University of Gezira

Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Translating Lexical Journalistic Collocations into Arabic with Main Focus on UK Newspapers:

A Case Study of the MA Students, Faculties of Education- (Hantoub and Al-Hasahisa), Departments of English, University of Gezira, Sudan (2018).

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A Thesis

Submitted to the University of Gezira in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

English Language Applied Linguistics (Translation)

Department of English

Faculty of Education – Hantoub

May, 2018
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March, 2018
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Date of Examination: 22/4/ 2018
Declaration

I declare that all the material presented in this thesis is my own work, or fully and specifically acknowledged wherever adapted from other sources. I understand that if at any time it is shown that I have significantly misrepresented material; any degree or credits awarded to me on the basis of that material may be revoked.

Students' Signature:                                      Date: ---/-----/2018
Dedication

To my parents,
To my brothers and sisters,
To my wife ‘Aya’,
and to my Sons ‘Ahmed and Altyeb’.
Acknowledgments

First of all, praise be to Allah, the Almighty Allah, who made it possible for me to carry out this study.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Mahmmoud Ahmed for his invaluable help and support with this study. His precious comments, patience and encouragement made this research possible. Thanks are also due to Dr. Lubab Elmukashfi for her guidance and the insightful comments that she has made to enrich this study. However, the responsibility of the contents lies on the shoulders of the researcher.

I am also indebted to the teachers of department of English, in particular, Dr. Zahir Abuobieda, Translation and languages Centre and SUNA.

I am also grateful to Dr. Abdalgadir Mohammed and Dr. Lubab Elmukashfi for allowing the researcher to conduct the test during their class time.
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Abstract

English Lexical collocations are considered as one of the most important linguistic features that are commonly found in all sections of UK newspapers. It helps the translator make the translated text more expressive and understandable for the reader. The study aimed at investigating the difficulties that encountered by EFL students in translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic. The study also aimed at finding out the type of English lexical collocations that constitutes more difficulties in translating UK newspapers into Arabic and suggesting appropriate strategies to overcome those difficulties. The study adopted the descriptive analytical method. A diagnostic test and a questionnaire were used as tools for data collection. The sample of the study consisted of (50) M.A students randomly chosen from the department of English at the two Faculties of Education in Gezira University- Hantoub and Al-Hashisa, Batch (19) and Batch (12) respectively, to sit for the diagnostic test. The sample also included (10) EFL teachers/translators from Faculties of Education Hantoub and Al-Hasahisa, Translation and Languages Center- University of Gezira, Translation Unit at University of Holy Quran -Wad-Medani and professional translators working at ‘SUNA’ to respond to the questionnaire. The data was analysed using (SPSS) by percentages and means.

The study has reached a number of findings among them: most EFL university students (70%) encountered difficulties when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. In addition, idiomatic expressions constituted a great difficulty for EFL university students according to the teachers’/translators’ responses (90%) and ((98%), (94%), (88%) and (94%) according to the test’s results when translated them into Arabic. Moreover, the study found that VERB+NOUN was the most difficult type of lexical collocations for EFL students to translate into Arabic with mean (71). It also found that the majority of EFL university students do not recognize the exact equivalent in the process of translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. (Table (4.2.3.5) (70%)) and table (4.1.1.2), ((84%), (98%), and (84%)).

The study recommends that students should intensively be trained to translate lexical collocations by giving them more activities in order to develop their back memory in both languages English and Arabic. It also recommends that EFL university students should be trained to choose the exact equivalent when translating collocations into Arabic. It also recommends that EFL university students should be exposed to authentic UK newspapers. Moreover, EFL university students should be directed to avoid literal translation and consider cultural differences in the two languages (English/Arabic). In addition, the study recommended that the syllabus of translation at the university level should be designed carefully and based on educational purposes, aiming at mastering translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. The study suggests carrying out more studies such as difficulties of translating lexical journalistic collocations into Arabic or vice versa.
المصاعبات التي يواجهها طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية في ترجمة المصاحبات اللغوية الصحفية للعربية تركزًا على صحف المملكة المتحدة.


صلاح الدين أحمد على أحمد

ملخص الدراسة
تعد المصاحبة اللفظية واحدة من أهم الظواهر اللغوية الأكثر شيوعاً واستخداماً في كل أقسام الصحف الإنجليزية، حيث أنها تساعدن المترجم في أن يجعل النص المترجم معرباً وسهل الفهم. هدف الدراسة إلى الحصول على نتائج من المصاعبات التي يواجهها الطلاب في ترجمة المصاحبات اللغوية الإنجليزية في صحف المملكة المتحدة للعربية، كما هدفت إلى اكتشاف أكثر أنواع المصاحبات اللغوية صعوبةً في صحف المملكة المتحدة عند ترجمتها للعربية، بالإضافة إلى اقتراح بعض الاستراتيجيات للتغلب على تلك المصاعبات. استخدمت الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي، حيث تم استخدام الاختبار التشخيصي والاستبيان وصفوفهما أداة لجمع البيانات. تكمن عينة الدراسة من (50) طالب ماجستير تم اختيارهم عشوائياً من طلاب كلية التربية (حنتوب/الحاسبصيا)، قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، جامعة الجزيرة، الدفعات (19) و (12) على التوالي، وتم اجلاسهم للاختبار التشخيصي. اشتملت العينة أيضاً على (10) من أعضاء هيئة التدريس ومترجمين من كلية التربية (حنتوب/الحاسبصيا)، مركز الترجمة و اللغات - جامعة الجزيرة،وحدة الترجمة - جامعة القرآن الكريم ودمدني و مترجمين محترفين يعملون في وكالة سونا للأنباء و ذلك للإجابة عن الاستبانة. تم تحليل البيانات باستخدام برنامج الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية (SPSS) عن طريق النسب المئوية والمتوسطات. توصلت الدراسة لعدة نتائج من أهمها: معظم طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية (70%) واجهوا صعوبات في ترجمة المصاحبات اللغوية في صحف المملكة المتحدة للعربية. كما أن التعابير الإصطلاحية شكلت صعوبة كبيرة جداً للطلاب عند ترجمتها للعربية على حساب أجوبة الاستمارة والمترجمين (90%) و نتائج الاختبار التشخيصي (96%)، (94%)، (88%) (94%). كما توصلت إلى أن النوع (فعل+اسم) من أصعب أنواع المصاحبات اللغوية ترجمة للعربية بمتوسط (71). أغليبة الطلاب لا يدركون المعنى المكافئ في عملية ترجمة المتلازمات المصاحبات الإنجليزية للعربية، الجدول (5.3.5) (70%) و الجداول (4.11.2) و (98%) و (96%). توصي الدراسة بالتدريب المكثف للطلاب في كيفية ترجمة المصاحبات اللغوية عن طريق التدريبات لنمو ذاكرتهم الاستجابة في اللغتين (الإنجليزية/ العربية)، كما توصي بتدريب الطلاب على كيفية اختيار المعنى المكافئ عند ترجمة المصاحبات اللغوية للعربية. تعرض الطلاب لصحفي إنجليزية حقيقية كما توصي بتوجيه الطلاب بتقديم الترجمة العربية عند ترجمة الجمل الإصطلاحية مع اخذ اعتبار الفروقات الثقافية ما بين اللغتين (الإنجليزية و العربية)، وأن يتم تصميم مناهج تدريس الترجمة على مستوى الجامعة بعناية مبناً على اغراض تعلمية تهدف لإجادة ترجمة المصاحبات اللغوية الإنجليزية للعربية. تقترح الدراسة إجراء المزيد من الدراسات حول صعوبات ترجمة المصاحبات اللغوية من الإنجليزية للعربية بالعكس.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION
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1.0 Background

Translation involves taking various aspects into consideration in different languages, and thus, a common problem for a translator is to find corresponding expressions in the target language (T.L). Nowadays, journalistic publications turn to be a part and parcel of many renowned newspapers, locally or globally and can be the best means to convey news, thoughts, visions, and events that occur around the globe in a simple way accessible to everybody. Actually, there are lots of difficulties involved in translating the journalistic register into Arabic, particularly newspapers such as using the exact lexical collocations to give the proper meanings.

Collocations are a fascinating linguistic phenomenon in both languages and translation because they reflect the linguistic, stylistic and cultural features of the journalistic texts in the newspapers. So, the interest in the translation of lexical collocations in journalistic register especially that of “newspapers” comes from their great importance in language. They play a vital role in the coherence of the structure in journalistic register of “newspapers” when rendering the meaning into Arabic. They are also the source of attraction and special flavour which makes the meaning more beautiful, more agreeable and more powerful.

The translation of collocations is an everlasting struggle for translators, because journalistic register which concerns magazines, radio, television and newspapers in particular needs to acquire specific skills and knowledge in order to be able to produce well-formed and appropriate translation to match the proper nouns with the proper verbs, the proper verbs with the proper nouns, or the proper adjectives with the proper nouns.

Hence, this study intends to investigate Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Translating Lexical Journalistic Collocations into Arabic with Main Focus on UK Newspapers and seek finding suitable techniques and strategies for overcoming the difficulties.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

As an EFL university teacher, the researcher has observed that M.A students find difficulty in translating English lexical collocations which are characteristic of newspapers. Translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers is of vital importance in communication and accurate information is required. Hence, the researcher intends to
investigate the difficulties that confront M.A students with respect to differences in collocational patterning, idiomatic expressions, finding the exact equivalence of the lexical collocations in English and Arabic, variability and generalization of lexical collocations. These account for complexities of translating English lexical collocations in the journalistic register into Arabic, newspapers in particular. Thus, this study is an attempt to reveal the difficulties that M.A students encounter in translating English lexical collocations in the journalistic register especially newspapers and seek suggest some techniques to overcome such difficulties.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

1- To investigate the difficulties encountering by EFL students in translating the English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic.
2- To find out the types of English lexical collocations that constitute more difficulties in translating UK newspapers into Arabic.
3- To suggest appropriate strategies to overcome the difficulties of translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic.

1.3 Questions of the Study

1- What are the difficulties that EFL students encounter in translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic?
2- What are the types of English lexical collocations that constitute more difficulties when translating UK newspapers into Arabic?
3- What are the appropriate strategies to overcome the difficulties of translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic?

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

H_1.1: Lack of equivalence is one of the difficulties that encounter by EFL students when rendering English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic.
H_1.2: Idiomatic expressions constitute a difficulty for EFL students in translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic.
H_1.3: Variability of lexical collocation is one of the difficulties when translating UK newspapers into Arabic.
H_2: Verb+Noun is the most difficult type of English lexical collocation in translating UK newspapers into Arabic.
H_3: Substitutability is one of the appropriate strategies to overcome the difficulties of translating English lexical collocation in UK newspapers into Arabic.
1.5 Significance of the Study

This study is hoped to be of great value to those who are interested in translation in general and Sudanese and Arab translators in particular. It is also hoped that it will be beneficial for lectures, translation students, interpreters, journalists, reporters and news translators. In addition to that, it will also be expected to add to the field of applied linguistics.

1.6 Methodology of the Study

The descriptive analytical method will be adopted to carry out the study. The sample consists of (50) M.A students who will be chosen randomly from departments of English at the two faculties of education in Gezira University- (Hantoub and Al-Hasahisa), Batch (19) and Batch (12) respectively. Two tools for gathering data will be used: a test for M.A students in which they will translate the meaning of English lexical collocations into Arabic and a questionnaire for EFL teachers/translators from Faculty of Education Hantoub and Al-Hasahisa, Translation and Languages Centre- University of Gezira, University of Holy Quran (Translation Unit, Wad-Medani) and professional translators working in Sudan National Assembly (The Parliament) and ‘SUNA’. The data collected from both tools will be analysed by (SPSS) using percentage and means.

1.7 Limits of the Study

The topic of this study will be limited to investigating the Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Translating Lexical Journalistic Collocations into Arabic with Main Focus on UK Newspapers. It will also be limited to (50) students under the degree of M.A from the two Faculties of Education (Hantoub and Al-Hasahisa), Department of English, University of Gezira, Batch (19) and Batch (12) respectively, and (10) teachers/translators, from University of Gezira, Faculty of Education, Hantoub, Department of English, Translation and Language Centre, University of Gezira, The University of Holy Quran (Translation Unit, Wad-Medani) and professional translators working in Sudan National Assembly (The Parliament) and ‘SUNA’. The data will be gathered from four famous UK newspapers: The Daily Telegraph, The Independent, the e-Guardian and The Times. The study will be conducted during the years (2015-2018).

In the next chapter, the Literature Review relevant to the study will be covered.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher will survey the literature related to the present study ‘Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Translating Lexical Journalistic Collocations into Arabic with Main Focus on UK Newspapers’. Firstly, the researcher reviews the theoretical framework: concept of translation, types of translation, purposes, identity of good newspapers translator, and translation equivalence which is agreed by famous scholars. Secondly, the researcher handles different issues related to collocations which are: concept of collocations in English and Arabic particularly ‘lexical collocations’, approaches of collocations, importance of collocations for translators, types of collocations with main focus on ‘lexical collocations’, features of collocations, strength of collocations, and criteria of collocations. Thirdly, the researcher reviews the relationship between journalism and newspapers, components of a newspaper, definitions of news, the nature of the news translation, features of newspapers and language style, journalistic translation, lexical collocations and UK newspaper’s headlines. Finally, the researcher will survey some of the difficulties encountered by M.A students in translating English lexical collocations of journalistic register with main focus on newspapers into Arabic.

2.1 Concept of Translation

Arguably, many people believe that translation is an easy process and what they have to do is to render words from the source text into the equivalent words of a target text. Definitely, this is not true since some phrases, if translated literally, would make no sense. Technically, the form from which the translation is made is called the ‘Source Language’; the form into which it is to be changed into is called the ‘Receptor Language’ or “Target Language” and the final product is called the ‘Target Text’. Translation, then, consists of studying the collocations, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the Source Language text; all these are analyzed in order to determine its meaning. This same meaning is then reconstructed using the collocations and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural context. For example, if English is a source language, Arabic represents the receptor, Al-Hafiz,(2004:50) mentions an example of “Conduct a referendum” becomes the text whose collocations, grammatical structure, communication situation and cultural context are analyzed
in order to determine its meaning. The meaning is then reconstructed using the collocations and
grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor language. To that extent, ‘Conduct a
referendum’ is restructured as "يري استفتاء". Scholars define the concept of translation by
providing different definitions, however, it is classified and described under one of the
following headings as it is illustrated in the below figure (2-1):

![Figure (2-1): Sokolovsky, (2010) On the Linguistic Definitions of Translation]

**As a process**, Solodub et al, (2005:7-17) define translation as “a creative intellectual
activity, denoting the transmitting of information from a source language into a target
language”. While Catford, (2000:103) indicates that translation is the process of the replacement
of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).

**As process and a result of this process**, Semenov, (2005:16) states that first of all
translation is the translator’s activity of transforming a message in one language into a message
with the same meaning in another language; secondly, translation is a result of the translator’s
activity, in other words, an oral or a written language utterance. Vinogradov, (2010:4-11)
indicates that translation is a process (and its result) caused by social necessity of information
(content) transmitting, expressed in a written or oral text in one language by the means of an
equivalent (adequate) text in another language.

**As a communication**, Garbosky, (2006:106) considers translation as a very important
activity in communication in human life among people with their various languages and cultures
which makes it a very effective factor in communication and exchanging culture and knowledge.
In other words, he argues that translation is a social function of communicative mediation
between people, who use different languages systems. This function of reality on the basis of
his/ her individual abilities as an interpreter, is accomplishing translation from one semiotic
system to another with the purpose of equivalent, in other words, maximally complete, but always partial transmission of a system of meanings contained in a source message, from one communicant to another."

Finally, as a skill, Newmark, (2001:21-7) defines translation as “a craft consisting of the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language”

The above classifications of defining translation are not a final version of definitions and do not include all possible criteria for definition taxonomy. Putting some of the definitions under careful scrutiny may show that most of the definitions fall into more than one category. As stated in the above classification, translation is a process and the result of this process is called a type of communication and a skill.

2.2 Types of Translation

Many translation theorists proposed the types or kinds of translation in different ways. One of them is Larson, (1998:17-45) who distinguishes two kinds of translation. The first one is form-based translation, which refers to the kind of translation which attempts to follow the form of the source language and is known as literal translation. In contrast with the form-based translation, the second kind of translation suggested by Larson, is namely; meaning based translation which attempts to communicate the meaning of the source language text in the natural forms of the receptor language and is known as idiomatic translation. In terms of kinds of translation, Larson also states that the translator’s goal is an idiomatic translation. On the other hand, Catford, (2000:20-26) illustrates some broad types or categories of translation in terms of extents, levels, and ranks:

1- In Terms of Extent

(a) Full translation in which the entire text is submitted to the translation process, in other words, every part of the SL text is replaced by the TL text material.

(b) Partial translation in which some part or parts of the SL text are left untranslated.

2- In Terms of Levels

(a) Total translation, in this type, all of the levels of the SL are replaced by the TL material. This kind of translation is misleading for the total replacement of every single part is not replaced by equivalent at all levels.

(b) Restricted translation means the replacement of a source language textual material is by an equivalent target language textual material at only one level. The
translation is performed only at the graphological or phological level, or at only of the two levels of grammar and lexis.

3. Ranks

(a) Bounded translation, in this type the attempt is made to select the target language equivalent at the same rank e.g. word-to-word or morpheme to morpheme.

(b) Free translation, in this type what is always unbounded in case that equivalences shunt up and down the ranks scale, but tend to be at the higher ranks which are sometimes between larger units than the sentence.

In other words, in free translation the translator has a freedom to express and reproduce the message of the original text in the translator's own way or style. The translator can interpret the meaning and structure of source language and represents into target language by using different structures, but the target language should be equivalent with the source language.

2.3 Purposes of Translation

Many specialists in translation have provided main purposes for translation. Among them is NewMark, (1993:57-58) who mentions different purposes and uses of translation such as: it helps to contribute to understand peace between language communities and groups, in other words it helps in binding nations. In addition to that, it promotes information ‘translation of newspapers’ and technology transfer, particularly to third and fourth world countries. Added to that, one of the most important purposes of translation is that it helps to explain and clarify ethnic cultures and differences, in other words it helps in understanding and appreciation of culture. Further, it helps in making works of high moral religious and aesthetic importance in the arts and humanities, as well as scientific works, available throughout the world.

2.4 Features of English Collocations in UK Newspapers

There are many features that characterize English collocations when writing articles in UK newspapers. [http://www.washington.edu](http://www.washington.edu) mentions that collocations can be described in a number of ways. One way of thinking about them is in terms of how “fixed” they are — in other words, the degree to which can vary the basic pattern and still have a collocation, because they probably have a high force in writing topics in UK newspapers. So, collocations in UK newspaper have the characteristic of fixedness which means the pattern has very few expected variations. For instance, the phrase “kick the bucket” is an idiom, a relatively fixed collocation meaning “to die.” While it may substitute nouns and verbs in this sentence and get other
meaningful sentences (e.g. “kick the door,” “lift the bucket”), these combinations do not form the same cohesive pattern as “kick the bucket.” Like “kick the bucket,” most collocations which are very fixed form a particular meaning rather than a structure. Among the important features of English collocations in UK newspapers is the expressivity which is defined by Meunier and Granger, (2008:53) as “given collocations attract the special attention of the reader”, in other words, collocations that express lengthy ideas with just a few words and directly grasp the reader’s attention. Furthermore, collocations in UK newspapers have the properties of predictability and relatedness to the context around them. In some cases, especially with structures and longer phrases, the use of a collocation depends very heavily on the situation in which it is used. So for example, probably collocational expressions would not greet the president of the company someone work for by saying, “What’s up?” On the other hand, other collocations, like “get in the car” someone can use almost anywhere. All of all most essential features, English collocations make the language of the journalistic text more precise, direct, and natural. In other words, they have the feature of summarizing the lengthy ideas with just a few words in a direct and natural way.

