

Analysis of Morphological Errors on the Sudanese University Translation Students' Performance (English – Arabic)

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ABSTRACT

Morphological errors may have a bad impact when translating texts from one language into another. This paper is an attempt to analyze such errors on the Sudanese university translation students' performance using English and Arabic languages. The paper aimed at identifying the common morphological difficulties that the targeted students face when translating Arabic sentences into English and vice versa. It also shed light on some differences between English and Arabic morphological systems. The descriptive and analytical methods were used to achieve the objectives of this paper. The targeted students were tested and many types of morphological errors in their work were found, described and analyzed. It was found out that Sudanese university translation students face morphological difficulties in translation from English into Arabic and vice versa. The nature of these two languages caused difficulties that lead to such errors. It was recommended that Sudanese university translation students need to be helped mastering English and Arabic morphology in order to perform a good translation, free from the errors mentioned above.

Key words

inflection, derivation, number, gender, possessive case

المستخلص

الأخطاء الصرفية قد يكون لها الأثر السيئ عند ترجمة النصوص من لغة لأخرى. هذه الورقة محاولة لتحليل مثل هذه الأخطاء على أداء طلاب الترجمة في الجامعات السودانية باستخدام اللغتين الإنجليزية والعربية. هدفت الورقة للتعرف على الصعوبات الصرفية الشائعة التي يواجهها الطلاب المستهدفون عند ترجمة جمل من اللغة العربية إلى الإنجليزية والعكس. كما سلطت الضوء على بعض الاختلافات بين الأنظمة الصرفية الإنجليزية والعربية. وقد استخدمت الطرق الوصفية والتحليلية لتحقيق أهداف هذه الورقة. فقد تم اختبار الطلاب المستهدفين في هذه الورقة والعديد من أنواع الأخطاء الصرفية في أعمالهم تم اكتشافها وتوصيفها وتحليلها. ومما توصلت إليه الورقة أن طلاب الترجمة في الجامعات السودانية يواجهون صعوبات صرفية في الترجمة من الإنجليزية إلى العربية والعكس. وأن طبيعة هاتين اللغتين تسببت في صعوبات أدت بدورها لمثل هذه الأخطاء. وأوصت الورقة أن طلاب الترجمة في الجامعات السودانية بحاجة للمساعدة لإتقان علم الصرف في اللغتين الإنجليزية والعربية حتى يؤديوا ترجمة جيدة خالية من الأخطاء سالفة الذكر.

كلمات مفتاحية: التصريف، الاشتقاق، العدد، النوع، حالة الملكية

INTRODUCTION

In linguistics, morphology according to Anderson, S. R. (unavailable) is the study of words, how they are formed, and their relationship to other words in the same language. It analyzes the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Morphology also looks at parts of speech, intonation and stress,



and the ways context can change a word's pronunciation and meaning. Morphology is one of two parts in grammar. Identifying the morphological differences between these two languages of this paper helps teachers, on the one hand, to specify how and what to teach. It also helps university translation students, on the other hand, to know how and what to focus on when they translate. This paper is significant because it intends to investigate the morphological errors made by the Sudanese university translation students when they translate from Arabic into English and vice versa. The researchers hypothesized that these students face some morphological difficulties that drive them to make such errors.

3.Literature Review

Actually, many intellectual efforts that attempted to cover the problematic areas of translation can be seen. Salim, J. A. (2013) conducted a study handling noun differences between these two languages that may confuse translators. At the end of the study, Salim revealed so many facts. For example, both English and Arabic share some features in their derivational structure. However, Arabic derivational system is very complex which may cause a few difficulties for the second language learners. English nouns have two numbers: singular and plural. Whereas, Arabic nouns have three numbers: singular, dual and plural. There is no gender distinction in English between

second person singular and plural, whereas, Arabic gender distinction is made.

Abdul-Muttalib, N. (n. d.) also has a contrastive study. She worked hard to give us a valuable product. She studied differences and similarities between English and Arabic and how far these things cause difficulties when translating a text into these two languages. She found that very few nouns are marked for gender in English, so gender is more relevant to pronouns. As for Arabic, nouns are marked for gender, which are relevant to pronouns, verbs, and adjectives. This difference poses a problem in translation. The gender of nouns in Arabic is obvious and hardly changed, whereas in English gender cannot be recognized without the pronouns.

