.

transformations) to express these relationships.¹⁵ Two superficially different sentences are shown in these examples;

Charlie broke the window.

The window was broken by Charlie.

In traditional grammar, the first is called an active sentence, focusing on what *Charlie* did, and the second is a passive sentence, focusing on *The window* and what happen to it. The distinction between them is a difference in their surface structure, that is, the different syntactic forms they have as an individual sentences. Although sets such as this active and passive sentences appear to be very different on the surface (*i.e.*, in such things as word order), a transformational grammar tries to show that in the “underlying structure” (*i.e.*, in their deeper relations to one another), the sentences are very similar. This superficial difference in form disguises the fact that two sentences are very closely related, even identical, at some less superficial level.

¹⁵Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*, 307.

Transformational grammar assigns a “surface structure” and a “deep structure” to show the relationship of such sentences.

- a) Surface structure is the structure which describes the sentence as it is actually produced or spoken.¹⁶
- b) Deep structure takes into account of transformation and contains all the units and relationship that are necessary for interpreting the sentence.¹⁷

Thus, “I know a man who flies planes” can be considered the surface form of deep structure approximately like “I know a man. The man flies airplanes.” The notion of deep structure can be especially helpful in explaining ambiguous utterances; *e.g.*, “Flying airplanes can be dangerous” may have a deep structure, or meaning, like “Airplanes can be dangerous when they fly” or “To fly airplanes can be dangerous.”

D. Syntactic Analysis

Syntactic analysis is a process to break (a sentence) down into its component parts of speech with an explanation of

¹⁶Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*, 309.

¹⁷Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*, 309.

the form, function, and syntactical relationship of each part.¹⁸ Having reviewed some important concepts in the study of syntax, we can now look at some of the way in which syntactic analysis is presented.

1. Sentence and It's Constituents

The discussion about the definition of syntax above implies that the domain of syntax starts from the largest unit of syntactic description that is sentence and proceed until the smallest meaningful unit. The unit smaller than the sentence will be referred to as *clauses, phrases, words and morphemes* respectively.

In sum, a sentence can be broken down into smaller and smaller constituents. In other word, those constituents at different levels can combine to form increasingly larger units. Constituents are like building blocks which pattern in certain ways to form larger and larger units, the largest unit being the sentence. Each constituent except the smallest, can be broken down into its

¹⁸Andrew Radford, *Syntactic Theory and The Structure of English* (London: Cambridge University Press), 6.

component parts. Finally, syntax aims to discover the ways in which constituents combine to form the structure of sentences.

The sentence itself derived from Latin *sententia*, which literally meant ‘feeling’ or ‘opinion’. In the field of grammar, this meaning has specialized to mean ‘an utterance that expresses a feeling or opinion,’ but a more technical definition would be ‘a grammatically self-contained speech unit consisting of a word, or a syntactically related group of words that expresses an assertion, a question, a command, a wish, or an exclamation, which in writing usually begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation mark.’¹⁹

A sentence may consist of one or more than one clause, that a clause may consist of one or more than one phrase, that a phrase may consist of one or more than one word, and that a word may consist of one or more than one morpheme. Morphemes are the exception which are do not discussed in the domain of syntax. Furthermore, a clause may contain one or more constituent

¹⁹Marjolijn Verspoor and Kim Sauter, *English Sentence Analysis* (Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2000), 33.

clauses, and a phrase may contain one or more constituent phrases or clauses.²⁰

Here is the example of sentence illustrating the hierarchical structure of sentence:

The cat killed the rat and swallowed it.

This sentence consists of two clauses, joined together by and. The first clause is: *The cat killed the rat*, and the second is: *Swallowed it*. The second clause has a reduced form. Its complete form would be *it swallowed it*.

The first clause in the sentence above consists of two phrases, and the second, consists of only one phrase. The two phrases in the first clause are *The cat* and *killed the rat*, the phrase in the second clause is *swallowed it*. *The cat* is the **noun phrase** and *killed the rat* and *swallowed it* are both **verb phrases**.

Each phrase is made up of words. *The snake* consists of two words: *the* and *snake*; *killed the rat* consists of three words, of which the last two (*the* and *rat*) again constitute a noun phrase;

²⁰ Herman Wekker and Liliane Haegemen, *A Modern Course in English Syntax* (London: Routledge, 1996), 6.

and *swallowed it* consists of two words, of which the second in itself constitutes a noun phrase.