2.5 Identity of Good Newspapers Translator

Translation of newspapers has some peculiarities that distinguish its generic non-fiction translation, so it needs a good and skillful translator. Bielsa and Bassnett, (2008:5-8) assert that good translators of newspapers must all share particular qualities such as: absolutely perfect mastery of the languages used, and especially the target language. Also, he/she should have the skill of multi-cultural competence, either by upbringing or by education-‘culture’ being meant to include in its widest sense, but also technical culture, business culture, corporate culture. Most important, he/she should have perfect familiarity with the domains they specialize in (either through their initial education and training, or – more probably- through self-tuition. Furthermore, he/she should have an absolute knowledge of what does translation mean? what does it require? and what does it imply?

2.6 Essential Methods in Translating Newspapers

Many linguists agree that translation method is very essential in translating English texts into target language. So, translating newspapers present its own unique challenge, because they are made up of different sections and types of articles with different registers. In general, a number of methods are required in translating a journalistic text, but the following are the most suitable methods that can be used in translating journalistic texts:

(1) Communicative Translation
Communicative translation attempts to transfer the exact contextual meaning of the original, in such a way that, both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership. Newmark, (1993:10) indicates that journalism is one of the vast majority of texts that require communicative translation. He agrees that this method attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership. For example, “It is time to say let bygones be bygones.”

(The e-Gurdain, Brooks, (7 February 2012))

أنه الوقت لنقول عفا الله عما سلف.

He argues that the communicative method is suitable and important for translating journalistic texts for many reasons. Among them it adopts and makes the thought and the cultural content of the original more accessible to readers. It may be better than the original because of gain in force and clarity of the final product. The translator has also the right to correct and improve the logic and style of the original. In addition, it makes the output of the translated text more natural, smoother, simpler, clearer, more direct and conforming to a particular register of language.

(2) Creative Translation

Creative or free translation is one of the common method used in translating English newspapers into Arabic particularly phrase, word or a sentence. http://www.arc-japanese-translation.com asserts that the translator at shifting the equivalents freely up and down looking for appropriate content message whether it is a phrase, word or sentence. In other words, it can make translators rack their brains to find just the right words such as ‘collocations’, phrases, and sentences in the process of rendering the meaning into the target text. This method is mainly used in translating advertisements with main attention in grabbing taglines for products or marketing material, for instance, ‘The FJ Cruiser has a powerful 4 tyre engine and a retro styling.’

(The e-Guardian, Hunt, (31 August, 2015))

It can be translated as: عربة أف جي كروزر لها قوة دفع رباعي وتصميم خلفي فريد.

Precise Translation

In this type of translation, the translator aims at rendering what he/she thinks is essential in the ‘ST’, and deletes what seems to be unnecessary for the ‘TL’ reader. It is useful in rendering texts in which what is important are not the details, but the main or controlling idea, such as articles, letters, and journalist reports. For instance,
‘He is plainly a man who has violated his oath of allegiance for his country.’

(The e-Guardian Rodrigues, .(19 August, 2017))

It can be translated as: إنه بوضوح إنسان نكث يمين الولاء لبلده. إنه بوضوح إنسان خائن

(4) Idiomatic Translation

*Idiomatic Translation* reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original. In other words, idiomatic translation is considered a lively form of translation where a reproduction of the content of the original occurs but colloquial expression which are not found in the SL are incorporated in the TL text to create natural situation in the translation. Generally speaking, Baker, (1992:46) argues that idioms and collocations are commonly used in newspapers; the translator should have the sensitivity that native speakers seem to have for judging and how an idiom can be manipulated. For instance, ‘We thought he had kicked the bucket.’

 اعتقدها بأنه فارق الحياة

(The e-Guardian, Plunkett, J. (2016))

Because of the fact newspapers have different registers such *sports, politics, science and law*, the abovementioned methods are the not the only methods that should be adopted in translating journalistic texts. In other words, understanding the register of the text is essential to determine which methods of translation that can be appropriated to make the text more understandable for the readers.

2.7 Translation Equivalence

Generally speaking, many linguists agree that a translation equivalent is a corresponding word or expression in another language. Trotter, (2006:1) asserts that the term ‘*equivalence*’ describes the relationship between a translation and the text from which it is translated. He expresses the view that translation is generally indeterminate on the ground that there is no single acceptable translation- but many. However, he adds that “rationalist metaphor of translation equivalence prevails”. On the other hand, Leonardi, (2000:4) points out that the comparison of texts in different languages inevitably involves a theory of equivalence. Equivalence can be said to be the central issue through its definition, relevance, and applicability within the field of translation theory had caused heated controversy, and many different theories of the concept of equivalence have been elaborated within this field in the past fifty years. While, Vinay and Darbelnet, (1995:342) view equivalence- oriented translation as a procedure which “replicates the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording”. They also suggest that, if this procedure is applied during the translation
process, it can maintain the stylistic impact of SL text in TL text. According to them, equivalence is therefore, the ideal method when the translator has to deal with proverbs, collocations, idioms, clichés, nominal or adjectival phrases and onomatopoeia. Karimi, (2006:10) maintains that if a specific linguistic unit in one language carries the same intended meaning message encoded in a specific linguistic medium in another, then these two units are considered to be equivalent.

The domain of equivalents conveys linguistic units such as collocations, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, idioms and proverbs. So, finding equivalents is the most difficult stage of translation and does not mean that the translator should always find one-to-one categorically or structurally equivalent units in the two languages that is to say; sometimes two different linguistic units in different languages carry the same function. For example, the verb “happen” in the English sentence “he happens to be happy” equals the adverb “Etefaghan” (by chance) in Persian sentence “U Efefaghan Khosh ba last”. The translator after finding out the meaning of SL linguistic form, should ask himself/ herself what the linguistic form in an other language (TL) for the same meaning.

2.7.1 Types of Equivalence

Actually, many various types of equivalence have been provided by specialists. Leonardi, (2000:12) proposes two types of equivalence namely; formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence.

2.7.1.1 Formal Correspondence

Formal correspondence unlike dynamic equivalence. Fawcett, (2014:54) explains that formal correspondence consists of a TL item which represents the closest equivalence of a SL word or phrase and that Nida and Taber make it clear that formal equivalents between language pairs do always exist. They therefore, suggest that these formal equivalents should be used wherever possible if the translation aims at achieving formal rather than dynamic equivalence. Fawcett thinks that the use of formal equivalents might at times have serious implications in the TL since the translation will not be easily understood by the target audience. Fawcett also believes that Nida and Taber themselves see that “typical formal correspondence distorts the grammatical and stylistic patterns of the receptor language, and hence distorts the message, so as to cause the receptor to misunderstand or to labor unduly hard”.

2.7.1.2 Dynamic Equivalence
Concerning dynamic equivalence, Shakernia, (2013:1) illustrates that “dynamic equivalence is seeking the closet natural equivalence to the source – language message”. While Nida and Taber, (1982:200) define dynamic equivalence as a translation principle through which a translator seeks to translate the meaning of the original in such a way that the TL wording will produce the same effect on the TL audience as the original wording does upon the SL audience. They argue that frequently, the form of the original text is changed; but as long as the change follows the rules of back transformation in the source language of contextual consistency in the transfer, and of transformation in the receptor language, the message is preserved and the translation is faithful”.

It is clear that Nida is in favor of the application of dynamic equivalence, as a more effective translation procedure. Despite using a linguistic approach to translation, Nida is much more interested in the message of the text or, in other words, in its semantic quality. He, therefore, strives to make sure that this message remains clear in the target text. On the other hand, Lorick, (2008:23) makes it clear that translators must decide what kind of translation best fits the work they are rendering. Sometimes verbatim rendering is best, but often it is not. When embarking on translation any text, the translator has to decide if he/she is going to translate it word for word, in other word, a verbatim rendering, seeking a dynamic equivalence. According to Lorick, (2008:23) the dynamic equivalent takes into account the context and apparent intent of the original. When providing a dynamic equivalent translation, the translator considers the culture of the original document, understands the nuances of the original language, and takes into account idiomatic expressions. The result is a finished product that comes alive to the reader with the actual intent of the original. Thus, Lorick explains that the key components of a dynamic equivalent translation include the following: correct understanding of the idiomatic expressions, consideration of the author’s culture and careful understanding of the nuances of the original language.

Ww.w.wikipedia.com (the online free encyclopedia) states that the question of fidelity VS transparency has been in terms of, respectively, “formal equivalence” and “dynamic equivalence”. The latter two expressions are associated with the translator Eugene Nida and were originally coined to describe ways of translating the Bible, the two approaches are applicable to any translation. Formal equivalence corresponds to “metaphrase” and dynamic equivalence or (functional equivalence) conveys the essential thought expressed in the source text – if necessary, at the expense of literality, original sememe (from the Greek “Semaino” mean “signify” is semantic language unit of meaning, correlative to morpheme.) IL is a proposed unit of transmitted or intended meaning,
it is atomic or indivisible. A *sememe* can be the meaning expressed by a morpheme, such as the English pluralizing morpheme –s which carries the semantic feature [+ plural] and word order, the source texts active VS passive voice, and so on. By contrast, formal equivalence (sought via literal translation) attempts to render the text “literally” or word for word (the latter expressions being itself a word-for-word of the classical Latin “verbum proverb” -if necessary, at the expense of features natural to the target language. Thus, *www.wikipedia.com* (the online free encyclopedia) explains that there is no sharp boundary between dynamic and the formal equivalence. On the contrary, they represent a *spectrum* of translation approaches. Each is used at various items and in various contexts by the same translator and at various points within the same text sometimes simultaneously. Competent translation entails the judicious blending of dynamic and formal equivalents.

### 2.7.1.3 Ideational Equivalence

To the dichotomy of formal V.S functional equivalence, Farghal, (1994:60) adds that there is one more type of equivalence which is often neglected in translation theory but frequently used in practice, namely; “ideational equivalence”. He says that this type of equivalence captures the idea independently of formal and functional constrains. Thus, it exclusively stresses the communicative sense of utterance rather than its formal and/ or functional correspondence in the TL. According to his viewpoint, this type of equivalence can be practically useful when both formal and functional equivalences fail. He cites the ideational equivalent “*died*” for the metaphorical euphemism in Arabic utterance, for example: أنتقل المدير إلى حوار ربه بالامس *the manager died/ passed away yesterday*. This euphemism has no English equivalent, and the formal equivalent transferred to “the neighborhood of his lord” sounds odd. Similarly, the ideational equivalent “*were killed*” is the only feasible option for religion- based Arab *أستشهد* “استشهد ثلاثة فلسطينين في الضفة الغربية بالأمس” “three Palestinians were killed in West Bank yesterday”. This verb has no English formal equivalent, and to use the functional equivalent “fell as martyrs” would sound awkward as a biblical expression in rational world. It is obvious that the Farghal’s remark regarding the ideational equivalence is quite sound and more satisfactory than formal and dynamic ones, as the latter fails short in conveying and expressing the exact equivalence from the SL to TL as shown in the example above.

Having covered the term translation, its types, and translation equivalence, the researcher will handle the concept of *collocations* and its classifications in the following section.
2.8 Concept of English Collocations

There are many definitions for the term ‘collocation’.

Farrokh, (2012:56) sees that the word collocation is a relatively new addition to the lexicon of English, but defining collocation is a challenge since the term collocation has been a common concern among linguists, lexicographers and language pedagogues recently. Although collocation has become the subject of a linguistic study, it attracts a growing interest from numerous linguists and is defined in various ways.

Accordingly, there is a controversy, no exhaustive and uniform definition or categorization of collocation among linguists about how to exactly define the term ‘collocation’. Lewis, (2005:25) defines collocation as a subcategory of multi-word items, made up of individual words which habitually co-occur and can be found within the free-fixed collocational continuum. Items which collocate frequently with each other are called ‘habitual’, for example, ‘tell a story’, whereas those which cannot co-occur are called ‘unacceptable’, for instance, ‘powerful tea’ instead of ‘strong tea’. Moreover, Hartmann and James, (1998: 22) define collocation as "the semantic compatibility of grammatically adjacent words". Whereas Stork, (1972: 41) defines it with a slightly less broad viewpoint in that it is "two or more words, considered as individual lexical items, used in habitual association with one another in a given language". Moreover, Mitkov, (2015: 293) defines collocation as “a combination of words in a language that happens very often and more frequently than would happen by chance: ‘resounding success’ and ‘crying shame’ are English collocations”. While Nunan, (2015:115) confirms that collocation is also a term that refers to “words that commonly co-occur together”. However, Cambridge Dictionary online.com (2015) defines the concept of collocation as “the combination of words formed when two or more words are often used together in a way that sounds correct”, for example, the phrase ‘a hostile act’ is a collocation.

On the other hand, McCarthy and O'Dell, (2008:6) state that the term collocation is “a combination of two or more words which frequently occur together”. If someone says, ‘an official address’, they would properly understand, but it is not what would ordinarily be said in English. It should be said ‘official statement’. In other words, ‘official’ does not collocate with ‘address’ in everyday English. ‘Official’ collocates with ‘language’, ‘report’ or ‘government’. Moreover, Hatim and Munday, (2001: 228) define collocation as “the way in which words are found together conventionally.” They maintain that collocations exist together usually and naturally especially words that habitually appear together and thereby convey meaning by association or collocational range which refers to the set of items that typically accompany a word. The size of
a collocational range is partially determined by a word's level of specificity and number of meanings.

2.9 Historical Background of English Collocations

Tracing back the etymology of the word ‘collocation’ is very crucial in order to give a historical idea about the term. Müller, (2008:5) states that collocation has its origin in the Latin verb “collocare” which means to “set in order, to arrange”. While Pecina, (2010:12-13) indicates that the idea of collocation was first introduced into linguistics by Palmer (1938), an English linguist and teacher. As a concept, however, collocations were studied by Greek Stoic philosophers as early as in the third century B.C. They believe that “word meanings do not exist in isolation, and may differ according to the collocation in which they are used” (Robins, 1967). Collocations as a linguistic phenomenon were studied mostly in British linguistics (Firth, Halliday, Sinclair) and rather neglected in structural linguistics (Saussure, Chomsky).

Kibbee, (2007:405) asserts that the history meaning by collocation was first conceived in Firth’s 1935 paper “The Techniques of Semantics as Lexical Meaning”. Later, lexical meaning was developed under the name of “Meaning by Collocation” in essentially three papers: “Modes of Meaning, (1957)”; “Linguistics as a Study of Meaning”, written in (1952), and “A Synopsis of Linguistic Theory”, (1930-1955). Firth introduced the term meaning by collocation as a new mode of meaning of words and distinguished it from both the “conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words” and “contextual meaning”. Manning and Schütze, (1999:1515) indicate that “collocations of a given word” were defined as "statements of the habitual or customary places of that word". Shammas, (2013:107) in his paper “Collocation in English: Comprehension and Use by MA Students at Arab Universities” mentions that Firth (1935) confirms that the concept of ‘collocation’ or ‘lexical meaning’ is one of five dimensions of meaning (phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic and semantic).

Pecina, (2009:12-13) further writes on the history of collocation and mentions that Neo-Firthians -who are known as Firth’s students and disciples- further developed his theory. They regard lexis as complementary to grammar and use collocations as the basis for a lexical analysis of language alternative to (and independent from) the grammatical analysis. They argue that grammatical description does not account for all the patterns in a language, and promote the study of lexis on the basis of corpus-based observations. Halliday, (1966:152) defines collocation as “a linear co-occurrence relationship among lexical items which co-occur together” and introduces the term set as “the grouping of members with like privilege of occurrence in collocation”. For example, bright, hot, shine, light, and come out belong to the same
lexical set and collocate with the word “Sun”. Sinclair, (1991:411) also regards grammar and lexicon as “two different interpenetrating aspects”. He introduced the following terminologies for the structure of collocations: a “node” as the item whose collocations are studied, a “span” as the number of lexical items on each side of a node that are considered relevant to that node, and “collocates” as the items occurring within the span. Later on, Sinclair slightly changes his attitude forming an ‘integrated approach’ and dismisses the previous idea that lexis is rigidly separated from grammar. The following figure (2:2) illustrates Sinclair’s concept of collocations (the letter “C” refers to COLLOCATES):

![Figure (2:2) Adopted from Lexical association measures and Collocation Extraction, (2009:12-13)](image_url)

2.10 Importance of English Collocations in Translation

English collocations play a great role in the process of rendering the meaning into the target language. Girmm, (2009:164) indicates that having good collocations knowledge is essential to have good knowledge of a language, because the translator’s awareness of the way that words are combined with others is a vital factor in the production of accurate translation. While Sarikas, (2006:36) stresses and confirms the importance of collocations in the language by asserting that “collocations are important combinations of words that endow the language with natural sounding speech and writing.” Oxford Collocation Dictionary, (2006) agrees with Sarikas on the function of English collocations pointing up that “language that is collocationally rich is also more precise”. This means that collocations make the text have a more precise meaning and producing a productive collocation requires a greater degree of competence of language. Hence, collocations represent a key constituent of the lexicon of natural language. They are a very interesting and important phenomenon in language, whose importance is
perhaps farther-reaching than previously thought. Recent studies on translation have demonstrated that collocations are very important lexical constituents of texts and thus in translation, because they are considered to be the mechanism that provides cohesion or textuality to the text and are an essential organizing principle in the terminology of any language. But perhaps even more important than this, the precise meaning in any context is determined by: the words that surround and combine with the core word by collocation. A translator who chooses the exact collocation will translate clearly and is able to convey not just a general meaning, but something quite precise.

2.11 Approaches to Collocation

Many different attempts have been made by linguists and researchers to investigate collocation from different angles. Matos, (2008:186) says that “collocation is one of most debatable concepts in linguistics” and it can be classified into three approaches:

2.11.1 Frequency Based Approach

This approach was linked and adopted by British scholars who follow Firthian theories. Among the most important and known scholars are Halliday (1966) and Sinclair (1991). As the name suggests, one of the most important criteria for identifying collocations is the frequency of co-occurrences of lexical items. Thus, lexis is considered to be independent and separable from grammar.

In this approach, Zagrebelsky, (2007: 15) points out that “collocation is combination of two words that happens more often to occur together in certain distance”. While Martynska, (2004:2) confirms that this approach is based on the assumption that the meaning of a word is determined by the co-occurring words. Firth who was considered the father of ‘collocation’ gave the example of the word 'ass', explaining that there are only limited possibilities with preceding adjectives, among which the commonest are you silly, obstinate, stupid.

Maurer, (2004: 4) on the other hand, says that Halliday finds collocation as syntagmatic associations of lexical items of all probabilities which occur in a certain distance from each other. He defines 'probability' as "the frequency of the item in a stated environment relative to its total frequency of occurrence", but he does not clearly define distance. Like Firth, Halliday finds collocation as a lexical phenomenon rather than a grammatical one. Moreover, Sinclair, (1991: 170) defines collocations as “the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text”. ‘A short space’, or ‘span’ is defined by Nesselhauf, (2005: 26) as “a distance of around four words to the right and left of the word under investigation”, which is called the “node”.