Such differences may occur in verbs, nouns or any other parts of speech in both languages. **Therefore**, translation students need to be aware of such differences in order to facilitate difficulties they face. Otherwise, we may have another meaning for a word when translated from one language into another because the meaning of a word according to Gleason, H. A. (1961:57) "depends not only upon the morphemes that are present but also on the order of their occurrence." For some extend, Arabic morphology differs from that of English. It is the change of a single origin to various examples of intended meanings. The following examples show an Arabic verb and how it is used with number, person, gender as well as its meaning in English

Verb	Number	Person	Gender	Meaning
<i>katabtu</i>	Singular	First	masc./fem.	I wrote
<i>katabna</i>	dual/plural	First	masc./fem.	We wrote
<i>kataba</i>	Singular	Third	masc.	They wrote
<i>katabat</i>	Singular	Third	fem.	She wrote
<i>katab'a</i>	Dual	Third	masc.	They wrote
<i>katabu</i>	Plural	Third	masc.	They wrote
<i>Katabna</i>	Dual	Third	fem.	They wrote
<i>Katabtuma</i>	Dual	Second	masc./fem.	You wrote
<i>Katabtum</i>	Plural	Second	masc.	You wrote



Examples: 1. *Katabtu qasseeda*. means (I wrote a poem.) 2. *Katabti qasseeda*. means (you wrote a poem.) 3. *Katabat qasseeda*. means (she wrote a poem.) From the previous examples, we see that one form of a verb was used in English to express the past tense with different subjects (I, you and she). However, the case is different in Arabic. More than one form of a verb in the same past tense were used with the subjective pronouns which are implied in the verb (in Arabic called *mustatar* which means implied). Derivational morphemes are affixes which are added to a lexeme to change its meaning or function. They are used to make a new, different lexeme (for example, *-ly* changes the adjective *sad* into the adverb *sadly*). Most derivational morphemes change the part of speech, for example, *-ance* changes the verb *resemble* into the noun *resemblance*. Note that the 'e' is deleted at the end of the verb *resemble* when the suffix is added. The majority of derivational morphemes that do not change the part of speech are prefixes, for example, adding *un-* changes the meaning of the adjective *happy* but it is still an adjective *unhappy*.

Inflectional morphemes are affixes which carry grammatical meaning (for example, the plural *-s* in *cats* or progressive *-ing* in *sailing*). They do not change the part of speech or meaning of the word; they function to ensure that the word is in the appropriate form so the sentence is grammatically correct. All inflectional morphemes in English are suffixes and are added after any derivational suffixes. The most common inflectional morphemes are used in verb inflection (for example, *-ed* in *raced*, *-ing* in *racing*, *-s* in *races*) but there are suffixes for noun inflection (for example, plural *-s* in *horses* and possessive -

's in *Norma's*) and adjective inflection (for example, comparative *-er* in *faster* and superlative *-est* in *fastest*).

English nouns only come in two forms: singular and plural. In the standard case, we get the plural form by adding an *s* to the end of the noun stem, which, at the same time, is the singular form of the noun: *cat* vs. *cats*. However, there are some exceptions, where the plural is not built by simply adding an *s* to the stem, but rather by changing the stem: *man* vs. *men*. So, valid English nouns consist of either the stem of a regular noun, or the singular stem of an irregular noun, or the plural stem of an irregular noun, or the stem of a regular noun plus an *s*. English nouns according to Salim, J. A. (ibid) are inflected for: number, gender, case, and person.

Number Quirk, R. and Greenbaum, S. (1973:80) pointed out that

"The English number system comprises singular, which denotes 'one', and plural, which denotes 'more than one'. The singular category includes common non-count nouns and proper nouns. Count nouns are variable, occurring either singular or plural number 'boy-boys', or have invariable plural 'cattle'. In English, the regular plural is formed by the addition of the sibilant suffix /-s/ to the singular. It has three allomorphs which are phonologically conditioned, i.e., the choice of /-s, -z, -iz/ is determined by the final sound of the nouns to which plural forming suffix appears, e.g., 'books, boys, roses', etc. In other words, the plural morpheme has three allomorphs, i.e., /-s, -z, and -iz/.