The explanation above denotes that sentences have internal hierarchical structure. That is, the individual words in a sentence are organized into natural, semantically coherent groupings, which are themselves organized into larger groupings, the largest grouping of all being the sentence itself, and the smallest of all being individual words. These groupings within a sentence are called *constituents of the sentence*.²¹

2. Symbol Used in Syntactic Description

There are some symbols we should be deal with in syntactic analysis. For examples are ‘S’ (= sentence), ‘NP’ (= noun phrase), ‘N’ (= noun), ‘Art’ (= article), and so on. There are three more symbols that are commonly used in syntactic description.²²

²¹Andrew Radford, *A Modern Course in English Syntax* (London: Routledge, 1996), 24

²²Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*, 309-321.

- a. The first in the form of an arrow \longrightarrow . It can be interpreted as ‘consists of’ or ‘rewrites as’. It is typically used in the following type of rule:

NP \longrightarrow Art N

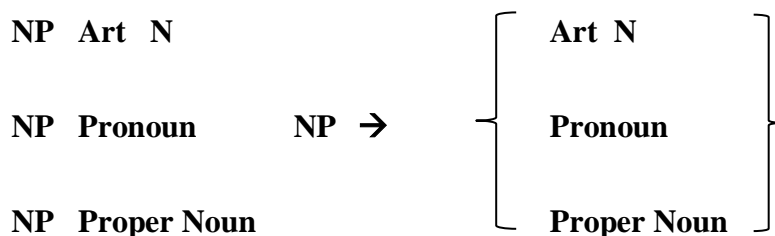
This is simply a shorthand way of saying that a noun phrase (NP) such as (for example) *the dog* consists of or rewrites as (\rightarrow) an article (Art) *the* and a noun (N) *dog*.

- b. The second symbol is a pair of round brackets () which what is inside the brackets is optional.

NP \rightarrow Art (Adj) N

This expresses the idea that a noun phrase rewrite as (\rightarrow) an article (Art) and a noun (N), with the option of including an adjective (Adj) in a specific position between them. We use the round brackets to indicate that the adjective is optional.

- c. The third symbol is in the form of curly brackets { } means *only of the elements enclosed within the brackets must be selected.*



It is important to remember that, although there are three constituents in these curly brackets, only one of them can be selected on any occasion. The list of symbols and abbreviations is summarized below.

S	: sentence	Det	: determiner
N	: noun	S-Inv	: sentence inversion
Pro	: pronoun	NP	: noun phrase
V	: verb	VP	: verb phrase
Adj	: adjective	ADJP	: adjective phrase
Adv	: adverb	ADVP	: adverb phrase
Prep	: preposition	PP	:prepositional phrase
Conj	: conjunction	CP	: complement phrase
Com	: complement		

3. Tree Diagrams

A tree diagram exhibits the subgroupings and sub-subgroupings of the word in the sentence that called hierarchical structure. To create a more explicit representation of the hierarchical organization of one structure, shown in a labeled and bracketed format on the left below, we can use a **tree diagram**, shown on the right below.

