The Effect of Juncture on Accurate Interpretation

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Abstract: This study tackles a new aspect that relates phonology and interpretation. It indicates that juncture may cause misunderstanding and therefore mistranslation. The significant problem is in relation to interpretation as it may not be accurate because the translators do not have good knowledge of certain phonological phenomena, and this causes phonological ambiguity leading to wrong translation. Thus, the translator cannot catch the idea of the utterance. The study depends on real test that is applied to students of fourth year in Tikrit university/college of Arts/Translation Department, to investigate the percentage of mistakes of
1.0 Introduction

This paper deals with juncture as one phenomenon of phonology that affects interpretation. It deals with phonetics and phonology, interrelationship between phonetics and phonology, the
differences between phoneme and allophone, prosodic features, juncture, translation and translation theories, interpretation and its types, data analysis and the model that is used, results, and conclusions.

1.1 Phonetics and Phonology

The fields of phonetics and phonology have been defined by many linguistics as an attempt to explain their domain in a clear form. For instance, Fromkin et al. (2009: 190) and Bauman (2009: 2) state that phonetics is the study that describes speech sounds according to their production, perceptual features, and transmission. Collins and Mees (2008: 8), Gut (2009: 9) and Bauman (2009: 3-5) see that there are two sub disciplines or fields in linguistics concerned with sound and pronunciation, called phonetics and phonology. Phonetics describes and analyzes speech from a different viewpoint. It is a term used to study human language sounds. Phoneticians try to find means of describing and analyzing how humans use sounds in language in a typical way. Phonetics has distinctive areas: Acoustic phonetics, articulatory phonetics, and auditory phonetics.

Articulatory phonetics is the first area of phonetics that analyzes the speakers’ organs and muscles used to produce speech, or can test how different speech sounds are generated. The beginning of articulatory phonetics can be traced back to the pronunciation descriptions of Sanskrit, which were made by Indian scholars several centuries ago. It describes and classifies speech sounds according to their actual production parameters. The basic organs of classification that are used to produce different sounds of speech are: the lips, the tongue, alveolar ridge (1), endnotes, teeth, hard palate (2), and volume (3), these are known as articulators. So, the speech sounds classification according to these articulators is considered as one aspect of articulatory phonetics. Another categorization divides sounds of speech into two general groups: vowels and consonants. Vowels are involved with open production without constriction of articulation, while consonants are considered as closed production. As examples of vowels: the first sound in (in) and the second sound in (me), and for consonants the first sound in (toe, so, row).

Ohde (1992: 24) and Gut (2009: 9) state that the second area of phonetics is Acoustic phonetics which is the physical properties of speech sounds as they are transmitted through air, or which is concerned with engineering movement for speech sound in the context of voices’ path in the air between the beginning which is the speaker’s mouth and the end which is listener’s ear. This portion is called acoustic phonetics. Professionals of this branch have studied sounds of speech in the form of sound waves like: intensity, frequency, and duration. They do this by using tools to analyze the physical parameters of sound of speech and arrive at a relatively objective determination of their frequency and intensity components. For instance,

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1. The alveolar ridge is the ridge directly behind the upper front teeth.
2. The palate is the hard, bony roof of the mouth.
3. The velum or soft palate is the soft muscular rear portion of the roof of the mouth.
certain speech sounds as ‘s’ and ‘z’ contain high frequency components that are relatively intense. This gives them their characteristic quality.

Edwards (2003: 9) and Gut (2009: 9) confirm that Auditory phonetics focuses on the sounds’ effect when they touch the brain and the listener’s ear. It is the study of how sound waves of speech are identified and perceived by the listener. In this portion, Bauman (2009: 5) clarifies that pitch and loudness are terms used instead of frequency and intensity to underline speech sound perception in which frequency and pitch or intensity and loudness are identical. His hypothesis is contrary to what other researchers believe such as, Stevens 1935, Volkmann 1940, Nordmark 1968, in that parameters of frequency – pitch and intensity- loudness don’t have one to one correspondence, which means they are not identical.

Gut (2009: 9) on the other hand, observes that recently phoneticians are actively included in the development of automatic and synthetic speech realization systems, which we are meeting every day in automatic statements at railways, airports, and stations in addition to bookings of telephone based pronunciation and training courses. What phoneticians investigate involves: speech organs that are used in the production of a particular pitch movement and speech sound, and how they can work together? Amplitude and frequency as physical properties.