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2.11.2 Semantic Approach

Semanticists consider Firthians’ approach to the study of collocations insufficient and unsatisfactory because they categorize collocations according to how often words co-occur without approaching why there are lexical items that collocate only with certain other lexical items. Shokouhi, (2010:5) adds that the observation of determining the specific shape of collocations take, why words collocate with certain other words, and how the meaning of a word is reduced to its ultimate contrastive elements resulting in the atomization of meaning. Gitsaki (1999:144) points out that Firth’s theory about collocation is insufficient and unconvincing since it does not come across justifying apparent lack of explanations through which the reason behind often co-occurrence could be clarified. Anderson, (2006:60) cf Robins (1967:21) rejects the idea of one segment ultimately led to one meaning, and they provide insight into an important aspect of the semantic structure of language: "word meanings do not exist in isolation, and they may differ according to the collocation in which they are used". The semantic and the lexical composition approaches are restricted to the study of a small number of collocations (usually 'verb noun' and 'adjective noun' collocations); they exclude grammatical words from their scope, and eventually they achieved only limited results.

2.11.3 The Structural Approach

The structural approach recommends that the study of collocations should include grammar and takes collocation to be determined by its structural patterns. Nesselhauf, (2005: 20) points out that this approach is associated with some European researchers who are interested in examining collocation in different languages. Therefore, the structural approach or phraseological approach is viewed by those linguists and researchers who suggest that collocation is influenced by structure, and collocations occur in patterns. Zagrebelsky, (2007: 27) asserts that the definition of collocation presented within this approach is based on the delineation of collocations and separating it from other word combinations, mainly free combinations, idioms and other combinations. Collocations are distinguished from free combinations on the basis of whether the substitution of items in a words combination are either arbitrary or semantically motivated.
2.12 Collocation Strengths

It is very essential for professional translators to know the different types of collocation strengths in the process of rendering the meaning from the source language into the target language. Hidalgo et al, (2007:85-86) say that if a translator knows those strengths, he/she will gain an additional freedom in the choices of words to demonstrate their own style of translation by deciding which word and what collocates they should use in a particular context. Actually, O’Dell and McCarthy, (2008:8) classify the strength of collocation into three as follows:

1- Strong collocation

It is one in which words are closely associated with each other for example, the adjective “mitigating” almost always collocates with “circumstance” or “factors”. It rarely collocates with any other words. Although she was found guilty, the jury felt there were mitigating circumstances or factors. Another example is the combinations with 'make' and 'do'. You make a cup of tea, but do your homework.

2- Fixed Collocation

Fixed collocations are collocations that cannot be changed in any way. For example, the phrase "kick the bucket" is an idiom, a relatively fixed collocation meaning "to die". While someone could substitute nouns and verbs in this sentence and get other meaningful sentences (e.g. "kick the door", "lift the bucket"), the word combinations in these other sentences are no longer cohesive patterns in the way that "kick the bucket" is. Like "kick the bucket", most collocations which are very fixed form a particular expected meaning rather than a structure.

3- Weak collocation

Weak collocations are made of words that collocate with a wide range of other words. For example, in 'broad agreement' with someone - generally in agreement with them. ‘Broad can also be used with a number of other words - a broad avenue, a broad smile, broad shoulders, a broad accent, a broad hint. These are weak collocations, in the sense that ‘broad’ collocates with a broad range of different nouns.

2.13 Collocations’ Criteria

The minimal characteristics present in virtually all definitions of ‘collocations’ hinge on the fact that a collocation is re-current co-occurrence of at least two lexical items. Beyond these minimal criteria, Bowles, (2007:8) states that collocation is characterized by three main criteria: Non-compositionality, non-substitutability and non-modifiability. Firstly, a collocation is non-compositional in the sense that one cannot understand its meaning
even if to understand the meaning of the individual words. A good example of non-compositionality is an idiom for instance, ‘to have an itching palm’ meaning ‘to be greedy for money’. While, non-substitutionability means that it cannot substitute the words that constitute a collocation for their synonym. For example, in the collocation: ‘close the meeting’, it is wrong to say ‘shut the meeting’ because “shut” and “meeting” do not go together, whereas one could say ‘shut the door’. Finally, Collocations are non-modifiable, that is to say it is impossible to modify them by adding extra words.

2.14 Types of English Collocations

Many attempts have been made by specialists to classify collocations. To serve the purpose of the study, the researcher will tackle two types of collocations namely; grammatical and lexical collocations. However, the latter will be treated in detail because it is the main concern of the study.

2.14.1 Grammatical Collocations

Grammatical collocation as a term is closely related to the term “colligation” which means grammatical combinatory of preferences of words. Benson, (2009: xxiv) states that grammatical collocations are defined in contrast to lexical collocations as “normally containing prepositions, infinitives or clauses and typically consisting of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs”. Morton, (2010:xix-xxiii) classifies grammatical collocations under the following types:

1. Noun + preposition e.g. **blockade against**, **apathy towards**
2. Noun + to-infinitive e.g. He was a **fool to do it**.
3. Noun + that-clause e.g. We reached **an agreement that she would join our team**.
4. Preposition + noun e.g. **by accident**, **in agony**.
5. Adjective + preposition e.g. **fond of children**, **hungry for news**.
6. Adjective + to-infinitive e.g. **it was necessary to work**, **it's nice to be here**.
7. Adjective + that-clause e.g. she was **afraid that she would fail**.

2.14.2 Lexical Collocations

From this term, it is obvious that this type consists of content of words that frequently accompany each other. Zarei and Baniesmaili, (2010:150) define lexical collocations as the co-occurrences of words which have an approximately equal status. The main characteristics of lexical collocations are that their meanings mostly reflect the meaning of their lexical constituents and that the sequences of lexical items frequently co-occur, even though most
native speakers of English are not aware of collocations. The linguists present various models of the categories of English lexical collocations, but The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English (2010:xiii) and Oxford Collocations Dictionary for students of English (2009:ix) classify the types of English lexical collocations as stated below:

1- VERB+ NOUN

Some verbs have particular nouns which regularly go together, and they are divided into:

1.1 VERB (usually transitive) + Noun/Pronoun/ (or Prepositional Phrase), they are called “C.A” because they consist of a verb denoting Creation or Activation and a noun/ a pronoun, for example:

1- Court does not have the ability to pass judgment on this matter.
2- Barack Obama delivers a statement on the Hurricane Sandy situation at the White House.
3- He was able to commit his crimes.
4- It is unnecessarily for leaders to send soldiers to war.
5- We have reached an agreement with Everton to transfer the player.

1.2 VERB (which means Eradication/ Cancelation)+ Noun, so this lexical combination is called “E.C”, for example:

1- Israeli officials said they decided to end the blockade after assurances from both the UN and Condoleezza Rice, the US Secretary of State.
2- Only for doctors to reject the motion.
3- Cuban authorities revoke the laws that restrict freedom.
4- In the light of events of coup in Turkey, the Turkish government has cancelled all flights to and from Turkey.

2- NOUN+ VERB

Some nouns occur with some verbs, for instance:

1- Bombs exploded in the northern Iraqi city of Kirkuk.
2- Alarm bells began ringing when Zack Snyder expressed plans.
3- Birds sing, a lion roars and a tiny deer jumps at Zimbabwe Park.

3- ADJECTIVE+ NOUN

Some adjectives are typically used with particular nouns, for instance:

1- With the new political situation everything has stopped after UK Brexit from the EU.
2- “The prisoners were breaking windows and setting fires and engaging in civil disobedience”
3- We are calling to form a provisional government.
4- Germany expects rise in political asylum claims after Turkish coup attempt.
5- A series of terrorist attacks happened in France in the last six months.

4- NOUN + NOUN

There are a lot of lexical collocations that have the pattern of (noun + noun) or (a of--) for instance:
1- Donald Trump wants to win the White House.
2- Rebel armies have signed a ceasefire agreement to end more than five years of conflict.
3- A European human rights commissioner has told British ministers to stop illegal immigrant.

4- A herd of Buffalo escape from New York state farm ends in tragedy.
5- Arizona town attacked by a swarm of bees.

5- ADVERB+ ADJECTIVE

Adverbs often have particular adjectives which regularly collocate with each other, for instance:
1- The Brazilian have made the event of Olympics highly controversial even before it starts.
2- Choose Your Weapons’ is a hugely enjoyable.
3- We can be deeply upsetting to the victim.
4- They met on a bitterly cold night.
5- Hugo Chávez is fully aware that his health condition is very complicated.

6- VERB+ ADVERB

Some verbs have particular adverbs which regularly collocate with them, for example:
1- Blatter should retire and resign immediately
2- The victim went directly to the nearest police station.”
3- The Scottish parliament voted unanimously on Tuesday to increase basic salaries.
4- They interpreted the laws differently”

It is obvious from the above examples, journalists can use different English lexical collocations freely in their writing. So, this can make the text more difficult for the translator and M.A students to match the proper verb with noun, noun with verb, adjective with noun, noun with noun, or verb with adverb in the final product of translation.

2.15 Definitions of Collocation in Arabic

The concept ‘collocation’ has many terms in Arabic. Nofal, (2012:2) states that the term ‘collocation’ is found in Arabic, though, under different titles as: التلازم “al-talâzûm”, التضامن “al-tâsam”
Brashi, (2005:33) and Husamaddin, (1985:257) define the term collocation as “the normal occurrence of a word with certain other words in a language” which can be translated as: “المصاحبة الاعتيادية لكلمة”. This co-occurrence reflects the tendency of Arab people to frequently use these words in company, for examples: “infringe the treaty” ينقض المعاهدة or “liberate captives” يُحرر الأسرى. Collocations have two basic components which hold a hypostatic relationship, Izuldeen, (2007:1) states that Arabic collocation consists of ‘node’, in other words the ‘collocate word’, in the above examples, (المعاهدة and الأسرى) are the base element and (ينقض and يحرر) are the collocate elements.

2.15.1 Historical Background of Arabic Collocations

Arguably, there are different views among the scholars about the term ‘collocation’ in Arabic. Sughair, (2007:8-9) states that the term ‘collocations’ in Arabic has not received a detailed treatment by Arab scholars. Arabic collocations are collected and documented by lexicographers such as Ibn Seedah, Al-Tha’aliby and Al-Yaziji, but were not studied in detail. Izwaini (2010:25) asserts that Al-Sakkaky was the first one who refers to collocations. He points out the notion of collocations within his theory of context of meaning: “Every word associates with another word in a specific context” but he did not elaborate on it.” In modern times, there are few bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries of collocations, including as Dar El-Ilm’s Collocation Dictionary and Al-hafiz Arabic Collocations Dictionary.

2.15.2 Typology of Collocations

The term ‘composite unit’ is a common term among scholars. Pellatt, and Minelli, (2009:21) states that the English term composite unit is used by Cowie (1981) to refer to all word combinations of different kinds, including idioms. Collocations are those composite units whose elements collocate freely with each other as “a maximally variable type,” as in run a business. In his study of Arabic collocation, Emery (1991:157) used the same term of composite unit to cover four subcategories, namely open collocations, restricted collocations, bound collocations and idioms.
(a) **Open collocations**

*Open collocations* are combinations of lexical items that freely co-occur with other lexical items. The collocation elements are “freely recombinable” and “each element is used in a common literal sense”.

(b) **Restricted collocations**

These are lexical clusters whose constituents collocate in a limited way. The level of commutability of their constituents is restricted for example, *to command admiration, attention,* or *devotion*. In other word, one constituent in a restricted collocation “has a figurative sense not found outside that limited context”, for example *explode in to explode a myth/a belief*.

(c) **A bound collocation**

*A bound collocation* is one in which one element cannot be replaced by another lexical item regardless of how close it is in meaning, for example, *to shrug a shoulder*. It is on the border between collocations and idioms. Cowie, (1981: 228) describes it as “a bridge category between collocations and idioms.” in other words; they are transitional between idioms and collocations, more frozen than ordinary collocations, less variable.

(d) **Idioms**

In contrast to the previous three types, the constituent elements of idioms are opaque, that is, they are used in ‘specialized’ senses, together forming one single semantic unit, for example, *the cold war*.

### 2.15.3 Arabic Lexical Collocations

Lexical collocations in Arabic have different classifications. Izwaini, (2016:312-314) states that types of lexical collocations in Arabic can be categorized as *open, restricted and bound,* and *syntactic* according to the word classes of their elements. They can also be of a common general language profile as well as from a specific domain. He adds that collocations are very diverse in nature, in terms of “number of words, in the syntactic categories of the words, in the syntactic relations between the words”. Words in Arabic combine with each other in typical clusters, within varying degrees of rigidity and flexibility. At one end of the spectrum, there are words like جَيْد (good) that can collocate with a large number of nouns, and at the other end, there are words like أَجَهَش (to embark on), which may collocate with only one word, in other words بكاء (weeping). Arabic has a large number of bound and restricted collocations. Examples
of the former include حق غمَط (to deprive of the right) and فغر فاه (to open the mouth) where the verbs have only one particular noun as their objects.

For restricted collocations, the following examples show the collocational sets of the adjective كث (thick and bushy) and the verb اسدى (roughly ‘to provide’):

1. كث: ša ‘r شعر (bear), lihyat لحية (beard), شارب (moustache), حاجب (eyebrow).
2. اسدى: nashat نصيحة (advice), مشورة (consultation), ما ‘rif متعه (beneficence), جميل (favour), hdmat خدمة (service), منافع (benefits).

In more details, Izwaini, (2016:313-314) classifies lexical collocations in Arabic as the following main types:

1. **N + N**: an additive construct (or coordinated nouns), ُحَفِيف al-šaُگَر حفيف (rustle of trees), siר بْطُور طْيْو (flock of birds), farwat رأس (sculpt of the head), fus ُتْوَم فْتْم (clove of garlic), ُحَاتُم ذْهْب خاتم ذهب (golden ring), al-ْجُد وَالْكَرْم الجود والكرم (generosity and open-handedness), šadar مذنر شذره مذر (in all directions). The latter is a bound collocation which is a member of a group of word combinations that are similar in structure and pronunciation. This group can also be of adjectives or verb types as will shown latter. This kind of collocation along with collocations consisting of coordinated synonyms such as al-ْگَا ‘ْتَ وَالْیَقْدَم الشجاعة والاقدام (bravery and valour), has an emphasis function that does not necessarily need to be reflected in the TT. Trying to reproduce them fully may result in unnatural combinations. Snell-Hornby 1995: 122 states that scholars suggest it is advisable that collocation “rules are faithfully applied” in translation and not to carry over a SL collocation into the TL, as this would render the collocation “unnatural and obscure”, unless there is a TL expression that has the same meaning and structure, such as helter-skelter for ُشْطِاه ْمَثْر مذر (shather mather). (Legal register in English does include such collocations, for example., aiding and abetting, null and void, terms and conditions).

2. **N + Adj**: ُوْلُارْف ظَل وَأَرْف (deep shade), taman بْحْيَز (exorbitant price).

3. **N + N**: an intransitive verb and a noun (subject): ُغَرْرَقَت ُعَنْىَب عينا غرورقت (his eyes full of tears) in other words, starting to tear up, or a transitive verb and a noun (object): ‘اَغْرَى اتصالاً (to make a call).
4. V + V: mostly synonymous or semi-synonymous verbs linked by a coordinator: 

\[ \text{sāla wa ġal} \] (to jump and roam), and \[ \text{bašša wa bašš} \] (to be cheerful and welcoming).

5. V + Adv:

a. **Absolute object**: (māf ‘ūl mutlaq): \[ \text{fasalnāhu tafsla} \] (literally: to clarify it clearly), \[ \text{sāra sayran wa ‘idan} \] (to walk a slow walk) and \[ \text{drasabu dirasat‘an mustafidat} \] (to study it thoroughly). While a possible English translation can be to study it studiously which reproduces the repetition of the SL collocation, this translation does not reflect the thoroughness expressed by the adjective in the Arabic collocation.

b. Adverb of differentiation: \[ \text{dqa dar ‘an} \] ضائع ذرعا (to feel distressed), \[ \text{ragasa taraban} \] قرص (to dance intoxicated by music).

c. Adverb of manner: \[ \text{gā ‘a rākidan} \] جاء راكضا (to come running), \[ \text{barra sari ‘an} \] خر صريعا (to fall dead).

6. Adj + n (compound adjective): \[ \text{ba ‘id al-madā} \] (long-term/long-range), \[ \text{sab al-mirās} \] صعب المراس (difficult to manage), \[ \text{bāfīj al-qadamayn} \] حافي القدمين (bare footed).

7. adj + adv (absolute object): \[ \text{gāmil ġamāl} \] جميل جمالا (beautiful a tranquil beauty).

8. Adj + Adj: \[ \text{dāi ‘i sa‘a} \] ضائع سانع (lost and disoriented), \[ \text{harāb yābab} \] خرابا ببابا (destroyed and devastated), and \[ \text{musāfī mu ‘ajā} \] مسافف معافي (cured and healthy), \[ \text{sāhiq māhiq} \] ساحق ماحق (crushing and annihilating). As these collocations, like those in pattern 4 above (V + V) have an emphasis function, reproducing all elements in translation may render them alien in the TT. Although it might sound unnatural, it is possible to transfer such collocations fully when the translation is meant to expose the TL reader to the style of the ST.

### 2.16 Similarities and Differences of Lexical Collocations in English and Arabic

Lexical collocations have the features of sameness and differences in English and Arabic. On the side of differences, Nofal, (2012:87-88) mentions that although English and Arabic (unrelated languages) classify collocations into various categories, these categories are not always synonymous to each other. Added to that it has been noted that the exact equivalent for collocation in the target language has been one of the major difficulties for both students and teachers in learning/teaching process and for translators as well. Collocations as a difficult area may be restricted to lexical choice, for example:

(a) **English is a famous language.**
English is a universal language.

This is probably due to: language specifics, interference of mother tongue in other words, transfer from the native language or lack of extensive reading of contemporary English and Arabic prose. Another difference is that an English collocation word may have two collocation equivalents in Arabic, for instance, the word 'genocide' in Arabic means إبادة جماعية, 'suffrage' means حق الإقتراع and 'absolutism' means حكم استبدادي.

On the other hand, the similarities between English and Arabic, agreed by the linguists are:

- Collocation of both languages refers to the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items. For instance, from English are: "pay attention", "added eggs", "pretty girl", and "fish and chips". For example, from Arabic are: حبر جاف "hibr-un jāf-un", صديق حميم "ṣadiq-un amīm", وطن العربي "al-waṭan ?al-?arabi"., مكة المكرمة "makat-u ?al-mukarramat-u". Collocations are also a type of syntagmatic lexical relations for example, adjectives+ noun as in: grave concern, حرب ضروس "ḥarb-un đarūs". In addition, collocations are linguistically predictable in both languages, in other words, the tie between “spick” and “span” is stronger than that between “letter” and “piller box”. Furthermore, in both languages there are many totally predicted restrictions in other words, the occurrence of the items is frequent that their occurrence becomes predictable: “spick”+ “span” خلف الناقة “xilfu ?al-nāqa”. Finally, collocations are formal statements of co-occurrence for instance, “green” collocates with “jealousy” and similarly, برك "barak-a", collocates with جميل "jameel".

Having covered the term of collocation in English and Arabic, the researcher will handle the term Journalism, definition of newspaper, components and contents of newspaper, and journalism versus translation in the following section.