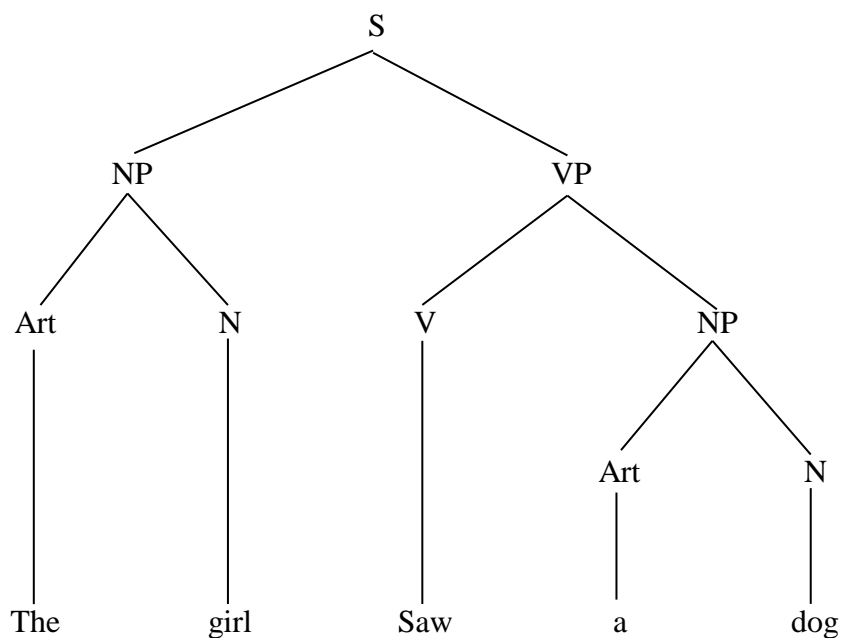


Although this kind of ‘tree’, with its ‘branches’, shown on the right, seems to grow down rather than up, it functions rather well as a diagram representating all the grammatical information found in the other analysis on the left. It also shows very explicitly that there are different levels in the analysis. That is, there is a level of analysis at which is a constituent such as NP is represented and a different, lower, level at which a constituent such as N is represented. This type of hierarchical organization

can be illustrated in a tree diagram for a whole sentence, beginning at the top with S.

Diagram 3.1

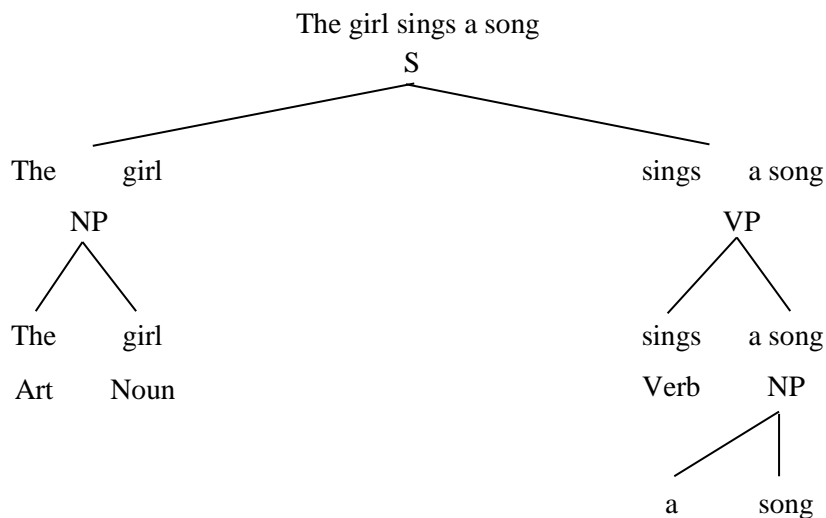
The example of tree diagram



If we start at the top of this tree diagram, we begin with a sentence (S) and divide it into two constituents (NP and VP). In turn, the NP constituent is divided into two other constituents (Art and N). Finally, one word is selected that fits the label Art (*the*) and another that fits N (*girl*). VP also divided into two other

constituents (V) which refers to *saw* and (NP) which still divided into two other constituents (Art and N) which each of them finally refer to one word as seen.

The girl sings a song belongs to the syntactic category of sentence. It can be illustrated in a tree diagram by specifying the syntactic category label of each word grouping.



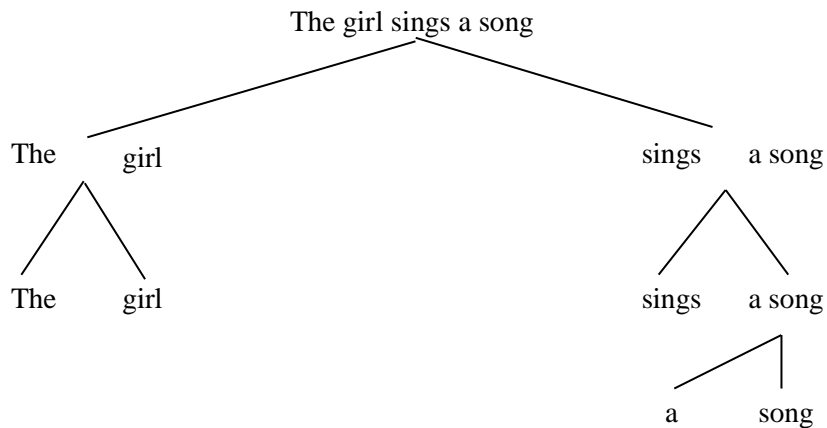
A diagram with syntactic category information provided is called **phrase structure tree**.