Fromkin et al. (2009: 229), Gut (2009: 10) and Bauman (2009: 7) believe that phonology is the study of section and how speech sound form patterns in a single or particular language. Phonology is referred to both the knowledge of the linguistics of sound patterns that the speakers have, and the knowledge of description that linguists try to produce.

Gut (2009: 9) denotes that phonologists study for instance, what is the function of a sound in a language and what are sounds that can be combined or follow each other and which cannot. Phonology has two areas: segmental and suprasegmental phonology. Segmental is concerned with sounds of speech, while suprasegmental phonology deals with larger units such as syllables, words and intonation phrases. Phonological studies can be traced back to the third century BC with the Ancient grammarians of Greek describing Greek sound patterns, Latin in Europe and in Indian scholars who describe Sanskrit phonology.

From another perspective concerning the philosophical dimensions of phonology for linguistics, Gut focuses on the mental representation or knowledge and patterns of sounds. She assumes that different articulatory sounds among humans don’t go back to have different 'mental idea' of them, however to the articulation which may be different from one person to another. If you compare the articulation of the /p/ in (past) with the /p/ in (repeat) and (stop) by using the methods of phonetic analysis, you will find that they differ obviously in their acoustic properties and articulation: for the /p/ in (past), there is a short but clearly audible air burst after the speaker opens his or her lips which does not occur in the /p/ in the word repeat. For the /p/ in (stop), speakers might not even open their lips and their spot (Ibid.).
Bauman (2009: 8) states that phonology involves sound description of the language that uses the rules controlling the organization of the sounds. It means that phonology is interested with speech sounds that the language uses and how they are organized and function within the language. Phonology is regarded as a branch of linguistics.

1.2 The Difference Between Phonetics and Phonology

Hamann (2005:3) says that both phonology and phonetics deserve studying for a number of reasons:

The first is as each study of language, studying phonology gives us premeditation into how the human mind is working. The second is that the phonetics study of a foreign language gives us a much better ability to hear and to correct mistakes that we may make, and also to teach foreign language pronunciation to others. As we know, phonetics and phonology deal with sounds while English spelling deals with letters. Thus English pronunciation and English spelling are two different things. It is important to keep in your mind here that we are interested in sounds, but not in letters. For example English has 20 different vowels but not 5 or 6 which are (a, e, i, o, u, y), as in: (please), it has three vowel letters, but in phonetic transcription it is between square brackets [pliːz], and consists of three consonants [p,l,z], and one vowel, [iː].

De (2003:70) states that decoding of speech is continuous and graded. Information flows through the system of recognition in cascade all the way up to the level of meaning, with no discrete processing stages. In this system, several words are evaluated in parallel; these candidate words compete with each other, and their activation is modulated by sub phonemic detail in the speech signal. We have suggested that such a system is suited to the listening demands of speech. The way that phonetic and phonological information are processed in encoding of speech appears to be very different.

Bauman (2009: 13-14) expresses that the form and function concepts are used to distinguish the differences between phonology and phonetics, where phonetics stresses the speech sound form by categorizing and describing their physical attributes, it means their articulatory and auditory effects and acoustic components. Phonology emphasizes their function as meaning establishing, and meaning differentiating phonemes within a language system. Adequate form and function of all segments of sound are essential requirement in any language for meaningful utterances. If a speaker of a certain language accepts the end product of events, it is regarded as being sound of speech of their system. The end product is the establishment of words that convey specific meaning within the particular language. For instance, if someone says (Look at the bee), we look that there is an audible sequence of sounds that conveys the meaning. If the person doesn’t like bee he will understand the meaning of this sound as (warning). However, if you say (Look at the beet) you’ll notice that the production is changed and that is related to the addition of (t), so the meaning is changed to a harmless instead of warning.
From what has been said, it can be said that phonetics is a field of linguistics that draws heavily on other scientific disciplines including anatomy, physiology, neurology and physics. While phonetics deals with the production, properties and perception of the speech sounds of human languages, phonology is concerned with how these speech sounds form patterns in a particular language.