2.17 Concept of Journalism

Journalism as a field has plenty of definitions that are agreed up on scholars. According to www.britannica.com, the word 'journalism' was originally applied to the reportage of current events in printed form, specifically newspapers, but with the advent of radio, television, and the Internet in the 20th century the use of the term broadened to include all printed and electronic communication dealing with current affairs. It is taken from the French 'journal' which in turn comes from the Latin 'diurnal' or 'daily'. Cayton and Williams, (2001:225) state that the term "journalism" contains a family of related notions that are not always consistent. Journalism means simultaneously reporting the news and participating in political discourse; it refers to both public affairs and cultural or everyday matters. While
Conboy, (2013:32) indicates that the term *journalism* means ‘the collocating, writing, and publishing of news articles for magazines and newspapers’, in other words, *journalism* is the art and science of gathering, selecting and processing information or ideas, intelligence for dissemination to the public. There are many categorizes of *journalism* in terms of the medium, but the most concern of this study is print media which includes: *magazines*, *periodicals*, *journals* and *newspapers*. The later is the main concern of this study English newspapers, in particular. The role of print and electronic media is dominating one, in the modern world. In this age of information newspapers are the most powerful tool to express ideas and information. According to [http://dictionary.cambridge.org/e](http://dictionary.cambridge.org/e), newspaper is “a regularly printed document consisting of news reports, articles, photographs and advertisements that are printed on large sheets of paper which are folded together but not permanently joined”. It is a part and parcel of modern life. It is playing its vital role by providing information and creating awareness among the people.

### 2.18 Historical Background of English Newspapers

Historically, English newspapers are not like American newspapers. [www.localhistories.org](http://www.localhistories.org) points out that English newspapers began circulating in the 17th century. The first newspaper in England was printed in 1641. (However the word newspaper was not recorded until 1670). The first successful daily newspaper in Britain was printed in 1702. The first *Sunday* newspaper was the *British Gazette and Sunday Monitor* published in 1780. In 1785 the *Daily Universal Register* was first published. In 1788 it was renamed *The Times*. In 1814, *The Times* was printed with a steam-powered press for the first time. In 1848, *The Times* used a rotary printing press with the printing face wrapped around a cylinder for the first time. Meanwhile the *Observer* was founded in 1791. *The Daily Telegraph* was first published in 1855. *The Manchester Guardian* was founded in 1821. It changed its name to *The Guardian* in 1959. *The Sunday Times* was first published in 1822. *The Financial Times* began in 1888. Meanwhile *The News Of the World* was published in 1843. The first Australian newspaper was published in 1803. It was called the *Sydney Gazette* and *New South Wales Advertiser*.

Newspapers became far more common in the late 19th century. In the 18th century and the early 19th century, stamp duty was charged on newspapers, which made them expensive. However, in 1855 stamp duty on newspapers was abolished and they became cheaper and more common. In the mid-19th century, newspaper reporters began to use the telegraph as a means to get news to their newspapers quickly. Then in 1880 *The New York Graphic* became the first
newspaper to print a photo. In Britain the first tabloid newspaper was the Daily Graphic published in 1890 and in 1891 it became the first British newspaper to print a photo.

In the 20th century newspapers became still more common. The Daily Mail was first published in 1896, The Daily Express was first published in 1900 and the Daily Mirror began publication in 1903. In 1964, The Daily Herald became The Sun and The Daily Star was founded in 1978. The Sunday Telegraph was founded in 1961 and in 1962 The Sunday Times became the first newspaper to publish a Sunday color supplement. The Mail on Sunday began in 1982. The Independent was first published in 1986. In 1986 Today is also become the first color newspaper in Britain.

By the beginning of the 20th century, Fleet Street was the center of the British newspaper industry. However, in the 1980s newspaper owners moved away from Fleet Street. At that time computer technology replaced the old labor intensive methods of printing. The Press Complaints Commission was created in 1990. Metro, a free newspaper for commuters was first published in Britain in 1999. Then in 2010 an abbreviated version of the Independent called. It was launched However in 2011 The News of The World ceased publication.

2.19 Definitions of News

Traditionally, many linguists agree that ‘news’ means information that is not known before. Merriam-Webster online dictionary defines the word ‘news’ as “a material reported in a newspaper or news periodical or on a newscast”. It comes from the word new, written in old English either as ‘newes’ or ‘niwes’. In modern day, it is considered an acronym for the four sides of the world – North, East, West and South. In other words, ‘news’ is the report of a current event, something that was not known, information of recent events and happenings. In broad sense, news means information about current events or that would be of current interest to the public. http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com defines the word ‘news’ as “newly received or noteworthy information, especially about recent events” or “reports of recent events that appear in newspaper or on television or radio”. Notwithstanding, the definition of news is a controversial one. Al-Jaber, (2012: 105-106) expresses the view that “some people say that the news is stating an event that is published in the newspapers and broadcasted by the radio, television and other mass media, believing that this event concerns the public. Others think that news is a presentation of all happenings and all what the events denote and its repercussions. On the other hand, some people think that news is a presentation of an event that affects the socio-economic, political, materialistic or other relations as well as it is presentation of happenings around the world that is important for man to be aware of on the ground.
2.20 Components of a Newspaper

Scientifically, knowing the general components of a newspaper is very essential when translating a text from a newspaper. Mazon and et al, (2005: 271-272) indicate that before translating an article, story, or any topic in a newspaper, it is deemed important that a translator first discovers its physical parts and features. The knowledge about these parts and features leads the translator straight to the kind of information he/she wants to translate from the newspaper. These parts may be considered in terms of sections as McMillan (2010:6) explains “a newspaper has many parts”. Each part is called section of the newspaper. It may be considered in terms of its paging section. That is why a newspaper may be considered in terms of its front page: editorial page, world news page, local news page, sports page, business page, lifestyle page, advertisement page, entertainment page and the society page. Or it may be considered in terms of small parts that make up a page for example, the front page made up of the followings (Appendix3):

1- **The Masthead**
   
   It gives the name of the paper, the city or province in which it is published, the date is published, its volume number, its number of sections and pages, its price, and its founding year.

2- **The Edition**
   
   This part which is written under the masthead gives the kind of edition of the paper. This comes in phrases like: morning edition, afternoon edition, or provincial edition.

3- **The Ears**
   
   These are the boxes at each side of the name of the newspaper. Some papers, however, carry only one year, either at right side or the left of the name of the newspaper. In any case, the ears are oftentimes the spaces devoted to the weather report or titles of some stories.

4- **The Headlines**
   
   These may be a main headline, a deck, or a kicker.
   a. The main headline is the title of the major story for the day. It is printed in the biggest and largest type.
   b. The deck is a secondary headline. It appears between the primary headline and the story of the said headline. Sometimes, a primary headline may have two decks.
   c. The kicker comes before the headline. It presents or supplies additional information to make the headline clear to the reader.

5- **The Byline**
   
   It is the type of line that gives the name of the reporter who wrote the news story.
6- **The Date Line**

   It gives the place origin of the news and date when the news happened. However, most news does not carry the date any more. Instead, it indicates the news agency to the newspaper.

7- **The Lead**

   Generally, it is the summary of the news story, given in first paragraph. But it may also run to the second paragraph. This part that gives the *what, who, where, when, why and how* information of the news.

8- **The Major News Story**

   It is the story considered by the editor as the most important at the time the edition goes to the press. It is also called the main headline or the banner story.

9- **The Side Bar**

   This is a side of one story that is already carried in the paper. This is written when a news story happens to have several highlights so instead of containing all in one news item, one or two are reported as a side story of one news story about the same subject.

10- **The Cut**

   This is the picture with its captions.

11- **The Editorial Page**

   It contains the following:

   a. **The Editorial**: this is the newspaper’s interpretation of its opinion on an issue. Some newspapers carry only one like this; but, some others carry two or three.

   b. **The Editorial Cartoon**

      This gives the newspaper’s interpretation of its opinion on an issue, presented in a caricature.

   c. **The Editorial Box**

      This a box portion on the page, where the editorial board is listed.

   d. **The Column Articles**

      These are the articles also giving opinions on any issue deemed interesting by the column writers.

12- **Index or (inside)**

   This is the list of topics and sub-topics in the newspaper which corresponding the paging.

**2.21 Contents of the Newspaper**
Different ways of organizing a newspaper sections are followed. The specific organization of a newspaper reflects the personality of the publication. On the other hand, readers become accustomed to the organization. [http://www.english-online.at](http://www.english-online.at) summarizes the common contents of a newspaper in table (2-1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Content/s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>International News/political opinions.</td>
<td>More news political opinions and about world affairs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Local news.</td>
<td>Centers on what happens in the state or district that the reader lives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Editorials.</td>
<td>Articles that show the opinion of the writer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Letters to the editor.</td>
<td>Show readers’ opinion on certain topics or agree or disagree with an editorial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Comic strips.</td>
<td>A series of drawn pictures, mostly by a cartoonist, that show a story.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Crosswords/ puzzles.</td>
<td>Give the reader the chance to solve certain tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Television guides.</td>
<td>Give the reader an overview of the programmes they can watch throughout the day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Sports.</td>
<td>Are given a larger section at the back of a newspaper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Weather reports and forecasts.</td>
<td>Give the readers information on local as well as travel and international weather.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Death notices appear.</td>
<td>They show a list of people who have died in the region in the last few days.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Advertisements.</td>
<td>Take up large parts of a newspaper and are positioned throughout the paper. Sometimes they can be a whole page in size, in other cases they make up only a few lines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Advice columns.</td>
<td>Offer tips for readers and answer their questions on certain topics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Economic/ Business and Market.</td>
<td>Articles on economic and business issues. It also gives the movement of prices around the world.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [http://www.english-online.at](http://www.english-online.at)
2.22 Definition and Elements of a News Article

Newspapers contain different articles in different subjects. Pape and Featherstone, (2005:14) view that news article is an article published in a print or internet news medium such as a newspaper, newsletter, news magazine, news-oriented website, or article directory that discusses current or recent news of either general interest (in other words, daily newspapers) or on a specific topic (in other words, political or trade news magazines, club newsletters, or technology news websites). A news article can include accounts of eyewitnesses to the happening event. It can also contains photographs, accounts, statistics, graphs, recollections, interviews, poll and debates on the topic.

Pape and Featherstone, (2005:60-122) argue that news article contains four elements. The first element is headline. A headline is a text at the top of a newspaper article, indicating the nature of the article. It functions to catch the attention of the reader and relate well to the topic. In addition, they also state that modern headlines are typically written in an abbreviated style omitting many elements of a complete sentence but almost always including a non-copula verb. The next element of news articles is called lead. They define lead as the element of a news article that captures the attention of the reader, sums up the focus of the story, establishes the subject, sets the tone, and guides the reader into the article. Lead is also considered as the part which tells the most important facts and answers the questions: who, what, where, when, why, and how. The third element of news article which is suggested by them is body. This is the part in which details and elaboration about the lead are given. Pape and Featherstone, (2005:124) state that the bodies of news articles may include chronological, cause and effect, classification, comparison and contrast, list, and question and answer structures, depending on the type of news story presented. The Fourth element of news articles is conclusion which refers to an ending element of a news article. They indicate that the conclusion of news articles may include a final quote, a descriptive scene, a play on the title or lead, and a summary statement.

2.23 Features and Style of Newspapers

Undoubtedly, journalism plays a great role in people's daily life, since it is the fourth estate and considerable numbers of people come in touch with it every day. In other words, newspapers are a common form of a written discourse. Owing to their public nature and availability for large numbers of people, newspapers are one of the widely-ready types of written texts. Thus, Pajunen, (2007:207) mentions that there are certain features that make newspapers stand apart from other types of discourse, among which:

(a) A medium- standard language; not that deep classical nor popular slang of public corridors and quarters, rather it is a simple classical understood by most readers;
(b) **Concentration of ideas and information in a minimal space** as far as possible because journalism always aims at ‘breviary that makes sense’, or at useful breviary. But this economization in words leads to create sentences full of subsidiary adjectives and meanings, as well as it leads to using abbreviations and acronyms the matter that puts a heavy burden on the shoulder of the translator;

(c) **The exciting concentrated headlines**, to the extent that their concentration reaches the limit puzzles. For such reason, translators are advised not to translate the headline before translating the whole text and

(d) **The writer of the article often expresses the personal viewpoint whether explicitly or implicitly.**

With the respect of newspapers style, Gilmore and Root, (2014:67) state that newspaper style has moved increasingly in the direction of uncultured writing, where simple, direct sentences are desired. He went on stating that, complex and compound sentences may provide the best vehicle for thought under certain circumstances, and also the probability of using ambiguity. Furthermore, he adds that the desire of economy in words or omission of words has produced tight, swiftly paced writing that has proved to be a boon to newspaper reading. So, to translate collocations in a newspaper effectively, the translator should be aware of these different styles in newspapers in order to translate the collocational expressions correctly.

### 2.24 Journalism versus Translation

Undoubtedly, there is a great relationship and connection between journalism and translation. Vybiralová, (2012:3-4) believe that ‘both journalism and translation play an indispensable role in the Age of Information’. Not only do they inform the reader, but they also facilitate the flow of information itself.

**W.W.Wappanam.com** points out that ‘journalistic translation’ refers to the translation of writing newspapers, magazines, or other agency engaged in the collection and dissemination of news. Nowadays, it is rare that a newspaper, magazine or any other journalistic publication is free of a translated item. Journalistic publication turned to be essential parts of many renewed newspapers, locally or globally and it can be the best means to convey news, thoughts, visions, and events that occur around the globe in a simple way accessible to everybody. **W.W.Wpangeanic.com** stresses that translators working in this field have to meet all requirements usually demanded from a translator as well as tight deadlines, the ability to selectively edit before translating, and journalistic training. Several factors are important in selecting what news to translate: (1)
readership demographics; (2) editorial viewpoint; (3) space limitation; (4) time limitation and (5) the limitation of the source. Chan, (2006:120-121) states that journalistic translation is “the translation of newspapers, articles, books, bibles, radio and television broadcasts”.

So, translation for newspapers has peculiarity that distinguishes it from non-fiction translation. At first sight, one could think that a newspaper text expresses facts and communicates information as purely denotative text, therefore, relatively easy to translate as far as constructions and style are concerned, with a few difficulties of lexical order. http://ethicaljournalismnetwork.org puts forward some principles that should be taken into consideration in journalistic translation, namely:

1- **Limits of freedom of the journalist in translating the original text**

   Acting freely with translation stems from a pressing desire to get free some of the components of the original text and try to draft a new text that to a large extent takes into consideration the genre. Freedom in translation does not mean, however, to cut down translation through omitting the main ideas or to get rid of those paragraphs that the translator finds him/herself unable to render. Freedom in translation does not mean increasing the rendition via introducing new ideas or conflicting ideas that do not appear in the original text. Freedom in translation is used to communicate with the recipient audience by means of a careful change of the function of the original text (summarizing it, explaining its ideas or simplifying its linguistic standard. …etc. without affecting the ideas that constitute its overall meaning.

2- **Impact of the rendered text on the receiver**

   As the writer of the original text does, the translator has to make or have an idea about his readers before starting the text from the SL to the TL. The translator of journalistic texts who resorts to a technique understandable to his readers in fact speaks with them in their idiom. But what affects searching for words and expressions that mist the meaning and make comprehension difficult speaks with them by his own idiom. The good translator is one who possesses the following questions during the process of translating text: are most of the readers going to understand this term or that expression? Also does this term or that expression negatively affect the general meaning of the text or does the context of the text is capable to eliminate any confusion? Moreover, will the recipient understand the new term or there is a necessity to combine it with an explanatory clause? In addition, what is the linguistic standard that will be understandable to the recipient? Furthermore, is there a need to change the technique of the original text or not?
3- Impact of the ideology of the newspaper on translation

Every newspaper has its own shape, trend and its form that distinguishes it from other newspapers in the stalls. Regarding the trend, it matches the editorial policy that is subject to various determinants: *ideological, intellectual, political, or economic*. The thought and the ideology of the journalist who translates, have their impact on selecting the texts that will be translated.

4- Time compulsion in specialized journalistic translation

One of the most prominent problems associated with journalistic translation today is the ability to produce a rendered text that takes into consideration honesty and devotion to the source and ‘acceptance’ in the TL in a short period. Indeed, the proficiency of quickness undertaking the translation with maintaining the meaning of the original text at the same time. Whatasoever is the allowed time span, the translating journalist should present a product that is acceptable in terms of quality and should meet all the determinants of reliable translation. In general, the point of tightness or ampleness of time during undertaking the journalistic translation is cancelled with various factors as: the enjoyment of the translator in touching on a certain subject rather other. Whenever the translator finds himself harmonizing with the subject, his rendition will be quick and sound. Moreover, difficulty or easiness of the subject. Also the pre-knowledge of the translator about the subject, in addition to, experience and practice in the field of translation as well as the method adopted in translation.

5- Altering the meaning in some journalistic renditions

This can be through the mistakes in translating idioms, mistakes in translating common expressions, mistakes in relating to overlapping of structure and composition between the two languages, mistakes relating to technique, excessive translation, deficiency translation, mistakes related to misunderstanding of the original text, lacking the encyclopedic knowledge that accompanies the textual performance, and inserting the identity of the translator.

6- Ethical aspects in journalistic translation

The translator is not an author but he/she is restricted by the meaning of an original text that he/she has to convey honestly and reliably. He/she is also restricted by his/her responsibility towards the reader in the sense that the translator should not lie; personal altering should give way to objective one so that rendition is undertaken in the proper way.

Having covered the term Journalism, definition of a newspaper, components and contents of newspaper, and journalism versus translation, the researcher will handle the relationship between lexical collocations and UK newspapers in the following section.
2.25 Lexical Collocations and UK Newspapers

Journalists use lexical collocations in their writing, because it can be seen as a cohesive device which contributes to make the news more precise and expressive. www.wieltsbuddy.com indicates that there is a great relationship between journalistic translation and lexical collocations. As UK newspapers contain different sections, the following are the most common examples of lexical collocations in UK newspapers:

1- World News Section

(i) “John joined the U.S. army in 1951 and was stationed in Fairbanks, Alaska.”
(The Independent, Milwain, (12February, 2009))

التحق جون بالجيش الأمريكي في عام وحدة و خمسين و تسعمئة و و كان متمركزاً في منطقة فيربانكس و ألاسكا.

(ii) “We admit to ourselves to end terrorism.”
(The Independent, Cornwell, (17September, 2009:3))

نحن نقر لأنفسنا بالقضاء على الإرهاب.

(iii) “Isis committed criminal acts in some different European countries.”
(The Independent, Jury (9July, 2015:11))

ارتكب تنظيم الدولة الإسلامية (داعش) أفعالاً إجرامية في بعض الدول الأوروبية.

(iv) “Five Israelis killed in deadly attack in Jerusalem synagogue.”
(The Guardian, Beaumont (8 November, 2014))

قُتل خمسة إسرائيليين في هجوم انتحاري على كنيسة القدس.

(v) From says that “The bomb exploded in the city’s predominantly Kurdish and the Turkish authorities blamed the Islamic State of Iraq (Isil) for the attack.”
(The Daily Telegraph, Smith. (22 August, 2016:12))

انفجرت القنبلة في المدينة ذات الأغلبية الكردية و قد وجهت السلطات التركية اتهامها لتنظيم الدولة الإسلامية (تنظيم داعش) بتدبير الهجوم.

2- Sports Section

(i) “It’s the morning after the Rio 2016 Olympics closing ceremony.”
(The Daily Telegraph, Shand (23 August, 2016:14))

إنه الصباح قبل إصدال الستار لمراسم أولمبياد "ريو" 2016.

(ii) “José Mourinho had signed a pre-contract agreement to join Manchester United.”
(The Guardian, Aarons (4 April, 2016))

وقع المدرب البرتغالي جوزيه مورينهو اتفاقاً مبدئياً لانضمامه لفريق مانشستر يونايتد.