Besides the regular plural morpheme /-s/, there are a number of irregular formations that are as follows:



Stem modification, then adding /-s/. e.g., 'thieves, knives, baths'.

Adding /-en/ with or without additional internal change in the stem, e.g., 'oxen, brethren, children'.

By mutation, a change of vowel in the following seven nouns: 'foot-feet, man-men, woman-women, tooth- teeth, louse - lice, goose - geese, mouse - mice'.

By adding a zero morpheme to a few nouns, i.e., the plural is identical to the singular, 'fish, deer, sheep'.

Arabic numbers from 1 - 2

Example	Meaning in English
<i>Talib wahid</i>	one (male) student
<i>Taliba wahida</i>	one (female) student
<i>Taliban ithnan</i>	two (male) students
<i>Talibatan ithnatan</i>	two (female) students

b. Numbers from three to ten contradict the *M'adood* with the masculine and feminine forms, such as:

Arabic numbers from 3 – 10

Example	Meaning in English
<i>Thalathu kutub</i>	three (male) books
<i>Thalathatu majallat</i>	three (female) magazines

c. Complex numbers are of two forms:

i) Numbers from eleven to twelve agree with the *M'adood* with the masculine and feminine forms, such as:

Arabic numbers from 11 – 12

Example	Meaning in English
<i>Ahada ashara mutasabiq</i>	eleven (male) runners
<i>Ihda ashrata mutasabiq</i>	eleven (female) runners

ii) Numbers from (13-19): the first part contradicts the *M'adood*, and the second part agrees with the *M'adood*, such as:

Arabic numbers from 13 – 19

Example	Meaning in English
<i>Thalathata ashara mandoob</i>	thirteen (male) delegates
<i>Thalath ashrata dawla</i>	thirteen (female) countries

d. Numbers of tens (20-90): remain the same with both the masculine and feminine forms, such as:

However, numbers in Arabic usually cause severe confusion when translating from Arabic into English and vice versa.

That is because some numbers contradict what comes after (in Arabic called Al-M'adood).

Numbers are classified into the following categories:

a. Numbers one and two always agree with the *M'adood* with the masculine and feminine forms, such as:



Arabic numbers of tens (20-90)

Example	Meaning in English
<i>Thalatheen kitaban</i>	thirteen (male) book
<i>Khamseen mijallatan</i>	fifty (female) magazine

e. Coupled numbers are of two forms:

i) (21, 22, 31, 32, 41, 42, ... 91, 92) agree with the *M'adood*, such as:

Arabic numbers (21, 22, 31, 32, 41, 42, ... 91, 92)

Example	Meaning in English
<i>wahidun wa oshroon rakiban</i>	twenty one (male) passengers
<i>ihda wa oshroon rakibatan</i>	twenty one (female) passengers

ii) The rest of the coupled numbers (23, 33, 43 ... 93) the former contradicts the *M'adood* whereas the numbers of tens remain the same with the masculine and feminine forms, such as:

Arabic numbers (23, 33, 43 ... 93)

Example	Meaning in English
<i>Thalathatun wa oshroon rajulan</i>	twenty three men
<i>Thalathun wa oshroon imra'a</i>	twenty three women

f. (100, 200, 300, ... 1000) remain the same with the masculine and feminine forms, such as:

Arabic numbers (100, 200, 300, ... 1000)

Example	Meaning in English
<i>Miatu talib</i>	one hundred (male) students
<i>Miatu taliba</i>	one hundred (female) students

Hence, it may become clear how different is the number inflection in Arabic from that in English. This may, consequently, cause some morphological difficulties when translating from English into Arabic and vice versa. **Gender** Gender in English grammar according to Sledd, J. (1959: 213) is "traditionally used to refer to a grammatical distinction that corresponds roughly to the semantic distinction between males, females, and sexless things."

This grammatical distinction in gender is also expressed by Quirk, R and Greenbaum, S. (ibid) when they added that: "English makes very few gender distinctions. Where they are made, the connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is very close, insofar as natural sex distinctions determine English gender distinction".