Phonology is concerned with what speakers and listeners and children know and second language learners need to learn in order to competently use and understand spoken language. Conversely, phoneticians are interested in the premise of the speech organs, the physical properties of speech and the activity of the body parts involved in speech perception. While a phonologist will claim that the vowel in the word *leak* is long and the vowel in the word *lick* is short, a phonetician will measure the exact length of the sound in milliseconds. This is not to say that there is always a clear-cut boundary between phonetic and phonological analysis. Increasingly, linguists combine questions and methods of both fields, for example in laboratory phonology, where phonetic techniques and measurements are used for phonological investigations.

Hamman (2005:3) and Gut (2009:11) agree together that phonetics and phonology are two sciences of linguistics, however, they are the most important and they deserve studying more than the others sciences.

### 1.3 The Differences Between a Phoneme and an Allophone

Collins and Mees (2008: 10-11) show that speech is a continuous flow of sounds that may have interruptions either to take in air to breathe, or to organize thoughts. The first thing to do in analyzing the continuous flow of sound is to divide it into small chunks to be easier to deal with. This process is known as segmentation and its result is called segments. If you ask the English speaker how many speech sounds in the word *man*, the answer will be three: [m], [æ], and [n]. Segments do not operate alone, because segments have no meaning alone, and they have meaning when they combine and form a word. In every language, there are certain variations in sound and that is important because they change the meaning of the words. For instance, if we replace the first sound in *man* by [p] we will get another word *pan* and the meaning changes.

Bauman (2009: 16) indicates, “Phoneme is the basic unit of phonology. It is defined as the smallest linguistic unit that is able, when combined with other such units, to establish word meaning and distinguish between them.” So phonemes are a unit of sound, with a special language dependent function. The function of linguistics is to establish and differentiate between meanings of words. The concept of phoneme is regarded to be an abstraction, as phonemes are not single, unchanging entities and concrete. A phoneme is an abstraction from the many different variations that occur for a particular sound as it is heard in different contexts of conversational speech.
He also explains that an allophone is one of the several similar phones that belong to the same phoneme family. It represents variation of a basic sound unit. Humans who speak specific languages observe a phoneme like a single distinctive sound in that language; however, an allophone is regarded to be the variation. It means variation in meaning. Several allophonic variations can occur with the /p/ phoneme, (pie) or (pot) which represents the puff of air (aspiration), while the /p/ after (s) is not aspirated in (spy) or (spot). Others are at the end of the word, and in this case something amazing happens which is no movement of lips, while in a natural cases, the lips come together.

1.4 Prosodic Features

Lodge (2009: 110-111) states that these features affect whole or large parts of utterances. They are gone syntagmatically through speech and their function indicates the relationships between different parts of an utterance. For example, if we talk about English stress syllables we refer to the fact that one or more syllables stand out in relation to the surrounding ones.

Phoneticians and phonologists also call the prosodic features suprasegmental features, because they are considered as segments of the basic unit of interpretation and observation. They are speech aspects that affect more than one segment in a certain utterance, or deal with the relationship between one segment and another. The prosodic features that I shall clarify are pitch, juncture.

![Figure (1): Prosodic Features](image)

1.5 Juncture

Juncture is considered a phoneme which is composed of a “class of phonetically highly heterogeneous features” Forlag (1975: 96) believes that juncture is a phonological grammatical
boundary phenomenon. While Pike (1947: 97) clarifies that their variants do not have common phonetic features, therefore, it is not suitable to call junctures as phonemes. Also, the differences of phonetic needed are very small that they cannot even be demonstrated. He adds that in vowel and consonant description, it is possible to keep phonology and grammar apart. In the case of juncture, the phonology and grammar separation leads to artificial descriptions, because all philologists build their junctural analysis on grammatical boundaries, (Pike, op. cit.).

Chapman (1980: 87) considers juncture as another speech feature that is apparently negative, but actually a very important one. Juncture arises as a sort of ambiguity within contexts and that is the negative side. Yet within utterances, the brief pause placing can distinguish the different meanings of identical sequence of phonemes, which may be or may not be fully distinguishable by the context. This is the positive side by which one can recognize the features of such phonemes.

