Problems facing EFL students in translating English collocational expressions:

(A Case Study of some Faculties of Education- Sudan)

By:

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Date: June/2016
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Date of Examination : 16 / 6 /2016
Dedication

I dedicate this study:
To the soul of my father
To my mother Fatima
To all my family
Acknowledgements

In endlessly thank Allah, Almighty for my Allah without his help this thesis would not have seen light.

This research project would not have been possible without the support of many people who were abundantly helpful and who offered invaluable assistance, support and guidance. I owe a deep gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Babiker Omer for his unfailing support and wise advice during the course of the research. Thanks also are due to Dr. Ahmed Gasm Asseed for his invaluable suggestions and unlimited assistance and support.

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Problems facing EFL students in translating English collocational expressions: (A case study of some Faculties of Education – Sudan).
Mazahir Abd Elgani Elsiddig Mamoun.
Doctor of philosophy in English language, translation, June 2016
Department of English
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Abstract

Translating collocation expression is a hard task, especially, when the source and target languages belong to different language families. This study aimed at investigating the problems facing students in translating English collocational expressions with special focus in idiomatic collocation. The study also aimed suggesting some techniques for solving the problem. The descriptive analytical method was adopt to conduct the study. A questionnaire and a diagnostic test were chosen as tools of data collection. The questionnaire was distributed to (25) lecturers of English language. The test was given to (100) EFL postgraduate students selected randomly from the faculties of education at university of Sudan and university of Gezira, Islamic Institute of Translation, university of Sudan and university of Bahri. (spss) programme was used for data analysis. The results of the lecturers questionnaire showed that the majority of teachers (80%) agreed that many students studing translation have problems in translating English collectional expressions. It was found that, mother tongue interference affects students performance in translating English colloctional expressions (84%). It has also been found that memorizing words in isolation makes learning English collections difficult (92%). It has also been found that teachers agreed that lack of cultural awareness important causes difficulties in translating idiomatic collection (92%). The importance of make students aware of role collections play a good role in learning English collectional expressions. In addition, focusing on English collection reduces the collocational errors caused over generalization of use words (72%). It was found that results of the student diagnostic test revealed that (68%) of the students were un able to translate English sentences to Arabic. Finally, based on the findings of this study the researcher suggests the following recommendations: syllabus designers are should provide a wider space for teaching English collocations in general and idiomatic collocations expression in particular at university level. Lecturers at university level, specially those who teach translation course should use helpful techniques such as contextualization or use sentences to increase learners understanding of English collocation expression. The lecturers should familiarize the students with the importance of focusing on English collocations in learning English. Idiomatic collocational expressions should be translated as a unit either by giving the exact equivalent if it exists or paraphrasing the meaning in the target language.
المشكلات التي تواجه الطلاب في ترجمة المتلازمات اللغوية (دراسة حالة طالب كليات التربية - السودان)

مذاهير عبد الله الصديق مامون
دكتوراه الفلسفة في اللغة الإنجليزية - الترجمة - يونيو 2016م
قسم اللغة الإنجليزية
كلية التربية - الحصائي
جامعة الجزيرة

ملخص الدراسة

تعد ترجمة المتلازمات اللغوية عملاً شاقًا ويزداد صعوبة عندما تنتمي كل من اللغة المصدر واللغة الهدف إلى عائلة لغة مختلفة. هدف الدراسة إلى البحث في المشكلات التي تواجه الطلاب في ترجمة المتلازمات اللغوية، كما تهدف الدراسة لاقتراح بعض الطرق لحل مشكلة الدراسة. اتبعت الدراسة النهج الوظيفي. ولقد تم اختيار الاستبانة والاختبار التشخيصي أدوات لجمع البيانات وتم توزيع الاستبانة على (25) طالبًا بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية، والاختبار على (100) طالب وطالبة في الدراسات العليا بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية والترجمة - كليات التربية لجامعة الجزيرة والمعهد الإسلامي للترجمة وجامعة السودان وجامعة بحري. وتم اختيارهم عشوائياً، وقد تم تحليل البيانات ببرنامج الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية (SPSS). وأظهرت نتائج استبانة المحاضرين أن (80%) من المحاضرين يرون أن معظم الطلاب يواجهون مشاكل في ترجمة المتلازمات اللغوية. وأن دخل اللغة المصدر يؤثر في أداء ترجمة الطلاب (84%). بالإضافة إلى أن حفظ الكلمات منفردة عن بعضها البعض وعدم الوعي بثقافة اللغة الهدف يزيد من صعوبة تعلم المتلازمات اللغوية وأن نوعية الطلاب بدور المتلازمات اللغوية في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية والتركيز عليها يقلل من الأخطاء التي يقع فيها الطلاب. وقد أظهرت نتائج الامتحان التشخيصي ضعفًا لدى الطلاب في ترجمة المتلازمات اللغوية (68%). وأخيرًا بناءً على نتائج الدراسة توصي الباحث وضع المناهج بالتوسع في مقرر المتلازمات اللغوية خصوصاً في المتلازمات الاصطلاحية والتنوع في طريقة التدريس باستخدام النصوص والجمل التي تحتوي على المتلازمات اللغوية. وتوصي الدراسة بنوعية الطلاب بالتركيز في أهمية تعلم المتلازمات اللغوية في دراستهم للغة الإنجليزية. وفيما يتعلق بالأخطاء الناتجة عن تدخل اللغة المصدر فإن التدريس المباشر أثر كبك اللغة الإنجليزية المستخدمة في سياق لغوي مع ما يقابلها باللغة العربية يقلل من تلك الأخطاء.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background
Translation is ultimately a human activity which enables people to exchange ideas and thoughts regardless of their different tongues. It helps learners to understand better the influence of one language on the other.

Fluency in English language requires mastering the major structures of the language, possessing an extensive way of the language, yet, there is an area that constitutes great difficulties for non-native speakers of English namely, the idiomatic collocation expressions. This is because, the speakers, the writers and orators like to decorate their speech by using many idiomatic collocation expressions. Hence knowing the habitual association of words or collocations is a very important part of translation. Thus, it is important for EFL learners to know how to deal with English idiomatic collocations to improve their performance in translation.

1.1 Statement of the Problem
The problem of this study stems from the researcher's observation that the majority of the students at the postgraduate level face many problems in translating English idiomatic collocations. This problem is apparent in students’ performance. Thus, in this study the researcher tries to investigate the problems that encounter students at postgraduate level when they translate English idiomatic collocations and tries to suggest some solutions.

1.2 Objective of the Study
1. To measure EFL learners abilities in recognizing English idiomatic collocations according to most common patterns.
2. To investigate the nature of the problems and difficulties encountered by EFL learners at postgraduate level.
3. To find out the role of collocations in improving the EFL learners ability in translating English idiomatic collocations.
4. To find out some solutions to the problems which encounter the EFL learners at the postgraduate level when translating English idiomatic collocations.

1.3 Questions of the Study

1. To what extent do EFL learners succeed in recognizing English idiomatic collocation?
2. What are the problems and difficulties that face EFL Learners at the postgraduate level in translating English idiomatic collocation?
3. To what extent does the process of teaching contribute to facilitate understanding and using English collocations?
4. What are the suitable suggestions for solving the problem of translating English idiomatic collocation?

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

1. The majority of the students encounter difficulties in recognizing English collocation expressions.
2. Many problems encounter EFL learners at postgraduate level in translating English idiomatic collocations for example: some of the students collocation errors stem from L1 interference.
3. Effective teaching of English collocations contributes to the promotion of the learners’ performance.
4. A good technique for solving the problems of translating English idiomatic collocation is to include contrastive grammar and stylistics in the translation syllabus.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study will investigate the problems which are encountered by EFL learners at postgraduate level in translating English idiomatic collocation. So, this study is hoped to help teachers and learners of English language in general in solving some of the problems of translating English idiomatic collocation in particular. Moreover, this study draws the syllabus designers attention to the problematic areas of translating English idiomatic collocation and attempts to provide solutions. It is also hoped to provide satisfactory information for those who are interested in the fields of translation.
1.6 Methodology of the Study

To conduct this study, it had been adopt the descriptive analytical method. A diagnostic test will be used as a tool for gathering data. The sample will be consist of one hundred (100) postgraduate students in Faculties of Education at university of Gezira, Islamic Institute of Translation, University of Sudan and university of Bahri. A Questionnaire will distribute to (25) lecturers of English Language in faculty of education, university of Gezira, Islamic Institute of Translation, University of Sudan and university of Bahri- Faculty of Education. The data will be analyzed by the computer Programme Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS).

1.7 Limits of the Study

The study will be limited to EFL postgraduate students in Faculties of Education El Hasaheisa and Hantoub – University of Gezira, Islamic Institute of Translation, University of Sudan- Faculty of Education, and University of Bahri-Faculty of Education.

The present study will focus on the problems facing students on translating English collocational expressions.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This study is mainly concerned with investigating the problems facing EFL learners at postgraduate level in translating English collocation expressions. In this chapter the researcher sheds light on some topics which are related to this study such as: definition of the term collocation from different linguistic perspectives, types of collocations with some examples for each, and their denotations. Moreover, it focuses on the problems areas that encounter students when translating English collocational expressions.

2.1 Language Interference

Dulay et al, (192: 35), who define interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. While Beardsmore (1982: 92) suggests that many of the difficulties a second language learner encounter with phonology, vocabulary and grammar of L2 are due to the interference of habits from L1. The formal elements of L1 that are used by the students in L2, contexts may produce errors.

According to the above definitions, errors may occur as a result of overgeneralization of the rules and semantic features of the target language. Yule (1985: 194) supports the same idea that “interlingual errors are attributed to the interference of L1”.

The word interference can be defined as “transfer” Odlin (1989: 27) defines transfer as:

Transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously and perhaps imperfectly acquired.

The same definition is shared by Marton (1988: 19) who suggests that transfer as the process of:

Applying already gained knowledge to new areas of language use and may involve both knowledge of the learners native language and new acquired (often fragmentary) knowledge of the target language
This transfer is classified by Wilkins (1985: 199) to “positive transfer” and “negative transfer”.

2.1.1 Positive Transfer

The effect of mother tongue is one of the main factors that affect learning foreign languages. When the structure of the two languages (L₁ and L₂) are similar, the result is then “Positive transfer” or “facilitation”. In other words, the learner of a foreign language provides correct response and becomes more aware of the relation between the two languages.

2.1.2 Negative Transfer

Negative transfer, or interference, occurs when the structures of the two languages are different. However, that interference is often discussed as a source of errors. Lado (1957: 65) defines interlingual errors as “interference which is the negative influence of the mother tongue”. These errors occur because:

1. The second language learner may use rules or items from the first language, “in a situation that cannot be avoided”.
2. The learner may overgeneralize a rule from the target language to produce the intended meaning. (Barry, 1988: 65).

Two sorts of transfer are important. Positive transfer is where two habits share common aspects; as knowing one will help learning the other negative transfer is also called interference.

Finally, Conner (1996: 120), adds that transfer is a problem-solving procedures utilizing L₁ knowledge in order to solve a learning problem. Also believes that transfer applies similarly to both translation and constructive studies.

2.2 Background of Collocation

Collocation is a new term that has recently appeared in linguistic research. It is a relationship between individual words. Matthew (2007: 67) points out that:

The term collocation in its linguistic sense is relatively new, it appeared in the ‘1950’. Firth is considered the first linguist who first used the term collocation. Also defines collocation as a relation within a syntactic unit between individual lexical elements.

Some linguists like, McCarthy (2010: 12) explains that: collocation a marriage contract between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other rather than
others. In this case, if a word partner is extremely predictable, and allows no change except possibly intense, it is treated as a fixed expression rather than collocation. For example “Prim and Proper” or the idiom, “kick the bucket”.

Collocation, on the other hand, is getting a lot of attention in the world at the present. Being a central feature of lexies, the importance of collocation has led researchers to reconsider its role in vocabulary teaching and learning. Richards (1976) and Nation (1990) propose that knowing a word requires knowing the multiple characteristics of that word. These characteristics involve ten aspects such as the spoken and written form of the word, its syntactical behavior, semantic value and collocation. A lot of vocabulary of language users consists of prefabricated chunks of different kinds, stored in the mental lexicons just a waiting to be recalled for use, but the single most important kind of chunk according to collocation, Lewis (2000) said that, collocation has been discussed by many linguists and in many linguistic areas such as semantics, phraseology, corpus linguistics, and systematics linguistics, and has been categorized by researchers from different perspectives. Cowie and Machin (2008) classify idioms and collocations into four categories from the most to the least idiomatic expressions; pure idioms, figurative idioms, restricted collocations and open collocations.

Pedagogically, collocation has emerged as an important category of lexical patterning, and it is rapidly becoming an established unit of description in language teaching courses and materials for several reasons. The most obvious reason is that the way words combine in collocations is fundamental to all language use. Secondly, the predictability of some collocation patterns can make learning lexical aspects easier for both teachers and learners who need to be encouraged to observe predictable patterning. Thirdly, collocation enables users to think more quickly and communicate more effectively due to calling on an enormous repertoire of prefabricated chunks of language, which are available at the users disposal. A further reason is that complex ideas are often expressed in complex language of lexical complex noun phrases frequently made of easy words. Not only this, but also collocation allows users to name complex ideas quickly and easily without much effort of focusing on the form of words (Hill, (2000), Woolard of (2000).

Earlier, Wilkins (1972), one of the researchers who advocate the essential role of lexis in language learning, states that “without grammar, little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”.