(iii) “the French defender has not played since April after being banned for failing a drug test.”
(The Daily Telegraph, Bascombe (23 August, 2016:15))
Serena felt suddenly unwell during a quarter-final of WIMBLEDON 2016.”
(The Independent, Crooks (23 August, 2016:15))

She felt suddenly unwell during a quarter-final of WIMBLEDON 2016.

“England defender – Jones- is part of José Mourinho’s plans in the new season 2016.”
(The Guardian, Jackson (23 August, 2016))

England defender – Jones- is part of José Mourinho’s plans in the new season 2016.

3- Business and Economics Sections

(i) “Business profits back after Brexit vote.”
(The Daily Telegraph, Wallace (24 Aug 2016:29))

Business profits back after Brexit vote.

(ii) “Collapse’ in value of wages leaves more than 1.5 million families in a cumulative debt.”
(The Independent, Cockburn (23 August, 2016:10))

Collapse in value of wages leaves more than 1.5 million families in a cumulative debt.

(iii) “There’s no doubting China has strong economy and highly quality of goods.”
(The Independent, Smith (13 August, 2016:12))

China has a strong economy and high quality of goods.

(iv) “Petrol and imported goods becoming more expensive.”
(The Daily Telegraph, Wallac (17 August, 2016 :27))

Petrol and imported goods becoming more expensive.

(v) “Much of Apple’s global sales are routed through Ireland.”
(The Daily Telegraph, Titcomb (25 August, 2016:30))

Much of Apple’s global sales are routed through Ireland.

4- Technology and Science Sections

(i) “World’s largest aircraft crashes as it attempts to take to the sky.”
(The Independent, Frifin (25 August, 2016:33))

World’s largest aircraft crashes as it attempts to take to the sky.

(ii) “US troops used chemical weapons in Vietnam war.”
(The Guardian, Lvey (29 March, 2003:30))

US troops used chemical weapons in Vietnam war.

(iii) “Zika Virus may cause memory damage, similar to Al-Zheimer’s disease.”

Zika Virus may cause memory damage, similar to Al-Zheimer’s disease.
“July 6 2016 was the Earth’s hottest month in recorded history, says Nasa.”

Some corruption cases transferred to the general attorney.

African refugees may carry infectious diseases like HIV.

Are you getting enough fats for cell structure?

This authority will allow the personal representative to take many actions without obtaining court approval.

5- Health and Medicine Sections

She spent four days in intensive care after she had become healthy.

Alcohol is a direct cause of seven forms of cancer, finds study.

After a lengthy illness, she passed away peacefully at her home.

6- Crime and Law Sections

Some corruption cases transferred to the general attorney.

This authority will allow the personal representative to take many actions without obtaining court approval.
The Independent, Boosters (18 September, 2014:11)

This clause allows the state to take many of the necessary actions to ensure the acceptance of the court.

(iii) “The International Criminal court has reopened an investigation into committed war crimes in Gaza”.

(The Guardian, Borger (19 August, 2014 ))

The court has reopened its investigation into the crimes committed in Gaza.

(iv) “Guinea’s president has survived an assassination attempt by gunmen who opened fire on his home.”

(The Guardian, Conakry (19 July, 2011 18))

The Guinean president survived an assassination attempt.

(v) “A witness eye named “John” said the victim has been abused by some African criminals.”

(The Telegraph, Turner (12 February, 2016 :13)

The witness testified that the victim had been abused by African criminals.

7- Art, Lifestyle, , and Fashion Sections

(i) “The audience enjoy the opera music at the Royal theater.”

(The Independent, Ewing (4 August, 2016:9))

The audience enjoyed the opera music at the Royal theater.

(ii) “This film is considered as one of the 100 best films of the 21st century, according to film critics.”

(The Independent, Hatoon (24 August 2016:10))

The film is considered one of the best films of the 21st century.

(iii) “All the elements of modern fashion are found in Victoria Beckham’s new collection.”

(The Guardian, Rex (31 September 2015)

The new collection by Victoria Beckham contains all the elements of modern fashion.

(iv) “We design seasonal collections of clothes so we can launch our new products in the market.”

(The Guardian, Booth (19 March, 2007))

We design seasonal collections of clothes to launch our new products in the market.

Having covered the relationship between lexical collocations and UK newspapers. The researcher will handle in the following section a numbers of difficulties that encountered EFL students in translating the English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic and appropriate strategies and techniques that help to overcome those difficulties.
2.26 Difficulties of Translating Lexical Collocations in UK Newspapers

Undoubtedly, translating lexical collocations in English newspapers is a difficult task not only for EFL students and even sometimes for the professional translator. Newmark, (1988:46) states that "difficulty in translation of collocations is due to two major reasons; first, there is only an arbitrary relation between components of a collocation and its meaning and second, at least one of these components has secondary meaning”. Moreover, Almanna, (2016:117) argues that “translating collocations possess difficulties for translation trainees and sometimes for professionals” because collocation is concerned with the linear relationship of words with other words with which they occur. Baker, (2011: 60-74) likewise refers to the arbitrary relation between elements of a collocation and the whole meaning of it. She believes the difficulties of translating collocations lie in the fact that the collocational patterning of source and target language are different. She summarizes the most common pitfalls that a translator may encounter when translating collocations into Arabic as: the engrossing effect of source text patterning, misinterpreting the meaning of a source-language collocation, the tension between accuracy and naturalness, culture-specific collocations, and marked collocations in the source text.

The following are the most important difficulties encountered by M.A students when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic with main focus on UK newspapers:

2.26.1 Equivalence Regarding Lexical Collocations

The concept of equivalence is undoubtedly one of the most difficult and controversial areas in the field of translation theory. Krejčí, (2008:14) states that the difficulty of equivalence is one of the most important issues in the field of translation. It is a question of finding suitable counterparts in target language for expressions in the source language. He adds that generally knowing the exact equivalence in translation is almost impossible for several reasons, the most important reason is that the English and Arabic languages are not from the same origin. The two languages have different lexical and grammatical systems, and there will always be a loss of meaning in translation. Moreover, Omer et al, (2009:75) state that "one of the difficulties of translating collocations is to find different possible equivalents of certain words or collocations”. He mentions that the ultimate goal after translation is eventually to settle a TL equivalent, but the task is not so simple. On the other hand, collocational restrictions are described by Baker, (2011:285) as ‘semantically arbitrary’ because they are represented in manner of their co-occurrence, and as explicitly seen in restricting certain verbs or adjectives to certain
nouns or certain adjectives. The following example illustrate the difficulties of equivalence, in rendering lexical collocations in English newspapers into Arabic:

(i) “Riot police in Zimbabwe fired teargas and used water cannon to disperse anti-government protesters.”

(The e-Guardian, Burke (26 August, 2016))

أستخدم بوليس مكافحة الشغب في زيمبابوي الغاز المسيل للدموع و عبوات المياه لتفريغ متظاهرين معارضة الحكومة.

The “Riot Police” in above example is rendered as ‘بوليس مكافحة الشغب’ and not ‘بوليس الشغب’, because the police are supposed to stop rioting, and not take part in, or encourage it.

(ii) “Humanitarian groups in London have called to release activists.”

(The Independent, Dearden (18 August 2016:1))

طالبت مجموعات إنسانية في لندن بإطلاق سراح المعارضين/النشطاء

The underlined expression in the above example should be transferred as ‘أطلق معارضين/ناشطين’ and not ‘أطلق ناشطين/معارضين’, because it will give different meaning.

(iii) “I remember saying goodbye to him and shaking hands.”

(The Daily Telegraph, Rowley, (4 June 2016:14))

ذكر اني قلت له وداعاً مصافحاً باليدز.

In the above example “shaking hands” is not rendered as ‘بهز الأيدي’ but the suitable equivalence into Arabic is ‘يصافح بالأيدي’.

(iv) “It is good to see so many doctors taking the Hippocratic Oath seriously!”

(The Guardian, Cambel, (29 June 2009))

من الجيد أن نرى الكثير من الأطباء يعملون بيمين أبوقراط بطريقة جادة

“Hippocratic oath” in the above example is rendered as ‘يمين يقسمه الأطباء في حفل التخرج.

According to the above examples collocations could pose a tremendous challenge in translation, particularly if the translator lacks the ability to identify and recognize the exact equivalent of the collocational patterns into another language and their unique meanings as different from the sum of meaning of individual words.
2.26.2 Generalization of Lexical Collocations

Generalization is one of the difficulties of translating lexical collocations into Arabic. Dweik and Shakra, (2010:10) define generalization as “failing to find the specific term for the intended lexical collocations”. In other words, some English words collocate with one and the same word, but are not necessarily so in Arabic. For instance, the word ‘fat’ (سمن/ددين) collocates in English and Arabic with ‘man/woman’ (رجل/امرأة). Nevertheless, in English the expressions “fat salary”/ “fat book” are used commonly, but in Arabic we say “كتاب ضخم/ سميك”، “راتب ضخم”، “راتب كتاب سميم”，not “راتب/كتاب سمين”. Another example, “Linda searches for soft skin”

(The e-Guardian, Hodal, (27 October 2013))

In English ‘soft water’ and ‘soft drinks’ cannot be translated as ‘مياه ناعمه’ and ‘مشروبات خفيفة’ , but they can be rendered as ‘ماء عذب’ and ‘مشروبات خفيفة’.

From the above example, generalization of lexical collocations is considered as a great difficulty, for trainees or sometimes for professional translators of newspapers, when reconstructing the optimal meaning by general words, because generalizing implies disregard for restrictions on word meaning, word usage, and can therefore be dangerously inadequate.

2.26.3 Variability of Lexical Collocations

Another difficulty of translating lexical collocations in UK newspapers is ‘variability’. Shakernia, (2013:64) states that variability means different collocations for the same meaning can exist in English, but they have one collocation and one single meaning in Arabic. In other words, variability of lexical collocations is collocations where several different words may collocate to denote one meaning, for example:

(i) “She will be hale and hearty.”

(The Independent, Gander (28May, 2014: 26))

ستكون بصحة و عافية.

(ii) “He needs to take a risk to increase his income.”

(The Daily Telegraph, Murra (24 January 2016:21))

يحتاج لأن يخاطر لزيادة دخله.

(iii) “Obama faces daunting task / hard of solving America's economic crisis.”

(The Guardian, Clark (5 November, 2008)

يواجه أوباما مهمة شاقة لحل المشكلات الأمريكية.
The instances presented above manifest that a language may express a particular meaning by a combination of more than one lexeme while another language expresses the same meaning in just one word.

2.26.4 Flexibility of Lexical Collocations

Flexibility of lexical collocations constitutes a difficulty for students and even sometimes for professional translators when translating them from UK newspapers into Arabic. Rabe, (2010:33-34) believes that “some lexical collocations are flexible”, in other words, they can be interrupted and separated in the middle by a word, particularly an adjective. The following are examples of lexical collocations in UK newspapers which have considerable properties of flexibility:

(a) Adjective+ Nouns collocations

(i) “World Health Organisation estimates that 10000 black market operations involving human organs take place each year.”

(The Guardian-e, Cambel, (22 July 2016))

قدرت منظمة الصحة العالمية سنوياً بأن حوالي عشرة الف عملية تجري في السوق السوداء (غير المشروعة) متمسكة تجارة الأعضاء.

The underlined expression “black market” means ‘black illegal market’ and rendered as ‘سوق سوداء غير مشروعة’.

(ii) “He posted a worded statement on Facebook.”

(The Daily Telegraph, Graham (5 March 2016:25))

نشر بيان شديد اللهجة على الفيس بوك.

“Worded statement” in the above example means ‘strongly worded statement’ and can be translated as ‘بيان شديد اللهجة’.

(b) Noun+ Noun (the of-genitive) collocations, for instance,

(i) “TEDX is an international conference of association of ideas between youth.

(The Guardian, Mulholland (15 January 2012))

مؤتمر تيدكس هو مؤتمر عالمي لدعاية البعض من الأفكار ما بين الشباب.

“Association of ideas” in the above example means ‘association of some ideas’ which is translated as ‘تداعي البعض من الأفكار’.

(c) Verb+Noun collocation

“I hear the bees buzz among the roses and honeysuckle.”

(The Independent, Desk (18 May 2016:24))

أسمع دوي النحل القوي خلال الورد و زهر العمل.
In the above example the expression ‘the bees buzz’ means ‘the bees strongly buzz’ and can be translated as ‘دوي النحل القوي’.

2.26.5 Cultural Differences

Cultural differences can be described as the variations in the way of life, beliefs, traditions and laws between different regions in a country, religions, societies and people. Many people see culture as an all-encompassing overview of large groups of people. Many linguists classify the difficulties of translating cultural expressions in UK newspapers into two main categories: cultural specificity and cultural gaps. The first one, cultural specificity refers to the phenomenon existing exclusively in one of the two cultures under translation. Nord, (2014:34) illustrates this idea by stating "translators interpret source-culture phenomena in the light of their own culture-specific knowledge of that culture, from either the inside or the outside. Depending on whether the translation is from or into the translator's native language and-culture. The cultural mismatch of lexical items is viewed by Larson, (1998: 95) as "different languages have different concentrations of vocabulary depending on the culture, geographical location, and the worldview of the people" Cultural-specificity in either English or Arabic plays a remarkable role in translating collocations. Cultural gaps on the other hand constitute a main difficulty that emanates from the cultural-specificity of either of the source or target languages. "Troubles of a different kind arise from gaps in languages", Levy, (1968: 16) confirms, "which cannot be filled by translating because for a word that may be quite familiar in one language there is no equivalent in another". Aixela (1996: 57) illustrates that CSls (culture-specific items) normally present a translation difficulty that "can only be explained by appealing to an intercultural gap". Shuttleworth and Cowie, (2014: 27) use the general term ‘cultural transposition’ for the main types and degrees of departure from the literal translation when transferring the contents of an ST from one culture into another. This includes: exoticism and calque, cultural borrowing, communicative translation and cultural transplantation. However, the following examples serve to spotlight the kinds of difficulties of cultural differences in UK newspapers:

(i) “Election 2015: David Cameron’s route to Number 10.”
(The e-Guardian, Helm (19 July 2016))

انتخابات 2015: ديفيد كاميرون في الطريق لرئاسة مكتب رئيس الوزراء البريطاني.

‘Number 10’ in the above example, culturally is rendered as ‘مكتب رئيس الوزراء البريطاني’ and not transferred literally as ‘الرقم 10’ because this literal TL equivalent would not be understood by TL Arab readers unless it is explained what it stands for.
"Philip Hammond is the new occupant of Number 11, Downing Street."

(The e-Guardian, Elliot (28 August 2016))

Philip Hammond is the new occupant of Number 11, Downing Street.

In the above example the two underlined expression mean: “Number 11”: stands for the home of the Chancellor of Exchequer, 'بيت وزير المالية البريطاني' and ‘Dowing Street’: literally rendered as 'داويينغ ستريت'. This TL equivalent is not acceptable since it does not transfer the semantic message of SI lexical collocation to TL readers. It is in fact, culture specific, and it denotes "الجهة السياسية المسئولة في الحكومة البريطانية."" 2.26.6 Lexical Collocations and Idiomatic Expressions

Idiomatic Expressions are commonly used in UK newspapers. Yong and Peng, (2007:270) define an idiom as “an expression which functions as a single unit and whose meaning cannot be worked out from its separate parts.” While Cambridge Advanced learner Dictionary Online define the word 'idiom' as “a group of words in a fixed order that have a particular meaning that is different from the meanings of each word on its own” for example, “it cost a leg and an arm” this idiom means 'very expensive'. They add that the features of idioms are equally applicable to collocations because each of them falls under the umbrella of word combinations. Moreover, some collocations have become established idioms. According to Larson, (1984:142), “Idioms are special collocations, or fixed combinations of words which have a meaning as a whole, but the meaning of combination is not the same as the meaning of the individual words” In such fixed collocations, it is sometimes difficult to identify the meaning of the parts of the idiomatic expression. Mustonen, (2010:34) states that “one of the characteristics of idiomatic expressions is collectability”. Collocability refers to the tendency of words to co-occur”. He points out that collocability very often gives rise to idiomatic expressions, but obviously not all of these expressions become idioms. In other words, the co-occurrence of words is a feature which is present in both collocations and idioms, but in an idiom this co-occurrence of words results in "a special semantic relationship", which separates them from collocations.

Translating idioms from English to Arabic is not an easy task. A translator will likely face some interferences because of the non-literal meaning, the grouping of words, and the lack of cultural knowledge of the target language. Therefore, it is challenging to translate them. Thus, it poses a hard challenge and difficulty for translators, Baker, (2011:71-72) summarizes the main difficulties that a translator encounters in translating idiomatic expressions as stated below:

1- An idiomatic expression may have no equivalent in the target language. The way a
language chooses to express, or not express, various meanings cannot be predicted and only occasionally matches the way another language chooses to express the same meanings. One language may express a given meaning by an idiom, or by means of a single word. Idioms may be culture specific such as "yours faithfully" and "yours sincerely" in English. These terms have no equivalents in Arabic. The expression "watafadalu biqul fa'iq alihtiraam" may be used instead, but it has no direct relationship to yours sincerely or yours faithfully.

2- An idiomatic expression may have a similar counterpart in the target language, but its context of use may be different; the two expressions may have different connotations. For example To go to the dogs (‘to lose one’s good qualities’) has a similar counterpart in German, but whereas the English idiom can be used in connection with a person or a place, its German counterpart can only be used in connection with a person and often means to die or perish. Though similar in meaning, the contexts in which the two idioms can be used are obviously different.

3- An idiom may be used in the source text in both its literal and idiomatic senses at the same time. Unless the target-language idiom corresponds to the source-language idiom both in form and in meaning, the play on idiom cannot be successfully reproduced in the target text.

4- The very convention of using idioms in written discourse, the contexts in which they can be used, and their frequency of use may be different in the source and target languages.

According to www.english-for-students.com idiomatic expressions are far widely used in newspapers to present the points crisply. They drive the ideas of the author in a better way and with few words. Thus, to indicate this point the following are some examples of idiomatic expressions in UK newspapers:

(i) “In India, the gap between the haves and have-nots is much bigger.”
   (The e-Guardian, Boseley, (20 July 2011 ))
   الفجوة كبيرة ما بين الفقراء والأغنياء في الهند.

(ii) “Many Americans thought that Hillary Clinton would be the democratic nominee for the president, but a dark horse, Barak Obama was instead.”
   (The The-e Guardian, GMcCarthy, 18 May 2015))
   اعتقى الكثير من الأمريكيين أن هيليري كلينتون ستكون مرشح الحزب الديمقراطي لمنصب الرئيس ولكن أوباما هو من أصبح مرشحا لهم.
2.26.7 SL loan and Lexical Collocations

Loan of lexical constitute a difficulty when translating collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic. Ibrahim, (2010:200) asserts that “connotatively, the three terms of borrowing, loan collocate and calque, express one and the same idea: a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language”. He asserts that English has borrowed, and is still borrowing, from most languages of the world. The following examples illustrate the difficulty of lexical loan words in UK newspapers when transferring lexical collocations into Arabic:

(i) “There had been **ad hoc committees** to investigate scandal or policy failure for centuries.”

* (The e-Guardian, White (11 August 2016))

**ل金陵 خاصة لبحث الفضحة أو إخفاق السياسات لعدة قرون.**

In the above example the underlined expression “Ad hoc committee” is rendered as:

**ل金陵 خاصة (منشأة لغرض معين)**. The SL collocates ‘ad hoc’ is originally Latin, and it means done or arranged for specific purposes without necessarily prior planning. It is rendered into Arabic via contraction, that is, the SL collocation consists of three collocates whereas its equivalent is condensed into only two.