In English, the gender of nouns (e.g. *John*, *Ann*, *table*) as a grammatical tool is clarified only in terms of pronominal alternatives (e. g. *he*, *she*, or *it* respectively). In other words, these pronouns may replace the gender which has a minor role of grammatical significance. This minority is clearly expressed by Lyons, J. (1969: 283) when he said: "Gender plays a relatively minor part in the grammar of English by comparison with its role in many other languages. There is no gender concord, and the reference of pronouns 'he, she, and it' is very largely determined by what sometimes referred to as 'natural' gender, for English, this depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate"



Thus, a noun that refers to male persons is called masculine (e.g. man, boy); a noun that refers to female persons is called feminine (e.g. woman, girl); and a noun that refers to neither male nor female is called 'neuter gender' (e.g. gun, basket). Another type of gender can also be added; it is a common or dual gender (e.g. teacher, journalist, registrar, accountant, writer, lawyer, musician, etc.) The feminine gender is usually formed in three ways:

- a). By using an entirely different word (e.g. husband / wife, cock / hen, king / queen, etc.)
- b). By adding a syllable such as: -ess, -ine, -trix ... etc) to the masculine gender (e.g. host / hostess, hero / heroine, executor/executrix, etc.)
- c). By placing a word before or after (e.g. grandfather / grandmother, policeman / policewoman, stepbrother / stepsister, etc.)

Possessive Case We are now looking at how the noun changes in the possessive case. The possessive case is mostly used for showing possession. It is used with nouns referring to people, countries, and animals. It shows a relationship of belonging between one thing and another. To form a possessive case, we add an apostrophe (') plus s to the noun. If the noun is plural, or already ends in s, we can just add an apostrophe after the s. The possessive case applies to nouns, pronouns, and adjectives. As for the noun in English, according to Jackson, H. (1985:15) "case

marking in the noun is limited to 'a possessive' (or genitive) case, marked in writing by - 's in the regular nouns and by - s' in the plural nouns. It links two nouns in a semantic relationship of 'belonging' or 'possession' (e.g., the caw's tail, the girl's name), or in some kinds of largely grammatical relationship (e.g., the world's end, the inquiry's conclusions)".

Person In grammatical terms, first person, second person, and third person refer to personal pronouns. Each "person" has a different perspective, a "point of view," and the three points of view have singular and plural forms as well as three case forms. According to Zandvoort, R. W. (1965: 128) "English has three classes of personal pronouns denoting respectively, the person(s) speaking, 'first person', the person(s) spoken to 'second person', other person(s) or thing(s) 'third person'" In the subjective case, the singular form of the first person is "I," and the plural form is "we." "I" and "we" are in the subjective case because either one can be used as the subject of a sentence. We always use these two pronouns when we refer to ourselves and when you refer to ourselves with others. Here are two sentences containing both: I (first-person singular) look forward to my monthly book club meeting. and We (first-person plural) are now reading a book.



We use the second-person to address the reader (or person spoken to). The second person uses the pronouns “you,” “your,” and “yours.” We use these three pronouns when addressing one, or more than one, person. Here are two examples: a) This is a singular second-person sentence: *Dad, before you travel to Medani, please remember to hang the key on the window. I’ll miss you. Sincerely yours, Ahmed.* b) This is a plural second-person sentence: *Class, please be seated when the principal arrives. Ali and Khalid, I’m speaking to you as well.* Arabic morphology structure according to Hassan, T (1976) can be dealt with on bases of form, function or both.

various words can be derived from the root /k-t-b/, such as:

Arabic words derived from the root k-t-b

As for the structure of nouns in Arabic, they can be described in the following terms: 1. Stem-root Structure
2. Morphological processes of stem formation. The root system in Arabic gives the basic morphological characteristics of nouns, verbs and particles. The great majority of nouns and verbs have a stem consisting of three consonantal roots (i.e., C1C2C3). A great number of word patterns can be made by modifying the root by means of affixation, both inflectional and derivational. In other words, by modifying the three consonantal roots by means of vowel insertion, a number of words can be derived. For example,

Example	Meaning in English
<i>Kataba</i>	he wrote
<i>kita:bun</i>	a book
<i>Maktabun</i>	an office
<i>ka:tibun</i>	a writer

The various morphological processes of stem formation are as follows:

- a. Affixation
- b. Derivation
- c. Inflection

Affixation

The most frequent morphological process is affixation, which is of three types: prefixes, infixes and suffixes. Affixes are also of two types: inflectional and derivational, preceded or followed by parts of the root. For example:

Examples for Arabic affixation

Example	Meaning in English
<i>rasama</i>	he drew
<i>rasamat</i>	she drew
<i>rasamtu</i>	I drew
<i>marsamun</i>	Atelier



Derivation

The great majority of nouns and verbs in Arabic are derived from the triliteral root of the third person masculine singular in a simple past verb. Therefore, from /darasa/

'he learnt' many derivatives can be seen such as:

Examples for Arabic derivation

Example	Meaning in English
<i>dirasatun</i>	Learning
<i>darisun</i>	learner (male)
<i>darisatun</i>	learner (female)
<i>darasat</i>	she learnt

The Arabs use the simplest pattern /fa3ala/ 'he did' and use its three radicals /f-3-l/ quite independently of any idea of describing the various patterns of words. Word formation in Arabic according to Descout, R. (1987: 93) "involves three concepts:

- (a) the concept of root,
- (b) the concept of pattern
- (c) and the concept of form." The various word patterns are expressed by using the root consisting of consonants only. The actual form of the word is created by inserting vowels within the consonantal root and sometimes by additional consonants which are not part of the root. The actual word formation can be described by using the consonantal pattern /fa3ala/, e.g., /jama3a/ 'he collected', /kataba/ 'he wrote', /la3iba/ 'he played', etc.

Thus, nouns in Arabic are of two classes: a. Primitive: those nouns that can't be referred to any verbal root, e.g., /farasun/ 'a horse', /qalbun/ 'heart', /kalbun/ 'a dog', /qalamun/ 'a pen', etc.

b. Derived: derived nouns are those nouns that are derived from various verb forms or patterns:

- i) From bi-consonantal root /yd/, the form /yad/ 'hand' is derived. From /bk/ the

morpheme /buka:/ 'weeping' is derived. ii) From tri-consonantal root, e.g., /f-3-l/ we have /walad/ 'a boy', /qamar/ 'a moon', /watan/ 'a homeland', raqam/ 'a number'... etc.

The commonest derivatives of nouns are the following: a) The relative adjectives, formed by adding the suffix /iyyun/ to the noun, e.g., /al garbu/ 'the west', /al garbiyyun/ 'the westerners', /3ilmun/ 'science', /3ilmiyyun/ 'scientific'... etc.

(b) Diminutive: which is rarely used, is formed according to the pattern /fu3aylun/, e.g., /kutayyibun/ 'a small book', /bunayyatun/ 'a little girl'... etc.

(c) Nouns derived from verbs: nouns derived from verbs of trilaterals, e.g., /qita:lun/ 'fighting', from /qatala/ 'he killed'. /majlesun/ 'council' from /jalasa/ 'he sat'... etc.

(d) Nouns derived from nouns: some nouns are derived from other nouns, e.g., /insa:niyatun/ 'humanity' from /insa:nun/ 'human', /Isla:miyyun/ 'Islamic' from /Isla:mun/ 'Islam'.

Arabic nouns are inflected for number, gender, case, and person:



Number

According to Karin, C. R. (2005: 53) "Arabic has three numbers categories: singular, dual, and plural. Whereas singular and plural are familiar to most western learners, the dual is less familiar." Arabic nouns, verbs and adjectives are characterized by having three numbers: singular (al-mufrad), dual (al-muthanna) and plural (al-jam3). The singular words are unmarked. The dual is formed by adding the suffix /-a:ni/ in the nominative, /- ayni/ in the accusative and genitive to the singular of the noun (feminine and masculine) after the removal of the case ending. For example, /malikun/ 'a king', /malika:ni/ 'two kings' in the nominative case, /malikayni/ 'two kings' in the accusative and genitive cases. Furthermore, if the singular ends in /a:/, the /a:/ becomes /w/ in the dual, e.g., /3asa:/ 'a stick' becomes /3aswa:ni/ 'two sticks'. If the feminine singular ends in /3u/, (in Arabic called "hamza") this hamza / becomes /w/ in the dual, e.g., /sahra:3u/ 'desert' becomes /sahrawani/ 'two deserts'. This dual form is mentioned by Beeston, A. F. (1987: 109) when he said: "In addition to word forms, appropriate to the singular and to the plural, which imply more than two entities, Arabic also uses dual when the reference is to two individual entities of category" The plural in Arabic is of two kinds according to Cowan, D. (1986) who firstly mentioned the 'sound plural' (in Arabic called "al-jam3 al-salim") confined at least in the masculine to participle and the nouns indicating the profession or habitual actions. Then there is the so called 'broken plural' (in Arabic called "al-jam3 al-takseer") which is made according to a pattern by altering the vowel within or outside the framework of the