4. Syntactic category

Syntactic rules determine the order of words in a sentence. The word of sentence can be divided into two or more

groups, and within each group the word can be divided into subgroups until only single word remains. Sub division may occur until only the individual words of the sentence remain.

For example:



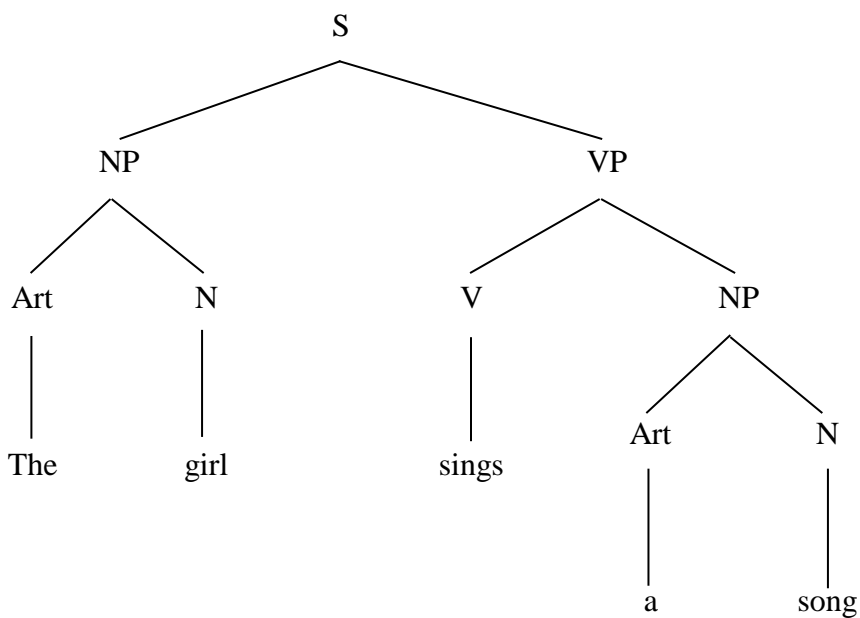
Each of the natural groupings in the diagram above is a member of a large family of similar expressions. A family of expressions that can substitute for one another without loss of grammaticality is called a **syntactic category**.

The girl above belongs to the syntactic category Noun Phrase (NP), one of several syntactic categories in English and every other language in the world. There are other syntactic categories. The expression *sings a song* is a Verb Phrase (VP).

Verb Phrases always contain a Verb, which may be followed by other categories, such as Noun Phrases. This shows that one syntactic category may contain other syntactic categories.

Other syntactic categories are Sentence (S), Article (Art), Noun (N), Verb (V), Prepositional Phrase (PP), and Adjective (Adj). Some of these syntactic categories should be familiar; they have traditionally been called “parts of speech.”

The phrase of the structure tree above is correct, but it is redundant. We can streamline the tree by writing the words only once.



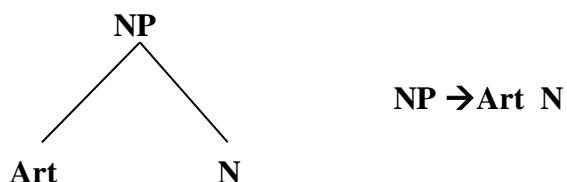
There are several tens of thousands of categories in a language, maybe even millions. Thus the number of rules that we have to write is far too large to be written one by one. First, words fall into roughly two handful of so-called **lexical** or **major categories**.²³ The ones we shall be using are: noun (N), verb (V), adjective (Adj), adverb (Adv), preposition (Prep), complimentizer (C), conjunction (Conj) and determiner (Det).

5. Phrase Structure Rules

Phrase Structure Rules are a way to describe a given language's syntax and are closely associated with the early stages of Transformational Grammar. They are used to break down a natural language sentence into its constituent parts (also known as syntactic categories) namely phrasal categories and lexical categories (aka parts of speech). As the name suggests, these rules state that the structure of a phrase of a specific type will consist of one or more constituents in a particular order. We can use phrase structure rules to present the information of the tree diagram in another format, as we saw when we introduced some

²³Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*, 309-321.

new symbols earlier. That is, the information shown in the tree diagram on the left can be expressed in the phrase structure rule on the right.