(ii) “We are talking, **inter alia**, about Christmases.”

* (The Guardian-e, O'Sullivan (12 December ,2010)

من بين الأشياء التي نتكلم عنها في أعياد الكريسميس.**

“*Inter alia*” in the above example is rendered as: **من بين الأشياء، غيض من فيض.** This SL collocation is an adverb, originally Latin, and means among other things. It is rendered into Arabic via expansion.

(iii) “She **delivered on her coup de grace**.”

* (The Independent, Peck (15 June 2016:21))

**رصاصة الرحمة.**

The above example “Coup de grace” is rendered as: **رصاصة تصوب عادةً “رصاصة الرحمة” إلى رأس المحكوم عليه بالإعدام" للتأكد من أنه فارق الموت”.**

(iv) “**Deo Gratias**, Lule was born in East Africa and educated in Edinburgh.”

* (The Independent, Jackson (20 March 1993))

**شكرًا لله بأن لي ولدت في شرق أفريقيا وتعلمت في أديبيرة.**

“Deo gratias” in the above example means: **شكرًا لله.** This SL collocation is originally Latin, and means ‘thanks be to God’. A corresponding Arabic equivalent is given to it,
whereas the Latin ‘Deo volente’ is rendered as إن شاء الله, in other words, an equivalent by expansion.

### 2.26.8 Lexical Collocational Cohesion

Lexical Collocational Cohesion focuses on the contribution of collocation to textual cohesion, produced when one element of text is dependent upon another. Ibrahim, (2010:181-185) says that another difficult issue of the translation of English newspapers into Arabic is the lexical collocational cohesion and that can be through answering the following questions: will the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur in one language be exactly the same through the process of rendition? Also are TL equivalents collocationally cohesive, in the sense that there may be some changes on the formal level, or syntactic wording? To seek answers to these questions the following examples are mentioned to clarify this point:

(i) “Switzerland’s strength at World Cup comes from team spirit”

*(The e-Guardian, 4 April 2016)*

تأتي قوة فريق سويسرا في كأس العالم من روح العمل الجماعي.

“Team spirit” in the above example means: روح الفريق. This TL equivalent is inaccurate because of the arbitrary denotation of the TL collocate الفريق, which might indicate lieutenant general, i.e. a high military rank. This is completely different from the intended meaning of the SL collocation. What is meant by team is الفريق العمل الجماعي or فريق العمل الجماعي, which might indicate lieutenant general, in other words a high military rank. This is completely different from the intended meaning of the SL collocation. What is meant by team is روح فريق العمل الجماعي, which disambiguates the arbitrary rendition of team.

(ii) “USA made some Productivity bargaining with Syria”

*(The Independent, 5 September 2016)*

عقدت الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية البعض من مفاوضات تحسين الإنتاج مع سوريا.

In the above example “Productivity bargaining” is transferred as مفاوضات تحسين الإنتاج. To translate the node bargaining as مفاوضات is rather odd, because this TL equivalent is recurrently used in the political context, whereas other TL equivalents such as الاتفاق بشأن تحسين الإنتاج is more applicable in this economic and commercial context. However, its equivalent would be الاتفاق بشأن تحسين الإنتاج.

### 2.27 Techniques and Strategies of Translating Lexical Collocations in UK Newspapers into Arabic.
Strategies and techniques are very essential for translators in order to render the meaning from source language into target language. Alvstad et al, (2011:326) define strategy of translations as “a potential conscious procedure for solving a problem faced in translating a text, or any segment of it”. Thus, there is no doubt that the translation strategies or techniques opted for by the translator affect the meaning of the T.T (Target Text). It plays a vital role in delivering a complete and effective meaning in a way that maintains the translation of lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic. Translators play a major role in shaping the target text. The decisions they make as to which approach to adopt and which strategy or technique to opt for contribute largely to the final product of the translation. Indeed, translators should be more careful and aware when translating lexical collocations in UK newspapers, because ignoring them would lead to misunderstandings and the target text would lose a part of its meaning. For this purpose, the following are helpful techniques and strategies when dealing with English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic:

2.27.1 Substitutability

Substitutability is one of the suggested strategies to render the meaning of the English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic. Ibrahim, (2003:105-105) states that this strategy is one of the distinguishable translation strategies concentrating on transferring the semantic message of SL lexical collocations into TL through different methods of replacement. The translator has several choices through the rendition of lexical collocations in English newspapers into Arabic. The following are some examples which illustrate the strategy of substitution in translating lexical collocations in UK English newspapers into Arabic:

(i) “The European single market will disintegrate after Uk Brext.” “European single market”. (The e-Guardian, Gow (10 February 2009))

In the above example, the expression ‘The European single market’ is rendered as السوق الأروبية المشتركة بعد خروج بريطانيا من الاتحاد الأوروبي.

The SL collocates ‘single’ which means منفرد orوحيد has been extended and substituted in the TL equivalent to meanالمتحدة orالمشتركة. This is because in European Union the countries are in some ways like one big country. Companies, goods, and people can travel without being stopped at borders. So one can travel to other countries more easily. Thus, through ‘single’ means منفرد orوحيد in the stretches sense, it refers to wider issues of unity, strength, freedom of exchange, and to financial, economic and
commercial co-operation. However, the SL collocate single may be replaced by the collocate common which means مشترك as in European common market.

(ii) “He had been under house arrest since April for suspected links to Isis.”

(The Independent, Sims (11 September 2016:12))

كان تحت الإقامة الجبرية للإشتباه في أنه يتبع تنظيم الحركة الإسلامية (داعش).

“House arrest” in the above example means: الإقامة الجبرية. The TL equivalent has advocated rather a restricted sense of the SL collocate house المنزل which usually refers to stability, rest, comfort within the familial atmosphere. When it intercollocates with arrest, it carries the meaning of cage, jail, prison and bars, because one is forced to stay inside the house without the freedom to move or behave as formerly.

(iii) “Barak Obama will pay a visit to his father’s birthplace for first time in Kenya.”

(The e-Guardian, McCarthy (30 March 2015))

سيقوم باراك أوباما لأول مرة بزيارة مسقط رأس أبيه في كينيا.

In the above example, “Birth place” is rendered as: مسقط الرأس. The SL collocate place denotes a location which stands for مكان ، بلدة and so on, and from this interpretation comes the TL equivalent مسقط الرأس , which refers to location where one was born. Birth has been replaced by الرأس , which signifies the homeland الوطن. Henceforth, the resulting interdependence among TL equivalents breeds the collocation مسقط الرأس which means 'the place wherein one is given birth to.

2.27.2 Expansion

Expansion strategy is one of the popular strategy in transferring the meaning of lexical collocations in newspapers into the target language. Panou, (2014:100) states that “expansion is claimed to be an essential and effective strategy in press translation”, the translator adds components to TT explicitly by elaborating on the meaning of the SL. He adds that the implication of expansion strategy is to expand only one SL collocate, so that the semantic message becomes clear for TL recipients. The following are some examples of applying the expansion strategy in translating lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic:

(i) “He attempted to beat the record in playing piano.”

(The Daily Telegraph, Davies (2 February 2016:8))

حاول حطم الرقم القياسي في العزف على البيانو.
“Beat the record” in the above example means حطم الرقم القياسي. The literal translation of the SL collocation as حطم السجل would not deliver the accurate meaning to the TL reader, because this literal rendition means to destroy the file which may consist of paper documents, and so on. The translator must expand the SL collocate the record to الرقم القياسي, which literally means the standard number, because the reference here is to an unprecedented performance.

(i) “He was described yesterday as a "desperately ill man" by his doctor.”

(The e-Guardian, Culf (22 November 2005))

وصفه طبيبة بالأمس بأنه مريض ميؤوس من شفائه.

In the above example, ‘Desperately ill’ is rendered as: مريض مشرف على الموت/مريض ميؤوس من شفائه Had desperately been rendered into Arabic as محبط or يائس the TL meaning would be totally different, because it would mean disappointed or upset. In contrast, the IL equivalent مشرف على الموت and ميؤوس من شفائه imply that the person's illness is incurable and he will die sooner or later. However, to be disappointed or upset is very different from the state of being incurable: in the first case, there is hope of getting better, whereas in the second, there is no hope of recovering and getting back to normal and this will result in death.

(ii) “He meets her during a night shift in a museum.”

(The Independent, Zatat, 1 September 2016 :14))

قابلها في متحف أثناء نوبة عمل ليلي.

‘Night shift’ in the above example means: نوبة عمل ليلي. It is important to include the collocate عمل in the TL equivalent. Otherwise there would be misinterpretation of the SL collocation, as نوبة may erroneously indicate an illness or disease that attacks the patient at night time, such as heart attack، or nervous shock، psychological disturbance ازعاج نفسي and so on which are genuinely different from the intended meaning of the SL collocation: working at night.

2.27.3 Contraction

Contraction strategy is used by professional translator to delete some item/s of the English lexical collocations in the process of translation into Arabic. Abu Dweik and Shakra, (2010:18) indicate that this strategy is against the strategy of expansion, which involves procedures of omitting or deleting of lexical collocations from SL into target
language. The following examples illustrate how the strategy of contraction can be used in translating lexical collocations in newspapers into Arabic:

(i) “Qatar has invited all 13 members of the Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries for a general meeting in Doha.”

(The e-Guardian, Jamali (23 March 2016))

دعت قطر لاجتماع عام الثلاثة عشر عضوًا بمنظمة الأوبك في الدوحة.

In the above example, the underlined expression ‘Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries’ is rendered as: منظمة الأوبك. This SL collocation is abbreviated in English as ‘OPEC’, and is spelled and pronounced as one word. In Arabic, this collocation is also abbreviated as أوبك, and is known to almost all Arab readers, literally standing for منظمة البلدان المصدرة للنفط. Therefore, collocations like OPEC meetings, OPEC decisions, OPEC representatives, etc. would be rendered into Arabic as اجتماعات الأوبك، قرارات الأوبك، ممثلو الأوبك: respectively. There is no need to mention what each abbreviated letter stands for, because of the TL readers' acquaintance with it.

(ii) “Saudi Arabia intensifies war of words with Iran.”

(The Independent, Dearden (15 September 2016 :9))

المملكة العربية السعودية تزيد من وقفة الحرب الكلامية مع إيران.

‘War of words’ in the above example means حرب الكلام. The SL collocation is rendered into Arabic as a contracted equivalent حرب الكلام by omitting the particle of من. The SL collocate war does not signify the use of weapons and ammunitions in the denotative and referential sense of the word. Rather, it is an indication of heated argument/squabble controversy: المشاجرة الكلامية، المشاحنة الكلامية، المشادة الكلامية.

(iii) “I think we have achieved a phenomenal amount.”

(The Guardian, Carrington ( 19 July 2016 )

أعتقد بأننا حققنا مبلغًا خرافياً. ”

The SL collocation literally means مبلغًا كبيرًا لا يصدق. It has been rendered into Arabic as a contracted equivalent مبلغًا خرافياً, which literally means superstitious/legendary amount. The TL contracted equivalent مبلغًا خرافياً. In other words, superstitious/legendary amount, is something that relates to magic and abnormal situations, and it carries the essence of the semantic message of the SL collocates phenomenal which means كبير بشكل لا يصدق that is probably why the translator has found it effective to replace it by the contracted TL equivalent. Other possibilities of rendering the SL collocation into Arabic
are: in other words, literally an amount not to be undervalued, مبلغ لا يستهان به، in other words, literally an amount beyond imagination, مبلغ غير مألوف، in other words, and an unusual amount مبلغًا باهظًا.

2.27.4 Transposability

This strategy has the feature of approximation in transferring the meaning of the lexical collocations into the target language. Van and Motta, (2012:230) state that this strategy is another translation strategy that touches upon the placement of collocates in particular orderings, something that triggers argument about the significance of proximity in transferring lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic. The following are some examples which illustrate the idea of transposability strategy in translating English lexical collocations in English newspapers into Arabic:

(i) “Life expectancy in Syria fell by six years at start of civil war.”

(The Guardian, Siddique (24 August 2016))

In the above example ‘life expectancy’ is transferred as الحياة متوقعة. The rendition of this collocation as الحياة متوقعة, but it is not accurate, simply speaking, because its back translation would be expected life which is not the same as life expectancy. However, it can be translated as تحميم العمر/الأعمار/الحياة الفردية. This means that the translator should be careful in allocating a TL equivalent, because he has the choice of reordering collocates in a way that makes their arranged proximity meaningful.

(ii) “The UN security council asked an international law commission to draft a plan for solving global problems.”

(The e-Guardian, MacAskill (22 August 2000))

In the above example, the underlined expression “International law commission” is rendered as لجنة القانون الدولي. If we change the order of collocates in TL equivalents as in لجنة القانون الدولي للقانون، the meaning would be different, because this might indicate that there is an international committee which is interested in the national law of one country. Therefore, to preserve the semantic message of the original, we should keep the order of the SL collocate as end-mid-front in the TL equivalent. The same can be argued of military staff committee هيئة الأركان العسكرية which would result in a different meaning if the TL equivalent changes the
positions of its collocates to, for example الهيئة العسكرية للأركان. This is so because the latter equivalent means there is more than one staff committee, and one of them is the military.

(iii) “What are the Seven Wonders of the World?”

ما عجائب الدنيا السبع؟

(The e-Guardian, Jones (5 July 2007))

“Seven Wonders of the World”: عجائب الدنيا السبع. This TL equivalent runs from mid to front to end positions of the collocates. It can be translated as العجائب السبع في الدنيا, which is acceptable, but not as preferable as the former. However, a difference can be noted between the two equivalents depending on which collocate we want to stress first: is it the fact that the wonders are seven, or the fact of their being worldly?

2.27.5 Predictability

Predictability strategy is a strategy of anticipation the meaning into the target text. Susko, (2014:131) mentions that in this strategy, the translators can often anticipate which TL collocates go with which depending on the power of attraction among lexical items. In transferring the lexical collocation patterns such as : (verb plus object and adjective plus noun) into Arabic, the translator has the choice of proposing other substitutable TL equivalents depending on the principle of predictability of collocates. And this will be explained in the following examples:

(i) “Hillary Clinton has not accepted the invitation from the Mexican president.”

(The Independent, Usborne (31 August 2016:4))

لم تقبل هيلاري كلينتون الدعوة من الرئيس المكسيكي.

“Accepted an invitation” in the above example is rendered as تقبل الدعوة. If we scrutinise this TL equivalent, we find out that الدعوة, in other words, invitation, attracts many verbs such as استجاب،لبى،قبل and so on. At the same time, when these verbs occur over a stretch of language, the collocate الدعوة is simultaneously predicted and thought of Henceforward, the three verbs are substitutable, so that the translator can pick up any of them as an equivalent that predicts, or is predicted by, the noun الدعوة invitation.

(ii) “45 per cent of prisoners in UK commit crimes within a year of being released.”

(The Daily Telegraph, Smith (8 February 2016:2))

يرتكب 45% من السجناء في بريطانيا جرائم في نفس السنة التي تم فيها إطلاق سراحهم.

“Commit crimes” in the above example is transferred as: يرتكب جرائم. The verb commit implies, in this context, doing something wrong or illegal, and a crime carries a similar interpretation. Therefore, noun-collocates such as: عملًا شنيعاً، خطأًا، جريمة and so on which
in one way or another carry the meaning of wrong doing, are likely to co-occur with commit, in other words، أُرتكب، أقترف and vice versa.

(iii) “The Accidental Death of a Cyclist was miserable.”

(The e-Guardian, Kermode (18 May 2014))

الموت الفجائي لسائق الدراجة كان شنيعاً.

The underlined expression “accidental death” in the above example is transferred as: الموت الفجائي، موت زعاف. There are many predictable items that substitute for accidental and attract the collocate death, such as الموت، الموت قضاءً، بحادث وقراً and so on. However الموت بحادث may, if it were allocated as a TL equivalent, necessitate some kinds of extended information as to what kind of incident, to which other predictable collocates may be given such as: الموت حرقاً، إثر تحطم طائرة، إنتحاراً، غرقاً، خطفاً، طعنًا بالسكين، ...الخ., which all demonstrate the actual reason of ‘accidental death’, as differentiated from the intended or planned death القتل المتعمد.

2.27.6 Idiomatic Expressions and Solutions

The major challenge for translators is to recognize the idiomatic expression as well as its meaning before start to search for rendition. W.W.W wpredi.com summaries three strategies of translating English idiomatic expressions in newspapers into Arabic.

2.27.6.1 Total Equivalence (Form + Meaning)

This strategy is used in order to find the corresponding meaning of the idiom into Arabic. According to Baker, (2011:72) this strategy of finding an idiom of similar meaning and similar form in the target language may seem to offer the ideal solution, but that is not necessarily always the case". The following examples illustrate total equivalence in translating English idiomatic expressions into Arabic:

(i) “According to USA election Donald Trump is not the man of hour.”

(The e-Guardian, Jacobs (19 September 2016))

وفقًا للانتخابات الأمريكية دونالد ترامب ليس برجل الساعة.

(ii) “They received the lion’s share of US aid.”

(The e-Guardian, Provast, C. and Dzimwasha (13 January 2014)

تلقوا حصة الأسد من المساعدات الأمريكية.

(iii) “it is considered as stumbling block for many refugees.”

(The Independent, Charlotte (20 August 2016:12))
2.27.6.2 Partial Equivalence (Similarity in meaning not in form)

Shojaei, (2012:1226) states that this strategy involves translating an ST idiomatic expression into its equivalent TT idiom which conveys the same meaning, but has a different form. It is often possible to find an idiom in the TL which has a meaning similar to that of the SL idiom, but which consists of different lexical items. The following are some examples:

(i) “it's a dead loss.”

(The Guardian, Monibot (18 October 2016))

( إنها صرخة في واد)

(ii) “It is the bottom line between service and income.”

(The Guardian, Barrett (23 March 2016).)

( أنه بيت القصيد ما بين الخدمة والدخل)

2.27.6.3 Paraphrasing

This strategy, as the name indicates, involves giving a brief explanation of the meaning behind the idiomatic expression being used in the ST. Ng and Ngai, (2015:179) assert that is usually done when the translator is faced with idiomatic expressions in the SL which have no corresponding idiomatic expressions in the TL, or, more often, when he/she fails to find an idiomatic expression in the TL that matches the one used in the SL. Paraphrasing may be considered as the most common way of translating idioms when a match cannot be found in the TL or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the TT because of differences in stylistic preferences of the SL and the TL. It might be suggested, however, that the translator is advised to apply this strategy only when he is left with no option but to paraphrase. The following are some examples of paraphrasing:

(i) “If they have no backbone, then they're not real friends.”

(The e-Guardian, Barbieri (31 August 2016))

(إن كانوا ضعيفي الإرادة/الشخصية فلن يكونوا أصدقاء حقيقيين)

(ii) “It looks a hard nut to crack.”