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According to what is mentioned above, grammar explains language users to construct language when they are unable to find ready-made in their mental lexicons. While native speakers usually express an idea lexically with a collocation, but non-native speaker who do not know the lexical items has to use grammar to express the target idea in an unnatural way. Commenting on learners’ lack of collocational competence, Hill(2000), points outs:

*Lack of competence in this area forces students into grammatical mistakes as they create longer utterances as they do not know the collocation which precisely expresses what they want to say.*

Unfortunately, instead of bringing useful collocations to students’ attention and helping them remember, teachers try to improve the student grammar by correcting their mistakes. Some researchers such as Conzett, (2000) believe that, vocabulary teaching and learning techniques should concentrate on raising learner awareness in such lexical matters as they do not really “know” or “own” a word until they also know how it operates with other words which means knowing something about collocational field. A comment of Jer-Minasova (1999): 1340 is typical:

*Foreign learners must keep in mind that they should learn words not through the translation of their meanings (that is, reference to bit of reality and concepts), but in their most natural habitual context, typical of the target language.*

Consequently, it is the role of teacher to increase students’ collocational competence by exploiting and re-activating their half-know vocabulary. Learning more vocabulary is not just learning new words but it is often (1) learning familiar words in new combinations. Woolard (2000:31), suggests (2) to train students to notice which words go with which, and (3) to help them get ride of the “bad idea” of $L_1$ word = $L_2$ word, and word=definition.

It has been demonstrated that multi-word items or chunks are major components in the mental lexicons, which heavily influence learners’ achievement in language learning. Accordingly, an increasing amount of effort is being devoted to study EFL learners collocational knowledge.
2.3 Definition of Collocation

There are different writers who define collocations using different points of view, and different expressions. Crowther (1997: 76), Finegan and Redman (1999: 69) state that collocation is how individual words are naturally combined together with other words, phrases and sentences in a language. Another definition is that stated by Richards et al (1985: 46) who points out that collocation is used to refer to a frequently used word-combination. Moreover, Woolard (2010:35) defines collocation as the frequent appearance of words together, words which are statistically much more likely to appear together than random chance suggests. It is the dominant force in the mental lexicon that creates all the natural occurring text, that is because in any individual the mental lexicon is huge. In corpus linguistics, the recurring pattern of lexis in texts of all kinds show the natural language in large quantities. Matthews (2007: 67), expresses that, collocation is a relation with in a syntactic unit between individual lexical elements used especially, where words specifically or habitually go together. Moreover, Lewis et al (200 : 146) define collocation as two words or more that often go together. These combinations just sound “right” to native English speakers, who use them all the time. On the other hand, combinations may be unnatural and just sound “wrong”.

For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Natural</th>
<th>Unnatural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The fast train</td>
<td>The quick train</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast food</td>
<td>Quick food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A quick shower</td>
<td>A fast shower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A quick meal</td>
<td>A fast meal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Collocation is defined in corpus linguistics as a sequence of words or terms that co-occur more often than what would be expected by chance. In phraseology, collocation is a sub-type of phrase. Halliday and Hassan (1997: 284) state an example of phraseological collocation.

*In the expression 'strong tea' the, 'same meaning should be conveyed roughly by the equivalent 'powerful tea', this expression is considered incorrect by English speakers conversely. While 'strong tea' is
considered natural the corresponding expression for 'strong computers' which means that in phraseological collocation certain words associate with other words.

Phraseological collocations should not be confused with idioms, in which meaning is derived, whereas collocations are mostly compositional.

Collocation is defined by some linguists as phrase in which the choice of a word determines its collocates. In business collocation the placement of several entities in one location. Bahnas as cf. Darvishi (1980: 52) defines collocation in phraseology, in corpus linguistics and in business as: “a sequence of words that often occur together. In phraseology, collocation is a phrase where the choice of one word determines which other words appear to in the expression. Non-linguistically, collocation is to make two persons meet for teaming on one site.

Collocation, is the relationship between two words or group of words that often go together. Native speakers can easily predict the second part of the combination once they hear the first one. Sometime, collocations are known as word pairing, word partnership or setoff phrase. Different writers refer to collocations as combinations of words frequency. For example:

- Adjective + noun = green trees
- Noun + noun = summer holiday,
- Verb + adverb = discuss calmly,
- Adverb + adjective = completely satisfied
- Verb + preposition + noun = hand in a homework.

When words are used together regularly, their association becomes familiar and natural. “Black” and “white” always in that order because it is their natural association, changing this order seems odd. Hill (2000: 50) expresses that:

*Idioms and phrasal verbs have clear patterns, and some collocations are considered as a predictable combination of words such as: ‘speak your mind’, others are highly predictable: ‘mineral water’.*

*Strong collocations are not guessable and are not generative; they have the status of idioms as in shrug ‘your shoulders’.*

Non-native speaker find difficulties in predicting the corresponding collocates because collocations that seem unremarkable for native speakers might be a problem to a
learner, for instance, 'eat lunch' or 'take lunch' seem an obvious choice for learners than 'have lunch'.

2.4 The Importance of Learning Collocations

Learning collocations is a good idea for both native and non-native speakers because:

- The language will be more natural and more easily understood.
- They provide alternative and richer ways of saying and expressing ideas.
- It is easier to remember and use language in chunks or blocks rather than in single words.
- They improve learning style: for example instead of saying ‘a big meal’, one can say “substantial meal”. These can give the text more variety and make it read better.

Linguists started to look into the necessity for some redefinition of the notion of word knowledge and the complex nature of vocabulary. Harley (1995: 3) observes that linguistics has long emphasized that there are varying degrees and different kinds of word knowledge, for example, the idea supported by Richard, (1976). This is supported by Schmitt (2000:5), Who believes that “the potential knowledge that can be known about a word is rich and complex”. Richards (1976: 83) discusses the dimensions of word knowledge: Based one Richard’s and Nation say:

> words are not isolated units of language, but fit into many interlocking systems and levels. Because of this, there are many things to know about any particular word and there are many degrees of knowledge.

The interest in the translations of collocation comes from their great importance in language. Collocations play a vital role in the coherence of the language, they are attractive and powerful which makes it more acceptable, more rhetorical and more powerful. Translation of collocations, is an everlasting struggle to match nouns with verbs, verbs with nouns, nouns with nouns, adjective with nouns etc.

Translators and translation students in particular, are indeed required to be extra sensitive to collocations in translation, patient, cautious and highly interested in spotting the proper collocation in Arabic. Crystal (1981: 32) defines collocations as “The habitual
co-occurrence of individual lexical item. It is a combination of two or more words that occur together consistently in different texts and contexts in language.

Yule (1985: 122) mentions that:

some collocations are joined pairs of words such as: 'salt and pepper' or 'husband and wife'. However, salt will also make some people say 'water' because of the common collocation 'salt water'. It may be the part of knowing a language is not only what words mean, but also what their typical collocations are.

2.5 Collocational Terms

2.5.1 A Node

Halliday (cf. butter, 1985: 130) defines 'a node' saying that it is word whose occurrence in collocation is studied.

2.5.2 A Collocate

According to Paterson (cf. http://www.jalt.publications.org /tit/ reviews/show.br.php?id=14) a collocate is one of the words which constitute a collocation, i.e. a node is one of the collocates. However, it is claimed that collocates are the words which form a collocation with a node, i.e. a node is not a collocate. According to Sinclair (1991: 115), the word which collocates with a node is either an upward collocate or a downward collocate. To be more explicit, Sinclair (1991: 116), point out that, and upward collocate is less frequent than a node. For example, when the node “back” collocates with a word which is more frequently used than “back”. Notably, Sinclair (1991: 116) states that the collocations formed by a node and upward collocate is an upward collocations, while a downward collocation consists of node and a downward collocate.

2.5.3 The Cluster of A Node

Butler (1985: 130) states that the cluster of a node refers to the list of words which can form collocations with that node.

2.5.5 The Collocational Range of a Word

In fact, Crystal (1997: 70) defines this term as the possibility that words can-occur. Notably, Crystal (1997: 105), points out that, collocations in languages are one of the difficulties in learning a foreign language. Foromstamce, Crystal (1997:10), states that, unlike English, the Japanese corresponding to the English verb “drink” can collocate with “table”. Ortiac and Dilligner (cf. http: //langra.si.Umich.edu/radev/papers/handbook
00.pdf#search=15.collocations) show that unlike French, “teeth” with “brush” or with “wash” in French is equivalent to the English collocation of “teeth” with “brush”. Moreover, chen (c.f http://cal.cs.Usb.edu/depts. /English/gard/chenfinal.pdf#search=arabic%20learners2%and%20English%20Collocations), states that Chinese correspond to the English “heavy rain” is literally translated into English as “big rain”. Furthermore, Crystal (1997,105) states that, collocations in modern Hebrew which are corresponding to English collocations “face problems” and “interpret dreams” are those whose literal translation into English are “stand in front of problems” and “solve dream”. Another example showing the differences among languages with regard to collocations is the English “pay attention” whose corresponding collocation in French is literally translated as “make attention”.

In respect to English, the choice of synonyms to produce collocations is based on an arbitrary basis. For instance, it is stated that for no reason one of the synonyms “powerful”, and “strong” can collocate with “tea”.

-“strong tea” ‘powerful tea’

Notably, the possibility that the knowledge of particular collocations can be generalized to produce other ones is limited. To explain this, Gower et al (1995: 144) claim that although “coffee” and “wind” can collocate with “strong” they do not collocate with the same antonym, “coffee” and “wind” collocate with “weak”, and “light” respectively.

2.5.5 Collocational Span

Crystal (1995: 161) states that, ’a span’ is a number of words that occur a way from the node on each side of that node. It is worth mentioning that the constituents of collocations are identified in relation to the words, which occur within a determined span. According to Greenbaum (1988: 116), one of the ways to identify whether a word is one of the collocation of a node, is to count the co-occurrences of the word with a node in the works of a particular author. Notably, (Inclair) chooses a span of four words on each side of a node regardless of the use of punctuation. That is, the word which co-occurs with a node more than three times within that span is considered a collocation of that node.

2.6 Characteristic of Collocations

It is stated that collocations have two characteristics. The first is that collocations refer to syntagmatic relationships between words. In fact, de Sassure (c.f palmer,1981, 67) differentiates between syntagmatic relations and paradigmatic relations. According to de
Sassure (cf. crystal, 1997:105), the syntagmatic relationships indicate the relationships between words that occur in a word-combination. As regards paradigmatic relationship, Crystal (1997: 105) shows that it refers to words, which are substitutes for each other is a word-combination. Therefore, Plamer (1981: 68) points out that “red” and “green” in “a red door” and “a green door” are paradigmatically related to each other and moreover each of “red” and “green” is syntagmatically related to “door” Lyons (1977: 240) shows that “old” in “the old man” is syntagmatically related to “the” and “man”. However, Lyons (1977: 24) points out that “old” in “the old man” is paradigmatically related to “young” and “tall” in “the young man” and “the tall man”, respectively. The second characteristic of collocations is that they are often non-reciprocal. It is claimed that in non-reciprocal collocations, the strength of the relationship between two words in a collocation is not equal on both sides of the words. For example, the strength of bond, which links “vested”: vested collocates only with “interest”, while the latter collocates with many words including “vested”.

Crystal (1985: 240) introduces another related example saying that in the collocation of “auspicious” with “occasion” the strength of the collocation is stronger on the side of “auspicious” than that on “occasion” the number of the cluster member of the former is smaller than that of the latter. Another example distinction between paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations can be seen in:

- The green apple was eaten by the kid.
- The red apple was eaten by the kid.

“Green” and “red” are in a paradigmatic relation with each other due to the fact that they can be contrasted or substituted. The term syntagmatic, on the other hand, refers to those relations in which a unit contrast due to its co-occurrence with other similar units. In the above example, both “green” and “red” are in a syntagmatic relation with apple. Collocation is thought to be of a paradigmatic relation.

2.7 Theories and Strategies of Teaching Vocabulary

2.7.1 Collocation Competence

Hill (2000), demonstrates that, collocation competence is the native speakers’ competence and ability that allow them to use the appropriate collocation which is considered a problem for other learners, even the advanced learners often make incorrect collocations. Native speakers can say “she has a beige car” but not “she has a beige hair”
that is because certain adjectives collocate with hair. For example, the adjective 'blond' usually collocates with hair not with cars and vice-versa, Lewis (2010: 76). The relationship between 'blond' and 'hair' is very strong but 'beige', 'brown' or 'yellow' and 'hair' has a relatively weak relationship, so collocations considered to be a combination of two or more words which frequently occur together.

If someone says: “the girl with yellow hair” his/her saying could be clear but it is not what would be normally said in English. “The girl with blond hair” is the natural and correct usage, because 'blond' collocates with 'hair', while 'yellow' collocates with 'flowers' or 'paints'. As a result, collocation competence is essential and lack of this competence pushes the learners to longer utterances and make grammatical mistakes. The analysis of the learners’ speech and writing reveal that they do not know how to express their ideas precisely, and how to use the de-lexicalized verbs such as, get, put, make, bring and take in their speech and writing.

This problem can be solved by focusing on the central word and the words it collocates with.

Students therefore, should use different techniques for searching a text such as dictionaries, corpus or computer concordance to expand their mental lexicon.

2.7.2 Strategies of Teaching and Learning Vocabulary

Woolard (2000: 97) describes some strategies for teaching and learning collocations and understanding techniques for searching collocations, which encourages learners to make the best use of language and take responsibility for their own learning inside and outside the classroom.

2.7.2.1 Raising Awareness of Collocations

Woolard restricted the use of the term collocation to the relation between nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs only that is because the students can easily see the type of pattern that is focus of attention. Moreover, it avoids overlap with traditional vocabulary exercises such as those of “dependent preposition” co-occur such as guilty of, depend on, reason for are not labeled as collocations. To improve and extend vocabulary teaching, teachers should focus on their students’ misuse of collocation in their language production, this can be noticed through the correction of their essay writing focusing on certain errors with noun + verb, and adjective + verb. Brown as cited in Woolard (2010; 67) expresses the two verbs “make” and “do” in the examples “doctors make a research into the causes
of Aids” and “doctors do a research into the causes of Aids” as common verb + noun miscollocation in which the two verbs are used within the appropriate noun “research”. The two verbs “make” and “do” suggest a useful starting point for introducing the notion of collocation to learners, and to explain that these relations are arbitrary.

2.7.2.2 Highlighting and Teaching Collocation

In order to help learners identify collocation in text, teachers should focus on the surrounding co-text and recognize the useful relations of collocations; adjective + noun, verb + noun, they should add exercises, which focus explicitly on co-text. Collocation then must be included into language learning input.