According to this rule, “a noun phrase rewrites as an article followed by noun.”

The first rule in the following set of simple (and necessarily incomplete) phrase structure rules states that “a sentence rewrites as a noun phrase and a verb phrase”. The second rule states that “a noun phrase rewrites as either an article, an optional adjective and a noun or pronoun or a proper noun”.

a. Rules for rewriting noun phrases

We can now characterise and exemplify certain types of NP.

Noun (N): *Karen, spoons, justice, swimming*

Determiner (DET) + Noun: *that spoon, a judge, some books*

Determiner + Adjective (ADJ) + Noun: *an old farmer, her aged instructor, the flying bird*

Determiner + Adjective + Noun + Prepositional Phrase (PP): *the coldest weather of the year, the first woman on the moon*

One way of representing these various NP patterns is by the use of **phrase structure rule** (also called *rewrite rules*) like the following:

1. NP → N (NP consists of N)
2. NP → DET N (NP consists of DET + N)
3. NP → DET ADJ N (NP consists of DET + ADJ + N)
4. NP → DET ADJ N PP (NP consists of DET + ADJ + N + PP)

These four rules can be collapsed into a single rule if we place parentheses around optional elements (that is, around elements that need not be present). Notice that the only constituent required each NP phrase-structure rule is N; the other constituents — are optional and must be placed in parentheses. The abbreviated rule looks like this:

5. NP → (DET) (ADJ) N (PP)

Because DET, ADJ and PP are each optional, we can rewrite NP not only as in 1, 2, 3 and 4 above, but also in other ways, including 6 and 7.

6. NP \rightarrow ADJ N

7. NP \rightarrow DET N PP

b. Prepositional Phrase

The notation PP stands for prepositional phrase, example of which include *in the car*, *from Ethiopia*, *in the attic*, *to his brother*, *with the earring* and *by the judge*. Because every PP consists of a preposition (PREP) and a noun phrase (NP), the phrase structure rule for PP is this:

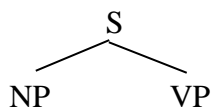
$$\text{PP} \rightarrow \text{PREP NP}$$

c. Rules for rewriting sentences and verb phrases

To capture the fact that sentences and clauses have two basic constituent parts, we formulate the following phrase structure rule:

$$\text{S} \rightarrow \text{NP VP}$$

Every phrase structure rule can generate a tree diagram, and this phrase structure rule (rewrite S as NP and VP) would generate the following tree.



Having seen various expansions of NP, we turn now to the internal structure of VP to explore its expansions and the rewrite rules necessary to accommodate them. The following expansions for identifying VPs reveal that the structures on the right are VPs; the labels under parts of the VPs indicate the categories of constituents of those structures.

V

VP → V NP

V NP PP

Using parentheses to enclose optional elements, we can collapse these three phrase structure rules in to a single rule, which says that a VP must have a V and may have an NP or a PP, or both an NP and a PP.

$$VP \rightarrow V (NP) (PP)$$

We have now formulated four phrase structure rules.

$$S \rightarrow NP VP (PP)$$

$$NP \rightarrow \{ \text{Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN} \}$$

$$VP \rightarrow V (NP) (PP) (\text{Adv})$$

$$PP \rightarrow \text{Prep (NP)}$$

These rules represent the fact that every sentence has an NP and a VP; that every NP has an N; that every VP has a V; and that every PP has a Prep. According to those rules, other possibilities are optional.

Many generalizations about English are contained in those rules. For example, Noun Phrases always contain a Noun, Prepositional Phrases a Preposition, and Verb Phrases a Verb. Put more clearly, X phrases always contain an X, where X stands for Noun, Preposition, or Verb. The X of an X phrase is called the **head** of that phrase. thus the head of a Noun Phrase is a Noun, of a Prepositional Phrase is preposition, and so on which is not surprising. Every phrasal category must contain at a minimum its lexical category head. It may, of course, contain other elements.

A VP may or may not include an NP or a PP but it must always contain a Verb.

6. Complement Phrases

Mary helped George.

Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

Cathy believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George.

The word *that*, as used in the sentences above, is called **complementizer**(C). The role of *that* as a complementizer is to introduce a **complement phrase** (CP). For example, in the second sentence (*Cathy knew ...*), we can identify one CP which contains *that* plus *Mary helped George*. We already know that *Mary helped George* is a sentence (S). So we are now in a position to define a CP in the following way: “a complement phrase rewrites as a complementizer and a sentence”, or $CP \rightarrow C S$.

We can also see from the same sentence that the complement phrase (CP) comes after a verb (V) *knew*. This means that we are using the CP as part of a verb phrase (VP), as

in I knew that Mary helped George I. So, there must be another rule that says: “a verb phrase rewrites as a verb and complement phrase”, or $VP \rightarrow V CP$.

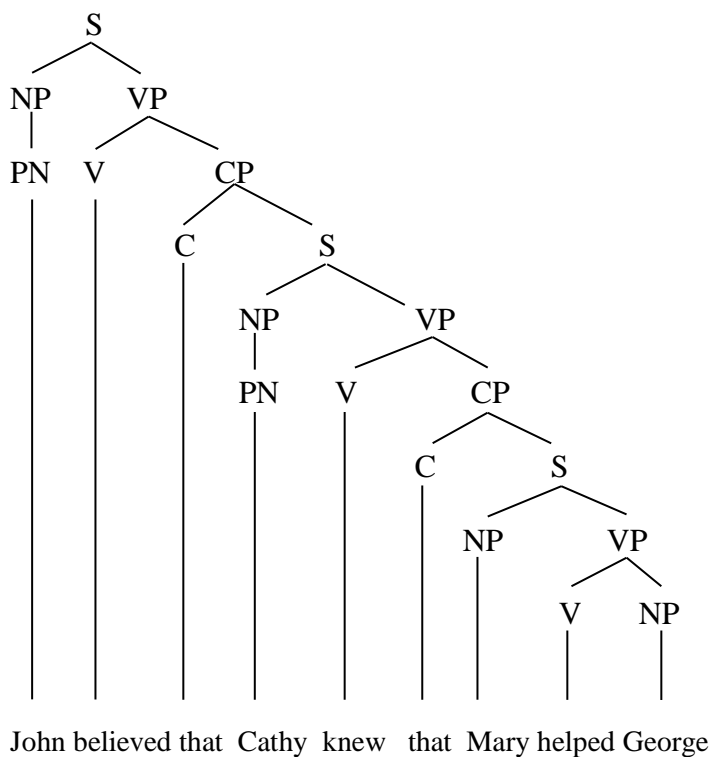
If we now look at these two new rules in conjunction with an earlier rule, we can see how recursion is built into the grammar.

$S \rightarrow NP VP$

$VP \rightarrow V CP$

$CP \rightarrow C S$

We begin with S on the left and, as we rewrite symbols, we eventually have S on the right, allowing us to go back to the beginning and go through the set of rules again (and again).



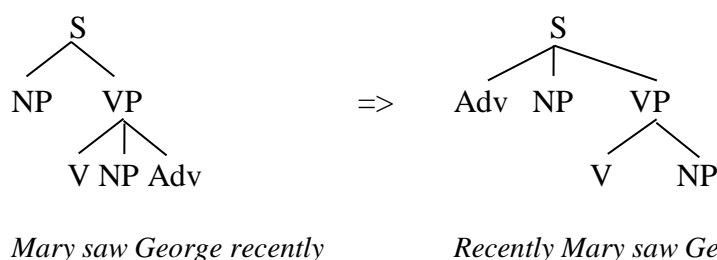
7. Transformation

Mary saw George recently

Recently Mary saw George

We can think of the adverb *recently* as having been moved to the beginning of the second sentence. In order to make this possible in grammar, we need other rules that will change or move constituents in the structure derived from the phrase structure rules. These are called **transformational**

rules.²⁴ Essentially what they do is take a specific part of structure, like a branch of the tree, away from one part of the tree diagram and attach it to a different part. As shown below, we use the symbol => to indicate that a transformational rule is being used to derive a new structure from the basic structure.



We also use a transformational rule to derive English question structures of the type illustrated in the second sentence below.