radical consonant. The sound plural is of two kinds: sound masculine plural and the sound feminine plural. The sound masculine of nouns and adjectives is formed by adding the suffix /-u:na/ for the nominative, e.g., /mudarisu:na/ 'male teachers', /najaru:na/ 'carpenters', and /-i:na/ for the other cases after the case ending of the nominative singular has been dropped, e.g., /najari:na/ 'carpenters', /mudarisi:na/ 'male teachers'. The sound feminine plural is formed by changing the suffix /-atun/, of the singular into /-a:tun/ for the nominative, e.g., /mudarisa:tun/ 'female teachers', /muslima:tun/ 'muslim women' and /-a:tin/ for the other cases, e.g., /mudarisa:tin/ 'female teachers', /muslima:tin/ 'muslim women'. Some feminine nouns take a masculine sound plural, e.g., /sanatun/ 'a year', /sinu:na/ 'years' and some masculine nouns take a feminine sound plurale.g., /hayawa:nun/ 'an animal', /hayawana:tun/ 'animals', /naba:tun/ 'plant', /nabata:tun/ 'plants'. As for the broken plural, it is necessary to know the importance of word forms, or patterns in Arabic. The great majority of Arabic roots are trilateral, consisting of three radical letters, or consonants. The combination of trilateral root gives a basic meaning. By modifying the root, by the addition of suffixes and prefixes, and by the vowel change, a large number of word patterns can be formed from each root. These patterns have got to be learnt along with the singular. Examples below show some of the most frequent and common patterns of broken plural: The most frequent and common patterns of broken plural



Example	Plural of	Meaning in English
<i>aqla:mun</i>	<i>qalamun</i>	a pen
<i>mulu:kun</i>	<i>malikun</i>	a king
<i>rija:lun</i>	<i>rajulun</i>	a man
<i>Kutubun</i>	<i>kita:bun</i>	a book

Gender

Generally, Arabic nouns carry grammatical gender whether they refer to animate or inanimate objects. Gender as a grammatical category in Arabic is a little bit different from that of English. Each noun in Arabic according to Shafi, S. (1986: 13) “*is either masculine or feminine as there is no neuter gender*”. Moreover, masculinity is the default grammatical gender and a word does not have to have anything special in order to reflect this. Femininity, on the other hand, is not default and a noun would have to have something special to reflect this gender. However, for living creatures, grammatical gender corresponds to biological gender, e.g. (*rajul*) “man” is masculine, while (*imra’a*) “woman” is feminine. For inanimate objects, the relationship between grammatical gender and objects is arbitrary, e.g. (*durj*) “drawer” is a masculine noun, while (*kanaba*) “bench” is a feminine noun. When learners of Arabic learn new words, it is important to know the gender associated with this word, e.g. (*gamar*) “moon” is masculine, while (*shams*) “sun” is feminine. Nouns of professions can have masculine and feminine forms. For example, (*muwathaf*) is requiring feminine endings:

Arabic nouns denoting feminine without feminine endings

Example	Type of noun	Meaning in English
<i>Bint</i>	common noun	Girl
<i>Rijl</i>	part of the body	Foot
<i>Misr</i>	proper noun	Egypt
<i>Ibil</i>	collective noun	Camels

a “male employee”, while (*muwathafa*) is a “female employee”. We change a noun from masculine to feminine by adding the syllable /ə/, e.g. (*ustaz*) is a “male teacher”, while (*ustaza*) is a “female teacher”. Adjectives must have the same gender of the nouns they describe. For example, “new employee” can be either (*muwathaf jadeed*) for a male “new employee”, or (*muwathafa jadeeda*) for a female “new employee”. Likewise, gender of words referring to inanimate objects must agree with the gender of adjectives used to describe them, e.g. (*kursi gadeem*) “an old chair” both the noun and adjective are masculine, and (*kanaba gadeema*) “an old bench” both the noun and adjective are feminine. Feminine nouns according to Frayha, A. (1958: 220): “*may be ascertained by significance or by their grammatical form. But it is not always easy to recognize gender by significance. Generally, all common and proper nouns that denote females, proper names of countries and towns, names of the body and collective nouns are feminine.*” Below are some examples of words that denote feminine without