2.7.2.3 Choosing Keywords

For collocation searches, teachers should select words according to the amount of information they carry, and explain that words like ‘pencil’ has few common collocates and the word ‘drug’ is less lexicalized and its collocation field is much greater. For example to put some one on a new drug, or to take /use /be on drugs, drug dealers, a drug addict. 'Vocabulary books' and 'vocabulary lesson' tend to focus on the more lexicalized words, so, common nouns deserve much attention from the teachers in the way they teach them. Co-textual information should be included into the teaching process.

2.7.2.4 The Independent Learner and Teaching Strategy

Teachers direct their students to search and discover significant collocations for themselves in the language they use inside or outside the classroom. They should avoid explanation for the choices made by the speech community. Learning of collocation suits independent language learning. It is a process of noticing and recording by the learners and this can be done through traditional exercises in sentence analysis, then focusing on the headword and highlighting the unexpected verb, adjective and adverb around it.

2.7.2.5 Traditional and Electronic Dictionaries and Collocations

Teachers help their students search for useful collocation of a word in their dictionaries while looking for meanings in English dictionaries, which can be good sources of information on collocations. Teachers set exercises which encourage students to browse their dictionaries for a word’s collocates.
Electronic ELT have the advantage of a speedy research and the information about collocation are available on C.D Rom. Collocation dictionaries are useful resources that deal with co-text and provide a lot of amount of words' collocates.

2.7.2.6 Corpora and Concordance

Students can search in large amount of texts, or a particular word and concordance which lead to more efficient exploration of the collocates of a word. This can be done by training the students on how to carry out such task easily.

2.7.2.7 Lexical Note Books

The vocabulary note book is an essential tool for recording, revising and reactivating the lexis the students meet regularly. Students need to organize vocabulary in a certain way, for example, giving the pronunciation, translation and meaning of a word accompanied by a verb, or adjective or nouns that collocate with it.

2.7.2.8 Word Grammar

It is an approach that begins with the word, moving to the preposition and pattern which occur with it. It reveals the syntactic patterns associate with it. Bahns (1991:37), suggests that concentrating on items for which there is no direct translational equivalence in English and in the learners receptive mother tongue for example, the verb ‘get’ and ‘have’ because of huge number of the lexical collocations obstructs the learning process and therefore, those with direct translational equivalence should not be taught such as: good students often make collocation errors because they do not know the most important collocation of a key word that is central to what they are writing about as a result, they increase the chance of further error. Hill(2010) suggests that collocations have to be acquired through direct study and large amount of quality input which leads to an increase in written and spoken fluency and enable them to define and discuss issues in an easy way.

Students should acquire more and more collocations both within and without the formal teaching situation and as early as possible. Thornbury as cited in ET editor (2003) explain that, no noticing, no acquisition. Lewis (200: 49) says “quality in put should lead to quality output”.

2.8 Types of English collocations

The definition of collocation focuses on co-occurrence of words, and the classification of collocation is based on the categories of collocation. Most researchers defined collocation from the aspect of partnership and co-occurrence of words or
discourse. Some studies classified collocations into two broad categories. Halliday and Hassan (1976) classify collocation from the aspect of discourse. They classify English collocations into two major groups; grammatical collocations and lexical collocations.

2.8.1 Grammatical Collocations

Halliday and Hassan (1976:95) define grammatical collocation as a type of construction where a verb, an adjective, or a noun must be followed by a particular preposition.

1. Verb + preposition collocations (prepositional verb): for example:
   - Long for
   - Look for
   - Wait for
   - Call at
   - Dream of
   - Listen to

2. Verb + expression with preposition collocations: for example:
   - We had to return home because we had run out of money.
   - At first her eyes filled with horror, and then she burst into tears.
   - Their behaviour was enough to drive any body to crime.
   - They tried to come to terms with the truth.

3. Adjective + preposition collocations: for example:
   - Full of
   - Fond of
   - Angry at
   - Afraid of
   - Made in
   - Poor in

4. Preposition + noun collocations: for example:
   - By accident, by bus, by chance, by mistake, in advance, in each, in the morning, on diet, on purpose, on T.V.

5. Noun + preposition collocations, for example:
   - Cure for, blockade against, witness to, play on, a claim for, a protest against.

6. Noun + to infinitive: for example:
7. Predicate adjective + to infinitive
   - It was unnecessary to work, eager to help.

2.8.2 Lexical Collocation

Lexical collocations do not have a dominate word. Benson et al(1986: 167) distinguish several structural type of them: verb + noun; adjective + noun; noun + verb; noun + noun; adverb + adjective, verb + adverb; adjective + adjective. These collocational patterns are shown below:

1. Adverb + adjective
   For example:
   - joining that group of boys was an utterly stupid thing.
   - Are you fully aware of the implications of your action.

2. Adjective + noun:
   For example:
   - hard labour
   - net weight
   - fast asleep
   - peaceful death
   - great pleasure
   - bad news

3. Noun + noun
   For example:
   - brain drain
   - nerve cell
   - gas cylinder

4. Noun + verb
   For example:
   - bees buzz
   - bell ring
   - cat mew
   - dogs bray
5. Verb + noun

For example:
- attend a lecture
- exert an effort
- pass a law
- run accompany
- teach a lesson

6. Noun + noun (the of genitive) collocations

For example:
- loss of memory
- The heart of the matter
- Association of ideas

7. Noun + and + (addition) collocations:

For example:
- means and ends
- wonderments and bewilderment
- food and drink
- good and evil
- form and content
- cup and sauce

8. Verb + adverb

For example:
- Mona placed her bag gently on the chair.
- Sara whispered quickly in her husbands ear.

9. Adjective + adjective

For example:
- hale and hearty
- wealthy and well
- well and proper

10 Adverb + adverb:

For example:
- Wholly and heartedly
- Willy and nilly.

An other types of collocations are:

2.8.3 Collocations of Similes
(as…as constructions) for example:
- as strong as a lion:
- as sweet as honey:
- as cunning as a fox:
- as nutty as a fruit cake
- as bad as bad can be

These similes are fixed cultural idiomatic collocations. They cannot be changed or added to in the middle. Some are also specific to English culture and people. (Beson, 1985: 97).

Usman (1998: 105), states that most of these collocations have identical similes in Arabic, which are usually in a comparative grammatical form of exaggeration (better than) rather than equal form (something = something). This is consideration at translating these collocations.

2.8.4 Parts of Countable Nouns’ collocation
For example:
- a crowd of people
- a herd of buffalo
- a herd of cattle

these collocations are again fixed phrases. Each one is a part of a whole which can be counted. In Arabic, there are equivalent collocations which the students should exert effort to find and learn them. May be they do not have problem with words had one daily used like (اُ٘بص). However, they face a problem in finding (ثِخ ؿْ٘).

2.8.5 Part of Uncountable Nouns Collocations
For example:
- an act of violence
- an article of clothing:
These collocations are used to refer to parts of nouns, which cannot be counted in English. There are similar collocations in Arabic. Yet, some nouns are uncountable in English, but countable in Arabic: for example:

(معلومات......معلومات)
(تصاحح......نصيحة)
(أخبار......خبر)

Therefore, they are not translated into collocations, but into one word only, as in “a bit (piece) of information”; and “a bit (piece) of advice”, Heil (1990: 74).

- Law and punishments collocations

For example

- appear in court
- a fair trial
- win a case
- life sentence
- death penalty

Legal terms are fixed and specific in so far as any kind of deviation from the course of these terms causes serious intolerable mistakes. most of these terms cannot be literally translated.

2.8.6 business Collocations

For example:

- Rival company
- Strike a deal
- Customer service
- Booming business

Business and economic terms are lively and diverse, students can try alternatives but deviation from the track leads to translation errors. So, on translating business teams translators should provide the exact Arabic equivalent.

2.9 Approaches to Collocation

There are three types of approaches discussed by Gitsaki, (1996: 10):

2.9.1 Lexical Composition Approach

Gitsaki (1996-190) shows that this approach “ is based on the assumption that words receive their meaning from the words they co-occur with”. Firth (1957; 196)
supports this view “meaning by collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly concerned with the conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words”. One of the meaning of night is its collocation with dark, and of dark, of course is collocation with night.

Halliday (1966: 160) reiterates Firth’s idea that part of the meaning of a word that it collocates with others: “ It is part of meaning of ‘past’ that it contrasts with ‘present’, and it is part of the meaning of strong that it collocates with ‘ tea’. Also noted that collocation cuts across grammatical boundaries, for example “ they argued strongly”, “the strength of his argument”, the collocation between “ strong” and “argument” survives the grammatical change in the sentence.

Wall work (1969: 96) indicates that “ white” it not only refer to a kind of colour, but also to other different meanings which are determined according to the collocations in which “ white” occurs. To illustrate this, Wallwork provides examples of the meanings of “white” such as “ forgivable” and “ sleepless” as in “ white lie” and “ white night”.

2.9.2 The Semantic Approach

This an approach where “linguists attempt to investigate collocations on the bass of a semantic framework, also separate from grammar”, (Gistski, 1996: 13). The crux of this approach is to find out not just that certain word collocate with each other, but why they collocate, to illustrates this, it is claimed that the word which collocate with “blonde” is positive such as “blonde hair”, while this word “blonde” collocate negatively as in “blonde car”.

2.9.3 The Structural Approach

According to Gitsaki (1996:17) this approach of collocations is studied in terms of thegrammatical patterns which show the way words can collocate. Greenbaum (1988: 116), shows that, the knowledge of grammar is important to produce collocations. Fore example: it is stated that ‘ enjoy’ does not collocate with an infinitive with ‘ to” as in:

- ‘ I enjoy to work”

In other words Mitchell emphasizes the necessity of studying collocations in their grammatical structures, such as (adjective + noun, verb + adverb, adjective + gerund). For example: while it is possible to say 'heavy damage', to damage heavily and heavily damaged, it is incorrect to say “ heavy damager” or “ heavy damaging”.

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2.10 Collocations in Arabic

As previously discussed, collocation is a lexical relationship between two or more words, that, habitually go together and make a common expression whose meaning can be derived from at least one component of the collocational expressions. This lexical phenomenon is found in all languages of the world, but, in different characteristics.

The Arabic language is one of the richest languages of the world in collocations. But unfortunately, this unique phenomenon has not been widely discussed by Arab researchers. However, there have been some attempts by certain Arab linguists to highlight this significant phenomenon in Arabic like Al-Tha'alibi(2009) that shows many examples in collocation;

في تقسيم الخلاء:
أرض قفر – ليس بها أحد
وأرض مرت – ليس بها نبت
أرض جذر – ليس فيها زرع
واد خاوية – ليس فيها أهل
GMT مهام – ليس فيها مطر
بنرّ نزح – ليس فيها ماء
أنا صفر – ليس فيه شيء
بطن طاو – ليس فيه طعام
ليب جهر – ليس فيه زيد
بستان خم – ليس فيه فاكهة
شهد هما – ليس فيها عمل
قلب فارغ – ليس فيه شغل

Also Fayyad (1933) says:

لفظ نفسه – مات
لفظ بالشيء – نطق بالكلام
لفظت البلاد أهلها – أخرجت البلاد سكانها
لفظت الحية سماها – رمث الحية بسمها
لفظ البحر الشيء – ألقى البحر الشيء في ساحلها
ما بقي إلا فائظة – لم تبقى إلا بقية
مال الحائط – لم يعد الحائط مستقيما
Alzamakhshariyyu (1998) explain many kinds of collocations:

نُزَلَوا بالراح – الأرض الواسعة
بَرْج الخفاء – وضع الأمر وآلت خفيته
أَلْجَ ماء البني – انقطع
أَلْجَت عنه الحمي – أَلفَت
دِائِتَة جبلة السنان – تامكة
رُجَل جبل الوجه وجبل الرأس – غليظهما
سِيف جبل – لم يرقق
أَجمل الشعر – أَفحم
جبل ماتع – مرتفع طويل
نُخلة ماتعة – طويلة مرتفعة
شيّ ماتع – بالغ في الجودة
شَجَرَة مرداء – لا ورق لها
رَلَمة مرداء – لا نبت بها
أَرض ناسك – خضراء حداثة المطر
عَشَب ناسك – شديد الخضرة

and this is to be investigated in the following sections.
2.10.1 The Notion of Collocation in Arabic

Al-Jahith (1948: 58) recognizes the significance of collocations and the co-occurrence of lexical items with certain lexical items rather than other ones, however, with no regard to any syntactic considerations.

Al-Jahith considers that collocations tend to one of the meanings of a certain lexical item, corresponding in this way to Firth’s “meaning by collocation” for example: (الجوع) (Hunger) it is said that one of its meaning in the Holy Quran is its collocability with (الخوف) (fear).

The syntactic relationship between Arabic lexical items has also been considered by Ibn-Jinni (1952), who highlights the correlation between form and meaning, also he recognizes the importance of both the syntactic and semantic restrictions imposed on the co-occurrence of a lexical item in a certain context.

Being a prominent theorist on rhetorics and poetics, Al-Jurjani (1978) also recognizes the significance of syntagmatic relations among lexical items and that of contextual meaning. According to Al-Jurjani (1978), (cited in Al-Rawi, 1994: 6), no lexical item can be meaningful in isolation. It only has meaning when it is used in a certain context and when it is entered into sets of relationships which are made up according to certain linguistic and non-linguistic criteria.

2.10.2 Collocation and Modern Arab Linguists

Modern Arab linguists deal with the concept of collocation from different perspectives and under various headings.

Hassan (1973, cited in al-Rawi, 1994: 61), a significant modern Arab linguist who tackles “collocation” under the label (التدام) (al-tadaam), (التدام) (التدام) (التدام) means:

"إن تطلب إحدى الكلمتين للآخرى في استعمال على صور تجعل أحدهما تستدعي الآخر في كيانه مستقلة..والعلاقة بينها وبين المنادي علاقة تضاف".