On the other hand, Crystal (1992: 188) describes juncture as a term used in phonology to refer to the “phonetic boundary features that may demarcate grammatical units like, morphemes, words, or clauses”. Juncture is defined by Roach (2000: 110) as the relationship between two sounds that is followed and preceded by it immediately. This relationship, whether phonological or phonetic, is the one that constitutes the nature of juncture. He gives many types of juncture:

1- External open juncture: /ə/ is preceded by silence, and /m/ is followed by silence. So, /ə/ and /m/ are said to be in the position of external open juncture.

2- Internal open juncture: (juncture for short) /n/ and /əu/ relationship is the type of the internal open juncture. A serious problem is laid in deciding the relationship between these two sounds.

3- Close juncture: it is represented by the relationship between /ð/ and /n/, and between /m/ and /əu/.

There is a great deal of difference between the way of pronunciation of the words, whether in isolation or within the context of connected speech. Below are some examples:

(a) (be quit) and (Beek Wyatt)
1. The /k/ in the quit aspirates /kh/ because it follows by a vowel; whereas in (Beek) the /k/ is unaspirated.
2. The /i:/ in (be) is longer than /i:/ in (Beek) because the first /i:/ is followed by nothing.

(b)( your crimes ) and ( York rhymes ) /ju:krainzmz/.

1- in crimes the /r/ devoices. While in rhymes it is voiced.

2- There is primary stress on the first syllable of ( York rhymes ). While ( your crimes ) is received the primary stress on the second syllable.

1.6 Translation

Translation is the replacement of source language text by a target language text. It is a very old activity. Many people from different cultures, languages, and nations around the world practice this activity for centuries. Some people have wrong attitude about translation, they think it is not an important operation. Translation plays a big role in nations development and communication relationships around the world. Nowadays, its need is increased among people especially after the revolution of the Internet (Komissarov, 1973:32).

Mahmood (2003: 73) states that linguists look at translation from two points of view. Some of them such as Catford (1965:1) and Savory (1968: 162) and Nida (1974:70) view it as equivalence, i.e., a source language text replaced by an equivalent target language text. However, others such as House (1977: 52) and McGuire (1980:2) look at it as transference of meaning, i.e., the meaning that is transferred from a source language text to a target language text. Also, Ilyas (1989:20) adds that this operation is based on equivalence of both grammar and phonology of the source text and target text. Generally speaking, in accordance with the kind of text, translation can be divided into different types as scientific translation, legal translation, technical translation, financial translation, judicial translation, literary translation etc.

1.7 Interpretation

Hall & McArthur (1977: 13) say that interpreting is an oral or verbal form of translation, and it is the process where a person repeats out what the speaker says in a different language, or it is the act of reframing, explaining, or otherwise showing your own understanding of something. Interpretation firstly requires you to understand the text, language, or idea and secondly give your explanation of it. Interpretation means the act of rendering the spoken language into another
spoken language, moreover it is complex practice that requires the interpreter to fully understand and analyze spoken message, and after that renders the message into another language.

Pöchhacker (2004: 10-11) states that interpreting can be distinguished from other types of translational activity by its immediacy: in principle, interpreting is performed ‘here and now’ for the benefit of people who want to engage in communication across barriers of language and culture. Interpreting is a form of translation in which a first and final rendition in another language is produced on the basis of a one-time presentation of an utterance in a source language.

Thus, an interpreter works with spoken language. S/he hears the message in the source language, understands it and formulates the same message in the target language. An interpreter requires being precise and accurate and does not have a stop to pick the best words. In addition, s/he has to preserve expression, tone, and choice of words of the speaker. The interpreter must have excellent memory, processing, auditory skills, be able to convey meaning at rapid speed, needs to be a good public speaker, and has to deliver the message instantly (Berlo, 1960: 14).

1.7.1 Types of Interpretation

There are various types of interpretation such as: simultaneous, consecutive, whisper, telephone (scheduled), liaison, and sight interpretations. The study explains the most common ones, which are: simultaneous, consecutive, and sight interpretations.