You will help Cathy.
Will you help Cathy?

In order to describe this process, we need to expand our phrase structure rules to include an **auxiliary verb** (Aux) such as *will* as part of the sentence. This new rule is written as: $S \rightarrow NP \text{ Aux VP}$. Although there are other forms of auxiliary verbs in English, a rudimentary lexical rule might be as follows:

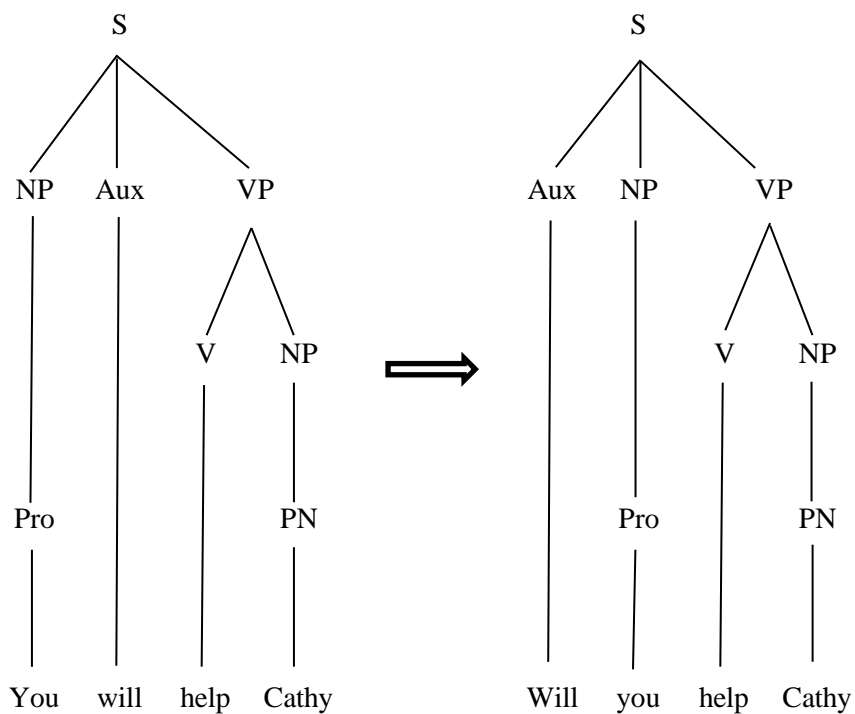
²⁴Stageberg, *An Introductory English Grammar*, 329.

Aux \rightarrow {*can, should, will*}

With these components, we can specify the transformational rules that create this basic type of English question as: NP Aux VP \Rightarrow Aux NP VP. We can illustrate this change in terms of the tree on the right below being derived from the tree on the left.

Diagram 3.2

Transformation structure tree

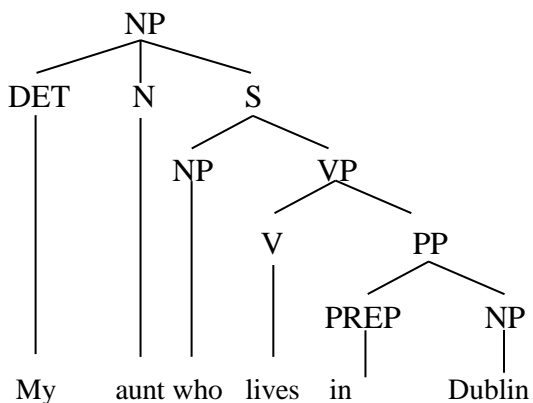


Another transformational rule is used for relative clause transformation. English relative clauses contain (and are usually introduced by) a relative pronoun, such as *who* (or *whom* or *whose*), *which* or *that*.

I sent your book to my aunt my aunt lives in Dublin

I sent your book to my aunt who lives in Dublin

As in the sentence above, the pronoun can be omitted in certain structures. Relative clauses modify nouns, and the noun that the relative clause modifies is called the *head noun*. In English, the head noun is repeated in the subordinate clause, where it is 'relativised'. A relative clause is part of the same noun phrase as its head noun. The structure of the resulting noun phrase can be represented as the diagram below.