Case

A noun in Arabic grammar has three cases which are called nominative case (*Hālat-ur-raf3*), accusative case (*Hālat-un-nasb*) and genitive case (*Hālat-ul-jar*). Something will cause a word to be in one of these cases. For example, when a sentence begins with a subject noun, the noun will be in a nominative case. There will be a consequence of a word being in a certain case. In each of these cases the last letter of the word will change to a different vowel. Here is a summary for these cases and the signs used for each one of them. A noun being in the nominative case will end

(originally) with a /dhamma/ or /dhammatain/. A noun being in the accusative case will end (originally) with a /fatha/ or /fathatain/. A noun being in the genitive case will (originally) end with a /kasra/ or /kasratain/. /dhamma/, /fathah/, and /kasrah/ are signs put at the end the nouns in each case (shown ُ, َ, ِ respectively). They are doubled according to a certain rule in a sentence to become /dhammatain/, /fathatain/ and /kasratain/ (shown ُو, َف, ِ respectively). Below are examples for these cases.

Examples for Arabic cases

Case	Example	Sign
Nominative	<i>madrasat<u>u</u>/ madrasat<u>o</u>n</i>	/u/ for /dhammah/ and /on/ for /dhammatain/
Accusative	<i>madrasat<u>a</u>/madrasat<u>e</u>n</i>	/a/ for /fatha/ and /en/ for /fathatain/
Genitive	<i>madrasat<u>i</u>/ madrasat<u>im</u></i>	/i/ for /kasrah/ and /im/ for /kasratain/

Person

The Arabic language is rich of personal pronouns (in Arabic called *dhamayir*, singular of *dhameer*). Unlike English – which has only contains 7 different forms of subject pronouns – the Arabic language has 12 different pronouns. That is because the Arabic language differentiates between male and female pronouns and is also more Arabic pronouns

precise about the number. These pronouns are of two types: independent (free or unattached – in Arabic called *munfasil*) pronouns and dependent (bound – in Arabic called *muttasil*) pronouns. The independent pronouns are used in the nominative case. Examples below show these pronouns.

Arabic pronouns	Meaning in English
<i>Anaa</i>	I [am] (masculine and feminine)
<i>Anta</i>	You [are] (masculine singular)
<i>Anti</i>	You [are] (feminine singular)
<i>Antumaa</i>	You [are] (2nd person dual – masculine and feminine)
<i>Humaa</i>	They [are] (3rd person dual)



<i>Huwa</i>	He [is]
<i>Heya</i>	She [is]
<i>Nahnu</i>	We [are]
<i>Antum</i>	You [are] (masculine plural)
<i>Antenna</i>	You [are] (feminine plural)
<i>Hum</i>	They [are] (masculine plural)
<i>Hunna</i>	They [are] (feminine plural)

The dependent or attached pronouns (i.e. suffixed to nouns, verbs or prepositions), on the other hand, are bound morphemes. They are mainly suffixes occur in the oblique case. For example, *tu ,na ,i:, um, ma,* etc. The followings are examples for these pronouns:

a) Suffixed to verbs as direct object, e.g., */katabahu/* 'He wrote it'.

b) Suffixed to nouns to indicate possession, e.g., */kitab:i:/* 'My book', */madrasatukuma:/* 'Your school' (dual masculine and feminine), */madrasatuhu/* 'his school'.

(c) Suffixed to prepositions, e.g., */lukum/* 'Yours, for you', */minhu/* 'from him', */minha:/* 'from her', */lana:/* 'for us, or ours', ... etc.

So we have seen some morphological areas in both English and Arabic languages. If they are not thoroughly studied by those who want to translate texts in these two languages, there will be some problems in their product.