1.7.1.1 Simultaneous Interpretation

Al-Zahran (2007: 16-17) clarifies that in this type of interpretation, information transfers into second language as soon as the interpreter understands the meaning of the source language, and there is no need to pause after every utterance and wait for translation. As soon as the interpreter understands the general meaning of the utterances, s/he begins the interpretation. In other words, in simultaneous interpreting, the interpreter translates the utterance into the target language while simultaneously listening to and comprehending the next sentence. Thus, an interpreter of this kind processes and memorizes words that the speaker of the source language is saying now, while simultaneously outputting in the target language the translation of the speaker’s words said 5-10 seconds ago. Paraphrasing is not the goal of simultaneous interpreting, but to convey the
exact language. This type is used in conferences, big meetings, or trade shows. Frequently, the interpreter sits in a booth, listens to speaker through headphones, and speaks the translated words into a microphone and this is the difference between this type and whisper interpreting because the interpreter rather than uses the microphone s/he sits next to the group of people (or person) who require interpreting and whispers or speaks softly while interpreting in the target language (Signorelli and et al: 2011: 199-201).

### 1.7.1.2 Consecutive Interpretation

Arumi (2012: 12) elucidates that in consecutive interpretation, the interpreter waits for the speaker to finish an utterance or an idea and then renders the word of the speaker into the target language. An interpreter trains in memory techniques and special note taking that enable him/her to render passages as long as 6-8 minutes accurately and faithfully. In this type the speaker stops frequently, every one to five minutes, to allow the interpreter to render what was said into the target language. Pauses of the speaker usually come at the end of a topic or a paragraph. The interpreter stands or sits beside the speaker to listen and take notes as the speaker progresses through his/her speech. Taking notes in this type regards as a key skill, since a few people can memorize a full paragraph in one hearing without loss of details. Consecutive interpreting is used for smaller business meeting or in court on the witness stand.

### 1.7.1.3 Sight Interpretation

Ahmad (2015: 176-177) indicates that sight interpretation – as opposed to sight translation — is one step closer to simultaneous translation in that the message is presented both aurally and visually. In this case, a candidate is given five to ten minutes to prepare the written version of the message. Then, the candidate asks to deliver a sight interpretation of the text as it is being read through headphones. Sight interpretation is interpretation of a written text received by the translator, usually without any time for preparation. A certified translator in a courtroom usually delivers such interpreting services. Sight interpreting requires excellent language skills, a good memory, quick thinking, resistance to stress, and good powers of attention and concentration on the part of the interpreter. The greatest challenge for the interpreter is the lack of familiarity with

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Sight translation: “has all the characteristics of a translation whereas the final product has the demands of an interpretation, namely instant understanding and reformulation of cognitive content” (Ahmad, 2015:174).
the contents and the context of the entire document while being expected to read and translate the
required fragments. To make the translation correct, coherent and fluent, the translator must take
in as much of the text as possible and be able to translate it into the target language immediately.

1.7.2 The Difference between Translation and Interpreting

Pöchhacker (2004:9-10) shows that the English word ‘interpreter’ is derived from what is
obscure. Interpreting is a translation form in which a first and final rendition in another language
is produced on the basis of a one-time presentation of an utterance in a source language.

The answer by laypeople concerning the difference between translation and interpreting may
be that translation is concerned with written texts while interpreting with oral speech. In the
academic field of translation studies and in translator/interpreter training, attempts have been
made to provide more specific criteria for defining the two activities. For example, Kade
(1968:34-5) introduces the factor of time as the basic differentiating criterion: the source text
availability. For a translator, the source text is available in printed on paper or recorded on a tape
that are called fixed form until the target text has been produced. This way allows the translator
to see the source text when he/she needs and to correct the target text, using a variety of tools.
Thus, the final target text results from multiple ‘attempts’, starting from the first draft to the final
product. An interpreter has got only one attempt, and he/she should produce the target text
immediately. The interpreter cannot correct the output. The possibility of correcting the target
text depends on the kind of interpreting: for instance, checking comprehension is possible in the
case of liaison interpreting but not for simultaneous interpreting. Even if the source text is
available as a copy of a speech to an interpreter of a conference for example, the actual input is
the orally delivered speech that may differ from the prepared written text. There are undeniable
differences in the working conditions and practices of translators and interpreters and they are
demanded to perform different skills. For instance, skills of memorizing and note taking are
important for interpreters but not to the same degree for translators (Gile, 2001: 23-28).

As mankind is old, activities of translation and interpreting are almost as old. The activity of
interpreting is actually older than translation but translation has been the object of research more
than interpreting. It seems that more has been written on translation than on interpreting.
According to Venuti (2000:15-16) and (Munday, 2001:44) it is clear that the differences between translation and interpretation are summarized as:

1. **Delivery in the timing** the translator generates accurate, high quality translations because s/he has more time than the interpreter.