(The Guardian, Wiggins (4 April 2016))

( يبدو أنها مسألة مستعصية/ قضية شائكة)

2.28 Previous Studies
A number of sources have been consulted by the researcher concerning the subject of translating lexical collocations in English newspapers into Arabic at the general Sudanese Libraries, University of Khartoum, University of Sudan, and University of Gezira. However, no previous studies were found on “Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Translating Lexical Journalistic Collocations into Arabic with Main Focus on UK Newspapers” which investigates difficulties of translating English lexical collocations in Newspapers as an academic subject has been found. Nevertheless, the following studies are to some extent related to this study:

The first study is a PhD thesis conducted by Al-Soroji, (2012) Faculty of Education, Department of English, University of Gezira, entitled “Impact of Machine Translation on Learners and Teachers. A Comparative Study with Special Focus on Press Translation”. Among the main objectives of the study is to see whether translation/trainees are aware of the principles of editing and translating good news and journalistic items from English into Arabic and vice versa. The study finds out that a considerable number of translation learners as well as professionals are not aware of the basics of journalistic translation, the news and its components. Thus, the study recommends improving the standard of translation students that can be through making extra exercises of translation (rather than given in the class). It also recommends that those who are interested to be journalistic translators, should get aware of the features, rules and characteristics of editing journalistic items, as beyond doubt, journalism plays a great role in our daily life.

Another study which carried out is an M.A dissertation by Al-Sayied, (2007) Faculty of Education, Department of English, University of Gezira, Sudan entitled “English Collocations as a Problematic Area for the Students at Secondary Level”. The main objective of the study was to measure the student’s ability in producing English collocations formed according to the most common patterns. The study finds out that learning English collocations is important, however, most of the students cannot produce these collocations using the most common patterns. It also finds that most of the student’s collocational errors are due to the overgeneralization of the use of words. These errors can be reduced by noticing English collocations: most of the students do not notice the collocations. Thus, the study recommends that teachers should familiarize the students with the importance of noticing collocations and their Arabic equivalent. Furthermore, it recommends that students should have notebooks specifically for recording collocations.

An M.A dissertation was also carried out by Mansouri, (2007) Garmsar Branch- Tehran, College of translation, Islamic Azad University entitled “Learning How to Translate Foreign News
Discovering Strategies in Translation of Press Texts. The main objective was to find out the strategies that were used by the translator team when translating foreign news in translation classes. Findings of the study can be summarized as follows: in the process of translating foreign newspapers, students are unable to omit word or words and add some explanations or choosing the words that stimulate the readers' feelings or reactions. It also found that the students have low performance in choosing the appropriate strategy when translating English foreign newspapers into Persian. The main recommendations of this study, the instructors who teach journalism or other related fields can use this study to clarify differences between English and Persian news structures. Moreover, the instructors of translation can also use this study for their works, like to explain translation theories, or to suggest which translation strategy should be used for each kind of text. Moreover, the study is guideline to solve problems that occurred when translating because the strategies mentioned in this study are applicable to other similar cases. And may also be helpful for translators of any kind of text.

Another study concerned with the field of translation is an M.A dissertation conducted by Mustafa, (2010), Al-Mustansiriya University, Baghdad, Department of English. entitled “Collocations in English and Arabic: A Linguistic and Cultural Analysis”. There are main objectives among which is to characterize the collocational patterns in English and Arabic and to study the process of translating collocation on two levels: the linguistic level and the cultural one. The linguistic level limits itself to the translation of English collocations into Arabic. The cultural level, on the other hand, highlights the relation between culture and collocation reflected in translation. Findings of the study can be summarized as follows: Although collocation is a universal phenomenon, its features, structure, patterns and meanings differ from one language to another. Furthermore, because of the discrepancies between the characteristics of collocation among languages, some SL collocational sets do not have equivalent translation sets in the TL. Therefore; they become problematic and difficult for the translator to translate. The study recommends that translators should choose the proper equivalent in the target language when translating collocations into Arabic. It also recommends that translators should use the appropriate strategy or technique in translating collocations into Arabic.

In addition to the above studies, a PhD thesis is submitted by Othman, (2012) University of Aden College of Education / Saber entitled “Abstract Impact of the Lexical Problems upon Translating of the Economic Terminology”. Among the main objectives of the study was to find out the problem of translating the lexical items in the economic field with consideration of the role of economic culture in the source and target language. It also aims to identify the reasons
of this problem to reach the stage of proposing remedies in form of recommendations. The main findings of this study show that: good knowledge in source language and the economic culture are the most important factors in translation of the economic terminology. It also indicates that many strategies can be used while dealing with the economic terms as well as the terms which have no equivalence in Arabic language. Among the main recommendations of this study: the translator should enhance his/her ability and his cultural scopes in dealing with the economic terms through many ways as reading the topics in this field, getting involved in training programs or courses and so forth. Moreover, the translator should be familiarized with source and target language economic terms to be able to recognize the concept, which does not have equivalence in the target language to be able to deal with it appropriately.

In addition, an M.A dissertation was conducted by EL Mashharawi, (2008) The Islamic University Deanery of Higher Education, Faculty of Education, Department of Curricula and Methodology, which is entitled “Collocation Errors Made by English and Journalism Majors at the Islamic University of Gaza”. The main objective of this study was to identify classify and analyze collocation errors make by English and journalism majors at the IUG. Among the main findings: The English language and journalism majors at the IUG made different types of collocation errors which manifest their lower and deficient competence in using collocations within English language and in dealing with such collocations across Arabic and English language. Such weak linguistic performance is attributed for various reasons. Moreover, dealing with collocations across Arabic and English language is a problematic spot and an error-generating area for both majors rather than using collocations within English. Based on the findings provided by the current study, the main recommendations are: both the English teachers and the students bear a part of responsibility of the incompetent collocational knowledge and usage. Furthermore, the teachers should prepare and design materials of handouts, worksheets, and transparencies from various authentic resources like radio interviews, extracts from magazines, journals articles, TV programs, newspapers clips, advertisements, reports and others. These materials should be related to the students' interests and needs.

Finally, a PhD thesis was conducted by SajidJuma'a, (2014) Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Department of English Language and Literature, Middle East University, Amman entitled Translating Idiomatic Expressions from English into Arabic. The main objective of the study was to outline the major challenges that M.A students encounter in translating idioms. As well as to find out the factors that cause such challenges. The main findings are: resorting to literal translation in some cases while translating idiomatic expressions, which is not a successful
technique for most of theorists. Moreover, lack of general and cultural knowledge in the source language and the target language may affect the translation of idiomatic expressions. Thus, the study recommends that translators should know the differences between the two languages and cultures (English and Arabic) that enable them to become familiar with idiomatic expressions. Furthermore, translators who wish to be professional should be competent in both source and target cultures.

The similarities and the differences between the above mentioned studies and the current study can be summarized as follows: both the first study and the present study focus on the difficulties of translating journalistic register into Arabic, in particular press. The difference between them, is that the first concentrates on the impact of machine translation on learners, while present study focuses on difficulties of translating lexical collocations into Arabic mainly on UK newspapers. The similarity between the second study and the present study is that both of them handle the topic of collocations. On the other hand, they are different in the area of handling the topic, the first one focuses on learning collocations and how to use the different patterns of collocations in writing, whereas the present one focuses on difficulties of translating lexical collocations into Arabic, particularly UK newspapers. The third study is mainly clear similar to the present study in the areas of difficulties and the appropriate strategies of translating foreign newspapers in general. But the present study focuses on the difficulties of translating lexical collocations into Arabic, newspapers in particular. The fourth study is similar to the present study in area of studying collocations with both levels: linguistic and cultural level, and comparing collocations in English and Arabic. But the present study mainly tackles the difficulties of translating lexical collocations into Arabic. The fifth study is very similar to the present study in the area of investigating lexical collocations into Arabic, but the first one economic specialization and the other on journalistic specialization. The final study is similar to the present study, because it deals with English collocations and errors of translating journalistic texts into Arabic. But the present study focuses mainly on translating lexical collocations into Arabic, particularly UK newspapers.

Most of the previous studies focus on English collocations as general phenomena in linguistics and teaching. But the current study is different from them, because it adds new area of investigation. The area of the difficulties that encountered translators/EFL students in translating English lexical collocations into Arabic with main focus on UK newspapers. Moreover, it adds a number of techniques and strategies that should be used when translating
the English lexical into Arabic. Furthermore, it adds a general idea about the concept of journalism, features and language style of newspapers, and journalism versus translation.

The following chapter discusses the methodology of the study.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is allotted to the procedures which were used to conduct this study. It includes the description of the population and sample of the study, the tools of data collection and the procedures for collecting and analysing data.

3.1 Study Design

The researcher adopted the descriptive analytical method to carry out the study. The cross sectional design was used (selecting a representation sample from the study population).

3.2 Sampling

The population of this study were represented by EFL students (under MA degree) from the two Faculties of Education (Hantoub and Al-Hasahisa), Departments of English Language, University of Gezira. The total number was (50) students, (23) of them from the Faculty of Education-Hantoub, Batch (19) and (27) students from the Faculty of Education, Al-Hasahisa, Batch (12). The subjects had just finished studying two courses of translation as part of the university syllabus. They were, therefore, expected to be able to comprehend and translate the sentences of the test. While the second group of the subjects were from Faculty of Education Hantoub, Al-Hasahisa, Translation and Languages Center- University of Gezira, University of Holy Quran Quran (Translation Unit, Wad-Medani) and professional translators working in Sudan National Assembly and ‘SUNA’. The teachers and the translators are chosen randomly according to their high experience in the domain of translation.

3.3 Tools of Data Collection

Two tools for data collection were used: a test for EFL students and a questionnaire for lectures and translators.

3.3.1 Content of the Test

The diagnostic test consisted of (30) English sentences from different UK newspapers (Appendix 1). The first part was composed of sentences which were intended to find out the difficulties that encountered by M.A students when translating lexical collocations used in UK newspapers into Arabic: equivalence, variability, flexibility, idiomatic expressions, and culture differences. Whereas, the second part consisted of sentences of different types of lexical collocations from
different sections in UK newspapers, world news in particular. They were designed to elicit the most difficult type of lexical collocations for the students in translating UK newspapers into Arabic.

3.3.2 Validity of the Test

Face validity was checked by presenting the test to four associate professors in English at Faculties of Education-(Hantoub and Al-Hasahisa), Department of English, University of Gezira. All the associative professors give their agreed that the test was valid.

3.3.3 Reliability of the Test

To measure the reliability of the diagnostic test, the test was divided into odd and even numbers so as to get two scores for each student. A co-efficient was calculated for the test using Spearman Rank-Difference Method to measure the tests’ reliability as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>(X-Y)=d</th>
<th>d²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-6</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \Sigma d^2 = 85 \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>( n^2 )</th>
<th>( n^2 - 1 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ n= \text{Number of the students.} \]
\[ d = \text{Difference between Ranks.} \]
\[ d^2 = \text{difference squared.} \]
\[ R = \text{Reliability.} \]

\[ R = 1 - \frac{6 \left( \Sigma d^2 \right)}{n(n^2 - 1)} = 1 - \frac{6(85)}{15(224)} = 1 - \frac{510}{3360} = 0.848 \]

The degree of reliability obtained for the test was (0.85), which indicates considerable reliability.

3.3.4 Administration of Diagnostic Test
The researcher was helped by two lecturers – one from the Faculty of Education-Hantoub and the other from Al-Hasahisa, Department of English - in administering the test to (50) M.A students at the two Faculties of Education (Hantoub, and Al-Hasahisa), Department of English, University of Gezira. The test lasted two hours. The students were also assured that the results would only be used to serve the purposes of the study.

3.4 Content of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was made up of (13) items with four options for each (Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree). The first was to find out whether M.A students encounter difficulties in translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. While the second question was directed to check whether VERB+NOUN was the most difficult type of lexical collocation for M.A students. Whereas, the third question was constructed to investigate why students failed to find out the specific term for the intended lexical collocations. The fourth question was set to discover if lack of flexibility was one of the difficulties that encounter M.A students when transferring English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic. Whereas, the fifth question aimed to investigate whether idiomatic expressions were one of the difficulties for M.A students when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. The sixth question was designed to check if cultural differences were a major difficulty in the process of translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. While the seventh question was set to discover if lack of the exact equivalence was one of the difficulties in translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. The eighth question was designed to check if variability of lexical collocations was the main difficulty when translating them into Arabic. Whereas, both questions nine and ten were designed to see whether substitutability and expansion were the most important strategies of translating lexical collocations into Arabic.

Added to the above mentioned questions, three open ended questions, based on EFL teachers/translators experience were formed to elicit their opinions. The first question was designed to investigate what the other types were of lexical collocations that constitute difficulty for M.A students when translating them into Arabic. While the second question aimed at discovering what the other difficulties were of the translation of English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic. Whereas the third question was designed to elicit different suggested strategies for improving EFL students’ performance in translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic.
3.4.1 Validity of the Questionnaire

Face validity was achieved by presenting the questionnaire to four associate professors at the Department of English, Faculties of Education – (Hantoub and Al- Hasahisa), University of Gezira. Their modifications were taken into consideration.

3.4.2 Reliability of the Questionnaire

The reliability of this questionnaire cannot be statistically tested because the statistical programs used for testing the reliability of the questionnaires cannot be applied when the number of the (10) respondents was a small as in the case of this questionnaire. Due to the difficulties of the other means of testing reliability, the researcher applied the teachers’ questionnaire depending on its confirmed validity without testing its reliability.

3.5 Procedures for Data Analysis

The researcher chose (SPPS) programme for data analysis using percentages and mean. Then the data were discussed and displayed in tables.

In chapter four, the collected data will be presented, analysed and discussed in detail.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with presenting the data which has been collected by means of the diagnostic test and the questionnaire. They were analyzed statistically by (SPSS). Hypotheses of the study will also be discussed based on the results obtained.

4.1 Results of the Test

The following tables display the results obtained from the performance of the EFL students in translating the English sentences into Arabic. Each table corresponds to a question in the test.

4.1.1 Difficulties of Translating Lexical Collocations in UK Newspapers into Arabic

Table (4-1-1-1) Idiomatic Expressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (22)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (23)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (24)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (25)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (26)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-1-1-1) indicates that EFL students encounter difficulty in translating idiomatic expressions. In the first item, (2%) of the participants were able to translate the idiomatic expression in sentence (22) correctly, while the majority (98%) failed to give the exact translation for the idiomatic expression. In the second item, (6%) of the students succeeded in giving the exact meaning for the idiomatic expression in sentence (23), whereas (94%) translated the idiomatic expression incorrectly. In the third item, (12%) of the subjects transferred the meaning of the idiomatic expression in sentence (24) into Arabic correctly, while (88%) of them were unable to transfer the idiomatic expression correctly. In the fourth item, (24%) of the respondents rendered the meaning of the idiomatic expression correctly, while (76%) failed in giving the exact meaning of the idiomatic expression. In the sixth sentence, (6%) of the subjects translated the idiomatic expression in sentence (26) correctly, whereas the majority (94%) of them failed in giving the correct translation. It is clear t from the
results of table (4.1.1.1) that the majority of EFL students encounter a great difficulty in translating idiomatic expression in UK newspapers into Arabic.

**Table (4-1-1-2) Lexical Collocations and Equivalence.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (16)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (18)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-1-1-2) shows that (2%) of the participants in the first item were able to translate the lexical collocation in sentence (16), while the majority (98%) of them were unable to give the exact equivalence for the lexical collocation. The results of the second item are that (16%) of the respondents gave the correct translation of sentence (18), whereas (84%) failed to give the correct translation. It is obvious from the above results, that majority of EFL students encounter difficulty in choosing the correct equivalence for the lexical collocation into Arabic.

**Table (4-1-1-3) Variability of Lexical Collocations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (19)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (20)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (21)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-1-1-3) illustrates that in the first item, (4%) of the respondents translated the lexical expression in sentence (19) correctly, while the majority (96%) of the respondents were unable to choose the exact collocation for the expression. The results of the second item is that (1%) of the students transferred the meaning of sentence (20) correctly, while the majority (98%) of the respondents failed in giving the exact meaning. The results of the fifth item demonstrates that (64%) of the participants translated the collocational expression in sentence (21) correctly, whereas (36%) of them did not succeed in translating them correctly. It is observed from the above results that the majority of EFL students encounter difficulty of variability in choosing the correct collocation.
Table (4.1.2) EFL Students’ Performance in Translating Lexical Collocations (VERB+NOUN) into Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (1)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (9)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (10)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (11)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (13)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (14)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.1.2), the first item shows that (36%) of the participants were able to translate the type of lexical collocation, while (64%) of them encountered difficulty in translating the collocational expression. In the second item, (52%) of the subjects gave the exact translation for sentence (9), whereas (48%) were unable to translate the sentence correctly. The results of the third item indicates that (6%) of the respondents rendered the meaning of the lexical collocation in sentence (10) correctly, while the majority (94%) of the respondents were unable to translate the sentence correctly. The results of the fourth item, (20%) of the students transferred the meaning of the lexical collocation in sentence (11) correctly, whereas (80%) of the students failed to translate the collocational expression correctly. In the fifth item, (32%) of the participants succeeded in translating the type of lexical collocation in sentence (13) correctly, while (68%) of them translate the collocational expression incorrectly. In the sixth item, (4%) of the subjects rendered the meaning of lexical collocation in sentence (14) correctly, whereas the majority that (96%) of them failed to give the exact translation for the sentence. It is clear that from the above results, the majority of EFL students encounter great difficulty in translating this type of lexical collocation.

Table (4.1.3) EFL Students’ Performance in Translating Lexical Collocations (ADJECTIVE+NOUN) into Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (5)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (12)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (19)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (27)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4.1.3) illustrates that in the first item (50%) of the participants translated the type of lexical collocation in sentence (5) correctly, while the other half (50%) rendered the meaning incorrectly. With regard to the second item indicated that (56%) of the subjects were able to render the meaning of the collocational expression in sentence (12) correctly, whereas (44) of them were unable to give the exact translation. The results of the third item showed that (70%) of the students succeeded in translating sentence (19) correctly, while (30%) failed to give the correct translation. The results of the fourth item indicated that (68%) of the respondents translated the type of lexical collocation correctly in sentence (27), while (32%) of them failed to select the exact lexical collocation. It is clear that EFL students are able to recognize the type of lexical collocation (adjective+noun) correctly.

**Table (4.1.4) EFL Students’ Performance in Translating Lexical Collocations (NOUN+NOUN) into Arabic**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (3)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (4)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (17)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (8)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.1.4) indicates that in the first item (64%) of the students translated the lexical collocation in sentence (3) correctly, while (36%) of them were unable to give the exact meaning of the collocational expression. In the results of the second item half of the (50%) the subjects transferred the meaning of the lexical collocation correctly in sentence (4), whereas the second half (50%) transferred the meaning incorrectly. In the results of the third item (44%) of the participants were able to translate the collocational expression in sentence (17) correctly, while (56) failed to give the exact meaning into Arabic. In the fourth item, (58%) of the students rendered the meaning of the lexical collocation in sentence (8) correctly, while (42%) of them failed to transfer the meaning in a correct way. It is clear from the above results, a great number of EFL students were able to translate the type of lexical collocation (noun+noun) correctly in UK newspapers.
Table (4.1.5) EFL Students’ Performance in Translating the Lexical Collocations (NOUN+VERB) into Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (2)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (16)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (28)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These statistics of table (4.1.5) demonstrate that (56%) of the respondents in the first item translated the type of lexical collocation in sentence (2) correctly, while (44%) were unable to give the correct translation for the lexical collocation for the sentence. In the results of the second item (58%) of the students translated sentence (16) correctly, whereas (52%) failed to translate it correctly. In the third item, sentence (28), (44%) of the subjects succeeded in translating the lexical collocation correctly, while (56%) of the participants were unable to translate the meaning correctly. It is clear that most of EFL students encountered less difficulty in translating the type of lexical collocation (Noun+Noun).