Also classifies (al-tadaam) into two types:

- (al-tawaarud) التوارد
- (al-talazum) التلازم

1. ‘Al-tawaarud’ (التدام)

A-Rawi cites the lexical item (صاحب) (companion) when collocating with other lexical items to give a different meanings as in:

صاحب الدار Its owner
His companion
His majesty
The minister

2. “Al-talaazum”

The term ‘al-talaazum” on the other hand, is exemplified by Hassan according to the following instances:

- رغب فيه: طلبه
- رغب عنه: كرهه
- رغب إليه: استعانه

“he wanted it”
“he dislike it”
“he requested somebody to do something”

The Arab linguist Husamaddin (1985: 257) considers collocations: (المصاحبة النظمية) (Al-musaahabah al Lughawiyyah) as one simple form of idiomatic expressions. Also, he defines collocations as: (المصاحبة الاعتيادية لكلمة ما في اللغة لكلمة أخرى مميزة).

The normal co-occurrence of a given word in a given language with other given words. Moreover, Brashi (2005: 34) gives many examples such as the following:

- Bleating of a sheep: ثغاء الغنم
- Howling of a wolf: عواء الذئب
- Cawing of a crow: نعيق الغراب
- A horse stable: اصطبل الخيل
- A cattle barn: حظيرة ماشية
- Beehive: خليه نحل
- A lion’s den: عرين أسد
- A piece of bread: كسرة من الخبز
- A piece of a date: كتبة من النمر

The prominent modern Arab linguist Ghazala (1985) cf Brashi (205: 38) classifies collocations as “al-mutalaazimat al-Ifziyyah) (المتلازمات النظمية) into three different categories:

1. The grammatical patterns of collocation (التركيب القواعدي للملازمات النظمية)
2. The relationship between the constituents of the combination” (التركيب النظمي للملازمات النظمية)
3. “The stylistic patterns of collocations” (التركيب السلوكي للملازمات النظمية)

According to Ghazala (1993) cf. Brashi (2005: 39), Arabic collocations fall into twenty different grammatical patterns:
1. noun + adjective, for example: (aright saying) (قول سديد)
2. Noun + noun, for example: (sun rise) (شروق الشمس)
3. Noun + conjunction + noun, for example: (good and evil) (خير والشر)
4. Adjective + adjective, for example: (despotic and oppressive) (جائر ظالم)
5. Verb + noun(non-figurative meaning) fore example(to hear a sound) (سمع صوتا)
6. verb + noun (non-figurative meaning( for example( to teach someone a lesson) (لقن درسا)
7. Verb + verb root (verbchoing), for example(to rise high)(على علوا)
8. Verb+ adverb, for example( to sleep with a full stomach) (بات شبعانا)
9. Verb + preposition + noun, for example( to burst into tears or to sob) (أعطر ومنع)
10. Verb + relative pronoun + verb, for example (he who warns is excused)(أعذر من إنذر)
11. Verb + conjunction + verb (antonym) for example (to give and prevent: (أعذر ومنع)
12. time/place adverbial + conjunction + time/place adverbial, for example (first and last) (ولا وأخيرا)
13. Preposition + noun +noun, for example( by sheer coincidence) (بمحض الصدفة)
14. Negative particle + noun + noun + negative particle + noun, for example(neither excess nor neglect) (لا تفريط ولا إفراط)
15. Noun + verb, for example (alive and kicking) (حي برزق)
16. Noun + preposition + noun, for example(God is perfect) (الكامل الله)
17. Particle (functioning as a verb) + noun, for example(would God) (أليت شعري)
18. Arbitrary grammatical patterns (oath), for example( I swear) (أقسم)
19. Arbitrary grammatical patterns (swearing /cursing),for example(curse on you)(عليك)
20. Arbitrary grammatical patterns 9copliment),for example: (thank you/well done) (سلمت)

As Brashi (205: 40) suggest, the last three grammatical patterns in Ghazala’s grammatical classification of Arabic collocations, are considered as arbitrary grammatical pattern. Moreover, some of grammatical patterns (15, 16) are idiom rather than collocation.

Brashi (2005: 43) classifies word combinations into the following four types:

1. Open collocations: combinations of two or more words that co-occur with each other, with no specific relation between them. In other words, the lexical items here
are freely recombinable each lexical item is used in a common literal sense. For example: (war ended, (انتهت الحرب, (war begun, (بدأت الحرب)

2. Restricted collocations: Aisenstadt (1979, cited in Brahi, 005: 43) defines this type as “combinations of two or more words used in one of their regular, non-idiomatic meanings, following certain structural patterns, and restricted in their commutability not only by grammatical and semantic valence...but also by usage” for example:

To make progress  ستقدم
A damaging battle  معركة طاحنة

3. Bound collocations: these collocations, serve as “a bridge category between collocations and idioms” (Cowie, 1992: 228). In this type, one of the lexical items is uniquely selective of the other. For example: to 'bow head' ( أطرق , 'vicious war' (حرب ضروس).

4. Idioms: As Brashi (2005: 44) points out “in contrast to the previous three types, the constituent elements of idioms are opaque, that is, they are used in “specialized” sense, together forming one single semantic unit”. For example:

Cold war  الحرب الباردة
Star war  حرب النجوم

All these types a special interest to above classification, that is, restricted collocations, since it corresponds to new marks classification of English collocations which are the most problematic in translation.

2.11  Idiom

2.11.0 Introduction

Idioms are the bright part of languages. They assist people to emphasize and make their observations, judgments and explanations lively and interestingly. They also help people to communicate a great deal of information in just a few words. Idiomatic expressions are not of trivial importance, but rather widely used in English language which makes it difficult to speak or write without using them. English as foreign language Learners (EFL) come across idioms everywhere. They meet them when they speak with native speakers, watch television, listen to the radio, and read newspapers, magazines, text books, poetry, novels, and plays.
2.11.1 Definition of Idiomatic Expressions

There is a general convention among the grammarians that the meaning of an idiomatic expression is not always clear. Matthews (2007: 83) states that idioms are fun and useful expressions that usually cannot be understood by defining the separate word. “An idiom is a group of words in current usage having a meaning that is not deducible from those of the individual words and both the grammar and vocabulary are fixed”.

In Oxford advanced Dictionary – As Hornby – sixth edition (2000: 643) who defines an idiom as: “a group of words whose meaning is different from the meanings of the individual words, the following example is provided, “let the cat out of the bag” is an idiom meaning to tell a secret by mistake”. According to Irujo (1984: 42), “idioms have conventionalized meanings agreed upon by speakers of the language, which usually cannot be figured out if they are unknown”, for example: knowledge of the meaning of words: “kick the bucket”, will not provide any clue at all to the idiomatic meaning of which is to ‘die’ or ‘pass a way’. Another author, McCarthy and O’Dell (2001:158), certain Irujo's view point, in mentioning that idioms as fixed expressions which are not always clear or obvious, for example, the expression “to feel under the, weather” which means unwell, is a typical idioms in that the meanings of individual words do not tell us the intended meaning.

Hence the meaning of an idiomatic expression usually causes great difficulties to the learners of English, even if he/she possesses a wide range of vocabulary. Slim (2003: 30) gives the following definition that “an idiom is overall a meaning of individual words it contains.. An idiom is a phrase of its own type and it should be used without changing its format”. There are two features that identify an idiom; firstly, the meaning of the idiom cannot be deduced from the individual words. Secondly, both the grammar and the vocabulary of the meaning of the idiom are fixed, and if they are changed they will lose the meaning, for example “It rains cats and dogs”, “at the drop of hat”, these idioms can not be understood from the individual words, these expressions need to be memorized as a whole.

The native speaker of English acquires his/her idioms naturally, but a foreign language learner has to learn them during the course of language learning. Therefore, it would be useful for English learners as a foreign language to start learning English idiom
in a meaningful context to enable them easily realize and understand the intended meaning of these idioms.

Recently modern means of education reflect the great interest that has been given to the exploration and the exploitation of idioms, their usage and analytical studies on how human mind conceptualizes or interprets idioms. There have also been a number of dictionaries of idioms designed to facilitate the problem imposed by idioms.

Evidently, English, like other languages has its own sets of idioms, which are peculiar to it only. These idioms reflect the enrichment and the speakers’ traditions, and inheritance wealth of their culture as well as they grow throughout different generations. Therefore, it is important for FEL teachers to introduce idioms to their students in an interactive way and teach them how and when to use these idioms appropriately.

2.11.2 Examples of Idioms

- The teacher told us to get a move on= (hurry; be quick)
- My wife and I take it in turn to cook = (I cook one day, she cooks the next).
- I don’t know the answer off-hand= (without looking it up or asking some one)
- It’s not far, it takes a short cut through the park=( a quick way)
- I’m not very good at small talk= (social talk; not about serious things).
- I’m sorry I can’t make it on Friday= (come).
- Please keep an eye on my suit case while I’m absent= (look after /watch).
- She listened to the sad news without batting an eyelid (without showing any surprise or sorrow).
- A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush= (it’s better to be content with what one has than to risk losing everything to get much more).
- Too many cooks spoil the broth=(if too many people are involved in sth, it will not be done well).
- With bated breath= holding ones breath because one is anxious or excited, e.g.: we waited with bated breath for the winner to be announced).
- On the dot= (exactly on time e.g. he’s very punctual always arrives on the dot).
- In dribs and drabs=(in small amounts e.g.: she paid me in dribs and drabs).
- A drob in the bucket/ocean= (a quantity too small to make improvement or difference, e.g. Aid to the Third World is at present little more than a drop in the ocean).
- At the drop of a hat= (without delay or hesitation or without good reason, e.g.: you cannot expect to move my home at the drop of (hat).
- To hang in the balance: to be uncertain or at a critical stage, e.g.: the future of project is hanging in the balance.

Wallace (1981: 7) and Ghazala (2003: 28) divide the idioms into “direct idioms” and “indirect idioms”. For example:

**A-Direct Idioms:**

Here student can find the equivalents from their native language. For example:

- the last cry
- the lion share
- hide / bury ones head in the sand
- fish in muddy / troubled waters

**B- Indirect Idioms:**

Here students suffer when translating this type of idioms because the meaning cannot be understood from individual words, for example:

- Kick the bucket
- With a heart of gold
- Bury the hatches
- To blow the gaff

**2.11.3 The Features of Idiomatic Expressions**

As defined by different grammarians to qualify as an idiom an expression should have all or most of the following features:

1. it is a precise multi-word unit whose meaning usually differs from its component parts. The following example clarify this point:
   a. He is under the weather = ill
   b. Get grasp of something = understand
   c. Some one is a pain in the neck= difficult
   d. One’s head in the cloud = unaware of the reality. I set out to make the dress by myself= intend
   e. Boiling water gives off steam= sends out.

2. An idiom has non-productive syntactic structure. That is to say here is no possibility for generating other expressions from an idiom. For example
- kick he bucket (an idiom)
  • The bucket got kicked by Peter.

3. Idioms do not always subject themselves to the grammatical rules. For example inserting any element destroys the idiomatic meaning of the expression:
   - Pull one’s leg (an idiom)
     • Pull on one’s left leg.
   Rabbit and have a butchers (an idiom)
   This expression breaks the agreement between the noun and the verb (Rabbit – have) and the agreement between the article and the noun (a – butchers).

I’m good friend with him (an idiom)
In this expression the definite article (a) is dropped.

4. An idiomatic expression resists reordering its component parts.
   - Let the cat out of the bag (an idiom).
     • The cat got let out of the bag.

5. There is no permission for substituting the words of an idiomatic expression with other, whether they are semantically compatible or not:

   Eat one’s words
   Eat one’s sentences
   Swallow ones words.

6. An idiomatic expression behave as a single semantic unit. It tends to have some internal cohesion, such that a literal counterpart that is made up of a single word can often replace it:

   Kick the bucket= die
   Slowly but surely = gradually
   Feel all in = exhausted
   Get by= manage

7. the meaning of an idiom is either transparent or opaque:

   Pull one’s leg
   by hook or crook

8. Idioms are difficult to translate from one language to another. The following account has been mentioned by McCarthy et al (1984: 201), “if you attempt to
translate an idiom literally into another language, people often have no idea about what you are talking about.”

Therefore, translation is not always adequate for idioms. El Toum (1959: 79) investigate the difficulties in translating an idiom, the translator must look for an equivalent expression. However, many idioms have no equivalent, or he/she has to translate the sense whether the idiomatic expression is a proverb as in the prior examples, but there is a great problem with collocations and other types of phrase.

2.12 Collocations and Idiom

Collocations are words, which combine in particular grammatical constructions. McCarth (2001: 306), defines collocations as “collocation is the occurrence of words together, often in unpredictable ways, for example:

A. Adjective + noun Collocations.
   - The real thing
   - The genuine article

B. Verb + Adverb collocations:
   - She always drives too quickly
   - Let us move swiftly on to the next.

C. Adverb + adjective collocations:
   - They had been happily married for a decade now.

D. Verb + objective collocations:
   - Raise your hand
   - Raise a family

It is clear that McCarthy and O’dell take into account the grammatical element in categorizing collocations. Smith, on the other hand, (1965, 173) displays a variety of idioms these are:

a. Collocations for the sake of emphasis
   - To cut and run.
   - Dust and ashes
   - Fear and trembling

b. Emphatic repetition
   - Again and again
More and more
Over and over
c. Emphasis by alliteration:
Cheap and change
Like and leading
Slow but sure
d. Emphasis by rhyme
Art and part
Out and about
Wear and fear
e. Emphasis by contrast
Head or tail
To mend a round
To kill or cure
f. Habitual comparison
As cool as cucumber
As good as gold
As large as life

Smith is variant with McCarthy (2001-330), while the first is groups collocations according to their grammatical categories, the latter takes into account the purpose of word collection.

Gabrielatos (c.f http://www.gabrielatos.com/collocation.htm) states that there are opposing views which are introduced on the use of the terms “collocation” and “idiom”. Notably, the traditional definition of idiom is that it is a word-combination whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the individual words it contains. To show the different uses of the term “collocation” and “idiom”, Gabrielatos contrasts Kjellmer’s views with those provided by Cruse. Kjellmer advocates that idioms are a type of collocations. To be more explicit, Kjellmer shows that an idiom is a collocation whose meaning is not apparent from the meaning of the individual words it contains. However, (ruse,cfhttp://www.gabrielatos.com/collocation.htm) points out that idiom and collocations are two different types of word-combinations. To cruse a collocation is a frequently used word-combination encapsulating more than one semantic constituent, i.e. each word in a
collocation represents a semantic constituent, while an idiom is a word-combination that functions semantically as a single semantic constituent. Moreover, Warren (1994: 133) introduces “kick the bucket” while Nattiger and Decarrico (1992: 178) introduce the same word-combination as collocation.