2. **Accuracy** interpretation requires in a somewhat lower level of accuracy to translation. Again time is on the translators’ side.

3. **Direction** interpreters must be fluent the source and target language, but translators typically work in one direction: their own.

### 1.8 The Model of Analysis

The researcher adopts Newmark’s (2001) phonological translation model in analyzing the data that are selected in this paper.

Newmark (2001:156-157) states that Phonological translation means translating a word from the source language into the closest sound in the target language. Meanwhile, transferring word translation means transferring a word in sources language into the target language. Phonological translation is also commonly used nowadays in translating. Using phonological translation could sound better and could deliver the meaning of the words itself with the play sound. He also describes phonological translation as the translation that “is usually accepted that the phoneme cluster ‘fl-‘ has a certain common meaning in, at least, flame, flicker, flare, flitter, flash, flee, fit but not in ‘flat’ or ‘flank’ whether such sounds can be translated is an open question”. The statement above means that phonological translation considers and highlights a category of the phoneme words.

Catford (1995:23) states that in phonological translation “The Source Language (SL) phonology is replaced by equivalent Target Language (TL) phonology”. The replacements are done only in grammatical or lexical changes as the result from phonological translation”. This means the phonology Source Language changes by equivalent Target Language phonology, in related to the grammatical or lexical aspects.

According to Catford (1995:56), phonological translation is “Restricted translation in which the Source Language (SL) phonology of a text is replaced by equivalent Target Language (TL) phonology”. He assumes, that the limitation of translation in Source Language (SL) phonology text is restored by an equivalent Target Language (TL) phonology.

From the statements above, the meaning of the phonological translation can be extended to include and manipulate the following points:
1- The basis for translation equivalence in phonological translation is the relationship of Source Language (SL) and Target Language (TL) phonological units to ‘the same’ phonic substance.

2- In phonological translation, as in translation at other levels, one must distinguish between formal correspondence and translation equivalence.

3- Phonological translation is thus seen parallel to ‘total translation’ quite closely; for any one Source Language (SL) phonological item there may be more than one Target Language (TL) phonological translation equivalent.

4- Phonological translation, like total translation, may involve change of rank, or regrouping and recognizing of features of substance into the formal units of the Target Language (TL).

5- Another example of the reorganization of phonic substance into Target Language (TL).

6- Phonological translation is practiced deliberately by actors and mimics when they assume a foreign, or dialectal, pronunciation.

From the point of view of phonological translation, it is assumed that it may be regarded as translation from Target Language into Source Language at the phonological level only, since it replaces the Target language phonology by equivalent Source Language phonology at the time when lexis and grammar remain unchanged.

1.9 Texts Analysis

Five Utterances are taken to clarify the effect of juncture in translation, and how it is used to solve the confusion in translation. Fifty students of the Fourth Year/College of Arts/University of Tikrit are applied to a test.

1- **It's cold two days’ night**

This instance is highly problematic for it is viable to be translated to many translations.

The main reason is homophony and juncture; homophony because the listener may interpret the phrase “it is called” instead of “it is cold”, and since this study does not account for homophony; therefore, the first two options are to be neglected.

Juncure is a short pause that causes ambiguity or multi-translations of one phrase. Thus, juncture lies in the phrase (two days’ night) between (two and days’) and in (todays’ night) between (todays’ and night). Also the vowel in (todays’) is shorter because it is followed immediately by a consonant. While in (two days’), the vowel is longer because it is an open syllable, i.e., not a close syllable where a consonant follow the vowel that offers a time space for the whole sound to be produced.
In (today’s) the shape of the lips is rounded, and it is pronounced as /tудейз/. The shape of lips in (two days’) is more rounded for it is pronounced /ту:деиз/ (1). The percentage of mistakes in this utterance is 83%.

2- Excuse me while I kiss the sky

In this sentence, the students faced a problem because most of them thought that the last phrase is (kiss this guy) not (kiss the sky). Juncture, in the phrase (the sky), lies between /ə/ and /s/, while in the phrase (this guy) between /s/ and /g/, and the vowel here before /s/ is /i/ not /ə/. The students must have noted that /s/ is initial in the first phrase and final in the second one. /s/ is always aspirated this aspiration that accompanies affects the voicing of the following sound /g/ in the sense that it absorbs some of its voicing. This results in the devoiced sound.