3. Materials and Methods

In this paper, the researchers adopted the descriptive and analytical methods to achieve the hypothesis claimed in it.

A diagnostic test was used for collecting data. This test that was carried out in April 2017 contained some questions.

These questions included sentences in both English and Arabic languages to be translated by the targeted students into these two languages. The study sample of the paper was the third year translation students at the National Ribat University in Khartoum – Sudan. These students were already divided into two majoring groups:

- English – Arabic translation students who were going to be specialized in English – Arabic translation.

- Arabic - English translation students who were going to be specialized in Arabic – English translation.

The researchers intended to display and discuss the results of collected data to prove whether the hypothesis is true or not. The Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS) was the software programme that was used for this purpose.

4. Results and Discussion

Each group of the targeted students was given a separate test containing paragraphs and individual sentences to be translated into

the targeted language. The following tables show the required results:

Table 1

Distribution of frequencies and percentages of the English –Arabic translation students' results

Grade	Frequencies	Percentage
Pass	31	75.6%
Failure	10	24.4%
Total	41	100%

As shown in table (1) above, the frequencies and percentages of pass and failure grades revealed higher grade for the pass than the failure.

Table 2

Demonstrating the one sample t. test among the students' marks in the English-Arabic translation test

Students' marks %	Mean	STD	T.test value	DF	Sig.
	56.634	11.0922	32.69	40	0.00

The results in table (2) show that there is a significant difference between the mean of students' marks and the T.test value at the significant value (0.00) which is less than 0.05.

Table 3

Distribution of frequencies and percentages of the Arabic-English translation students' results

Grade	Frequencies	Percentage
Pass	12	26.8%
Failure	34	73.2%
Total	46	100%

As shown in table (3), which illustrates the frequencies and percentages of pass and failure grades, the failure grade in Arabic-English translation test is higher than the pass.

Table 4

Demonstrating the one sample t. test among the students' marks in the Arabic-English translation test

Students' marks %	Mean	STD	t.test value	DF	Sig.
	43.4130	14.6539	20.093	45	0.00

The results in table (4) show that there is a significant difference between the mean of students' marks in the Arabic-English translation test and the T.test value at the significant value (0.00) which is less than 0.05. It was noticed that the mean of marks in the English-Arabic translation

test was greater than the mean of the Arabic-English translation test. It means that English-Arabic translation students were better than Arabic-English translation ones. Morphological errors in both languages can be classified into various categories according to tables 5 and 6 below.

Table 5

Distribution of frequencies and percentages of number of errors in English-Arabic translation test

Category	Number of errors	Percentage
Affixation	88	10.64%
Gender	120	14.51%
Number	160	19.35%
Personal pronouns	121	14.63%
Verb-system	48	5.8%
Word formation	290	35.07%
Total	827	100%

Table 6

Distribution of frequencies and percentages of number of errors in Arabic- English translation test

Category	Number of errors	Percentage
Adverbs	54	6.01%
personal pronouns	293	32.63%
Plurals	54	6.01%
Possessive case	25	2.78%
Relative pronouns	6	0.67%
Verb system	393	43.76%
Word formation	73	8.13%
Total	898	100%

According to tables 5 and 6 above, Sudanese university translation students make various types of morphological errors in translation from English into Arabic and vice versa. Moreover, such Students are weaker in Arabic morphology more than the English one.

4. Findings

It was found that Sudanese university translation students face morphological difficulties in translation from English into Arabic and vice versa. Such difficulties drive them to make errors. Mother tongue grammatical interference affects negatively in translation for Sudanese university

translation students. Misunderstanding of some areas in these languages' morphological systems overshadows the translation performance.

5. Recommendations

It is recommended that Sudanese university translation students need to be helped mastering English and Arabic morphology in order to avoid making errors when they translate from and into these two languages. Mother tongue must be kept aside when translating from and into these two languages. Refreshing courses in basic morphology of both languages have to be done.



Finally, this paper aimed at investigating the impact of morphological errors on the Sudanese university translation students' performance using English and Arabic languages. It showed to what extent morphological systems of these two languages are different. It gave some examples of these differences. A sample from the targeted students was used to achieve the purpose of the paper. The results showed many types of morphological errors. Many reasons were found to be behind making such errors and suggestions were given to avoid making them.

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