[www.Englishleap.com/vocabulary/collocations](http://www.Englishleap.com/vocabulary/collocations) states that, there is a big difference between a collocation and an idiom: “A collocation is a way words combine in a language to produce natural speech and writing”. for example: when saying “pay attention” it could be “give attention” or “put attention” but it is not, it is pay attention because it is a natural way in which native speakers express that.

“An idiom is a sequence of words which has a meaning as a group, different from the meaning they would as words in isolation. For example, when say “it’s raining cats and dogs” it does not really mean that cat and dogs are falling down from the sky but there is a heavy rains.

The ambiguity of word collocation is likely to cause great difficulties to EFL learners, since the variations, between Arabic and English language are so great in the same area. The words that tend to occur respectively have other collocations in Arabic, even if their meaning are clear. For example, collocations with the word 'tea' in the two languages cause many students to commit errors despite its simplicity. It is clear that idioms contrast with collocations. While many collocations have restricted vocabulary in that, they are not productive but their meaning is clear.

2.13 Some Steps to Learn Collocation

To learn how to use collocation perfectly, the researcher suggests some useful points, EFL learners should:

- be aware of collocations, and try to recognize them when they see or hear them.
- treat collocations as single blocks of language, think of them as individual blocks or chunks.
- when learning a new word, they should write down other words that collocate with them, (remember rightly, remember distinctly, remember vaguely).
- read as much as possible. Reading is an excellent way to learn vocabulary and collocations in context and naturally.
- revise what have been learned regularly. Practice using new collocation in context as soon as possible after learning them.
- learn collocations in group that work for them or could learn them in context topics (time, number, weather, money, family etc.) or by particular word (take action, take a chance, take an exam).

- find information in collocations in any good learners’ dictionary. And they should also find specialized dictionaries of collocations.

- away of finding out the strong collocates of any particular word use a computer concordance which is a concordance is a programme that searches through millions of words of digital text and produces strings contain the word in question. In this way, the typical usage of the word can be analyzed. Using concordance is an excellent way to learn about how language is actually used. It is particularly useful for a non-native speaker who does not have strong enough experience about English to make a good choice of collocates.

- group words combinations beginning with for example a noun, a verb or an adjective so as to expand your vocabulary by learning their collocates.

- Expose to the English media (British, American, Indian...programmes and movies etc.) this will improve the learner’s knowledge of collocation.

2.14 Translation

2.14.1 Definition of Translation

According to Catford (1965: 20), translation is “the act of replacing text material in the Source Language (SL) by an equivalent text material in the Target Language (TL). Another definition is mentioned by Bell (1991:6) who defines translation as “the representation of a text in one language by representation of an equivalent text in a second language”

The translators have to bear in mind that the idea of a total equivalent can not be attained. Crystal (2001: 34-36) emphasizes the impossibility of finding exact equivalents in translation through the evidence that when paraphrasing own word, in the same language there is usually a loss of information.

Moreover, translation is considered as the rendering of the meaning of a text (source text) into another language “target language” in the same way that the writer intended the text. The aim is to communicate the ideas of the text in the source language to readers of the target language through a target text that has the same message and effect. It require not only transferring meanings of individual words or structures into the target
language, but also considering of both features of the style and the meanings of its implication of both the features style and the meanings of its implication.

Therefore, translation is a reproduction of the thoughts and meanings that are implied in the original text in a newly translated version of a target text, not only this, but “to produce the message, one must make good many grammatical and lexical adjustment, remembering that translation attempt to reproduce the significance of the source language expressions”, as Peter Newmark believes (1991:5). Nida (1984:12) sees translation as a process of reproducing a message in the receptor language, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style. In other words, translation is transfer of meaning, message and style is put the last, here the things to reproduce (transfer) is the stated message.

This can be illustrated clearly by Nida’s model of the translation process.

Translation is not as easy task as it sounds to be. Moreover, translation does not mean a simple word correspondence between any two languages. It is not a mechanical process where each word is translated into the target language. Rather, many factors are to be taken into consideration to get the exact output in the target language.

The factors are as follows: the rules of grammar and the spellings in the two languages, their writing conventions, meaning of idioms and phrases, the usage of points and commas to separate numbers. Translation requires a complete understanding of the customs and life style of a group of people so as to translate in a manner that communicates to that culture’s world view.

Catford, Nida, Newmark, McGuire and Pinhuct in Machali(1998) propose different definition of translation but their definitions share three common motions, namely:

1. The term “equivalent” which is used by Catford (1980:20), Nida (1969:12) and Pinchuck (1977: 38), McGuire (1980:2) for them, the use of the term is “similar”.
2. The term “textual material” or “text”, which is used by Catford and McGuire, while Newmarks uses the term “written message” and Nida “SL message”.

3. The term ‘replacement” is used by Catford and Newmark while Nida uses the term “reproducing” for the same concept.

2.14.2 Key Concepts of Translation

Newmark (1988:9) explains the concepts of translation as follow:

- A text is a piece of written language that has a meaning. A text can be one sentence, one paragraph or more. Full understanding of the meaning of a text is based on its context.
- Context is the situation in which a text is used, including place, time, writer and readers.
- The message of a written text is the meaning (or ideas) intended by the writer, and which is understood when reading the text.
- The source are language (SL) is the language of the original text.
- The target language (TL) is the language into which a text is translated.
- The source text (ST) is the original text.
- The target text (TT) is the translation of the original text.

2.14.3 The Translator

The translator is a person who copy, meaning of written texts from one language into another. The translator has four main types of knowledge, they are mentioned by Newmark (1988):

- Knowledge of the source language and SL culture
- Knowledge of the target language and TL culture
- Knowledge of the subject
- General knowledge

The translator also usually has three other important qualities:

- good memory
- concentration
- patience

2.15 Purposes of translation

Newmark (1993:5) suggests some purpose and usage for translation:

1. To contribute in understanding between the language of communities and groups.
2. To explain and clarify ethnic culture and their differences.
3. To promote information and technology transfer particularly to the third world countries.
4. to make works of high moral religious importance in the arts and the humanities, as well as scientific works, available throughout the world.
5. to facilitate foreign language learning.

2.16 Methods of Translation

Linguists do not agree completely either methods nor types of translation, Newmark (1988:45) mentioned the common method of translation:

2.16.1 Literal Translation

The text in this method usually translated sentence by sentence, the target language text conforms to its grammar style “literal translation is correct and should not be avoided if it secures referential and pragmatic equivalence to the original. Newmark(988:68).

Ghazalah (2008:4) Think’s it is one of the major methods; the free and the literal is quite persuading. Literal translation is when one translates word for word irrespective of the contextual effect of the word meaning. On the other hand, free translation is to translate according to whole context meaning.

2.16.2 Faithful Translation

Here the translator attempts to reproduce contextual material in terms of meaning with in the constraints of the target language grammatical structures, it’s used in translating laws treaties and international agreements.

Smart translation: intelligent translation in this case the translator studies the style of the source language texts author. Then the he/she impersonates the other and tries to rewrite the source language text on his/her behalf.

Creative or free translation: in this method, equivalents sift freely up and down looking for the appropriate content message whether it is a phrase a word or a sentence, Newmark (1995: 4) confirms this: “it produces the TL text without the style, form, or content of the original”.

Adaptation: it is very common in the translation of literary works, particularly poems and plays, as the translator has complete freedom to change the source language cultural situation into the target language culture keeping only the plot, the characters and the themes of original text:
shall I compare thee to a summer day
Compare thee I guess to none?

Newmark (1998: 46) describes it as “this is the ‘freest’ form of translation, and is used mainly for plays (comedies and poetry; the theme, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture is converted to the TL culture and the text is rewritten.

2.16.3 Idiomatic Translation

This is considered as a lively form of translation where the production of the content of the original occurs but colloquial expressions which are not found in the source language are incorporated in the target language text to create natural situation in the translation. It translates the message of the original text but tends to distort the original meaning at times by preferring to colloquialisms and idioms.

2.16.4 Full Translation

In full translation every part of the source language text is replaced by target language equivalent material.

2.16.5 Partial Translation

In partial translation some parts of the source language text are left un-translated especially in literary translation.

2.16.6 Summary Translation

In this method the translators summarize the topic of the source language text. Then the translator decides which part of that text is needful and faithful translation.

2.16.7 Word-for-word Translation

Here the source language words are translated into another language by their most common meaning, which can also be out of context at times, especially in texts containing proverbs. The final produce of this method bad or wrong: for example:

اشترى أبي سيارة جديدة

Bought my father car new

Newmark (1988: 81) mentions that “word-for-word translation means source language word order is preserved and the words are translated in isolation by their most common meanings, out of context”.

2.16.8 Semantic Transaction

Semantic translation refers to that method of “Faithful translation” which takes more account of the aesthetic value of the source language text. It is a more flexible
method of translation; it makes some kind of agreement source language and target
language text in order to achieve aesthetic value in the target language text. Original
expressions, where the specific language of the speaker or writer is as important as the
content, whether it is philosophical religious, political, scientific, technical or literary auto
biography private correspondence need to be translated semantically.

2.16.9 Communicative Translation

This tries to render the exact contextual material or meaning of the original text. In
a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the
readership.

SL: Affection blinds reason

TL: آفقة الرأي الذهني

Newmark (1991:10) writes a continuum existing between “semantic” and
“communicative” transition. Any translation can be “more or less semantic-more, or less-
communicative- even a particular section or sentence can be treated more communicatively
or less semantically”. But it seeks an equivalent effect”.

2.17 Qualities of Translators and Translation Teachers

There is disagreement over the requirements of prospective translators. One such
requirement is the ability in writing and speaking. While most TT writers believe that it is
important for translators to master both mother tongue and the foreign language, some
believe that mastering the language is not enough.

Al Jahiz (1969: 76) believes that the translator must be conversant with all fields of
knowledge: “the expression of the translator in translation will be commensurate with
familiarity with the subject matter. Translator must be extremely knowledgeable in both
the SL and TL”.

As branches of sciences and technology are expanding rapidly, it becomes
impossible to train translators in these specialized areas, because adequate special
knowledge, may take many years to master.

Some writers consider indispensable the “general knowledge” of the major fields of
daily human interest, such as in political, economic, or scientific field of, for without them
comprehension and self-expression are hardly conceivable. Keiser (1978: 19 believes “that
the success of TT depends on a large extent on the students’ previous education and
training”. Translators are expected to have good command of at least two languages.
Discussing the qualifications of a potential translator, Nida (1981: 401) expresses agreement with TT specialists, pointing out that, “it is extremely difficult to test in advance what a person’s potential as a translator may be”, despite the various tests available.

However it is possible to predict with great accuracy what a trainee’s future success is likely to be on the basis of a few week’s participation in a training programme.

Although many writers have discussed TT and the prerequisites of good translators, the proposed terms such as “talent”, “intelligence”, and “creative imagination” are too vague to form a clear description of how they can be acquired.

Keiser (1987:13) criticizes “quite a number of schools pretending to train interpreters where there is not one conference interpreter among the faculty, and where most if not all teachers have never been in an international conference let alone seen as interpreters at work;.. In addition to their vocational skills, experienced translators should show proof of a definite skill for teaching, and translation teachers should be a professional translator.

Wilss (1982:183) lists four qualifications that required to be in the translation teacher:

1. a compressive transfer competence;
2. an awareness in TT problems;
3. an interest in TT problems;
4. the ability to adopt learning theories to the field of tests for controlling the translational learning progress.

2.18 The importance of Teaching Translation

Translation is an activity comprising the interpretation of the meaning of a text in one language – the source text – and the production of a new equivalent text in another language – called the target text, or the translation.

According to Bates (1943:7), he indicates, “Nothing moves without translation… No change in thought or in technology spreads without the help of translation”. In other words, it is translation that helps people in the world of the exchange and knowledge not lingua franca nor globalization itself. It is high time that translators who deal with the pair (English/Arabic) should aim for good quality and acceptable adequacy when they are performing the global act of translation.
Steiner (1975) cf Newmark (1986:10) emphasizes the importance of teaching translation as a key to the understanding of thought, meaning, language, communication and comparative linguistics.

Translation plays a crucial role in the development of world culture, and no study of comparative literature is possible without regard to translation.

To emphasize the importance of translation, Lefevere (1990:12) states that:

*Translation introduces, innovations into a literature. It is the main medium through which one literature influences another. It can tell us about the self-image of a culture at a given time, and the changes that self-image undergoes.*

Translation could be extremely beneficial to improve the linguistic proficiency. This view is supported by Schaffner (202: 125) who lists the following benefits:

a. Improves verbal agility
b. Expands the student’s vocabulary in the second language.
c. Develops their style.
d. Improves their understanding of how language works
e. Consolidates L₂ structures for active use
f. Monitors and improves the comprehension of L₂

Therefore, it is essential to train students for translation, and to develop their competence of communication. So through translation, people in different parts of the world with different language can recognize what is going on around them.

**2.19 Factors Influencing the Quality of Translation**

The quality of translation depends on a number of factors, some of which, as Philip (1960:290) says, may be beyond the researcher’s control. In those cases were the researcher and the translator are the same person the quality of translation is influenced by factors such as: the autobiography of the research-translator; the researcher’s knowledge of the language and the culture of people under study (Vuliamy, 1990: 166); and the researcher’s fluency in the language of the write-up.

When the researcher and translator are not the same person, the quality of translation is influenced mainly by three factors: the “competence”, the “autobiography” and the “material circumstances” of the translator that is the position the translator holds in relation to the researcher.
2.20 Importance of Collocation in Translation

The importance of translation does not only stem from the bulk of the material that is being translated during a period of time but also it froms the whole bulk of English idiomatic collocation throughout the Arabic equivalent. Collocation represent one of the crucial dimensions in vocabulary learning. According to Smith and Wilson (1979: 71) the importance of the knowledge of collocations resides in the fact that it is necessary to avoid producing constructions like “my foot has a headache”. Williams also highlights the importance of collocations in language learning saying that, they are essential to develop fluency.