Table (4.1.6) EFL Students’ Performance in Translating Lexical Collocations (ADVERB+ADJECTIVE) into Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (6)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (30)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.1.6) indicates that (44%) of the students in the first item rendered the meaning of the lexical collocation in sentence (6) correctly, while (56%) of them translated the collocational expression incorrectly. In the results of the second item, (60%) of the subjects translated the lexical collocation in sentence (30) correctly, while (40%) of them found difficulty in translating this type into Arabic. The results of the two sentences in the above table show that the majority of the students find difficulty in translating the type of lexical collocation (adverb+adjective) to some extent.
Table (4.1.7) EFL Students’ Performance in Translating the Lexical Collocations (ADVERB+VERB) into Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (7)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence (15)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.1.7) shows that (30%) of the students in the first item translated the lexical collocation in sentence (7) correctly, while the majority (70%) of them encountered difficulty in translating the lexical correctly. In the results of the second item, (46%) of the participants succeeded in translating the lexical collocation correctly, while (54%) failed to translate it. The above table shows that the majority of the participants encountered difficulty in translating the type of lexical collocation (adverb+verb) into Arabic.

Table (4.1.8) EFL Student's Performance in Translating the Types of English Lexical Collocations in UK Newspapers into Arabic.

In order to identify which type of English lexical collocations that encountered a great difficulty for EFL students, the researcher has chosen two sentences randomly from the above discussions to show which type is the most difficult to be translated into Arabic. The following table (4.1.8.1) below shows the performance of M.A students in translating the types of English lexical collocations into Arabic.

Table (4.1.8.1) EFL Student's Performance in Translating the Types of English Lexical Collocations in UK Newspapers into Arabic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Types of Lexical Collocations</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Frequency of Incorrect</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(4.1.1.2)</td>
<td>VERB+NOUN</td>
<td>Sentence (10)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence (14)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.1.1.3)</td>
<td>ADJECTIVE+NOUN</td>
<td>Sentence (19)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence (27)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.1.1.4)</td>
<td>NOUN+NOUN</td>
<td>Sentence (17)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence (8)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.1.1.5)</td>
<td>NOUN+VERB</td>
<td>Sentence (16)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence (28)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.1.1.6)</td>
<td>ADVERB+ADJECTIVE</td>
<td>Sentence (30)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence (6)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4.1.1.7)</td>
<td>ADVERB+VERB</td>
<td>Sentence (7)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sentence (15)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure (4.1.8.1): The Most Difficulty Type of English Lexical Collocations into Arabic.

Table and figure (4.1.8.1) shows that the performance of EFL students in translating the types English lexical collocations into Arabic. (71) of the students found a great difficulty when translating the type (Verb+Noun) into Arabic, while (23) of them found a difficulty in translating the type (Adjective+Noun), whereas (38.5) of them unable to translate the type (Noun+Noun). Whereas (35) of the subjects failed to translate the type (Noun+Verb), while (34) unable to translate the type (Adverb+Adjective) correctly and (48.5) of the participants failed to translate the type (Adverb+Verb).

4.2 Analysis of the EFL Teachers’/Translator s’ Responses to the Questionnaire

In this section, the results of the questionnaire will be analysed and discussed. Each statement of the questionnaire will be treated in a sample table.

Table (4.2.1) EFL Students Encountered Difficulties in Translating English Lexical collocations into Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4.2.1) illustrates that the majority (70%) of the participants chose the options: (50%) for ‘Strongly agree’ and (20%) ‘Agree’ that EFL students encounter difficulties in translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. While (30%) chose the options: (20%) “Strongly disagree” and (10%) ‘Disagree’. From the results of the responses, it is clear that most of EFL students encountered difficulties in translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

**Table (4.2.2) The most difficult type of English lexical collocation for EFL students is**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistics in table (4.2.2) demonstrates that (60%) of the respondents chose the options: (0%) for ‘Strongly agree’ and (60%) ‘Agree’ that EFL students encountered difficulty in translating the type of lexical collocation VERB+NOUN. Whereas (40%) of the subjects chose the options: (30%) “Strongly disagree” and (10%) ‘Disagree’.

**Table (4.2.3) Difficulties of Translating English Lexical collocations into Arabic**

In the following section, the researcher will display the difficulties of translating English lexical into Arabic from statement (3-8).

**Table (4.2.3.1) Finding the Intended Term for the Specific Lexical Collocations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.3.1) indicates that (90%) of the subjects chose the options: (20%) for ‘Strongly agree’ and (70%) ‘Agree’ that finding the intended term for the specific lexical collocations constitutes difficulty for EFL students. While (10%) selected the options: (0%) “Strongly disagree” and (10%) ‘Disagree’. The result showed that the majority of the respondents encountered a great difficulty in finding the indented lexical collocations into Arabic.

**Table (4.2.3.2) Flexibility of Translating Lexical Collocations into Arabic**

xciii
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.3.2), it is obvious that (80%) of the respondents agreed to choose the options: (30%) for ‘Strongly agree’ and (50%) ‘Agree’ that flexibility is considered as a main difficulty of translating lexical collocations into Arabic. Whereas (20%) chose the options: (10%) “Strongly disagree” and (10%) ‘Disagree’. This means most of the subjects agreed that flexibility is one of the difficulties of translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

**Table (4.2.3.3) Idiomatic Expressions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.3.3) shows that (90%) of the subjects selected the options: (50%) ‘Strongly agree’ and (40%) ‘Agree’ that EFL students encountered great difficulty in translating idiomatic expressions into Arabic. While (10%) of the subjects chose the options: the options: (10%) “Strongly disagree” and (0%) ‘Disagree’. The results indicated that all of the students encountered a great difficulty in translating idiomatic expressions into Arabic.

**Table (4.2.3.4) Cultural Differences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.3.4) states that (90%) of the participants have chosen the options: (60%) ‘Strongly agree’ and (30%) ‘Agree’ that cultural differences are the basic difficulty when translating lexical collocations into Arabic. While (10%) of the participants have chosen the options: (10%) “Strongly disagree” and (0%) ‘Disagree’. These results indicate that cultural differences are a great when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

**Table (4.2.3.5) Lack of Exact Equivalence**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is noticed that from table (4.2.3.5), the majority of the respondents (70%) chose the options: (50%) for ‘Strongly agree’ and (20%) ‘Agree’ which indicate that lack of equivalence a great difficulty for EFL students. While (30%) of the respondents chose the options: (20%) “Strongly disagree” and (10%) ‘Disagree’.

Table (4.2.3.6) Variability of Lexical Collocations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.3.6) indicates that (90%) of the respondents have chosen the options: (10%) for ‘Strongly agree’ and (80%) ‘Agree’ which indicated that variability of lexical collocations constitute a main difficulty in translating lexical collocations into Arabic for EFL students. Whereas (10%) of the respondents chose the options: (0%) for “Strongly disagree” and (1%) ‘Disagree’. These results illustrated that variability of lexical collocations constitute a main difficulty in translating lexical collocations into Arabic.

(4.2.4) Strategies of Translating English Lexical Collocations into Arabic

In the following section, the researcher will discuss EFL teachers'/ translators’ opinions about the appropriate strategies of translating English lexical collocations into Arabic from statement (9-10).
Table (4.2.4.1) Substitutability of Lexical Collocations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.4.1) shows that most of the respondents (90%) have chosen the options: (40%) for ‘Strongly agree’ and (50%) ‘Agree’ which indicate that the strategy of substitutability is one of the most appropriate strategies in translating lexical collocations into Arabic. While (10%) of the respondents have chosen the options: (0%) “Strongly disagree” and (10%) ‘Disagree’. These results indicate that substitutability is one of the most appropriate strategies in translating lexical collocations into Arabic.

Table (4.2.4.2) Expansion of Lexical Collocations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.4.2) shows that (70%) of the subjects chose the options: (10%) ‘Strongly agree’ and (60%) ‘Agree’ which indicated that the strategy of expansion is one of the appropriate strategies to render the meaning of lexical collocations into Arabic in UK newspapers. While (30%) chose the options: (10%) “Strongly disagree” and (20%) ‘Disagree’. These results indicated that the strategy of expansion is a suitable strategy to transfer the meaning of lexical collocations into Arabic.

(4.2.5) Analysis of the Teachers’/ Translators’ Responses to the Open-ended.

Questions:

1. What are the other types of lexical collocations that constitute difficulty for MA students when translating them into Arabic?

The other types of lexical collocations that encounter difficulties provided by the EFL teachers/translators in response to the above question are: (40%) of the subjects mentioned the types of lexical collocations (VERB+ADVERB) and (VERB+ADJECTIVE). While (10%) of
the participants said that it is (NOUN+VERB) collocations. On the other hand, the participants mentioned other types of collocations that constitute difficulties for EFL students: (20%) of the subjects mentioned (Colloquial Collocations), (10%) of the respondents said that (Compound Collocations), whereas (20%) of the subjects focus on (Phrasal Verbs) and the last one refers to grammatical collocations.

2- What are the other difficulties of the translation of English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic? The participants mentioned other difficulties of translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic, and it can be classified as follows: (20%) of the subjects mentioned that the abbreviations that are used in UK newspapers constitute a big difficulty in translating lexical collocations into Arabic. While (10%) asserted that geographical and historical names that contain lexical collocations are great difficulty when translating them into Arabic. Whereas (35%) of the subjects focused on idiomatic expressions and their specific meaning, because their meaning depend mainly on the political discourse or the context. (15%) of the participants mentioned that updated lexical collocations in UK newspaper are considered as a main difficulty when translating them into Arabic. (20%) of the subjects focused on the stylistic usages of lexical collocations in UK considering them as a big difficulty in the process of rendering the meaning into the target language.

3- What suggestions would you make for promoting M.A students’ performance in translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic? The opinions of the lecturers and translators are quite different, so the researcher has summarized the important suggestions as follows:

1- Reading UK newspapers and extensive listening of news are required to promote EFL students’ performance in translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

2- Consulting dictionaries of collocations such as: AL-Hafiz Arabic Collocations Dictionary and Oxford Dictionary of Collocations when translating lexical collocations into Arabic.

3- Exposing EFL students to authentic materials form UK newspapers to practice translating lexical collocations into Arabic.

4- Giving more activities about collocations in UK newspapers help to promote EFL students’ performance in translating lexical collocations into Arabic.

5- Equipping the EFL students with the appropriate strategies and techniques to translate lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic.

6- Knowing the principles and different styles of writing UK newspapers.
7- Increasing EFL students’ knowledge of the types of lexical collocations in English and Arabic by reading daily UK newspapers.

8- In the process of translating lexical collocations, EFL students should trace identical collocation in Arabic, but if identical collocation is not found, close collocation can be suggested.

9- Giving more devoting time and activities to translate idiomatic expressions into Arabic and train EFL students not to translate literally.

4.3 Discussion of the Results in Relation to the Hypotheses of the Study

The hypotheses are discussed below in relation to the results:

4.3.1 Testing Hypothesis One

*Lack of equivalence is one of the difficulties that encounter EFL students when rendering English lexical collocations in newspapers into Arabic.*

This hypothesis is validated by the responses of the test, in table (4.1.1.2), items (16) and (18) in which (98%, 84%) successively; where the students failed to choose the exact equivalence correctly. Added to that, EFL teachers/translators’ responses in table (4.2.3.5) in where (70%) agree that EFL students encounter difficulty in choosing the exact equivalence also verify the first hypothesis into Arabic, (20%) “Strongly disagree” and (10%) “Disagree”. Thus, this first hypothesis is proved valid.

4.3.2 Testing Hypothesis Two

*Idiomatic expressions constitute difficulty for M.A students in translating English lexical collocations in newspapers into Arabic.*

The verification of this hypothesis is obvious from EFL students’ test, table (4.1.1.1) items (22), (23),(24), (25) and (26)) in which (98%, 94%, 88%,76% and 94%) successively indicate that EFL students encountered difficulty in translating idiomatic expressions into Arabic. Besides, the analysis of table (4.2.3.3) in the questionnaire shows that (90%) of the participants agree that idiomatic expressions constitute a great difficulty for EFL students when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic. Thus, the hypothesis is largely supported.

4.3.3 Testing Hypothesis Three

*Variability is one of the difficulties that encounter EFL students when rendering English lexical collocations in newspapers into Arabic.*

This hypothesis is verified by the students’ test, (table (4.1.1.3), (96%, 98% and 36%)) of the participants failed in rendering the sentences correctly. The hypothesis is also supported by
the questionnaire’s result, (table (4.2.3.6), in which (90%)) of the subjects asserted that variability is one of the difficulty that encounter EFL students when rendering English lexical collocations in newspapers into Arabic. Hence, the third hypothesis is strongly supported.

**4.3.4 Testing Hypothesis Four**

*Verb+Noun is the most difficult type of English lexical collocation in translating newspapers into Arabic.*

Figure (4.1.8.1), with mean of (71) shows that VERB+NOUN is the most difficult type of lexical collocations where EFL students encountered great difficulty for when translating them into Arabic. So this hypothesis is proved.

**4.3.5 Testing Hypothesis Five**

*Substitutability is one of the appropriate strategies to overcome the difficulties of translating English lexical collocation in newspapers into Arabic.*

With reference to table (4.2.4.1), this hypothesis is verified by the results of the questionnaire in which (90%) of the participants agree that substitutability is the most appropriate strategy to overcome the difficulty of translating lexical collocations into Arabic. So, this hypothesis is supported.

Summary, findings and recommendations will be presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction
This chapter includes the conclusion, findings, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Conclusion
This study aimed at investigating the Difficulties Encountered by EFL Students in Translating Lexical Journalistic Collocations into Arabic with Main Focus on UK Newspapers. Two tools were used for collecting data: a questionnaire for (10) EFL teachers/translator and a diagnostic test for (50) EFL students. The collected data was analysed by (SPSS).

5.2 Findings of the Study
On the basis of data analysis and discussions, the study reached the following findings:
1.- Most of EFL university students encountered difficulties when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.
2.- The majority of EFL university students do not recognize the exact equivalent in the process of translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.
3.- Idiomatic expressions constitute a great difficulty for EFL university students when translated them into Arabic.
4.- EFL university students encountered a great difficulty in rendering the variability of English lexical collocations into Arabic.
5.- VERB+NOUN is the most difficult type of lexical collocations for EFL students translate into Arabic.

5.3 Recommendations of the Study
1.- EFL university students should intensively be trained on how to translate lexical collocations by giving them more activities to develop their own back memory of lexical collocations in both languages (English/Arabic).
2.- In order to master translating English lexical collocations into Arabic, EFL university students should be exposed to UK newspapers.
3.- EFL university students should be trained to get the exact equivalence when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.
4.- EFL university students should choose an identical collocation, if not found in Arabic, an appropriate collocation can be used according to the context.
5- EFL students should be directed to avoid literal translation and consider cultural differences in the two languages (English/Arabic), when translating English idiomatic expressions.

6- A lot of practice should be provided to make EFL students more capable of dealing with translating the most difficult types of lexical collocation (VERB+NOUN) into Arabic.

7- It is advisable to use specialized and acknowledged dictionaries of collocations such as *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English* and *Al-Hafiz Arabic Collocations Dictionary* when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

8- EFL teachers of translation should equip their students with appropriate strategies and techniques to translate English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic.

9- The syllabus of translation at the university level should be designed carefully and based on educational purposes aiming at mastering translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

1- An Investigation into the Problems of Translating English Grammatical Collocations into Arabic.

2- Difficulties Encountering Translation Students in Translating English Idiomatic Expressions in American Newspapers into Arabic.

3- Problems of Translating English Headlines into Arabic with main Focus on American Newspapers.
APPENDICES
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Appendix (I)
University of Gezira
Faculty of Education – Hantoub
Department of English Language

A questionnaire for English language Teachers or Translators

Dear teachers / translators

The researcher would be very grateful if you could answer the questions below. Your answers will help in providing the data required for the thesis entitled: “Difficulties Encountered by Translation Students in Translating English Lexical Collocations of Journalistic Register into Arabic with Main Focus on Newspapers”.

- The following statements are mainly concerned with translating English lexical collocations into Arabic, UK newspapers in particular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>The Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The majority of M.A students encounter difficulties in translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>VERB+NOUN is the most difficult type of lexical collocation for M.A students.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Failing to find the specific term for the intended lexical collocations constitute difficulty in rendering the meaning into Arabic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Lack of flexibility is one of the difficulties that encounter M.A students when transferring English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Idiomatic expressions are one of the difficulties for M.A students when translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

6. Cultural differences are considered as a major difficulty in the process of translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

7. Lack of the exact equivalence is one of the difficulties in translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

8. Variability of lexical collocations is main difficulty when translating them into Arabic.

9. Substitutability is one of the appropriate strategies to overcome the difficulties of translating English lexical collocations into Arabic.

10. Expansion is one of the suitable strategies of translating lexical collocations into Arabic.

Open ended Questions:

11- What are the other types of lexical collocations that constitute difficulty for M.A students when translating them into Arabic?

12- What are the other difficulties of the translation of English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic?
According to your experience in the field of translation, what suggestions would you make for promoting translation students’ performance in translating English lexical collocations in UK newspapers into Arabic?
Appendix (2)

A Test for M.A Students

Translate the following sentences into Arabic.

1- The recent influx of refugees into Europe is likely to raise economic growth slightly in the short term – mainly in Austria, Germany and Sweden.

2- At least 30 killed after two bombs exploded in Nigerian city of Jos.

3- The president of Colombia attends the memorial ceremonies for the victims of bombing.

4- Barak and Arafat agreed to halt violence and set inquiry into its causes and explore a return to peace negotiations.

5- South African president Thabo Mbeki tries to resolve political turmoil in Ivory Coast.

6- The defence secretary, John Reid, said the army had been "absolutely right" to break into Basra's Jamiat jail to help free the British soldiers.

7- Palestinian was savagely attacked in Jerusalem synagogue.

8- A suicide bomber wearing a belt of explosives blew himself among Iraqi volunteers near the Syrian border.

9- Israeli last Sunday rejected the decision as one side.

10- Iran has tried to broker a deal with the powerful Islamist militia Ahrar al-Sham which would allow the remaining villagers to be relocated to Zabadani.
11- He will expect to boost their sales by the years 2017-2018.

12- Paris or Milan designers launched their new collections.

13- The great film broke the box tickets.

14- It is impossible to bear the suspense of the film.

15- They deeply grieved over immense loss for the battle.

16- Riot police arrested 16 people and fired tear gas in violent clashes with protesters marching in Paris as striking workers.

17- Dozens of African asylum seekers were injured as race riots broke out in Tel Aviv on Wednesday night.

18- Humanitarian groups in London have called to release activists.

19- Austria delivered a further blow to Europe to regulate the flow of asylum seekers.

20- Voters should use the next general election to deliver their verdict on the Iraq war.

21- According to a recent report, NATO says: “860,000 Syrian refugees present daunting task.”

22- We have got the second pilot and he is hale and hearty.

23- The crux of the matter, however, is that the Iraq war was not just about Iraq, but about a new approach to nuclear proliferation more generally.
24- It appears that the Canadians also **have no backbone** or sense of honour.

25- The UK Prime Minister said: “It looks a **hard nut to crack.**”

26- Donald Trump **had a landslide victory** in the last elections of the U.S.A.

27- Daisy Oil will bring out the **natural highlights** in your hair.

28- For **long-lasting colour** and treat **sun-damaged hair** use **TREESY PRODUCT**.

29- Enjoy the **unrivalled service** at our **exclusive restaurant** in London’ West End.

30- **THE LUX** is a very special hotel. With us you experience **gracious living** in **truly grand style**.
Appendix (3)