![Figure (2): /s/ followed by /g/](image)

For all the reasons the correct translation is (إسمح لي بينما أقبل السماء), but most of answers come as (إسمح لي بينما أقبل هذا الشاب) or (بينما أقبل الولد). The wrong translations take 90%.

3- She has an ice toy

In this example /ən аs toi/ the problem is triggered from juncture between /ən/ and /ais/. The interpretation of this example is (لديها لعبة جميلة), but most answers come as (لديها دمية جميلة) or (لديها لعبة جميلة). This phrase was interpreted by students as (لديها دمية للج) and that caused because they put juncture between /a/ and /n/ so they interpreted the phrase /ə nаis toi/ they didn’t note here that /a/ is longer in duration, but in (an ice) /a/ is shorter in duration, in addition to /ais/ is not nasalized and in /nais/ /a/ is nasalized because it preceded by /n/. Thus, the listener must take care of all the above to give an accurate interpretation. Their wrong interpretation records 92%.

(1) /u/ considers here as complementary distribution in which one phone never appears in the same phonetic context as the other. It is applied to phonology in which similar phones in complementary distribution are usually allophones of the same phoneme. For instance, in English, [p] and [pʰ] are allophones of the phoneme /p/ because they occur in complementary distribution. [pʰ] always occurs when it is the syllable onset and followed by a stressed vowel (as in the word pin). [p] occurs in all other situations (as in the word spin, in colloquial pronunciation, with /ŋ/ flattened to /n/).
4- **What do you say? I scream**

In this item /ai skri:m/ is a highly problematic area because the listeners gave more than one wrong interpretation. The correct interpretation is (انآ أصرخ ), however, most of the listeners understood it as (ice cream) /ais kri:ml/ (البوظة أو المثلجات ) and some of them heard it (eyes cream) /aiz kri:ml/ (مرهم عين). In (I scream) there is juncture between /ai/ and /skri:m/ and /ai/ is longer in duration of time because it occurs alone minimum syllable. However, in (البوظة), the juncture lies between /s/ and /k/ and /ai/ is shorter because it has a coda that shortens the vowel. In the case of (مرهم عين), they gave this interpretation which represents 96% because the students grasp the word (cream) not in relation to food but rather to drugs and ointments especially it was winter when the test was held (psychological effect).

5- **He will come**

For this point the correct interpretation is (سوف يأتي) because juncture is between /i:/ and /k/ and there is the vowel /i/ instead of /e/ in the phrase that the students interpreted (welcome) /welkəm/ and the juncture in their interpretation has no place /welkəm/, and that explains the reason why they interpreted the utterance as (أنت مرحبا) (أهلا بك) and some of them interpreted (أهلا وسهلا بك). The percentage of mistakes of this utterance represents 88%.

1.10 Results of Analysis

From all the above analyses of examples of each juncture phenomenon, the results are found that this phenomenon is important and the students must take care of it.

Concerning juncture, students should differentiate between pause and juncture (short pause), the shape of the lips of the speakers, and the duration of the vowel where it is long and where it is short.
The above Figure illustrates that juncture has the high percentage of mistakes with an estimate of (89.8%). The utterance (I scream) is the most difficult for the students with error estimate by (96%), because it has more than one interpretation for those listeners who do not have a background of this feature.

**Percentage For Each Utterance in Relation to Juncture**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Juncture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>89.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table explains the percentage for each utterance of this phenomenon, and the total percentage for all mistakes of it. The results denote that there is an utterance with the highest mistake than the others; at the same time there is an utterance with less mistakes than the others.
1.11 Conclusions

This study concludes that phonology is a very important science in relation to translation. Each phenomenon in phonology has a great significance and has its own impact in phonology and in translation. The most appropriate model that is workable in analyzing oral translation is the phonological translation model.

There are many mistakes confronted by the listeners, because they don’t have a good background about juncture phenomenon and that causes a clear confuse in their translation.

The phonological phenomenon of juncture records the highest mistake percentage in translation because the students were mistaken in putting juncture in its right place and that causes them hear another word, i.e. they don’t catch the idea so they give wrong translation.

References