No British collocations are easy to translate, but the essence of a collocation is perhaps that at least one of the collocates moves from its primary to a secondary sense. Therefore, for standardized term literal translations are usually not possible. English collocation is the most important contextual factor usually affects translation, it consists of lexical items that enter mainly into high frequency grammatical structures, but the English collocation are difficult to translate succinctly in an acceptable term. For this reason, collocation is considered as the major trouble spots’ for translator.

It is worth mentioning that the learners who learn in chunks need less time and effort to use language than these who memorize words in isolation. This is due to the fact that, chunks are recalled as ready-made constructions the thing which facilitates language production: ‘chunk’ is used to refer to word-combination.

Steps to translate the English collocations:
1. to consider the most acceptable collocation of any word,
2. to sue the appropriate ways of connecting collocations by using the types of collocation mentioned above.
3. to render them into unusual but permissible collocations meaning derives not only from the relationship of a word to the external feature, it denotes but from the way it combines with other words with in the sentence;
4. The need to record collocations as discrete lexical items and not to try to learn vocabulary word by word. This can be done from the very start of their language learning when they meet such collocations as: a loaf of bread, a packet of cigarettes, a bar of soap, a pair of socks. Authentic text are more likely to contain useful
collocations than specially constructed texts, so training is needed on how to spot a collocation or a cluster and to determine its boundaries.

There is a clear implication for translation, teachers must draw learners attention to collocations and ask them to translate collocation into their own language as single units, particularly non-congruent collocation and collocation in which delexicalized verbs constitute parts of word combinations, such as regular exercise, set a table, make an appointment. This will help learners become more aware, an impossible activity in some lexical areas in which a lot of words have very little precise meaning unless they are taken with in the whole combination context or co-text.

Attention should be paid to strategies and techniques used or adopted at different levels. To make it clear, the priority or need of elementary level, for example differ from that of intermediate or above levels. In this regard, the priority at elementary level is to increase the number of individual works, where as intermediate level learners need to increase their collocational competence with half-known words and to add more new words with their common collocates.

Teachers need to direct their learners to search outside their classroom. This direction should be towards concentrated sources of language information.

2.21 General Translation Problem

According to Ala Duff (1989: 56) difficulties and problems raise from translation process fell into four categories:

1. Pragmatic translation problems: pragmatic translation problems are these arising from the particular transfer situation with its specific contrast of source language “VS”, target language recipients, source language medium.

2. cultural translation problems: it is a result of the differences in the culture specific (verbal)habits, expectations, norms, and conventions verbal and other behaviors.

3. Linguistic translation problems: the structural differences between two languages in texts sentence, structure and supra-segmental features give rise to certain translation problems.

4. Text-specific translation problems: Any problems arising and not classified as the previous one is classified as text-specific translation problem.
Translation problems can be divided into “linguistic problems” and “cultural problems”, the linguistic problems include grammatical differences, lexical ambiguity, and meaning ambiguity; the cultural problems refer to different situational features.

This classification coincides with that of Elzeini (1994) who identifies six main problems in translating from English to Arabic and vice versa; these are lexicon, morphology, syntax, textual differences, rhetorical differences and pragmatic factors.

2.22 Problems of Translating English Collocations

The problem for the learner of English is that there are no collocation rules that can be learned. The native English speaker intuitively makes the correct collocation based on life time’s experience of hearing and reading the words in set combination. The non-native speaker has more limited experience and many frequently collocates words in away that sounds odd to the native speaker.

English learners make collocation errors when they try to paraphrase chunk of words using their own words Liu(204) suggests that. isolation and de-contextualized presentation of collocations might make incorrect language input, with which learners make false assumptions and try too much on translation of equivalents.

To sum up, translation students encounter several problems in translating collocations, these problems are due to:

2.22.1 Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

EFL learners ignore the rules of restriction of the existing structure of collocations. Richard (2008) states that they are the results of analogy and failure to observe the restriction of existing structure collocations that are not taught in the classroom and therefore learners pay no attention to learn their structure. Aghbatas cited in Darvishi (1980) relates the source of collocation errors to the fact that language is not acquired in chunks which make discourse fluent and idiomatic.

Unfamiliarity with the structure of particular idioms and fixed expressions is a major factor for incorrect usage of collocations. Machali (1998) reveals some restrictions that obstruct the translation of idioms and collocations.

For example, the negative form for certain verbs can be different and unacceptable in English rather than the target language; idiom, can not be changed such as “bury a hatchet” and “a storm in a tea cup” can not be change into “ a storm in the tea cup”
2.22.2 Negative Transfer

Most of the sources of errors in collocations are due to the negative transfer, for example, in Arabic they use the adjective “heavy with coffee” where as in English the natural collocation is “strong” coffee. Bahns (1993) points out that the learners first language influence their production on collocation and this is a common source of errors. The mistakes that are made in collocations with de-lexicalized verbs, for example “get, have, make, do, put, take”. Probably due to L1 interference, for instance, take an exam, look up a word in a dictionary, or get through some body by trying to phone him or her are set of combinations that non-native speakers collocate in away that differ from the natural.

Examples of negative transfer

Keep smile: wear smile.
I began learn: I began to learn.
Decided travel: decided to travel

2.22.3 Approximation

There are so many possible collocations and the choice of which word to collocate with which is arbitrary, so students need to record, revise and practice the collocation they have learnt or to add new ones so as not to be confused with those which have common features. Liuas (2008:76) expresses that approximation mean that learners use an incorrect vocabulary item or structure, which share enough semantic features in common with the desired items to satisfy the speaker.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner collocation</th>
<th>Target collocation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The teacher punished us very seriously</td>
<td>The teacher punished us very severely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrance university</td>
<td>Enter university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed our secrets</td>
<td>Exchanged our secrets</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.22.4 Overgeneralization

One of the main causes of collocation errors is overgeneralization. EFL learners use deviant structures in the native language to replace other structures in the target language. Ritchard as cf Darvishi (1980) explains that overgeneralization generally involves the creation of a deviant structure on the basis of the experience of other structures in target language in place of two regular structures.
Learner collocation | Target language
---|---
We are used to play tennis on Friday | We are used to playing tennis on Friday
I asked them wrote the composition | I asked them write the composition
Did she has a car? | Did she have a car?
She was very interesting in reading | She was very interested in reading

2.22.5 The Use of Synonym

EEL learners sometimes misuse synonyms for lexical collocation by replacing one lexical item with another which changes the meaning of a sentence for example, *my battery is low* instead of *my battery is down*. *Decrease the rate of crime*, for *lower the rate of crime*. These errors result from the misuse of synonyms are related to the absence of the lexical items. Farghal and Obidatas cf Darnishi (1980:53) see that the use of synonym for lexical collocation as “straightforward application of an open choice principle” (i.e. students use synonyms to replace targeted English collocation whenever they do not find the correspondent collocations which are sometimes wrongly applied because they are not true synonyms. McCarthy (2000) points out that not all the words that seem frequently interchangeable are true synonyms and always mean the same, and can always replace one another although they appear very close in meaning.

2.22.6 False Concepts Hypothesis

The false concepts resulted from learners’ false designation in the target language. Richards cited in Darvishi (1980L:59) points out that, learners may use words like, teach for learn, bring for give, go for come, buy for sell, get for have and do for make. Some students may think that words such as do, make and take can replace another verb freely. So the participants make errors such as:

- Do a mistake
- Make the pupils go home
- Take a decision

All in all, that, the leaner doesn’t know in which situation it is correct to use collocation and does not know if collocation is natural or appropriate in a certain situation.

There are especial kind of collocation, called idiomatic collocation. For example:

- “spill the beans”
- “kick the bucket”
“fly off the handle”
“Red herring”

These do not only have the collocation of kick and the bucket, but also the fact that the meaning of the of result combination is opaque and it is not related to the meaning of the individual words, but sometimes it is nearer to the meaning of a single word. In English when it is difficult to know which words will go with which because there are no clear rules.

2.23 Solutions for Translation collocation

The following is a summary of the suggested possible solutions for the translation of English collocation into Arabic:

1. Tracing the identical collocation in Arabic, when available. Usually most English collocations have equivalent in Arabic.
2. In case that an identical collocation is not found in Arabic, a close collocation can be suggested, for example: “straying sheep” is (غنم قاصية), but when students cannot get it, they can suggest a close alternative like(انطلق كالضيأ).
3. a direct meaning should be translated into an indirect meaning, and direct meaning into an indirect meaning in Arabic (specially the collocations of similes). For example, it is not advisable to translate “as swift as an arrow” to direct meaning as: (طز٣غ جذاً) but into an indirect meaning as (في سرعة البرق،)
4. if the English collocation is formal; the Arabic equivalent should also be formal “as the collocations of current text”, it is not advisable at all to translate it into a colloquial Arabic collocations.
5. when unable to find a better solution, and as the last resort, students may go to a blind direct translation. However, it is the poorest translation. It can also be quite risky because it may result in a wrong, funny Arabic version. For example “assay bank” is (ث٘ي أُؼِٞٓبد), but if it is translated into (ث٘ي أُوبُخ) it will sound strange and funny.

Collocation is an element of the lexical system of equivalent translation, which indicates the co-occurrence of lexical items as in “pay attention – make speech – run a meeting”. Also one can say a pretty girl but not usually “a pretty boy” the appropriate equivalent for collocation is not all time accessible. So this creates a special difficulty in
translation, nevertheless some collocation nowadays become common worldwide as in the following:

Cats new
Pigeon coo
Tell a lie

Collocation un translatability, it is impossible to find an equivalent collocation in the target language. According to Newmark (1980), there are three ways of dealing with collocation in the concern.

1. To find almost a literal equivalent if it exists.
2. To find an acceptable equivalent in the target language which renders the same meaning in spite of difference in the collocations.
3. To paraphrase the source language expression in the target language:
   spill the beans  يفشي السر
   snakes bizz  فحيح الأفاعي
   bee buss  طنين النحل

In fact any possible target language near-equivalent of a given source language lexical items has a low probability to collocate normally with the given source language items when a collocation in the target language is the same or almost the same in the source language sometimes literal translation is acceptable.

2.24 Teaching Collocations

In Sudanese EFL context vocabulary is traditionally taught. In fact, as Lewis (2000), points out much time is spent in classroom explaining what things (words) mean. Ignoring a large set of item that express as complex idea very simply and accurately. Many students with even good vocabularies are not making any perceived progress rather learner are so frustrated when trying either to express their ideas or to translate texts.


Hill(2000), asserts that, when teaching collocation, teachers need to pay close attention to pronunciation, intonation, stress and grammatical structures when teaching collocations.

In addition, Hill highlights three points on teaching collocations. These are:
1. Familiarizing the learners with the role of noticing collocations in language learning. William, also advocates the importance of noticing collocations saying that the main role of the teacher is to help the learners to notice adequate amount of collocations.

2. Hill also recommends that direct teaching of collocations which implies teaching contextualized collocations directly taking into account the importance of sowing the situations in which these collocations can be used.

3. Hill points out that it is necessary for the learners to have notebooks specifically organized for recording collocations. Away to organize these note books, it is to record collocation which belong to the same group in a particular place.

These groups can be determined according to different bases such as the similarity in the grammatical pattern, the existence of the same node, and the relevance to a particular topic.

Vocabulary instruction in general, and certainly the instruction of collocation, is not much emphasized. However, there are some general principles for teaching collocation:

1. teach students the term “collocation” and the rationale for learning it. Once they know the rationale behind instruction, they become more motivated to learn.

2. Notice which words go together when giving out a new reading. Call students’ attention to key words and the words that “go” with them, and to underline collocations. On any given page, for example, there is likely to be numerous collocates, spend sometime practicing and interacting with these collocations with each reading.

3. focus on “salient language”, language students may use a lot or that is related to the curriculum: for example, the phrase “on the other hand” is used a lot in academic language, and students often make mistakes init “in the other hand”, “on the other hands” etc. Explicitly teaching the phrase and practicing is a vestment of course time.

4. Contrast two words: (make do), list their collocates.

5. Extend it: have students make a list of things they need to accomplish that work, using “make” and “do”. This establishes some of the differences between the words “which are largely collocational).
6. Matching exercises/completion exercises: have students complete a sentence with the correct collocation or match words to their collocate: do homework, give a presentation.

7. Surveys: have students survey their classmates about their activities, including verbs and their collocation for example.

8. Have students practice the phrases you’ve targeted—once students are explicitly taught “in contrast to” and “on the other hand”, for example, have them practice these collocations in journal and essay assignments.

9. Write a sketch/dialogue. Put some collocates on the board learned from reading over the last week:- for example “regular exercise”, “healthy diet”, “small portion size” and have students create a dialogue in pairs and practice it.

10. Write poetic derisions of beloved person or place with adjective + noun combinations or adverb + adjective combinations. Again, students should be given some of the language for the task on the board or in a hand out: “dear friend; “passionately embrace”, “fond fare well” etc.

2.24.1 Consideration of Teaching collocation

In fact, the knowledge of collocations should be highly considered when teaching language. So, this section is concerned with some of the recommended techniques for teaching English collocations.

- Make student aware of collocations, students need to know that learning collocation is crucial for learning English and noticing collocations are important state in learning
- Teaching individual collocations and restoring collocation students need to have an organized vocabulary journal of record collocation.

2.24.2 Activities to Practices Collocations

Gairns and Redman(1986: 39), present many types of activities:

- Learners of different levels can be given gapped sentences to fill in with the correct collocation. For example:
  - Omer…….. many crimes
    a. committed  b. made  c. did  d. created
  - We can produce……..energy in Sudan
    a. land  b. solarc. unclear  d. thermal
- Learners can be given a text or some sentences that include collocational errors and are asked to correct them by using collocation dictionaries.
- Intermediate and high-level students can try to find synonyms which can collocate with certain words.
- Learners can be given many lexical combinations, then the teacher asks students to decide whether the lexical combinations are real collocations or not. For example:
  - Make a mistake
  - Tell a prayer

Lewis (1993), argues that, collocations provide a more practical and less general approach to language teaching syllabus design than grammar, because grammar provides only the most general rules of the language.

Jimmie Hill (2000), illustrates that, the failure of grammar teaching and how using collocations better addresses learning needs.