E. Holy Qur'an and It's Translation

1. The Holy Qur'an

The Holy Quran is a compilation of the verbal revelations given to the Holy Prophet Muhammad (saw) over a period of twenty three years. The Holy Quran is the Holy Book or the Scriptures of the Muslims. It lays down for them the law and commandments, codes for their social and moral behaviour, and contains a comprehensive religious philosophy. The language of the Quran is Arabic.

Besides its proper name, the Quran is also known by the following names: al Kitab (The Book), al Furqan (The Discrimination), al Dhikr (The Exposition), al Bayan (The Explanation), al Burhan (The Argument), al Haqq (The Truth), al Tanzil (The Revelation), al Hikmat (The Wisdom), al Huda (The Guide), al Hukm (The Judgment), al Mau'izah (The Admonition), al Rahmat (The Mercy), al-Noor (The Light), al-kalam (The

word), and the other names narrated by interpreters (*mufassirin*) of it.²⁵

The Holy Quran is divided into 114 *Surahs* or chapters and each chapter consists of individual *Ayaat* or verses. There are in total 6,666 verses in the Holy Quran. The *Surahs* are of varying lengths, some consist of a few lines while others run for many pages. Surah al Baqarah (Ch.2) is the longest Chapter comprising 287 verses while Surah al Kauthar (Ch.108) is the shortest with only three verses.

The text of the Holy Quran has remained unchanged over the past 1400 years. The millions of copies of the Quran circulating in the world today are all identical down to a single letter. And this is not strange since God says in the Holy Quran that He Himself will guard this book:

"Surely it is We Who have revealed the Exposition, and surely it is We Who are its guardians"(15:10).

²⁵ Abdul Djalal, *Ulumul Qur'an* (5th. Ed.) (Surabaya: Dunia Ilmu, 2012), 7-8.

To the Muslims, the Quran is the Word of God and contains complete guidance for mankind. Much of the Quran is about God, His attributes and man's relationship to Him. But it also contains directives for its followers, historical accounts of certain prophets and peoples, arguments for accepting Muhammad as a genuine Prophet and good news for the believers and warnings for the disbelievers.

2. English Translation of Holy Qur'an

The first translation of any part of the Qur'an occurred during the lifetime of Prophet Muhammad. The moslems in Abyssinia, under the leadership of Jafar Ibn Abi Talib, recited the first few verses of Surah Maryam to The Negus, which were translated to him. This incident occurred before the migration (hijrah) of the Prophet to Madina and is probably the first recorded instance of any translation of the Qur'an.²⁶

²⁶ Daoud Mohammad Nassimi, *"A Thematic Comparative Review of Some English Translations of The Qur'an"*, (Dr. Dissertation, University of Birmingham, 2008), p. 46.

There have been numerous complete translations of the Qur'an in many languages later. The *World Bibliography*²⁷ provides authoritative publication details of the translations of the Qur'an in sixty five languages. According to *World Bibliography*, there are Syriac translations made by non-moslems in the second part of the first century AH. There was a Persian oral translation made by Musa ibn Sayyar al-Aswari before 225 AH and complete Indian translation before 270 AH. According to T.W. Arnold, a Chinese translation also possibly existed.²⁸

In 1647 Andre Du Ryer,²⁹ a gentlemen of France trading in the Levant, published a French translation in Paris, a Russian version appeared in St. Petersburg in 1776. Savary's French translation came out in 1783, followed by Kasimirski's version in 1840 that was also in French. The French interest in Islam was stimulated by France involvement in North Africa. The Germans followed Scheweigger's translation with readings by Boysen in

²⁷ *World Bibliography of The Translations of The Meanings of The Holy Qur'an*, Istanbul, OIC Research Centre, 1986.

²⁸ T.W. Arnold, *The Preaching of Islam* (New Delhi: Adam Publisher and Distributors, 2002), 54.

²⁹ The rest of this section is a summary of materials on pp. 28-34 of *World Bibliography*.

1773, Wahl in 1828, and Ulmann in 1840. It was Du Ryer's French translation of 1647 that became the basis for the first English translation.

When the Western world was exposed to the initial's translations of the Qur'an, the English orientalists used to look up to the French language as a source of information and inspiration. Like other French's publications, the French translation of the Qur'an by Du Ryer of 1647 that circulated very quickly across the channel also created a new interest in England for further information and it led to the first translation of the Qur'an in English language.