Notably, when teaching collocation teachers, need to make sure that their students know which word goes with which other word. That necessitates teaching collocation, also teachers must focus on reading and listening skills which help learners notice collocation, on the other hand teaching collocation in isolation as well leads learners to make sense successful learning that will probably take place, it is possible that collocation is the quickest path to acquire the element of learning a word.

2.25 Previous Studies

The researcher has surveyed a number of university libraries. Unluckily the researcher could not find empirical studies that handle the problem caused by “problems Facing EFL learners at Postgraduate Level on translating English Collocational expressions with Special Focus on Idiomatic Collocation”. Nevertheless, the topic is lightly touched by Mohamed Uonis (2009) in a PhD. Thesis entitled “Investigating the Difficulties in Dealing with Lexical Collocations that Face Sudanese University Learners of English at Tertiary Level”. The researcher’s sample consisted of “312” students at six Sudanese Universities. The study aimed to investigate the aspects of collocation teaching, the role they play in foreign language learning and how Sudanese EFL learners deal with them. Also finding out to what extent the Sudanese EFL learners experience collocational difficulties. Only one instrument was used to collect the data, a collocation test of (42) items. It includes two
parts, multiple choice and ticking/crossing questions. From the results, it was demonstrated that there is deficiency in the subjects’, collocation knowledge with an overall mean of scores = (19.08) compared with the test-value = (210). Remarkable significant differences in the subjects’ performance in the four collocation pattern do exist.

Where as the verb + noun collocation pattern was found to be the easiest one, adverb + adjective was the most difficult collocation pattern, the mean rank of (3.04) for verb + noun compared with (2.33) for verb + adjective. So this means that EFL learners find some difficulties in dealing with lexical collocations. Moreover, some influential factors, including inadequacy of the subjects’ knowledge of appropriate word combination, as well as negative interlingual transfer and synformic similarity, do affect the subjects use of collocation. On the basis of the findings arrived at in the present study, the main important recommendations are:

1. Though other multi-word expressions, such as idioms and phrasal verbs are too important aspects for learners, collocation competence in particular enables EFL learners to read more intensively, understand more quickly and speak more fluently. Therefore, collocation should have top priority in every language course being taught.

2. Although there is no general consensus on a specific term to define collocation to the extent that there is a confusion or overlapping between the three most important areas of lexis (idioms, phrasal verbs and collocation), the real issue for the syllabus designers and the methodologists is to try to help teachers to make simple categories know correct order and organization in the lexicon.

3. Language courses of different kinds should be integrated with each other for the sake of building learners vocabulary repertoire. For example, reading and writing activities can be integrated, since most articles and text that adopted for reading are grouped thematically around a particular content area. When they are read, the contents of these articles and texts can be reflected in writing tasks as a response to reading activities. Therefore, it is through this integrated approach that collocations of different types will be reinforced. What follows is that reading comprehension texts should be chosen with their collocational content in mind.

Another study by Mona Elsayed (2007) an MA Thesis “English Collocations as Problematic Area for the Student at Secondary Level”
The researcher aims to measure the students ability in producing English collocation formed according to the most common patterns. The most important findings are the majority of the student memorize words in isolation. This learning strategy hinders learning collocations and also most of the students collocational error’s 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 collocations.

The researcher recommends that the teachers should familiarize the students with the importance of noticing English collocation in learning English and they should adopt the direct teaching of contextualized English collocations and heir Arabic equivalent.

Moreover, Phoocharoensil (2013), who writes on “Investigated the Influence of Learners’ Mother Tongue on the acquisition of English Collocations.” Shows that, "The linguistic data have been drawn from two groups of that EFL learners with different proficiency level. The learners depend on their L1 in learning collocations which leads them to face problems in their target language (TL) like preposition omission, preposition insertion, non-target like word choice and collocation redundancy. The study revels that high proficiency learners rely heavily upon their L1 in using English collocations.

Chen (2002) conducts a study by using high school students as participants to investigate their collocation errors in writing.

The findings revealed that a total of (272) are collocation errors and (125) are lexical collocation errors in the subjects writing. it was also found that adjective-noun, and verb-noun were the most frequent lexical collocation errors types. Preposition + noun and verb collocations were the most frequent types of grammatical collocation errors. Other common lexical collocation errors types in descending order were (v + adj.), (n + v) and (adv- adj.). The least frequent types were (n + to infinitive), ( n + that clause) and (adj + that clause). In addition more grammatical collocation errors than lexical ones were found, and more collocation errors were found in the low achievers writings.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the procedures followed in carrying out the study. It provides a description of the sample, tools for data collection and data analysis. More over this chapter includes calculation of reliability and validity of the test and the questionnaire.

3.1 The Sample

The sample of the study is composed of two groups, the first group consists of 25 lecturers of English language at Faculties of Education, ElHasaheisa and Hantoub, University of Gezira, Islamic Institute of Translation, University of Sudan, Faculty of Language and University of Bahri, Faculty of Education. The second group consists of one hundred (100) postgraduate students at Faculties of education ElHasaheisa and Hantoub University of Gezira, Islamic Institute of Translation, University of Sudan, Faculty of Language and University of Bahri Faculty of Education.

3.2 Tools of Collecting Data

The researcher uses the descriptive and analytical method to conduct the study. Two tools of data collection are employed. The first one is questionnaire for EFL University lecturers, while the second one is a diagnostic test for EFL postgraduate students.

3.2.1 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is designed to find out the lecturers points of view about the problems facing students on translating English collocational expressions. It contains fifteen statements, where the subjects are requested to select the answers that express their opinions.

3.2.2 The Content of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of fifteen statements. The aim of the questionnaire is to investigate the lecturers own points of view about the problems facing postgraduate students on translating collocational expressions. The purpose of the study in questions. It was distributed to (25) lecturer's of English who are of different experience in teaching English. In the statements the scale “agree”, “to some extent” or “disagree”.
The first statement aims to show many students studying translation have problems in translating English collectional expression. While the second one aims to find out that most students studying translation are unable to distinguish between types of English grammatical collocation. The third one aims to check whether lexical collocation errors are attributed to literal translation. The fourth statement aims to find out to what extent mother tongue interference of affects students performance in translating English collocational expressions. The fifth statement aims to reveal that a number of students memorizing words in isolation makes learning English collocations difficult. Where as statement sixth goals was to check if that errors made by students in collocation are due to overgeneralization. The seventh statement is designed to ensure that Sudanese teachers of English at advanced levels do not always raise learners awareness of collocations. The eighth statement aims to find out whether Sudanese course books contains almost no activities on collocation. The ninth statement aims to show the lack of cultural awareness causes difficulties in translating Idiomatic collocation. The tenth statement aims to reveal that contextualized collocations and their equivalents in Arabic reduces the errors of $L_1$ interference. The eleventh statement aims to show drawing students attention to the appropriate use of English Collocations is important when teaching collocations. The twelfth statement aims to check on the best way to teach collocations is to group them beginning for example with noun as in day: “a hot day”, “holiday”, “a sunny day”. The thirteenth statement aims to show that it is important for students to recycle the collocations taught. The fourteenth statement is designed to ensure that facing on English collocation reduces the collocational errors caused overgeneralization of used words. The last statement aims to show it is important to make students aware of the role collections play in learning English.

3.2.3 Validity of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire will valid if it can measure what it is designed to measure. Face validity has been used to validate the statements of this questionnaire. This has been carried out by five lecturers in linguistics and translation at the Faculties of Education, University of Gezira and one lecturer in translation at Islamic Institute of Translation. The researcher of the present study distributed copies of the questionnaire among these experts who have judged the questionnaire, and made the necessary modification.
3.2.4 Reliability of The Questionnaire

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a questionnaire gives consistent results. Polit and Hungler (1999:37) define reliability as the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure. Berg (1989: 83) explains that, the use consistent and systematic line of questions for even unanticipated areas is particular important for reliability and for possible replication of a study.

The researcher used to quoto sampling method to find the reliability of the questionnaire. The results obtained by the formula of spearmint, as follows:

\[ R = 1 - \frac{6\Sigma D^2}{N(N^2-1)} \]

\( R = \text{reliability} \)
\( \Sigma = \text{summation} \)
\( D = \text{rank difference} \)
\( N = \text{number of respondents} \)
\( R = 1 - \frac{6 \times 64}{25(25^2-1)} = 1 - 0,025 = 0,98 \)

Spearmen Formula

\[ \frac{2 \times \text{Co-efficient of } R}{1\times \text{Co-efficient of } R} \]
\[ R = \frac{2 \times 0.98}{1 \times 0.98} = \frac{1.96}{1.98} = 0.99 \]

As shown above the result obtained has been (0.99) which proves that the questionnaire is very reliable.

3.3 The Test

The diagnostic test is designed to find out students awareness of the translating English Collocation expression. The test aims to collect reliable data to serve the study.

3.3.1 The Content of the Test

The test aims to measuring the students ability to produce and translate English collocational expression. Thus it contains two sections, each of them contains ten sentences. The fist section constructed of multiple choice questions in which the testees are asked to supply the correct answer from four options. It is intended to measure the students
ability to chose the suitable and correct English collocation. The second section contains many types of English collocation expression to investigate EFL students ability to translate English collocation to Arabic one.

3.3.2 The Validity of the Test

Validity is an essential characteristic of a good test. Richard, J. Et al (1999: 93) define validity as “A test is said to be valid when it measures what is supposed to be measure”.

Face valid it was checked by representing the test to five lecturers in linguistics and translation at faculties of Education, University of Gezira and one lecturer in translation at Islamic Institute of Translation. All the lecturers agree that the test is valid.

3.3.3 The Reliability of the Test

Richard, J et al (1999:34) define reliability as “a measure of the degree to which a test gives consistent results”. It is concerned with the result of the test itself, Lodo (1997: 330) explains “reliability has to do with the stability of the scores for the same individual”. This statement indicates that if the scores of he students are stable, the test is reliable, if the scores tend to fluc tuate for no apparent reasons, the test is unreliable. Students are given a diagnostic test to investigate their performance in translating English collocation expression. It was their divided into two halves to get two scores for each students. The SPS program was used to calculate this correlation. The reliability obtained was (0.99) which indicated that the test is very reliable.

3.4 Tools of data Analysis

The data obtained from test and the questionnaire have been analyzed by using calculating statistical procedures. The programme which was used for data analysis was (SPSS) which refers to statistical package of social Sciences. The data collected were analyzed by computering percentage and tables were used to summarize and display the data.

In chapter four, the collected data will be presented, analyzed and discussed in detail.
CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the obtained data. The researcher will present the results of the data which have been collected from the student’s test and lecturers’ questionnaire. The results are presented in tables and graphs. In addition to that, the obtained results will be discussed in relation to the hypotheses of the study to show whether they support these hypotheses negatively or positively.

4.1 Results of the Questionnaire

The subjects who participated in the questionnaire were twenty-five lecturers who experienced in translation and linguistic. They read, checked and selected the appropriate options freely. The table and graphs in the following pages present frequency and percentage distribution according to the statements of the questionnaire. Each table and graph will be dealt with separately.
Table 4.1.1 Problems in translating English collocational expressions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.1 Problems in translating English collocational expressions.

Both table (4.1.1) and figure (4.1.1) indicate that the majority of the lecturers (80%) “agree”, (20%) agree “to some extent” that many students studying translation have problems in translating English collocational expressions and none of them “disagree” with the statement.
Table 4.1.2 Inability to distinguish between types of English grammatical collocations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.2 Inability to distinguish between types of English grammatical collocations

The result shows that about (72%) of respondent “agree”, (20%) agree “to some extent” that a great number of students studying translation are unable to distinguish between types of English grammatical Collocation, while two lecturers (8%) “disagree” with this statement.
Table 4.1.3 Lexical collocation errors are attributed to literal translation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.3 Lexical collocation errors are attributed to literal translation

According to the above table and figure, a considerable number of the lecturers (88%) “agree” that lexical collocation errors are attributed to literal translation and (12%) of the lecturers agree “to some extent” while none of the lecturers “disagree” with this statement.
Table 4.4.4 Interference of mother tongue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both table (4.1.4) and figure (4.1.4) indicate that the majority of the lecturers (84%) “agree” and (12%) agree “to some extent” that mother tongue interference is one of the main factors that affect translation of English collocation expression, while one lecturer (4%) “disagree” with this statement.
Table 4.1.5 Memorizing words in isolation makes learning English Collocations difficult

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.5 Memorizing words in isolation makes learning English Collocations difficult

As it is observed from the above table and figure most of the lecturers (92%) “agree” that memorizing words in isolation makes learning English collocation difficult and (8%) agree “to some extent” while none of the lecturers disagree with this statement.
Table 4.1.6 the collocational errors caused by overgeneralization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.6 the collocational errors caused by overgeneralization

(68%) of the respondents “agree” with the idea that collocational errors caused by overgeneralization, and (28%) agree “to some extent”, while one lecturer (4%) “disagree” with this statement.
Table 4.1.7 Sudanese teachers of English at advanced levels do not always raise learners’ awareness of Collocations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

64% of the respondents agree that Sudanese teachers of English at advanced levels do not always raised learners awareness of Collocations, and (32%) agree “to some extent” while only one (4%) disagree with this statement.
Table 4.1.8 Sudanese Course books contain almost no activities on collocations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1.8 and figure 4.1.8 show that (60%) of the lecturers “agree” that Sudanese course books contain almost no activities on collocation, also (32%) of them agree “to some extent” while only (8%) disagree with this statement.
Table 4.1.9 Lack of cultural awareness cause difficulties in translating idiomatic Collocation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.9 Lack of cultural awareness cause difficulties in translating idiomatic Collocation

As it is observed from the above table and figure most of the lecturers (92%) “agree” that lack of cultural awareness cause difficulties in translating idiomatic collocation and (8%) agree “to some extent” while none lecturer “disagree” with this statement.
Table 4.1.10 Contextualized Collocations and their equivalents in Arabic reduces the errors of L₁ interference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.10 Contextualized Collocations and their equivalents in Arabic reduces the errors of L₁ interference

Table and figure 4.1.10 show that (72%) of the lecturers “agree” that contextualized collocations and their equivalents in Arabic reduces the errors of L₁ interference, and (20%) agree “to some extent” while only two lecturers (8%) disagree with this statement.
Table 4.1.11 The Importance of drawing the students’ attention to the appropriate use of English Collocations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With reference to this result (64%) of the lecturers agree that the importance of drawing the students’ attention to the appropriate use of English collocation and (36%) agree “to some extent” while none of the lecturers disagree with this statement.
Table 4.1.12 The best way to teach collocations in groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.12 The best way to teach collocations in groups

This table and figure reveal that most of the lecturers (80%) “agree”, (20%) of them choose agree “to some extent” and no one of the lecturers “disagree” with this idea which means that the best way to teach Collocations in groups.
Table 4.1.13 The importance of making the students recycle the Collocations taught

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.13 The importance of making the students recycle the Collocations taught

Table and figure 4.1.13 show that (60%) of the lecturers “agree” and (40%) agree “to some extent” that the importance of making the students recycle the collocations taught while none of the lecturer “disagree” with this statement.
Table 4.1.14 Focusing on English collocations reduces the collocational errors caused overgeneralization of used words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.14 Focusing on English collocations reduces the collocational errors caused overgeneralization of used words.

The result shows that (72%) of the respondents “agree” and (28%) agree “to some extent” that focusing on English collocation reduces the Collocational errors caused overgeneralization of used words while none of the lecturer disagree with this statement.
Table 4.1.15 The importance of making students aware of the role collocations play in learning English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1.15 The importance of making students aware of the role collocations play in learning English

This indicates that more than half of the sample (80%) of the lecturers “agree” that the importance of making students aware of the role collocations play in learning English, (20%) agree “to some extent” and none of the lecturers’ “disagree” with this statement.
4.2 The Test Results

The test was administered purposefully to investigate the problems facing students on translating English Collocational expressions with special focus on idiomatic collocations.

The following tables summarize the results obtained from the performance of the students in the test.

Table 4.2.1 Multiple choice questions in different types of collocation to select the right option

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students No</th>
<th>Question No Section A</th>
<th>Positive responses</th>
<th>Negative responses</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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<td>100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>3.4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>1.8</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
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<td>31%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>3.1</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>1.4</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>2.3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question (1)

Thirty-four students provided the correct responses and sixty-six students provided the incorrect responses. This result indicates that many students were unable to identify English Collocations.

Question (2)

Eighteen students gave correct answers to this question while eighty-two students gave incorrect answers. The latter number of the students are greater. This result shows that many students are weak in dealing with English collocations.
**Question (3)**

Thirty-nine students provided the correct responses and sixty-two students provided the incorrect responses. Most of the students were unable to identify English Collocations.

**Question (4)**

The correct responses to this question contained thirty-one of the tested sample, the incorrect responses contained a greater number than these sixty-nine students, then many students are weak in dealing with English Collocations.

**Question (5)**

Less than the half of the tested sample, eleven students were able to answer correctly. While more than the half of the tested sample, eighty-nine students were unable to answer correctly. This result proves that many students were weak in dealing with English collocations.

**Question (6)**

Thirty students gave correct-answer to this question while seventy students gave incorrect answer. This result shows that many students unable to identify English collocations.

**Question (7)**

The correct responses to this questions contained fourteen of the tested sample, the incorrect responses contained a greater number than these sixty-eight students, them many students are weak in dealing with English collocations.

**Question (8)**

Twenty third students provided the correct responses and seventy-seven students provided incorrect responses. Most of the students were unable to identify English collocations.

**Question (9)**

Less than the half of the tested sample, thirty-third were able to answer correctly. While more than the half of the tested sample, sixty-seven students were unable to answer correctly. This result proves that many students are weak in dealing with English Collocations.
While thirty-nine student of the tested sample were able to provide correct answers, more than this number of the students were unable to give correct answers sixty-one. This result shows that many students are weak in dealing with English Collocations.

Table 4.2.2 Sentences Translation in Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No of question</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Positive responses</th>
<th>Negative responses</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Section B</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>15.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show that a great number of the students (68.2%) are unable to translate English sentence into Arabic language where as (31.8%) of the students give correct answers.

4.3 Discussion of the Results in Relation to the Hypotheses

In this section, the results of the test and the questionnaire are discussed in relation to the hypotheses of the study.

4.3.1 The first hypothesis

“The majority of the students cannot produce English Collocations using the most common patterns”

The analysis of the questionnaire in table (4.1.1), (4.1.2), (4.1.3) and (4.1.5) show that the majority of the students cannot produce English collocations using the most common patterns, so positive responses reach (80%) “agree” in table (4.1.1), (72%) “agree” and (20%) agree “to some extent” in table (4.1.2), (88%) “agree” in table (4.1.3) and (92%) “agree” in table (4.1.5).

In addition to table (4.2.1), the rusts of test in the students’ answers in section one of the test, questions from (1-10) constructing correct English Collocations, as the results this hypothesis is proved.

4.3.2 The second hypothesis

“Many problems are encountered EFL learners at postgraduate level in translating English idiomatic collocations for example some of the students collocation errors stem from L1 interference”

The lecturers’ responses in table (4.1.4), (4.1.6), (4.1.7) (4.1.8) and (4.1.9) show that many problems are encountered EFL learners at postgraduate level in translating English
idiomatic collocations in which the lecturers’ positive responses reach (84%) “agree”, (68%) “agree” and (28%) agree “to some extent”, (64%) “agree” and (32%) agree “to some extent”, (660%) agree and (32%) agree “to some extent” and (925) agree in the above tables.

Moreover in table (4.22) the results clearly indicate that (68.2%) of the students are unable to translate English sentences to Arabic, so this hypothesis is verified.

4.3.3 The third hypothesis

“Effective teaching of English collocations contributes to the promotion of the learners’ performance”

Table (4.1.0), (4.1.11) and (4.1.13) prove that large number of the sample (72%) “agree” and (20%) agree “to some extent”, (64%) “agree” and (36%) agree “to some extent” and (60%) “agree”, (40%) agree “to some extent” that the effective teaching of English Collocations contributes to promotion of the learners’ performance. So this hypothesis is proved.

4.3.4 The fourth hypothesis

“A good technique for solving the problems of translating English idiomatic collocation is to include contrastive grammar and stylistics in the translation syllabi”

The analysis of the questionnaire prove that a large number of the sample (80%) “agree” and (20%) agree “to some extent” in table (4.1.12), (72%) “agree” in table (4.1.14) and (80%) “agree” in table (4.1.15). Hence this hypothesis is verified.

In the next chapter the conclusion, findings and recommendation will be covered.
CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction
This chapter presents the conclusion, findings, recommendations and suggestion of further study in the light of the discussion of the results in the previous chapter.

5.1 Conclusion
Translating Idiomatic collocations from one language into another is a challenging task, especially when the two language are from different families such as English and Arabic it is more challenging than translating other types of texts. Moreover the absence of a complete equivalence relation between the idiomatic collocation terms of English and Arabic can impede the process of collocation translation.

This study investigates the problems that facing post graduate students on translating idiomatic collocational expressions. In the first chapter, the problem of the study, objectives, questions, hypotheses and the methodology of the study are presented. In the second chapter the literature review related to the topic is presented. A comparative and descriptive method are adopted to conduct the study.

The data is collected through two tools, the first is a questionnaire given to (25) EFL lecturers of English in some universities in Sudan, and the second is a diagnostic test for one hundred (00) postgraduate students at Faculties of Education Elhasaheisa and Hantoub, University of Gezira, Islamic Institute of Translation, University of Sudan, Faculty of Language and University of Bahri- Faculty of Education. The researcher used (SPSS) Statistical Package for Social Sciences for data analysis. The collected data were analyzed, summarized and displayed in tables and graphs. Then the results discussed in relation to the hypotheses of the study in chapter four.

5.2 Findings
The results and findings of the study can be summarized in the following points:
1. Many students studying translation have problems in translating English Collocational expressions 80%
2. A great number of students studying translation are unable to distinguish between types of English grammatical collocation 72%.
3. The researcher found that interference of mother tongue is one of the main factors that affect student’s performance in translating Idiomatic collocational expression 84%.

4. The researcher found that lexical Collocation errors are attributed to literal translation 88%.

5. It is observed that a number of students memorize words in isolation which makes learning English collocations difficult 92%.

6. It is also noticed that errors made by students’ in Collocations are due to overgeneralization 68%.

7. The research found that Sudanese teachers of English at advanced levels do not always raise learners’ awareness of collocations (64% agree and 32% agree to some extent).

8. Most lecturers agreed that lack of cultural awareness causes difficulties in translating idiomatic Collocations 92%.

9. The researcher found that Sudanese course books contain almost no activities on collocation 60% agree and 32% agree to some extent.

10. Most lecturers agreed that contextualized collocations and their equivalents in Arabic reduces the errors of L1 interference 72%.

11. The researcher found that the best way to teach collocations in groups 80%.

12. It is observed that focusing on English collocation reduces the Collocational errors caused overgeneralization of used words 72%.

13. The researcher found that the importance of making students aware of the role collocations play in learning English 80%.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the researcher recommends the following:

1. Syllabus designers are recommended to provide a wider space for teaching English Collocations in general and idiomatic Collocations expression in particular at university level.

2. The lecturers should familiarize the students with the importance of focusing English collocations in learning English.
3. Lecturers at university specially those who teach translation course should use helpful techniques such as contextualization or using sentence to in crease learners understanding of English Collocations expression.

4. Lecturers of English at university level are recommended to focus on the English Collocations that cause difficulty in translation, by provide suitable exercise and remedial lesson when employing English collocations in translation.

5. Learners of English Language at University should be advised to study different aspect of English culture. So as to avoid confusion made by culture-bound words.

6. Dictionary of Collocational and idioms terms should be made a reliable at the library.

7. Idiomatic expressions should be translated as unit either by giving the exact equivalent if it exists or paraphrasing the meaning in the target language.

8. Language courses of different kinds should be integrated with each other for the sake of building learners vocabulary reparative. For example, reading and writing activities can be integrated, since most articles and texts adopted for reading are grouped thematically around a particular content area. When they are read, the contents of these articles and texts can be reflected in writing tasks as a response to reading activities. Therefore, it is through this integrated approach collocations of different types will be reinforced. It follows that reading comprehension texts should be chosen with their Collocational content in mind.

9. Lecturers must continually bring useful collocations to learners’ attention and help them to remember them, rather than trying to improve their grammar. Being more proactive in pointing out useful language and getting learner to record it is an essential role of the lecturer.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

The study covers the problems facing students on translating English idiomatic collocations. During the study researcher has come through different topics related to this issue. The following topics are suggested for further research in the area:

1. Interference of Arabic in using English collocational expressions

2. English lexical collocation errors as a problematic area facing EFL students in the process of translation.
3. The cultural difference between English and Arabic with special references to Collocational expression.

4. Use of effective methods and technique to improve the students’ performance in translating Collocation expressions.

5. The study deals with University students at post graduate level. To verify the results obtained in the study other subjects at different level (i.e. students at secondary schools) should be examined.
References


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Websites:

- Orliac and Dillinger( cf.http://langra.si.umich.edu/radeve/ papers/ handbook00 .pdf#search=15.collocations)
- أبي منصور الثعالبي (2009م). فقه اللغة وسر العربية - دار الفكر للطباعة ، القاهرة – مصر
Name:……………………

Section (A) Choose the most appropriate answer:

1. Ali……………many crimes
   a. committed b. made c. did d. created

2. We are going to……some test on your mother to see if the accident affect her brain.
   a. take care, b. add c. design d. conduct

3. We can produce………………energy in Sudan
   a. land b. solar c. nuclear d. thermal

4. When she’s tired, she really loves to drink………………tea.
   a. Hard b. strong c. heavy d. tough

5. Dawn…………at 5:00 o’clock
   a. Break b. raise c. starts

6. The children………a joke on their parents
   a. make b. trick c. play

7. She is living in a……………..family
   a. Small b. nuclear c. young

8. Some people have…………..hair
   a. Ginger b. red c. orange

9. Brain………………. Phenomenon has increased.
   a. Immigration b. movement c. drain

10. In computer text, data may be………………..
    a. Processed b. treated c. arranged
Section (B) Translate the following sentences into Arabic:

1. He looks blue
   ……………………………………………………………………

2. She is in the clouds.
   ……………………………………………………………………

3. It is raining
   ……………………………………………………………………

4. It’s a piece of cake
   ……………………………………………………………………

5. Rural dwellers live a very hard life.
   ……………………………………………………………………

6. He is still a green worker
   ……………………………………………………………………

7. Developed countries encourage the sun shine industries
   ……………………………………………………………………

8. Make the grade
   ……………………………………………………………………

9. He earns a fat salary
   ……………………………………………………………………

10. It is hard to learn about the hour of decision.
    ……………………………………………………………………
Dear Lecturers................

The researcher would be grateful if you could kindly respond to the following questionnaire which will help the researcher in collocating reliable data for a PhD thesis entitled (Problems Facing Students on Translating English Collocational Expressions with Special Focus on Idiomatic Collocation)

The researcher will appreciate your response to this questionnaire.

Please tick (√) the option which you think is appropriate.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>To some extent</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>1. Many students studying translation have problems in translating English collocational expressions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A great number of students studying translation are unable to distinguish between types of English grammatical Collocation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Lexical Collocation errors are attributed to literal translation.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mother tongue interference affects student’s performance in translating English Collocational expressions.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. A number of students memorizing words in isolation makes learning English Collocation difficult.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Errors made by students’ n Collocation are due to overgeneralization.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Sudanese teachers of English at advanced levels do not always raise learners’ awareness of Collocations</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>Sudanese course books contain almost no activities on Collocation</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Contextualized collocations and their equivalents in Arabic reduces the errors of L1 interference.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Drawing students attentions to the appropriate use of English Collocations is important when teaching Collocations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>The best way to teach collocations is to group them beginning for example with noun as in day: “a hot day, holiday, a sunny day”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>It is important for students to recycle the collocations taught.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Focusing on English collocation reduces the Collocational errors caused overgeneralization of used words.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>It is important to make students aware of the role collocations play in learning English.</td>
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